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PERCEPTIONS OF CEO LEADERSHIP STYLE AND PROFESSIONAL WORK
AUTONOMY OF SUBORDINATES
IN TAIWANESE INVESTMENT COMPANIES

A Dissertation

by

YUAN-HSU LIN

Presented to the School of Graduate Studies of the
University of the Incarnate Word
in Partial Fulfillment
of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

The University of the Incarnate Word

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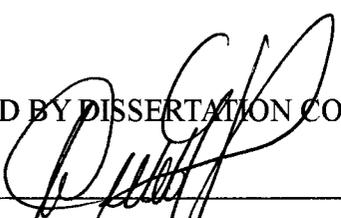
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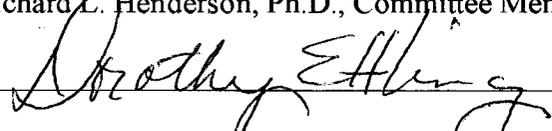
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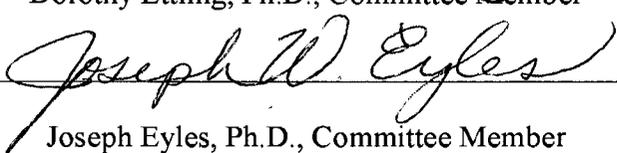
Absael Antelo, Ph.D., Chair of Committee



Richard L. Henderson, Ph.D., Committee Member



Dorothy Etting, Ph.D., Committee Member



Joseph Eyles, Ph.D., Committee Member



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Abstract

Perceptions of CEO Leadership Style and Professional Work Autonomy of Subordinates in Taiwanese Investment Companies

Yuan-Hsu Lin

Chair of Committee: Absael Antelo, Ph. D.

The foreign investment companies overwhelmingly penetrated Taiwanese investment market after Taiwan joined the World Trade Organization. However, foreign investment companies faced Taiwanese cultural differentiation and an unfamiliar market. Attracting and retaining professionals are critical issues for organizational efficacy in knowledge-intensive companies. Organizational efficacy is closely connected to appropriate application of leadership. Hence, the leaders of Taiwanese investment companies must recognize the significance of leadership to attract and retain professionals during this transition time.

This research investigated the relationship between the perceptions of CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of 356 subordinates in 37 Taiwanese investment companies. Various demographic factors were also examined for their relationships with the dependent variable of this research. Two survey instruments were used: the President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (PLBQ) and Work Autonomy Scales (WAS). Because the PLBQ was modified, a pilot test of 43 conveniently selected subjects was conducted to ensure it was clear to interviewees; Cronbach's alpha was used to verify reliability. To measure overall data quality, composite reliability, and convergent and discriminant validities were reported. Descriptive statistics: means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages, and inferential statistics: LISREL, one-way

ANOVAs, Scheffe tests, and *t*-test, with a significance level of 0.05 were included for data analyses.

Initiating structure behavior resulted in low work autonomy. High consideration and high initiating structure led to the highest empowerment in work autonomy, while low consideration and low initiating structure connected to the lowest empowerment. Gender, level of education, and marital status influenced work autonomy. Competitive pressure has caused more professional demand to replace consideration of age and tenure. Initiating structure behavior may accompany dissatisfaction, and hamper development of clan control. Stereotypes based on gender and marital status may lead to dissatisfaction as well. An ideal leader of a Taiwanese investment company could exert high initiating structure and high consideration behaviors to create organizational efficacy; empowering followers in a learning organization helps them achieve organizational goals in a dynamic environment for organizational development.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Context of the Research

Leadership and Autonomy

Leadership is the ability to influence groups or individuals toward the achievement of goals while the members are interacting and interdependent (Robbins, 2001). Owens (1991) said that leadership is the interpersonal patterns of finding followers' potential needs and gratifying those needs so that the goals of the organization can be reached by influencing these followers. Hackman and Johnson (2000) explained "leadership is human communication which modifies the attitudes and behaviors of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs" (p. 36). Nahavandi (2003, p. 4) observed that all definitions of leadership include: (a) leaders exert interaction and interdependence to influence followers; therefore, leaders and followers coexist; (b) leaders use influence and competence to guide followers toward organizational goals; and (c) the appearance of leadership causes organizational hierarchy, which is formal and well defined or informal and flexible.

In short, leadership is the process of examining where the work group is currently and predicting where it has to be in the future, and forming effective strategies for organizational goals (Paglis & Green, 2002). Hence, a leader is the person who influences individuals or groups, helps them establish goals, and guides them toward those goals through interdependence such as communications, work design, and so forth.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) believed that autonomy is the extent to which the job provides appropriate freedom, substantial discretion, and high independence to people who must process the work and determine procedures. Friedman (1999) classified the

autonomy into high autonomy and low autonomy; followers with high autonomy can work on their ways, activate new objectives, and change work procedures to adapt to a changing circumstance (innovation and flexibility), while followers with low autonomy can only make decisions independently according to a standard and procedure (innovation). Hackman and Oldham (1980) said that autonomy is related to satisfaction for those people who are responsible for results. That is, the connection between autonomy and satisfaction is moderated by the strength of the individual's need for innovation and flexibility.

Importance of innovation and flexibility. A dynamic environment requires a more innovative and flexible approach (Robbins, 2001). Kanter (1988) concluded that *innovation* (a new idea applied to initiating or improving a product, process, or service) and *flexibility* (the ability to pick and choose among a menu of benefit options) are more specialized in a changing environment. Innovation and flexibility are implied in work autonomy (Friedman, 1999) and reflect organizational adaptability.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) stated that more autonomy could create high satisfaction in jobs for subordinates. Productivity increases, and absenteeism and turnover decrease with the rise in subordinate satisfaction (Hackett & Guion, 1985; Locke, 1976; McShane, 1984; Ostroff, 1992; Ryan, Schmit & Johnson, 1996; Smith, 1977). Leaders can help subordinates adapt to a dynamic environment with innovation and flexibility. Hence, the significance of innovation and flexibility can be imagined.

Effective leadership. Effective leadership can improve group performance (Fiedler, 1967). Luthans (1989) said that effective leaders not only lead organizations toward their goals but also satisfy followers by communicating with them, taking up conflicts for them,

and training, developing and motivating them. Mieszkowski (1998) said that effective leadership is the behavior that helps organizational members communicate, innovate, and collaborate. Salter (2000) defined an effective leader as one who helps groups and is self-sufficient. As the Ohio State studies defined it, leadership is providing consideration for followers' feelings and initiating structure in search for goal attainment. Nahavandi (2003) concluded leadership effectiveness with three elements: goal achievement, smooth internal processes, and external adaptability.

Organizations are forced to be more innovative and flexible in a complex and rapidly changing environment (Robbins, 2001); this situation reflects the importance of adaptability. In other words, leadership runs effectively by helping followers adapt to a dynamic environment with innovation and flexibility, creating high satisfaction through autonomy so that organizational goals can be achieved.

Leadership and Professional Autonomy in Taiwanese Investment Companies

As recently as 10 years ago, the Taiwanese capital market experienced a radical change and renewed financial aggression toward the Asia-Pacific Financial Center (Shieh, 2003). Those changes included releasing the limitations of foreign institutional investors in the Taiwanese stock market; opening derivative financial goods such as stock index futures, foreign currencies futures, and options. Such a rapid change leads finance-related organizations including investment companies to more complexities and competition.

Chen (2001), the chairman of Council for Economic Planning and Development in Taiwan, said that professionals are more requested in industries that use knowledge to create profits. Goodlad et al. (1990) defined that a professional must have a large degree of talent and skill and use a body of knowledge that supports their work. Shieh (2003)

stated that the financial industry creates profits based on knowledge. So, to survive in a complicated and rapidly changing knowledge industry, Taiwanese investment companies must aggressively employ more professionals.

A complex and rapidly changing environment has resulted in various demands from customers (Dee, Henkin, & Chen, 2000). Brown and Moshavi (2002) asserted that leaders are important in a group because they have the most responsibility for administrative decisions. In a word, leaders of investment companies are supposed to guide the organization in order to satisfy customers and achieve organizational goals. In addition, companies are forced to be more innovative and flexible in such an environment (Robbins, 2001). Hence, the leaders of these companies must find a technique to make new managerial values compatible with old thoughts within a competitive scope (Clark, 1996). Nahavandi (2003) also said that leaders exist in changing external and internal environments in order to create a smooth operation and achieve goals. So, the importance of their role is obvious for organizational effectiveness.

However, this significantly increases stress on leaders; hence, leaders must rely on new managerial skills to attain organizational effectiveness. Empowerment (work autonomy) is a new managerial technique employed by companies to increase organizational effectiveness (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kanter, 1989). Consequently, leaders are supposed to learn how to empower followers to finish jobs effectively, putting them in charge of their own jobs (Robbins, 2001). Robbins explained:

Managers have to learn how to give up control and employees have to learn how to take responsibility for their work and make appropriate decisions. The relationship between managers and employees who are supposedly responsible

for managing is reshaping. Managers are also called coaches, advisers, sponsors, or facilitators, and employees are now called associates. Decisions making are pushed down to the operating level, where workers are given the freedom of self-management to make choices about schedules and procedures and to solve work-related problems. (p. 16)

Goodlad et al. (1990) shared that a professional must have the work autonomy to make decisions that marry skills with knowledge. Friedman (1999) said that increasing employees' professional work autonomy, which gives them more decision-making power and freedom to perform, could promote organizational efficacy.

Therefore, the leaders of Taiwanese investment companies are effective when they help professionals adapt to a dynamic environment with innovation and flexibility, using higher satisfaction through more work autonomy to achieve organizational goals.

Statement of the Problem

Hackman and Oldham (1980) stated that more autonomy could create higher satisfaction in jobs for subordinates. Productivity increases and absenteeism and turnover decrease with the rise in subordinate satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Innovation reflects self-esteem (Branden, 1998), and flexibility requires self-monitoring (Snyder, 1987). Self-esteem and self-monitoring accompany risks (Robbins, 2001). Dee et al. (2000) argued that when leaders own more control, subordinates maintain less freedom in their jobs, which reduces subordinate satisfaction. Therefore, leaders face the challenge of balancing the demands of administrative control and work autonomy in a dynamic environment (Brown & Moshavi, 2002). Cunha (2002) and Yi and Yang (2005) said that consideration behavior is particularly associated with autonomy. That is, a leader meets the challenge of

effective control and empowerment using initiating structure and consideration behaviors.

Knowledge-intensive companies are grounded in excellent talents. Hence, defense for the talents is a critical issue for organizational efficacy in Taiwanese investment companies. Kuchler (2001) concluded that organizational efficacy is closely connected to appropriate application of leadership behavior. Particularly, after Taiwan joined the World Trade Organization (WTO), the leaders of Taiwanese investment companies have had to pay particular attention to this issue. Foreign securities investment trust companies embarked on a large-scale strategy to influence the Taiwanese investment market. This has caused Taiwanese (domestic) investment companies to encounter unprecedented competition. With the entrance of foreign investment companies in the market, professional investment personnel now have more choices for places to work. So, the leaders of Taiwanese investment companies must be aware of the significance of leadership to organizational efficacy so that subordinates are willing to cooperate with them to attain organizational goals. Thus, leaders of Taiwanese investment companies need to pay close attention on their relationship with subordinates.

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the perceptions of CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of 356 subordinates in 37 Taiwanese investment companies. Due to cultural distinctions between Taiwan and the West, various demographic factors were also examined for their relationships with the dependent variables of this research. This research confirmed the correlation and goodness of fit to the extent that pragmatic data fit a theoretical model (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) between the leadership and work autonomy, and measured work

autonomy on demographic factors.

Overview of the Methodology

This research measured the results of questionnaires completed by 356 subjects from the Securities Investment Trust & Consulting Association (SITCA) in Taiwan. The modified President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (PLBQ; Lin, 1983) based on the LBDQ and Work Autonomy Scales (WAS; Breaugh, 1985) were used to examine the relationship between leadership and autonomy.

The survey instruments were distributed to 555 subordinates randomly selected from research, marketing and customer service departments of 37 investment companies; 15 instruments were sent to three types of professionals in each company for each type of survey instrument. Of these questionnaires, 396 instruments were returned for each type; 356 were valid. The modified PLBQ contains 35 items measured using a 5-point Likert scale. Each dimension of consideration and initiating structure has 15 items, and 5 items are employed to filter voidable questionnaires. The WAS contains 9 items measured by a 7-point Likert scale. The WAS measures responses along the three dimensions of work method, scheduling, and criteria.

Before data collection, a pilot test was conducted to ensure that the modified PLBQ was clear to interviewees. The researcher used SPSS to calculate Cronbach's alpha to determine reliability. After data collection, the researcher used linear structural relationship (LISREL) to confirm the measure's validity and reliability, and assumed theoretical models for the relationship and goodness of fit between leadership and work autonomy with a significance level of 0.05. Also, descriptive statistics: means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages paralleled inferential statistics: one-way

ANOVAs, Scheffe tests and *t*-test involved with a significance level of 0.05.

Hypotheses of the Research

Primary Hypothesis

To confirm the relationship between CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies, the primary hypothesis based on several aspects included:

1. Relationship between two dimensions of leadership style: consideration and initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.
2. Relationship between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy.
3. Relationship between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Also, goodness of fit was confirmed for the relationship between two dimensions of leadership behavior: consideration and initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy; between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy; and between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Following this primary hypothesis, several null sub-hypotheses were also tested.

Sub-Hypothesis One

There are no significant differences among the four types of perceived leadership styles (low consideration and low initiating structure, high consideration and high initiating structure, low consideration and high initiating structure, and high consideration and low initiating structure) and overall work autonomy.

Sub-Hypothesis Two

There are no significant differences among the four types of perceived leadership

styles and each dimension of work autonomy (work method, scheduling and criteria).

Sub-Hypothesis Three

There are no significant differences between demographic factors of gender, marital status, level of education, age, and tenure and overall work autonomy.

Sub-Hypothesis Four

There are no significant differences between demographic factors of gender, marital status, level of education, age, and tenure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Sub-Hypothesis Five

There are no significant differences among the three dimensions of work autonomy.

Significance of the Research

Richard Branson, founder of the Virgin group of businesses, said consideration is the most imperative characteristic needed for an effective leader to achieve autonomy (Yi & Yang, 2005). Consideration is described as “the extent to which a leader is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates’ ideas, and regard for their feelings” (Robbins, 2001, p. 316), reflecting trust, respect, and equality. That is, consideration behavior is significantly related to high subordinate satisfaction in a dynamic industry so that professionals can make great effort in their jobs with more productivity and less job stress, absenteeism, and turnover. Also, the Ohio leadership studies showed that leadership using consideration and initiating structure is connected to the most effective leadership in most industries (Robbins). In other words, leaders in the Taiwanese investment industry might use consideration and initiating structure behaviors to balance organizational control and subordinate satisfaction for effectiveness.

A high level of competition developed in the Taiwanese investment market after Taiwan joined the WTO; retention and attraction of strategic personnel have become important points in promoting customer satisfaction for organizational goals. Therefore, it is necessary for the leaders of the Taiwanese investment companies to understand which leadership behavior they display. In the study, leaders of Taiwanese investment companies might benefit from understanding their leadership behavior and adjust their behavior to increase subordinate satisfaction. This, in turn, could increase productivity, reduce absenteeism, and decrease turnover for organizational goals.

Definition of Terms

Taiwanese Investment Companies

In this study, Taiwanese investment companies were defined as domestic securities investment trust companies from the Securities Investment Trust & Consulting Association of Taiwan (SITCA).

Chief Executive Officers

Presidents were those chief executive officers (CEOs) who are the head leaders in the Taiwanese investment companies.

Professionals

Tian (2000) concluded that the employees in research, marketing, and customer service departments are pivotal for investment companies. Hence, professionals were determined to be people in those departments who employed a large degree of skill and knowledge to support their work.

Work Autonomy

Autonomy is defined as work autonomy in leadership realm. Work autonomy is

associated with empowerment. In the leadership, autonomy is a set of activities that managers use to give power, control, and authority to subordinates in their jobs (Bennis, 1984). Work autonomy involves groups or subordinates using self-determination and discretion in making decisions about schedules and procedures based on the requirements of their jobs and circumstances (Kouzes & Posner, 1988). Empowerment means “workers are given the freedom of self-management to make choices about schedules and procedures and to solve work-related problems” (Robbins, 2001, p. 16). In short, empowerment is autonomy in leadership realm or work autonomy in this study.

Delimitations

This research focused only on the 37 domestic securities investment trust companies in SITCA. The subjects were 356 subordinates in research, marketing and customer service departments of these Taiwanese investment companies.

Limitation

The study was subject to the following limitation. Theoretically, proportional stratified randomly sampling should be used rather than non-proportional random sampling to avoid sampling bias (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). However, access to information on employees in each investment company was not available until the researcher obtained the permission to conduct the study at those companies, so non-proportional stratified random sampling was conducted before sending the survey instruments to participants.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

Introduction

This research was designed to investigate the relationship between CEO leadership style and the professional work autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies. Therefore, influential variables for this research were leadership and leadership theories; and autonomy, including work autonomy, work autonomy of subordinates, and professional work autonomy of subordinates. Background information of related variables examined were demographics affecting autonomy, including culture, relationship, and stereotype. Also, the requirements of knowledge-intensive companies in leadership and the characteristics of Taiwanese investment companies were provided.

Leadership

Definition

There are many definitions of leadership, including Burns' (1979) elucidation that leadership is considerable in human activities and can be perceived unconsciously. Bass (1981) said leadership is a natural human behavior phenomenon. Owens (1991) stated that leadership is the interpersonal patterns of finding followers' potential needs and gratifying those needs so that the goals of the organization can be smoothly achieved.

Smith (2000) explained that leadership influences individuals or groups toward achieving organizational goals. Hackman and Johnson (2000) defined leadership as a communication process through which attitudes and behaviors of organizational members are modified to meet shared group goals and needs. Yukl (2002) claimed that leaders try to guide followers to hit a specific achievement.

Nahavandi (2003) concluded that leadership definitions have three elements

containing: (a) Leadership involves interaction and interdependence to influence followers. Leadership is a group phenomenon. Therefore, leaders and followers coexist; no leaders exist without subordinates, (b) Leadership is goal directing, and leaders play the head of a train in organizations. Leaders use influence and competence to guide followers toward organizational goals, and (c) The appearance of leadership causes organizational hierarchy, which can be formal and well defined or informal and flexible as needed.

In short, a leader is any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them establish goals, and guides them toward the achievement of those goals (Robbins, 2001). They enable individuals and groups to be effective through communications, functional conflicts, rewards, work design, change, and so on.

Theories

There are many aspects to understanding leadership theories. The first focuses on the traits of leaders. The second focuses on leadership behavior, characteristics, and situations. The third focuses on the shift from control to employee participation.

Trait theories. Trait theories, one of the earliest approaches to realizing leadership, appeared early in the 20th century. Leaders were regarded to have innate individual, physical and psychological traits that discriminated them from followers (Robbins, 2001).

Many researchers conducted studies to find out the traits of effective leaders. Stogdill (1948) shared that leadership is aggressively shaped between a leader and followers to form a workable relationship in a group. He later determined that effective leaders have self-confidence, initiative, sociability, and insight (Stogdill, 1974). Northouse (2001) said that Stogdill's results show the beginning of a new approach for

studying leadership, the behavioral approach.

Additionally, some researchers focused on personal characteristics associated with effective leadership. Bass (1990) said that individual factors of leadership could be divided into six categories including capacity, status, responsibility, achievement, participation, and situation. People who self-monitor are highly flexible in adjusting their behavior in different situations (Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, & Clemons, 1990; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991).

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) shared that six traits on which leaders are different from subordinates are ambition and energy, the desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, and job-relevant knowledge. Nahavandi (2003) added that personal attributes have strong association with effective leadership.

But some researchers have argued that the trait theories have limitations. Cummings and Staw (1971) demonstrated that there are no general traits that clearly explain leadership in various states but that traits are employed in some specific selective states, and Robbins (2001) stated that the evidence is unclear in separating cause from effect. Barrick and Mount (1993) illustrated that traits predict behavior better in weak cases than in strong appearance, while other researchers concluded that traits do a better job at predicting the appearance of leadership than in actually telling between effective and ineffective leaders (Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986; Smith & Foti, 1998).

The trait theory is known as one-dimensional leadership. The most well known theories about this leadership are from Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939), who adopted communication channels to divide leadership styles into autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire categories.

In their theory, followers are controlled when leaders exert autocratic leadership. Autocratic leaders make rules, policies, and decisions to completely control a group, believing that the group cannot work well without directions. Autocratic leaders discriminate themselves from followers on purpose; followers are regarded as subordinates, not associates.

In addition, they concluded that democratic leaders exert more supportive and open-minded behaviors so that they can communicate well with followers. Followers are not only free to present their ideas with the leaders but are invited to take part in a decision-making process. Democratic leaders frequently seek thoughts from followers to activate organizational function and provide assistances and directions to followers. The democratic leadership style can provide high efficiency in groups or organizations (Hackman & Johnson, 2000).

Finally, they explained that laissez-faire leaders pay no attention on managing or leading groups and are passive in engaging in communications with followers. They offer little assistance to followers, who participate in decision making to a very high degree. Frequently the leader does not provide assistance unless followers actively request favors. For this leadership style, high self-actualization is required for followers to develop and create their potential. The laissez-faire leadership style could be blamed due to leadership avoidance (Hackman & Johnson, 2000).

Hence, characteristics and contexts of groups should be considered when leaders try to exert appropriate leadership styles. Table 1 contains a comparison of the characteristics of those three leadership styles.

Table 1

Comparison of Trait Theories for Three Leadership Styles (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939)

Autocratic	Democratic	Laissez-faire
1. Followers are subject to leaders.	1. Cooperation and cohesion are addressed.	1. No attention is given to followers.
2. Followers need leaders to monitor them.	2. Relationship is maintained.	2. There is less productivity, low relationship, and no cohesion.
3. Productivity is produced under leaders' attention.	3. Less monitoring is needed for productivity.	3. Not task or relationship oriented.
4. Task oriented.	4. Relationship oriented.	

Likert (1967) provided new patterns of leadership, divided into four styles: (a) exploitive authoritative, (b) benevolent authoritative, (c) consultative democratic, and (d) participative democratic.

He shared that leaders do not trust followers to take up group's affairs so all decisions are made by the leaders in the exploitive authoritative style. In addition, followers are completely guided or controlled by the leaders, and communication channels between a leader and followers are extremely rare. Finally, stemming from the leader's attitude, followers learn that they cannot trust each other, so teamwork is not allowed in organizations.

Although the benevolent authoritative style is similar to the exploitive authoritative style (Wu, 2003), there are differences between the two styles. According to Likert (1967), in the benevolent authoritative style, there are occasional communications between the leader and followers, followers are sometimes allowed to participate in non-core decision making and policy making, and there is some teamwork allowed among

followers.

Likert and Likert (1976) concluded that the participative democratic style is more favorable because it leads to higher productivities, costs saving, and good relationships than the consultative democratic style. That is, more benefits exist in the participative democratic style than in the consultative democratic style, including higher positive relationships among followers as well as between a leader and followers, and unimpeded communications in an organization. However, both include the achievement of organizational goals through exceptional teamwork as well as policy making and decision making executed by an organization.

Table 2 contains a comparison of those four leadership styles.

Table 2

Comparison of Trait Theories for Likert Four Leadership Styles

Exploitive Authoritative	Benevolent Authoritative	Consultative Democratic	Participative Democratic
1. No confidence in followers, decisions are made by leaders.	1. Followers are motivated each other.	Exceptional teamwork exists.	1. There is higher productivity, cost savings, and group relations and communication than the consultative democratic style.
2. Followers are guided by leaders.	3. Followers are moderately satisfied with their job.		2. Exceptional teamwork exists.
3. Communications are rare.	4. Communication exists.		
4. There is no trust, and teamwork is not allowed.	5. Followers are empowered to participate.		
	5. Teamwork is mildly encouraged.		

Behavioral theories. In these theories, researchers propose that specific behaviors differentiate leaders from subordinates. Because some analysis of leaders' traits cannot provide enough information to explain effective leadership, many researchers have resorted to researching the behaviors of leaders, including what they do, how they influence groups, and how effective leadership can be attained.

The behavioral approach was started in the 1940s (Robbins, 2001), and it says that an effective leader exerts a particular leadership behavior to guide their followers and organizations. Shartle (1956) suggested that leadership is a leader's behavior that makes followers act toward organizational goals that are identified by all the organizational members. Hemphill (1957) defined leadership as the comprehensive behavior of the leader, which is connected to organizational activities.

Robbins (2001) stated that leaders use task-oriented behaviors to direct followers to reach the goal of the group and relationship-oriented behaviors to show they care how followers feel and to create enjoyable environments for followers. Yukl, Gordon, and Taber (2002) said that task- and relationship-oriented behaviors are regarded as the best classification of leader behaviors.

Famous studies in behavioral approach include the Ohio Leadership Studies, Michigan Leadership Studies, and Managerial Grid. The Ohio Leadership Studies (Shartle, 1957) are the most well known in the research of behavioral approach. In these studies, leadership and leader behavior were defined to be an individual's behavior that directs a group's activities toward goal achievement (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed in 1957. In the development of the LBDQ, more than 1,800 items of leadership behaviors were narrowed

down into 150 items that measure 10 leadership dimensions. It is based on two aspects of leadership behavior: consideration and initiating structure.

Halpin and Winer (1957) modified the LBDQ to describe how an ideal leader should behave. Bryman (1987) said that the most common research instruments on leadership and leader behaviors are related to the LBDQ. The LBDQ depicts leaders' behaviors and the consequences from those task- and relationship-oriented behaviors. Finally, the LBDQ provides an objective and reliable gauge to describe leader behaviors with the two dimensions of initiating structure and consideration.

These two dimensions of leader behavior show the basic and related facets of leadership styles. They are thought to be independent behavior dimensions because they are separated through factor analysis. However, they can be individually divided into high and low consideration and high and low initiating structure. Therefore, through combination, four types of leadership are produced: high consideration and high initiating structure, high consideration and low initiating structure, low consideration and high initiating structure, and low consideration and low initiating structure.

Additionally, research has shown that leaders who are equipped with high consideration and high initiating structure were regarded effective and able to lead to followers' job satisfaction (House & Filey, 1971). House and Filey concluded that both of these dimensions are required to create effective leadership.

The Michigan Leadership Studies (Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950) also were conducted to find out the characteristics of effective leadership. These studies focused on two dimensions: employee-oriented behavior and production-oriented behavior. Employee-oriented behavior addresses the interpersonal relationship between a leader

and followers, and production-oriented behavior is when leader focuses on the technical or task aspects of the job (Robbins, 2001). The Michigan researchers concluded that employee-oriented leaders create higher group productivity and job satisfaction (Robbins).

The Michigan Leadership Studies researchers proposed that leaders could only exhibit either a production-oriented style or employee-oriented style because these two dimensions are polar opposites and not compatible at the beginning. However, this viewpoint was revised similarly to the concept of leadership behaviors in the Ohio Leadership Studies, which stated these two dimensions could be combined in practice (Katz & Kahn, 1951).

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed a graphic two-dimensional view of leadership style known as the Managerial Grid. The grid is based on the degree of concern for people and production (Robbins, 2001). Concern for people is relationship-oriented and concentrates on the followers' needs and opinions; concern for production is tasked-oriented and concentrates on accomplishing the goals of the group.

There are two intersecting axes in the grid. Concern for production is represented with the x-axis, and concern for people reflected with the y-axis. Both axes are scored on a 9-point scale, with scores from high to low indicated from 9 to 1. From the scale on both axes, a leader's leadership style can be found along the dimensions of task orientation and relationship orientation.

Based on the findings of Blake and Mouton (1982), the 9, 9 model of leadership style means the high-high leader behavior, in which the leader presents high concern for followers and production, is regarded to be the most effective, and able to produce

maximum effects in goal achievement. That is, leaders with the best performance operate under a 9, 9 style. Conversely, leaders with the worst performance operate under a 9, 1 (authority) or 1, 9 (laissez-faire) style.

Additionally, Blake and Mouton (1982) also said that a leader has dominant and backup leadership styles. The dominant leadership style is used in most cases. The backup leadership style is employed when the dominant style is ineffective in making work done. They also concluded that although concerns for followers and production are two independent dimensions, they interact with the leadership style selected. Finally, when an effective leader chooses a leadership style, concerns for followers and production are presented simultaneously (Blake & Mouton).

Table 3 presents a comparison of the characteristics of those three behavioral theories.

Table 3

Comparison of Behavioral Theories

Ohio Leadership Studies	Michigan Leadership Studies	Managerial Grid
1. High consideration and high initiating structure is the best leadership.	1. Employee-oriented leaders can create higher group productivity and job satisfaction.	1. The grid of 9, 9 is the best leadership style.
2. Leader behaviors are divided into task orientation and relationship orientation.	2. Leader behaviors are divided into employee orientation and production orientation.	2. Leaders behaviors are divided into production concerns and people concerns.

Contingency theories. Some researchers suggested that one leadership might be more effective than another under a particular situation, leading to the development in the

late 1960s of the contingency approach (Beare, Caldwell, & Millikan, 1998). Owens (1991) and Hersey (1992) said that there is no common leadership behavior appropriate in all situations, so the behavior of the leader depends on situational contingencies.

Bryman (1992) explained that there is no specific leadership used in certain situations, so it is important for a leader to choose the most proper leadership in a particular situation to achieve leadership effectiveness.

The contingency approach focuses on both behavior and situation. Leaders can exert the most proper leadership behavior for a given situation if they are educated and trained through observing how leader behaviors are suited to different situations (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996). Theories that recognize contingency as the focused aspect include the: (a) Leader-Participation Model, (b) Fiedler's Contingency Theory, (c) Situational Theory, (d) House's Path-Goal Theory, and (e) Leader-Member Exchange Theory.

The Leader-Participation Model (Vroom & Yetton, 1973) states that a set of rules should be followed in determining the form and amount of participation in decision making as determined by different types of situations. In the model, they explained that leader behavior must adjust to reflect the task structure, and leadership should be directed at the given situation rather than at the person with five leadership behaviors: decide, consult individuals, consult the group, facilitate, and delegate.

Fiedler's Contingency Theory (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974) states that effective organizations rely on an appropriate relationship between a leader's style in interacting with followers and the degree that the leader provides influence and control with the situation.

Fiedler designed the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) Scale (Robbins, 2001) to evaluate coworkers with whom leaders would be least likely to work in achieving tasks to determine a leadership style to match a certain situation. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) explained that the leader's perception of the least preferred coworker discloses whether the leader's behavior is task oriented or relationship oriented. High and low LPC scores stem from favorable and unfavorable evaluations of the least preferred coworker. The high LPC leader is closed to be more considerate and participative in leadership style; the leader is motivated to interact with followers. Conversely, the low LPC leader tends to be more directive and goal oriented in leadership style; the leader is motivated with task or goal achievement.

Fiedler (1967) suggested that the task-oriented style is effective in the two extreme dimensions, and the relation-oriented style is effective in the middle favorable dimension. Wood and Sobel (1970) said that the relation-oriented leader could provide group members with a circumstance that results in high job satisfaction.

Fiedler (1967) said the three core variables of leader-member relations, task structure, and position power are used to describe leadership and situations. The leader-member relation refers to an interactive relationship between a leader and group members (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974). They also stated that task structure means the extent to the clarity of tasks and goals. Position power indicates that a leader is granted official power to guide, reward, punish, and evaluate followers (Fiedler & Chemers). Wu (2003) concluded that the extent to a leader's control of situations can be recognized by combining these variables, and situations can be decided by these three factors. He shared that each of these factors has three dimensions for a total of eight possible dimensions;

the most favorable dimension is good in all three aspects; conversely, the least favorable dimension is poor in all three aspects; and the moderate favorable dimension falls in the middle of the most and least favorable dimensions.

This theory puts leaders close to the effect of the situation and makes them realize the most effective leadership style in the given case. That is, leaders are supposed to recognize the importance of the leadership styles and situations to attain organizational effectiveness in this theory.

Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard developed the Situational Leadership Theory in the late 1960s (Blanchard, 1985). In this theory, it is argued that the contingency is on the level of the followers' readiness, which Hersey and Blanchard defined as the extent to which people have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1974; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Leader behavior is contingent upon the different situations; that is, the leader should be suited to the leadership demands of the situation (Blanchard, 1985; Blanchard, Zigarmi & Nelson, 1993). An effective leader has the strength to identify followers' needs and fits different leadership styles to different situations. In addition, leadership styles and the level of followers' needs are two important variables in deciding effective leadership styles.

In contingency theories, leadership behaviors are comprised of task and relationship behaviors applied in various cases. Hersey et al. (1996) said that situational leadership styles consist of four leadership styles according to the degree of task and relationship, including high task and high relationship, high task and low relationship, low task and high relationship, and low task and low relationship.

The degree of a leader's task and relationship is affected by the needs of followers. So the leader should identify the level of maturity and readiness that followers exhibit in implementing a specific task, which is demonstrated by their capability and willingness (Hersey, 1992). After that, the leader should exert the right leadership style to establish specific motivation for the followers or provide them clear and precise directions to fit given cases. Hence, an effective leader should be flexible in changing leadership styles to gratify the needs of the followers.

Two elements of followers' maturity are the followers' strength or task skills and knowledge and the willingness of the followers' commitment, self-confidence, and self-respect (Hersey, 1992). Combining followers' strength and willingness generates four levels of maturity that reflect the basic leadership styles: telling, selling, participation, and delegation. In his theory, the first is low ability and low willingness in which followers need specific guidance, which is known as telling; the second is low ability and high willingness in which followers need direct guidance, which is called selling; the third is high ability and low willingness in which followers need more to be participative, which is known as participation; and the fourth is high ability and high willingness in which followers need to be able to accept responsibility, which is known as delegation.

House and Mitchell developed the Path-Goal Theory in the early 1970s. It focuses on the leader's behavior to help the followers attain, with the necessary assistance, organizational objectives that parallel individual goals (Robbins, 2001). A leader takes responsibility for affecting followers' perceptions of task performance and outcome, improving followers' motivations for goal achievement, and taking away obstacles to promote followers' job satisfaction (House, 1971).

Two contingent factors, the nature of followers' traits and performed tasks, influence leaders' behaviors on followers' job satisfaction (House & Filley, 1971). Four types of leadership styles are generated in this approach: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented. In their theory, the directive leader lets followers know what procedures are related to, the supportive leader is concerned with the needs of followers, the participative leader consults with followers and uses their suggestions before making decisions, and the achievement-oriented leader sets challenging goals at followers' highest level. Therefore, the leader should select the most appropriate or effective style for the situation.

To achieve effective leadership, leaders need to be well acquainted with the most proper leadership style for various situations. If the task is unstructured, the leadership style relies on the characteristics of the followers and the achievement for goals; here the directive, participative, or achievement-oriented style may be required; if the task is structured, the supportive style can be used when the followers are experienced but not confident (Wu, 2003).

Indivk (1988) concluded that effective leadership could enhance followers' performance to generate the desired outcome. One study tested the characteristics of task structures and the traits of followers (i.e., working environment, structure, attainment) as tied to leader behavior and follower satisfaction. The study discovered that group rules and the characteristics of task structures such as routineness and clarity would influence leadership.

Schriesheim and Neider (1966) demonstrated that the relationship between leadership behavior and employee satisfaction under different situations provided

consistent results that showed that situational variables might ease the relationship. However, the relationship between leadership behavior and performance generated less consistent outcomes.

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory (Dienesch & Liden, 1986) shares that members in some groups create higher-quality relationships with their leaders than others (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Seers & Graen, 1984). This theory focuses on in-groups and out-groups. Leaders create in-groups in which members are trusted, get a disproportionate amount of the leader's attention, and are more likely to receive special privilege; conversely, members of out-groups get fewer of the preferred rewards that the leader controls, and have upper and lower relations based on formal authority interactions (Nahavandi, 2003). He also said that subordinates in the in-groups will have higher performance ratings, less turnover, and greater satisfaction with their superior than those in out-groups.

Some researchers examined factors that result in the quality of LMX and how it affects organizations (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Theory contents of LMX present member and leader characteristics, member behaviors influencing leader behaviors, perceived similar qualities between leaders and members, and expectations held by leaders and members about the possible relationship (Liden et al., 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

Fiedler's Contingency Theory is the most widely accepted theory in the contingency approach. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) concluded that the performance of a group depends on a leader's behavior and the special circumstance in which the leader guides. According to the theory, a leader is supposed to know the state where he guides

and should know the leadership behavior that fits the state in order to attain effective leadership. Torrington and Wightman (1990) believed that there is no best manner to lead groups because of tremendous differences among groups and the same subject groups. In short, appropriate leadership styles must be matched with particular situations to create organizational effectiveness. Leaders must show task orientation that he or she shows greater concerns for jobs, and relationship orientation that he or she makes greater efforts on relationships.

Behavioral and contingency theories are known as two-dimensional leadership styles, in which a leader is encouraged to exert the right leadership behavior fitting a specific situation. Therefore, effective leaders must initially recognize the situations that they encounter. Then they use the leadership style suited to the situation. The leader can request followers to act independently without the leader's control through task orientation and relationship orientation (Cartwright & Zander, 1968; Halpin, 1966). Table 4 presents the characteristics of contingency theories.

Document continues with Table 4 on the following page.

Table 4

Comparison of Contingency Theories

Leader-Participation	Five leadership behaviors are included: decide, consult individuals, consult groups, facilitate, and delegate in a given situation.
Fiedler	Leadership cannot be changed so leaders change situations by resources reallocation. Leaders can be changed to fit the situation if the situation cannot be changed.
Situational	Four leadership styles—telling, selling, participating, and delegating—are used for different situations to attain leadership effectiveness.
Path-goal	Four types of leadership styles—directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented—are used for various environmental factors and subordinate factors.
LMX	To meet the needs of the situation, a group is divided into an in-group and an out-group to smoothly attain organizational goals.

Scandinavian theory. Because the aforementioned studies fail to represent the more dynamic realities of today, in the late 1960s researchers in Finland and Sweden began reassessing whether there are only two dimensions that capture the essence of leadership behavior. Their research resulted in the Scandinavian Studies. The premise of this three-dimensional leadership theory is that in a changing world, effective leaders exhibit development-oriented behavior in which leaders value experimentation, seeking new ideas, and generating and implementing change (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991).

Scandinavian researchers, including Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) and Lindell and Rosenqvist (1992) concluded that the third dimension of development-oriented behavior is related to leader effectiveness and that leaders who demonstrate development-oriented

behavior have more satisfied employees and are seen as more competent.

Neocharismatic theories. Weber started the charisma in the early 1920s but neocharismatic leadership studies did not emerge until the mid-1970s. Robbins (2001) said that such studies stress symbolic and emotionally appealing leader behaviors, attempted to explain how certain leaders are able to achieve extraordinary levels of follower commitment, and deemphasized theoretical complexity.

Within this category of leadership studies, there are three subcategories: (a) charismatic leadership, (b) transformational leadership, and (c) visionary leadership. Those theories can be used in large-scale change, which are known as change-oriented leaderships (Nahavanvi, 2003).

In charismatic leadership, followers attribute heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities to leaders when they observe certain behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Charismatic leaders are confident in their own abilities and in the correctness and the moral righteousness of their beliefs and actions (Bass, 1985b). They tend to have exceptional articulation skills that enable them to communicate their ideas and excitement about their ideas to subordinates (Conger, 1991). They have high energy and enthusiasm levels (Nahavandi, 2003), and are masterful impression managers, actively using image building and role modeling (Conger 1989; House, 1977).

In transformational leadership, leaders are people who provide individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, and who possess charisma (Robbins, 2001). Transformational leadership is built on transactional leadership but these two approaches should not be viewed as opposing approaches to getting things done (Bass, 1985a; Robbins, 2001). Transactional leadership focuses on immediate outcomes; long-term

inspiration requires transformational leadership (Nahavandi, 2003).

Nahavandi (2003) said that transformational leaders share the following characteristics: charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The concept of charisma is the central element (Bass, 1985b; Bass & Avolio, 1993). The leader is a role model and visionary for his or her followers, providing direction so that people are willing to follow. The leader provides support and admiration for achievement so that the followers respect the leader, maintaining and improving the overall morale of the organization.

Loyalty and trust exist between leaders and followers so followers are inspired to implement the leader's vision (Nahavandi, 2003). The leader motivates and inspires followers to share and dedicate themselves to the vision by communicating his or her high expectations of them, encouraging them to achieve more than they can.

Intellectual stimulation has a strong empowering component, assuring followers of their abilities and enabling them to resolve problems (Nahavandi, 2003). A transformational leader encourages followers to continue their self-development and skillfully deal with the problems in new ways.

A transformational leader must consider developing an interpersonal relationship with each follower (Howell & Hall-Meranda, 1999). The leader provides a supportive climate where he or she shows consideration and understanding for the followers' needs.

In the visionary leadership approach, leaders create a realistic, credible, attractive vision for organizations that grow out of and promote goals depending on the present circumstance (Nanus, 1992). Visionary leaders are confident of their followers' ability and empower them to act independently (Nahavandi, 2003). They also equip their

followers with the ability to be flexible and deal with change (Nahavandi). The development of shared responsibility comes with trust between leaders and followers and also is displayed among followers through teamwork and cooperation (Nanavandi).

Leaders develop three stories for a clear vision. The first one should tell who the leader is. The second one should relate who the followers are. The third one should tell the group where it is going (Weil, 1998). Successful and effective leaders provide a clear vision or give followers a favor in developing a shared vision.

Table 5 presents a comparison of the characteristics of neocharismatic theories.

Table 5

Comparison of Neocharismatic Theories

Charismatic leadership	Transformational leadership	Visionary leadership
1. High degree of self-confidence, strong conviction about ideas, high energy and enthusiasm levels, expressiveness and excellent communication skills, and active image building and role modeling.	1. Includes the characteristics of charismatic leadership, as well as inspiration, stimulation, and consideration. 2. Transformational leadership for long-term goals is built on transactional leadership for short-term performance.	1. A clear, shared, attainable, and flexible vision is the pivot point. 2. It is for large-scale change.
2. It is for large-scale change.		

Effective Leadership

Effective leadership is defined in various ways according to the findings of research into different theories. Stogdill (1948) stated that the attributes of a leader are factors in determining effective leadership. An effective leader has characteristics such as

self-confidence, initiative, sociability, and insight.

Fiedler (1967) said that, in his contingency model, effective leaders can improve group performance. His model focuses on organizational success. House's Path-Goal theory (1971) demonstrated that effective leadership results from follower satisfaction. With follower satisfaction, organizations can get more feedback.

Bass made research about transformational and visionary leaderships; he defined effective leadership as that which successfully implements large-scale change in an organization (Nahavandi, 2003). Serwer (1996) said that an effective leader obtains the best results for the shareholders.

Mieszkowski (1998) said that effective leadership is the behavior that helps organizational members communicate, innovate, and collaborate. Salter (2000) stated that an effective leader helps groups and is self-sufficient, focusing on consideration to followers, while Luthans (1989) explained that an effective leader addresses task and relationships, making followers satisfied and productive as they achieve organizational goals.

In short, leaders achieve effectiveness when their subordinates attain organizational goals, function well together, and adapt to a quickly changing external environment. Nahavandi (2003) said effective leadership is defined by:

1. Goal achievement: Meeting financial goals, producing quality products or services, and addressing the needs of customers.
2. A smooth internal process: Group cohesion, follower satisfaction, and efficient operations.
3. External adaptability: A group's ability to change and evolve successfully.

In a word, leadership is the process of examining where the work group is now and predicting where it has to be in the future, and forming effective strategies for organizational goals (Paglis & Green, 2002). Effective leaders can lead organizations toward their goals (Luthans, 1989). Yet, autonomy is a managerial technique employed by companies to increase leadership effectiveness (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) for organizational effectiveness.

Autonomy

Definition

The definition for *autonomy* includes autonomy, work autonomy, and professional work autonomy of subordinates. Many researchers have defined different aspects of autonomy including the psychological aspect of individual and group and leadership realm. Autonomy is defined as work autonomy in leadership realm, and work autonomy is associated to empowerment.

In psychological aspect, Wade (1999) concluded that autonomy is present in individuals and groups, and it is required to attain profession. Autonomy is the process of increasing individual perceptions of control as well as a process of strengthening an individual's self-efficacy belief (Keller & Dansereau, 1995). Autonomy is comprized of an individual's perception of the value in their jobs, competence of their capabilities to execute work, and self-determination in activateing activities (Gomez & Rosen, 2001). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined autonomy as the intrinsic sense of control in the workplace involving beliefs about one's value, competence, and self-determination. Spreitzer (1995) stated autonomy as a psychological term reflecting an individual's self-control and self-efficacy.

In the leadership realm, autonomy is concerned with power, managerial skill, and superior-subordinate relationship. Wade (1999) continued, saying that autonomy is a process that indicates a lump sum of freedom, self-management, independence, or employees' behaviors associated to readiness, actualization, and empowerment. Autonomy is a set of activities that leaders utilize in giving power, control, and authority to followers (Bennis, 1984; DuBrin, 1998; Ford & Fottler, 1995). The allocation of power and the nature of the relationship between leaders and subordinates are conceptualized in autonomy (Arnold et al., 2000; Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 1988). Giving subordinates autonomy upgrades organizational effectiveness (Kanter, 1989; Spreitzer, 1996).

Autonomy is known as work autonomy in leadership realm. Work autonomy is that groups or subordinates can use self-determination and discretion in making decisions about schedules and procedures based on jobs and circumstances (Bass, 1985a; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980; Kouzes & Posner, 1988). Also, work autonomy is conceptualized in increased access to resources (Gomez & Rosen, 2001).

Work autonomy reflects the responsibility for coordination on the group itself (Man & Lam, 2003). Members of autonomous work groups or self-managing work teams have to interact and coordinate with other groups, administrating resource dependencies with others in the organization (Campion et al., 1993; Langfred, 2000). The task interdependence of work autonomy connects higher organizational efficacy and potency (Sargent & Sue-Chan, 2001).

Work autonomy is that members' sense of responsibility to, and ownership of, the work upgrades by allowing them to participate in self-management. The quality of work

is enhanced by increasing ownership of work, creating the amount of relevant information that workers needs, and settling decisions at the point of operational problems (Barker, 1993; Pearce & Ravlin, 1987).

Recent research has suggested when employees perceive support from the organization, they could be more committed to their jobs and illustrate their own commitment by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Hackman and Oldham (1976) theorized that an enriched job is one that has more variety, identity, significance, autonomy, and feedback. Job enrichment affects the critical psychological states of meaningfulness, felt responsibility, and knowledge of results; it is theorized to result in higher job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and work quality as well as lower turnover and absenteeism feedback (Hackman & Oldham).

Trust is the core element of autonomy or work autonomy. Leaders need to trust in the competence of employees when inviting them in participating the decision-making process (Rosen & Jerdee, 1977; Whitener et al., 1998). Employees are given with the freedom in discretion about job characteristics is the base of trust (Ford & Fottler, 1995). Trust on employees connected to employee loyalty can be regarded as a social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964).

A professional has to some characteristics. First, a professional must have a large degree of talent and skill; secondly, professionals have to utilize a lump sum of knowledge that supports their jobs; thirdly, professionals must be given autonomy to make decisions which make skills matched with knowledge (Goodlad et al., 1990). Also, professionals have meaningful and collegial relations with their coworkers, and perceive

their significance to others (Kerr, Von Glinow, & Schriesheim, 1977). The four concepts in the professional work autonomy of subordinates are knowledge, autonomy, collegiality, and interaction:

1. Knowledge contains strategies, practices, methods, or approaches in implementing affairs, which enables people to understand how a pattern will evolve and the results will be generated using the pattern (Bellinger, 2004).
2. Autonomy is defined as professional work, which permits individuals with discretion and control in the performance of their work (Wallace 1995a). Dee (2002) demonstrated that individuals who have autonomy are capable of setting organizational goals to maximize professionalism. Wade (1999) concluded that autonomy exists at the individual and group levels and is required to attain professional status.
3. Collegiality refers to the degree of which there are minimal structure and assistance among professional coworkers (Wallace 1995b). Collegial relations are considered significant not only for sharing work-related knowledge and running in self-control but also for supporting and trusting each other in the teamwork (Cherniss, 1980; Pines, 1993). That is to say, leaders exert collaborative strategies and strive to improve leadership qualities to upgrade professionalism (Shantz & Prieur, 1996).
4. Professionals usually anticipate that they will be able to interact with others to help clients or solve specific client problems; when they can't, dissatisfaction could emerge (Cherniss 1980).

In conclusion, the professional work autonomy of subordinates means that

subordinates use their knowledge to serve customers, knowing that a leader trusts in their competence and gives them the required authority to make decisions for job demands (Friedman, 1999). To reach organizational efficacy, subordinates are loyal to the leader, protect the leader, and save face for the leader (Robbins, 2001). Because a leader trusts subordinates' professional knowledge and capabilities, professionals are given more discretion in making decisions.

Characteristics

Hall (1968) found a relationship between the structural attributes of professionalization and the attitudinal attributes. However:

The structural and the attitudinal attributes of professionalization did not necessarily vary together. The highly prestigious professional groups, such as in medicine or law, developed low professional attitudes toward their jobs; conversely, some less professionalized groups might have highly professional attitudes toward their jobs. Also, the existence of professionals influenced the structure of the organization, and the structure of the organization influenced the professionalization processes. (as cited in Liu, 2004, p. 46)

Consideration and initiating structure behaviors can affect how employees perceive their jobs and some aspects of their job characteristics (Ferris, 1983). Ferris investigated four leader behaviors: low consideration and low structure, high consideration and low structure, low consideration and high structure, and high consideration and high structure. He found that when employees experienced an ambiguous task, high structure behavior might compensate for low consideration behavior and give them a clear direction to complete the ambiguous task as well as

increasing their perceived autonomy.

Spector (1986) explained that “highly autonomous jobs allow incumbents to determine the order and packing of job tasks, specific procedures for accomplishing those tasks, scheduling, coordination with other employees and other conditions of work” (p. 106). With this “increased control comes increased responsibility and often increased workload” (p. 1014). Spector found, however, that when people did not own specific capability, this situation could generate negative results.

Spreitzer (1995) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) identified four components of perceived autonomy: (a) the work has personal meaning for the employees, (b) the employees feel competent in the ability to perform the task, (c) the employees have a degree of self-determination in their capabilities to choose and regulate task action, and (d) the employees perceive that the task has impact on the immediate work.

Breaugh (1985) defined three dimensions of autonomy:

1. Work method autonomy is “the degree of discretion/choice individuals have regarding the procedures (methods) they utilize in going about their work;”
2. Work scheduling autonomy is “the extent to which workers feel they can control the scheduling/sequences/timing of their performance;” and
3. Work criteria autonomy is “the degree to which workers have ability to modify or choose the criteria used for evaluating their performance” (p. 556).

Trust is a positive expectation that people will not act opportunistically (Boon & Holmes, 1991; McAllister, 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998). In terms of positive expectations, trust is a dependent process based on relevant but limited experiences (Rotter, 1980).

Trust takes time to form and accumulate. It involves making people vulnerable when they

unveil interior information or depend upon others' promises (Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985). The nature of trust includes the possibility for disappointment or to be taken advantage of (Granovetter, 1985). Trust is not taking risks; rather it is a willingness to risk taking (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). In other words, when a leader trusts employees, the leader expects that employees will not use him or her.

Trust consists of integrity, competence, consistency, loyalty, and openness (Schindler & Thomas, 1993):

1. Integrity refers to honesty and truthfulness (Robbins, 2001). Moral character and basic honesty are the bases of competence, consistency, loyalty, and openness (Butler, Jr., & Cantrell, 1984).
2. Robbins (2001) said that competence encompasses an individual's technical and interpersonal knowledge and skills (i.e., if a person knows what he or she is talking about).
3. Consistency is associated to an individual's reliability, predictability, and good judgment over time; conversely inconsistency reduces trust between promises and behaviors (McGregor, 1967).
4. Loyalty is the willingness to protect and save face for persons (Robbins, 2001). A leader is supposed to trust employees' competence in an organization, and loyalty is the feedback from the employees standing on that trust.
5. Openness is presenting the full truth to people (Robbins, 2001).

In conclusion, trust is the base of the work autonomy of subordinate (leadership).

Zand (1997) shared the basic context of trust:

Part of the leader's task has been, and continues to be, working with people to find and solve problems, but whether leaders gain access to the knowledge and creative thinking they need to solve problems depends on how much people trust them. Trust and trust-worthiness modulate the leader's access to knowledge and cooperation. (p. 89)

When followers trust a leader, they are willing to be vulnerable to the leader's activities, and they are confident that their privileges and benefits will not be abused (Hosmer, 1995). People are unlikely to follow those whom they perceive as likely to deceive or use them. Therefore, honesty always ranks at the top of leaders' characteristics that they expect.

Related Research

Research has shown that a positive relationship exists between autonomy and the following factors: satisfaction, job involvement, performance quality, decision-making, commitment, and motivation (Breugh, 1985, 1989, 1999; Breugh & Becker, 1987). Autonomy decreases absenteeism, stress, and turnover, and workers who have high autonomy have less motivation to quit their jobs (Locke, 1976; Ostroff, 1992; Smith, 1977; Spector, 1986).

High autonomy creates high satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), and the more autonomy increases, the more satisfaction increases (Robbins, 2001). Subordinates with a high level of autonomy are more satisfied with their jobs, have less job stress, and were likely to have less absenteeism (Perry et al., as cited in Dee et al., 2000).

Strain (1999) examined that autonomy and performance are related. Ferris (1983) concluded that people who are monitored by low initiating structure and consideration

perceive the low autonomy, and people who are in a high consideration and initiating structure perceive the high autonomy. Fulford and Enz (1995) verified that perceived empowerment showed a significant and positive relationship with loyalty among service employees in private clubs.

Niehoff, Enz, and Grover (1990) proved that positive relationships between organizational commitment and top management actions such as allowing employee in decision making and supporting them in objects pursuing.

Hall (1968) found that a strongly negative relationship exists between professionalization and bureaucratization. Professional autonomy conflicts with organizational structures or managerial controls (Marcus, 1985; Raelin, 1985a, 1985b).

Breaugh (1985) shared that a negative relationship between autonomy and absenteeism, while Lee and Ashforth (1993) stated that autonomy is negatively related to job stress and positively associated with burnout through job stress. Dee (2002) claimed that a moderately negative relationship existed between turnover and work autonomy. Dee suggested that organizational support for innovation could be utilized to increase faculty autonomy and decrease turnover.

Other research by Lorence (1987) reported that gender difference does not influence job involvement and that women with the same work autonomy have more involvement in jobs than men. Breaugh (1989) concluded that unionized employees have less autonomy than non-unionized employees for organizational structure.

Autonomy was discovered to be negatively associated with tendency to leave the organization in an environment with health care (Koberg et al., 1999). Greater autonomy can produce positive effects on group performance (Campion et al., 1993).

Eylon and Au (1999) indicated in their research, people in both high power-distance cultures and low power-distance cultures perceived more satisfied with their jobs when they were empowered than when disempowered. Therefore, they suggested that it is better for employees to be empowered to obtain organizational efficiency.

Autonomy is widely accepted as a sufficient way to enhance job performance and satisfaction, especially for frontline employees whose job duties reflect that they are the interface between the company and its customers (Bowen, 1995).

Cordery et al. (1991) found in their study, that although autonomous work groups' commitment to the organization decreased over time, they still displayed higher levels of organizational commitment than traditional work groups.

In conclusion, in order to upgrade organizational effectiveness, leaders must recognize the significance of empowerment; they should learn how to release control and increase work autonomy to balance organizational goals and subordinate satisfaction.

Relationships Between Leadership and Autonomy

Leader-Subordinate Relationship

Recent research has emphasized that the interaction between managers and employees is critical for successful leadership. Argyris and Schon (1996) argued that open and supportive interaction is the foundation for leadership effectiveness. That is, employees are more committed to organizations for effective leadership if high quality relationships exist between leaders and employees.

Leaders and employees are great dependent on each other for the boss-subordinate relationship (Arnold et al., 2000; Burke, 1986; Pfeffer, 1994). Traditionally, employees perform their jobs depending on a leader's directions, but leaders gradually

recognized that employees have other competencies that leaders do not own (Tjosvold, Yu, & Liu, 2003). Therefore, leaders need to develop quality relationships to encourage employees committed to their jobs, or employees may not fail to exert their competencies for organizational goals.

A key to effective leadership is developing relationships where leaders and employees combine each other's ideas, efforts, and abilities (Setton et al., 1996). By doing so, employees are committed to goals, and leadership produces effectiveness. Leaders should provide followers with flexibility through autonomy and assist them in finding shared values in their jobs to achieve organizational efficacy (Christopher et al., 2000; Kanter, 1979; Spreitzer et al., 1997).

Related Research

Several researchers have advocated a technique that creates an organizational climate: less control and more empowerment (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997; McGill & Slocum, 1998). McGrath and Macmillan (2000) supported this change of focus for innovation. McDonough (2000) suggested that the key role in innovation leadership relies on making a team challenged and focused on setting task boundaries, sharing information, obtaining resources, and instilling a positive attitude. Empowerment is important for handling unforeseen events and associated with adjustments for flexibility (Macneil 1980; Williamson 1975, 1985).

Also, research by Pascale et al. (1997) and Bower (1997) demonstrated that the traditional command and control style of leadership is fading in favor of empowered teams, and Ahmed (1998) stressed that only empowerment is effective. A number of authors have supported using effective leadership characterized with empowerment; this

approach would be anticipated to enhance organizational commitment to effectiveness (Conger, 1999). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) said that empowered employees have improved concentration, initiative, resiliency, and subsequent commitment to organizational efficacy. Furthermore, Kanter (1983) discovered that the higher level of commitment to the organization, the greater concentration of energy.

Leadership and Autonomy in Knowledge-Intensive Companies

Shieh (2003) stated that the financial industry creates profits based on knowledge. Knowledge-intensive companies have received considerable attention over the growing importance of knowledge (Scarborough & Swan, 2001). Research points out the significance of leadership in this type of organization.

Chen (2001) said that professionals are more requested in industries that use knowledge to create profits. Goodlad et al. (1990) defined that a professional must equip a large degree of talent and skill and exert a lump sum of knowledge that supports their work. Goodlad et al. also shared that a professional must be given more autonomy to make decisions that connect skills with knowledge. Friedman (1999) said that increasing employees' professional autonomy, which gives them more decision-making power and freedom to perform, could promote organizational efficacy. Therefore, professionals in Taiwanese investment companies should be given more autonomy, which would increase their effectiveness and achieve organizational goals.

Also, knowledge-intensive companies depend greatly on clan control as an element of autonomy (Alvesson, 1995; Zammuto & O'Connor, 1992), which is addressed on shared values, beliefs, and goals among organizational members, so proper behaviors will be reinforced (Das & Teng, 2001). This clearly implies the practice of leadership

with consideration behavior. Therefore, leaders in high power distance cultures must adjust their roles and should not manipulate organizational professionals.

Alvesson (2001) mentioned that most knowledge-intensive companies rely on a set of guiding ideas, beliefs, emotions, and values, which are more influential than formal structures for organizational structure. This manifests the importance of teamwork.

Teamwork (minimal structure) can be defined as coordination elements that focus on the activities around a common set of goals without limiting their freedom to make decisions (Kamoche & Cunha, 2001). The balance between structure and discretion makes teamwork more attractive by organizational members (Eisenstat et al., 2001). Teamwork provides coordination without blocking creativity (Weick, 1999). Teamwork usually exists in the most effective and efficient organizations (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997). In teamwork, organizational members are empowered to manage the conflict between flexibility and structure (Hatch, 1999). This seems particularly relevant for companies running in a dynamic environment with instant adjustments rather than exceptional management (Cunha, 2002).

In this framework, effective leaders are those who can align control and freedom to coordinate rather than control (Cunha, 2002). He also shared that the best leaders trust in their employees' capabilities, act as facilitators, and help their subordinates construct and make sense of their jobs.

The Origins of Demographics Influencing Leadership and Autonomy

There are several possible factors causing demographics to influence leadership and autonomy in Taiwanese investment companies in the research, including *culture*, *relationship*, and *stereotype*. The demographic characteristics in the research contained

gender, level of education, age, tenure, and marital status.

Culture

Definition. *Culture* is a system of shared meaning held by a group of people that distinguishes each group from other groups (Becker, 1982; Schein, 1985). Hall (1976) stated that people learn about culture formally through various teachings and informally through observation, while Robbins (2001) said people know culture when they see it.

Nahavandi (2003) explained, “Culture is a set of norms, customs, values, and assumptions that guides the behavior of a particular group of people” (p. 9). Additionally, Chao (1990) stated, “Culture is an embodiment of traditions as well as a repository of values and normative assumptions developed among members in a group, collectivity and society” (p. 584).

Function. Nahavandi (2003) said that culture not only affects values and beliefs, but also influences leadership and interpersonal styles. “Culture determines what we consider right and wrong, and it influences what and who we value, what we pay attention to, and how we behave” (p. 8). In the business world, “Culture is the social glue that helps hold the organization together” (Robbins, 2001, p. 515).

Level. Nahavandi (2003) said that culture is grounded on three levels: national, ethnic or group and organizational cultures. He said that national culture is a set of values and beliefs shared by people within a nation. It is the highest level, and it influences ethnic or group and organizational cultures. Also, he stated that ethnic or group cultures co-exist in each country, leading to cultural diversity in a nation. In a word, all organizations create unique cultures in which organizational members share common values and beliefs about work affairs (Nahavandi).

National culture has the greatest scope and can influence leaders' behaviors.

Many researchers have argued that leaders' behaviors are affected by national culture (Fu & Yulk, 2000; Li, Ru, Chow & Peng, 2002; Schmidt & Yeh, 1992).

Theory. There are three theories describing different characteristics for culture, including Hall's cultural framework, Hofstede's cultural dimensions, and Trompenaars's dimensions of culture.

Hall's cultural framework: One cultural model focuses on differentiating two groups of communication styles: one high-context culture and one low-context culture (Hall, 1976). Leaders from high-context cultures depend heavily on nonverbal cues and situational variables to communicate with others and understand the world around them; leaders from low-context cultures focus on clear verbal and written message to realize people and cases (Munter, 1993). That is, high-context cultures reflect strong messages that determine behavior by detailed rituals, as well as a person's title and status; in low-context cultures, people are clear in communication with others (Nahavandi, 2003).

Hofstede's cultural dimensions: Hofstede (1996) supplemented a scale based on Confucian dynamism to develop five basic cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity, and time orientation. Hofstede determined that the United States has lower power distance and masculinity than Japan, allows uncertainty and ambiguity, addresses individualism, and seeks quick results with a focus on the present. Nahavandi (2003) explained that gender roles are highly differentiated in masculine cultures. Additionally, Triandis et al. (2001) added vertical and horizontal concepts to the idea of collectivist and individualist cultures. Vertical cultures focus on hierarchy, and horizontal cultures emphasize equality. Japan and South

Korea are examples of vertical collectivistic cultures in which individuals sacrifice themselves for hierarchical organizations. Among Hofstede's five dimensions, power distance reflects the relationship between a superior and subordinates in an organization. It is defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of an organization anticipate and accept unequal distribution of power (Hofstede, 2001). In high power distance cultures, the social norms establish the situation in which power is unequally allocated (Nicholls, Lane, & Brechu, 1999). The superior has unquestioned power over subordinates in such an organization and is feared by subordinates; therefore, subordinates rely on the superior's decisions (Wu, 2003). Autocratic and paternalistic superiors are preferred in this type of organization (Hofstede, 1997). In contrast, in low power distance cultures, the power difference between the superior and the subordinates is low. Subordinates' opinions are respected, so a consultative decision-making style is workable (Hofstede, 1997).

Trompenaars's dimensions of culture: Trompenaars (1994) classified cross-cultural organizational cultures, which are known as national and organizational cultures, into four dimensions: incubators, guided missile, family, and Eiffel Tower (Nahavandi, 2003). According to Nahavandi, these dimensions are based on whether cultures are egalitarian or hierarchical, and whether they are oriented to people or to tasks; in the incubator dimension, the leader's role is to provide resources, manage conflict, and remove obstacles; guided-missile leadership is based on expertise, and follower participation is expected; and the family and Eiffel Tower cultures are hierarchical, and leaders are asked to be powerful father figures who are responsible for the welfare of all members in the family culture. Singapore, South Korea, and Japan are examples of the

latter dimensions.

Taiwanese culture. The culture of Taiwan says that people should be aware of rank, respect seniors, and pay attention to status symbols (Bjerke, 1999). Social ranking determines how distant or superior a person is (Hwang, 2001). Interpersonal relationships are strictly arranged by social norms; individual behaviors are measured based on their obedience to the regulated ways (Chen, 2002).

Taiwanese society reflects abundant Confucianism (Hwang, 2001). It is characterized with high power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity, low individualism, and long-time orientation (Nahavandi, 2003). As Dorfman and Howell (1988) demonstrated, a high degree of collectivism and paternalism exists in Taiwanese society. Obeying those cultural norms, organizations in Taiwanese society are managed following the family model, and the cultural norm of respecting superiors is usually followed (Redding, 1990). Hsu (1982) stated that a leader, like a father, is not only charged with sustaining a good relationship but also with identifying accurate tasks for the followers.

There are two core concepts in Confucianism: *ren* and *li*. *Ren* means conscience and altruism in benevolence, human kindness, and love for others (Wu, 2003). Following *Lunyu*, *ren* is manifested in the saying, “Do not do what you do not want others do to you” (Ruan, 1985). Wu said that one facet of *ren* is an expression of love to oneself and to others; particularly one should show affection and respect for elders. Devotion to parents and elders is the first priority and then to others. Ruan cited Mencius’ saying, “Pay respect and consideration to elders and present mercy to intimate young people, and then the love could prevail to others”. Ruan also stated, “Consideration on the elders is

the omen that the world goes toward perfect order”.

For *li*, each individual is placed in the hierarchy of social relationships using its commensurate obligations and benefits (Tung, 1996). In other words, a person evaluates and frames his or her personal and proper role, expresses respect to people higher up in the hierarchical structure of society or organizations, and follows the rules and manners to stabilize and harmonize society or organizations with *li*. But social standards are frequently banned by family, and interdependence among people could be inspired by widely practicing *ren* (Chao, 1990). Basically, the practice of *li* parallels *ren*.

Relationship

Definition. The concept of relationship is known as *guanxi* in Chinese society, which is based on Confucianism (Tong & Yong, 1998; Yeung & Tung, 1996). *Guanxi* has been always a universal element and is considered a pivotal factor in traditional Taiwanese society (Wellman, Chen, & Weizhen, 2002).

Guanxi is personal and employed on the individual level (Alston, 1989). Tong and Yong (1998) said that *guanxi* is the connection for two or more people to identify each other differentially. It can be treated between individuals for mutual benefits, although it is frequently practiced in a family situation (Tung, 1996).

Guanxi is the establishment of a connection between two independent individuals to enable a bilateral flow of personal or social transactions (Yeung & Tung, 1996). Yeung and Tung also stated that both parties have to derive benefits from the transaction to ensure the continuation of such a relationship.

Context. Yeung and Tung (1996) stated that Chinese society has five contexts for *guanxi* (as cited in Liu, 2004):

1. Motives: Guanxi addresses role obligations and responsibilities.
2. Reciprocation: Guanxi focuses on self-loss or sacrifice.
3. Time orientation: Guanxi is based on a long-term perspective.
4. Power differentiation: People need to obtain help through guanxi.
5. Power nature: Personal power is highlighted in guanxi.

Establishment. Yeung and Tung (1996) stated that relationships are established based on two dimensions: group identification and group difference. Group identification and recognition can assist in establishing a relationship. Group difference originates from kinship or locality, and recognition can be rebuilt on interdependence among people who have no common characteristics.

Development. Tong and Yong (1998) stated that six guanxi bases can promote the development of relationship including (as cited in Liu, 2004):

1. Locality and dialect: People set up their guanxi based on similar origins or language.
2. Fictive kinship: People with the same symbol could develop guanxi.
3. Kinship: People activate guanxi with agnates and affiliates.
4. Work place: People own guanxi under a mutual workplace.
5. Trade associations and social clubs: People in the same situation could establish guanxi.
6. Friendship: People could develop guanxi with non-kinship people.

Maintenance. There are two perspectives on maintaining relationships or guanxi. Yeung and Tung (1996) claimed that there are four methods to sustain guanxi, including offering favors, fostering long-term mutual benefits, cultivating a personal relationship,

and arousing trust. Wong (1998) demonstrated that repeated favor-exchange generates trust among individuals in a relationship network.

Benefits. Relationships could yield two benefits. It can help develop trust among people, (Tong & Yong, 1998) and certainty and flexibility could emerge through individual relationships (Wong & Tam, 2000).

Related Research. Relationships influence many facets of Chinese society including decision making and the relationship between a leader and followers or among followers. Law et al. (2000) mentioned that relationships could help leaders successfully lead their followers by influencing leaders' decisions, including bonus distribution, promotion, and work assignment. Law et al. also stated that relationship plays a relevant role in managing staffs in Chinese society through relationship orientation. Wong, Wong, Hui, and Law (2001) demonstrated that Chinese traditional values including loyalty and relationship affect employees' commitments in an organization.

In spite of such advantages existing in the relationship of Taiwanese or Chinese society (high-power distance culture), inequality follows the specific relationship. Hofstede (1980) and Nicholls, Lane and Brechu (1999) illustrated that inequality exists in traditional boss-subordinate relationship in a high-power distance culture.

Stereotype

Ashmore and Del Boca (1979) define a stereotype as "a structured set of beliefs about the personal attributes of a group of people" (p. 222). Wegner and Vallacher (1977) explained that "stereotypes are one form of the implicit theories which individuals use to organize their experience of the world" (p. 229). More clearly, "A stereotype is an individual's implicit theory about a social group" (Hastorf et al., 1970, p. 229).

If gender can be divided into two groups, the male and female reflect not only physical characteristics but also social roles and constructs (Deaux, 1984). Relative research has shown that people tend to channel or control other's behavior due to their expectations (Skrypnek & Snyder, 1982). Driskell and Mullen (1990) ascertained that expectations associated with the status of a social group have a direct relationship to the observer's behavior. That is, people have distinct expectations (stereotypes) of the status of a social group to attain potential prophecies.

Based on the stereotype, gender, level of education, age, tenure, and marital status could be discriminated by leaders. In terms of gender, Ayman (1993) stated that "there is evidence that shows that not only are women stereotyped as weak and not equal to men but also that any behavior and characteristic associated to women also are perceived as weak and unimportant" (p. 146). Confucius Confucius was entitled, *The Greatest Master of All Age in China*, by the Emperor Kang Hsi in the Ching Dynasty for his contribution in education (Riegel, 2002). And Confucianism has generated a deep influence in Taiwanese education since Taiwanese ancestors emigrated from China. That is, Taiwanese culture is filled with Confucianism. For age, there are two stereotypes on age. First, there is a widespread belief that job performance declines with increasing age, and second is the fact of workforce aging; that is, lacking flexibility, being resistant to new technology, and being unable to adapt to change are characterized for elders (Robbins, 2001). In tenure, the terms of specially, experience, judgment, a strong work ethic, and commitment to quality are instilled in the employees with high tenure (Robbins). About marital status, married employees have fewer absences, undergo less turnover, and are more satisfied with their jobs than are their unmarried co-worker (Austrom, Baldwin &

Macy, 1988; J. M. Federico, P. Federico & Lundquist, 1976; Keller, 1983; Watson, 1981). Therefore, marriage imposes increased responsibilities that may make a steady job more valuable and important (Robbins).

Defense for strong talents in knowledge-intensive companies is a critical issue. After Taiwan joined the WTO in 2002, foreign securities investment trust companies embarked on a large-scale strategy to influence Taiwan investment market. As a result, Taiwanese investment companies encountered unprecedented competition. However, foreign investment companies faced two stiff challenges: Taiwanese cultural differentiation and an unfamiliar market. The two issues will be gone sooner or later. The leaders of Taiwanese investment companies must realize and adjust current leadership styles to sustain talents and fortify original competence during this transition time.

Background of Taiwanese Investment Companies

Taiwan domestic securities investment trust companies were initiated in 1983, and foreign securities investment trust companies were authorized in 1991, according to data from Securities and Futures Bureau, Financial Supervisory Commission, Executive Yuan, R. O. C. Data from the Securities Investment Trust & Consulting Association of R. O. C. reported that there were only four companies before 1992. By the middle of October 2004, 37 domestic and 10 foreign securities investment trust companies were authorized.

High space for the growth of mutual funds and the opportunities to develop the trust operation of securities up to 2 trillions of New Taiwanese Dollar (Tian, 2000) encouraged many domestic and foreign groups to establish securities investment trust companies. High competition has existed since 1992 but intense competition emerged after Taiwan joined the World Trade Organization (WTO) on Jan. 1, 2002. With long-

term developmental experience in the global investment market, the foreign securities investment trust companies that were regarded as excellent professional investment institutions by Taiwanese officers carried a lump sum of money, investment skills, and experience to penetrate Taiwanese investment companies. However, foreign investment companies faced two stiff challenges: Taiwanese cultural differentiation and an unfamiliar market. Although these issues will require a long period of time to overcome, sooner or later will they be gone. Domestic investment companies must fortify their competitive competence during this transition time or they will lose original advantages.

Shieh (2003) said that the financial industry creates profits based on knowledge; therefore, the defense of talent is a core issue for survival in the future investment market. In other words, investment companies must determine who to attract and retain talented people who can be outstanding in a highly competitive environment.

Conclusively, as Yi and Yang (2005) said, citing the words of Richard Branson, the founder of the Virgin companies, consideration is the most imperative characteristic of effective leader behavior, which will achieve empowerment (autonomy). Knowledge-intensive companies depend greatly on clan control as an element of role autonomy (Floyd & Lane, 2000). Also, it is important to maintain a professional's identity and the discrepancy between being a consultant and a supervisor; this will prevent a supervisor from threatening a professional's potential creativity (Lowendhal, Revang, & Fosstenlokken, 2001). These clearly imply that leaders should not manipulate or control organizational professionals but consideration. In other words, consideration is a requisite in a leader's behavior to empower employees to achieve leadership effectiveness. However, initiating structure has remained in high-power-distance culture of Taiwan,

even in the empowerment process. Thus, as a result of this occurrence, low autonomy was reported in the research because of the influence that initiating structure had on employees.

Justification of Methodology

LISREL

Robbins (2001) explained that leaders have to learn how to give up control, and employees must recognize how to take responsibility for their work for empowerment. That is, leadership style decides to what extent employees are empowered; concentrated control parallels low or even no empowerment, and clan control accompanies high empowerment. In short, leadership styles cause different intensities of empowerment. Hence, leadership is a cause and empowerment is an effect of that cause.

Chang, Chang, and Lin (2003) explained that linear structural relationship (LISREL) is a type of confirmatory factor analysis, which is used to confirm an established model. Joreskog and Sorbom (1993) explained that researchers must form an assumed theoretical framework of cause-and-effect based on theories to verify the precision of hypotheses before they process the LISREL.

Cooper and Emory (1995) said that LISREL is divided into two parts: the measurement model and the equation model. The first part addresses the cause-and-effect relationship between latent exogenous variables and latent endogenous variables, which is known as the structural equation model.

$$\eta = B\eta + \Gamma\xi + \zeta \quad (1)$$

η is a latent endogenous variable, B and Γ are a regression constant, ξ is a latent exogenous variable, and ζ is a latent error. (2)

The latent endogenous variable is an independent or dependent variable. (3)

The latent exogenous variable is an independent variable. (4)

In this research, η are work method, scheduling, and criteria of autonomy consideration and latent endogenous variables, ξ are the consideration and initiating structure of leadership. The B and Γ are not known until the regression equation is calculated; the ζ will be ignored in the theory regression equation.

The second part addresses the connection between latent variables and measurable variables, which is known as measurement model. The math equation follows:

$$X = A\xi + \delta \quad (5)$$

X is an observed variable, A is a regression constant, and δ is a latent error (6)

The observed variable is a variable that can be directly observed (7)

$$Y = A\eta + \varepsilon \quad (8)$$

Y is an observed variable of the η , and ε is a latent error (9)

In the research, X is the statement of leadership, and Y is the statement of autonomy. A is not decided until the regression equation is calculated. Yet δ and ε are ignored in the theory regression equation.

Leadership dimension. The variables must be classified before an assumed model

was constructed. The observed variable X of latent exogenous variable ξ is from the statements of consideration and initiating structure dimensions. Statements 3, 5, 6, 10, 12, 13, 17, 19, 20, 24, 26, 27, 31, 33, and 34 are included in the consideration. Statements 1, 2, 4, 8, 11, 15, 16, 18, 22, 23, 25, 29, 30, and 32 are involved in the initiating structure.

Autonomy dimension. There are nine statements that belong to the three dimensions of work method autonomy, work scheduling autonomy, and work criteria autonomy. Statements 1, 2, and 3 belong to work method autonomy, statements 4, 5, and 6 belong to work scheduling autonomy, and statements 7, 8, and 9 belong to work criteria.

Forming a theoretical framework. An assumed model can be established by the researcher based on an existing theoretical framework. Figures 1 and 2 show examples of a cause-and-effect path between observed variables and latent variables for the relationship between leadership and autonomy. In addition, the purpose of LISREL is to confirm whether the model that the researcher established is correct, or has goodness of fit.

In conclusion, McMillan and Schumacher (2001) shared that some techniques employ multiple correlations to examine cause-and-effect questions, including path analysis and structural equation modeling known as LISREL. They explained:

A casual "model" is established, based on theory, which shows by arrows the cause sequences that are anticipated. The correlations between the variables in the model provide empirical evidence of the proposed casual links. A relatively new technique, *structural equation modeling*, or *latent variable or trait casual modeling*, is more powerful than path analysis because the measures tend to be more reliable and the inferences more valid. (p. 296)

Specht (1975) also pointed out that path analysis, based on multiple regression analysis, only is used to test significance of path coefficients, which cannot reflect goodness of fit of cause-and-effect models; yet, LISREL can provide not only the significance but also the goodness of fit. Therefore, the LISREL was used in the study.

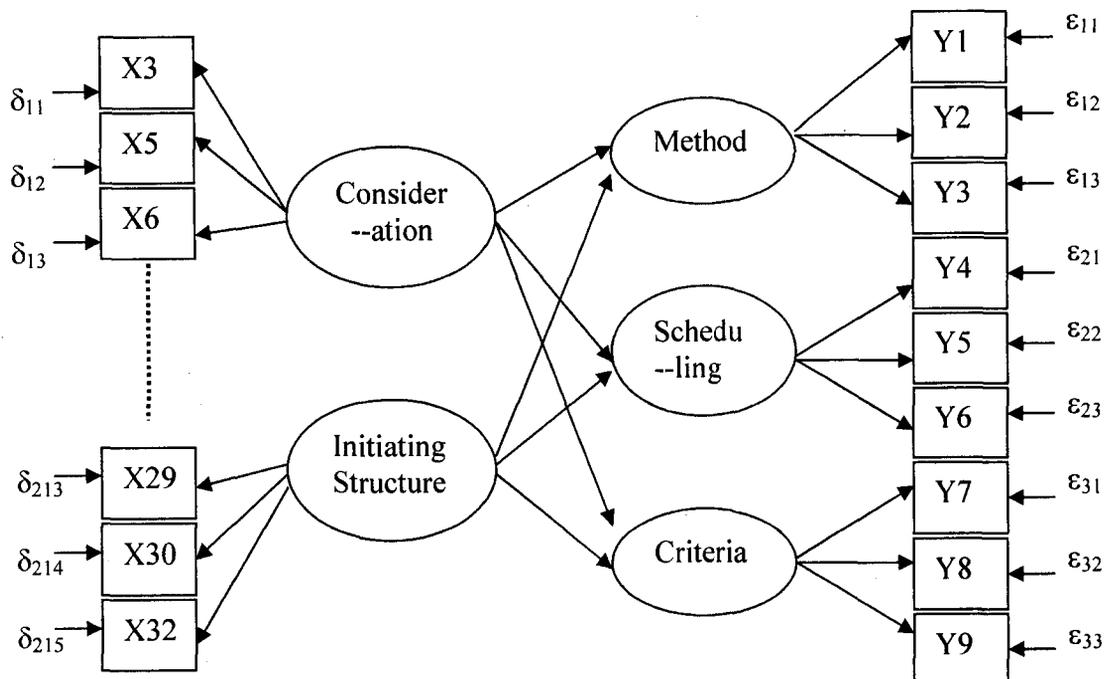


Figure 1. Example of the relationship between two dimensions of leadership and each dimension of work autonomy.

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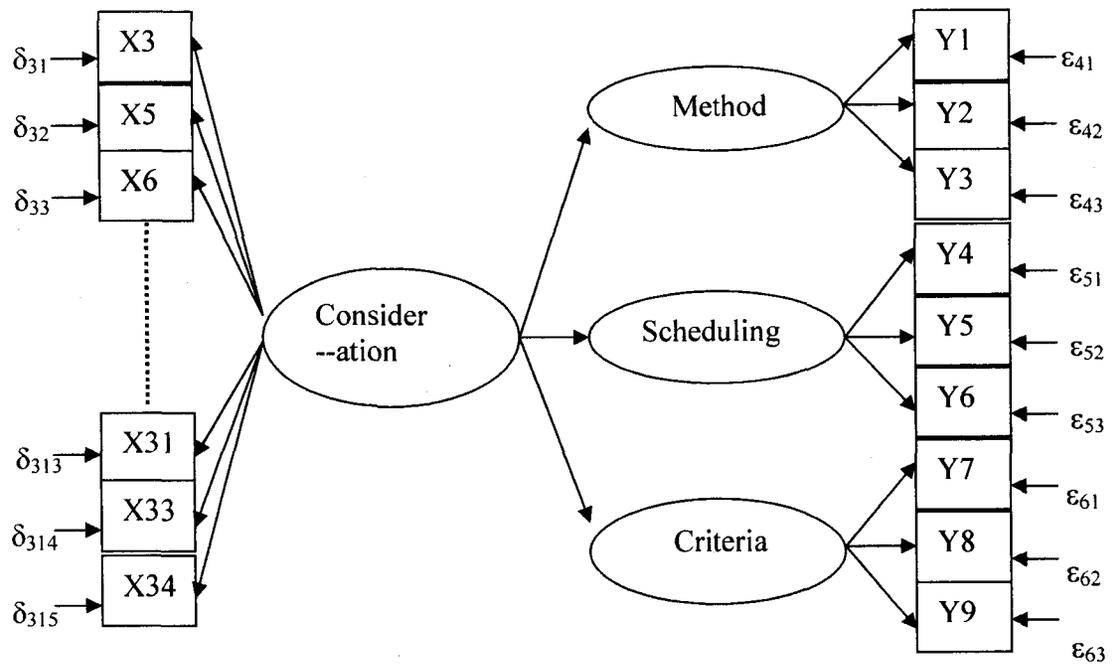


Figure 2. Example of the relationship between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy.

Document continues with Parametric and Nonparametric Tests on the following page.

Parametric and Nonparametric Tests

Basically, there are three assumptions for one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) including: (a) tested populations are subject to normal distribution, (b) variances or standard deviations of each population are equal, and (c) drawn samples are random and independent from each population (Keller & Warrack, 2002). However, Triola and Franklin (1994) argued that the limitations of normal distribution and equal variances are not as strict for one-way ANOVA. They said if populations are not apparently subject to non-normal distribution or if the differences between variances of each population are not extremely huge, test results are still reasonable.

Also, Triola and Franklin (1994) pointed out two shortcomings for nonparametric tests: (a) when quantitative data are transformed into qualitative data in nonparametric tests, some real information will be lost, and (b) inferential efficiency is not as sensitive, particularly for small differences between mean values of each subgroup. To avoid lost information and inferential efficiency, parametric methods were employed.

The President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire

Due to culture differences between the West and the East, S. F. Lin (1983) modified the LBDQ into 35 statements to measure presidential behavior of Taiwanese schools in terms of consideration and initiating structure. The modified questionnaire is known as the President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (PLBQ; see Appendixes A and B). It has three dimensions: consideration, initiating structure, and examination. Yet the major dimensions are consideration and initiating structure. These two dimensions are extended into four dimensions, including high initiating structure and high consideration, high initiating structure and low consideration, low initiating structure and high

consideration, and low initiating structure and low consideration.

S. F. Lin (1983) determined that the PLBQ had a reliability of 0.89 for the initiating structure and 0.86 for the consideration with a very believable Cronbach alpha coefficient, and 0.936 for overall presidential behavior with an extremely believable Cronbach alpha coefficient. Lin also explained that validity was determined using item analysis, and tests for item discrimination were used to delete inappropriate items. After the items were revised, professionals and educators approved the items.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) said that a locally developed instrument is prerequisite to collect precise data. Additionally, the researcher used the President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire for the following reasons:

1. A school is an organization (Chang, 2001). A president of a school is like the CEO of a business; a president must handle everything like a CEO. That is, a president is a CEO in an organization.
2. Because national culture addresses many different aspects of life, it has a strong and pervasive influence on people's behavior in everyday activities and in organizations (Nahavandi, 2003). Each country and region in the world has developed a particular organizational and managerial style based largely on its national culture. This style is called the national organizational heritage, which is noticeable and distinct (Bettis & Prahalad, 1995). The original LBDQ is based on Western culture. To attain validity, a modified LBDQ based on the Taiwanese culture is required.
3. S. F. Lin has a high academic reputation and has been in the academic field for more than 20 years. He was a candidate for president of the National

Taipei Teacher College. He developed the Taiwanese President Leader Behavior Questionnaire in 1983 and then modified it in 1990 for more precise measurement on leaders' behaviors. This reliable and valid instrument has been used for more than 10 years.

4. Sun (2001) stated that it measures business leaders by the indicators of cohesion, employee satisfaction, and morale, and school leaders by the indicators of cohesion, employee satisfaction, morale, productivity, and goal achievement, which indicates why business and school are regarded as two different-dimensional organizations. Furthermore, Seashore (1983) said that organizational adaptation and strength should be considered in evaluating organizational effectiveness (as cited in Sun, 2001). Sun concluded that comprehensive evaluation (initiating structure and consideration) shows that schools offer a same conclusion in leadership effectiveness as well as businesses. In other words, schools and businesses should be regarded as a same-dimensional organization for comprehensive measurement.
5. Former Harvard University President D. C. Bok (2003) said that universities are commercialized through sports show sponsorships, scientific research, and continuing education development. Also, most schools now operate as commercial vehicles to survive in the competitive education field. That is, the leadership styles of schools and businesses are compatible.

In short, LBDQ can measure a leader behavior of schools and businesses. The PLBQ based on LBDQ is modified to evaluate schools' leader behaviors. Therefore, the contexts of the two questionnaires remain the same; yet, the basic distinction between

LBQD and PLBQ is only on word. That is, the PLBQ can be employed to examine leaders' behaviors of businesses if it is modified only on word.

Work Autonomy Scales

The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) made by Hackman and Oldham and Job Characteristics Inventory (JCI) created by Sims, Szilagy, and Keller are two prevalent instruments used to evaluate global work autonomy (as cited in Breugh, 1985). Breugh developed the Work Autonomy Scales in 1985 because an instrument was needed to differentiate three dimensions of autonomy: work method, scheduling, and criteria.

The factor structure of the three dimensions of the Work Autonomy Scales (WAS) was evaluated using several analyses including Cronbach alpha for reliability, a confirmatory factor analysis known as structural equation model (SEM), and LISREL (Breugh, 1985, 1989; Breugh & Becker, 1987). In addition, a subgroup analysis was conducted to examine self-report autonomy for validity (Breugh, 1999).

Cronbach alpha was calculated to determine the instrument's reliability of this instrument with internal consistency. A confirmatory factor analysis supported the instrument's construct validity, and a subgroup analysis showed that a correspondence between self-report autonomy and outside rating autonomy reflected the construct validity. Besides those analyses, a study was conducted to decide the value of this instrument. The results of the research revealed the WAS was preferred over global work autonomy scale such as the JDS and JCI (Breugh, 1999).

Breugh (1985, 1989, 1999) and Breugh and Becker (1987) confirmed the construct validity with the confirmatory factor analysis and subgroup analysis for the three dimensions of the Work Autonomy Scales. Additionally, they stated that neither the

WAS nor global work autonomy scales such as JDS and JCI were suited to various states but they thought that the WAS provided more valuable information than did the global work autonomy scales. Breugh stated that Cronbach's coefficient alpha can be used to evaluate the internal consistency of the WAS, which ranged from 0.77 to 0.92 in 1985, from 0.96 to 0.97 in 1987, from 0.78 to 0.91 in 1989, and 0.85 to 0.93 in 1999. The instrument has remained very reliable over time.

Work Autonomy and Empowerment

Many researchers defined different aspects of autonomy including the psychological aspect and leadership realm. Yet, work autonomy is autonomy in leadership realm.

For psychological aspect, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined autonomy as the intrinsic sense of control in the workplace involving beliefs about one's meaning, competence, and self-determination. Autonomy is comprised of an individual's perception of the value of their jobs, and competence of their capabilities to conduct work (Gomez & Rosen, 2001). Spreitzer (1995) stated autonomy as a psychological term reflecting an individual's feeling of self-control and self-efficacy.

Leadership realm was addressed for autonomy in the study. Wade (1999) continued, saying that autonomy is a process that indicates a lump sum of freedom, self-management, or employees' behaviors connected to readiness, actualization, and empowerment. Autonomy is a set of activities and practices that leaders utilize to give power, control, and authority to subordinates (Ford & Fottler, 1995). Autonomy conceptualizes the allocation of power and the nature of the relationship between leaders and their subordinates (Schermerhorn et al., 1988). Giving subordinates autonomy

enhances organizational effectiveness (Kanter, 1989).

Work autonomy is the degree to which groups or subordinates are able to use self-determination and discretion in making decisions about schedules and procedures based on their jobs and circumstances (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Increased access to information or resources is conceptualized for work autonomy (Gomez & Rosen, 2001). The quality of work is enhanced by increasing ownership of the work, boosting the amount of relevant information that employees require, and settling decisions at the point of operational problems (Pearce & Ravlin, 1987).

Empowerment is unconventional management employed by leaders to enhance organizational efficacy. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) said that concentration, initiative, resiliency, and subsequent commitment to organizational efficacy could be improved if employees are empowered. Leaders learn how to invite followers in participative management to finish jobs effectively, putting them in charge of their own jobs in empowerment (Robbins, 2001). Robbins also explained:

The relationship between managers and employees who are supposedly responsible for managing is reshaping. Managers are also called coaches, advisers, sponsors, or facilitators, and employees are now called associates. Decisions making are pushed down to the operating level, where workers are given the freedom of self-management to make choices about schedules and procedures and to solve work-related problems. (p. 16)

Therefore, empowerment had the same context with autonomy in the leadership realm and work autonomy in the study.

Summary

In this chapter, related literature was reviewed to present the theoretical origins for this research. Most of the definitions of leadership reflected on how to lead followers toward organizational goals. Leadership theory was introduced with several theories including trait theory, behavioral theory, contingency theory, Scandinavian theory, and neocharismatic theory. Leadership style is categorized with the dimension of leader behavior. Trait theory addresses leaders born naturally. Behavioral theory shows how specific behaviors differentiate leaders from subordinates. Task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviors are most widely employed in classifying leadership in theories such as contingency and neocharismatic theories. Besides task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviors, development-oriented behavior is introduced in Scandinavian theory.

Autonomy is developed based on psychology and managerial skill. The psychology aspect of autonomy is the process of increasing individual perceptions of control as well as a process of strengthening an individual's self-efficacy belief (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The managerial skill aspect of autonomy establishes the boss-subordinate relationship; autonomy is a concept that captures the nature of the relationship between managers and their subordinates (Arnold et al., 2000; Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Additionally, work autonomy is the degree to which groups or subordinates are able to use self-determination and discretion in their jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The core element of work autonomy is trust. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and Whitener et al. (1998) said leaders need to trust the competence of employees when inviting subordinates' participation in the decision-making process. Therefore, professional work autonomy means that subordinates use their knowledge to serve

customers, and a leader trusts in subordinates' competence and gives them the required decision-making authority for job demands. In turn, subordinates are loyal to the leader, protecting the leader and saving face for the leader. Because a leader's trust in subordinates' capabilities is based on professional knowledge, professionals are given more discretion. Friedman (1999) said that employees' professional autonomy allows them more decision-making power and freedom to perform jobs.

Leaders and employees are mutually dependent (Arnold et al., 2000). Tjosvold, Yu, and Liu (2003) stated that employees might withdraw from organizations and fail to exert their competencies for organizational efficacy; they might even use them to obstruct organizational operations. To encourage employees to use their abilities, leaders need to develop quality relationships. A key to effective leadership is developing relationships where leaders and employees combine each other's ideas, efforts, and abilities (Setton et al., 1996). Employees then are motivated to commit to goals, and leaders are effective. Leaders should abandon thoughts of control over employees and develop more productive relationships with them, providing them with autonomy and flexibility as well as helping them find values and commit to their jobs (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

Taiwanese culture based on Confucianism generates a high-power distance culture (Hofstede, 1997). Nahavandi (2003) stated that leadership is deeply influenced by national culture. Miner and Smith (1982) said that the concept of motivation to manage involves a desire for power and control over others; this is an essential component in initiating-structure cultures. Therefore, the leadership style with initiating structure is preferred over consideration in high-power distance cultures. Also, a high-power distance culture accompanies inequality in the boss-subordinate relationship

(Hofstede, 1980; Nicholls, Lane, & Brechu, 1999). That is why relationship has been an important factor in Taiwanese society and organizations. Also, based on the stereotype, gender, education level, age, tenure, and marital status could be discriminated by leaders.

Consideration is requisite in a leader's behavior to empower employees to achieve leadership effectiveness (Yi & Yang, 2005). However, initiating structure has remained in high-power-distance culture of Taiwan, even in the empowerment process. Thus, as a result of this occurrence, low autonomy was reported in the research because of the influence that initiating structure had on employees.

The research methodology was justified by introducing linear structural relationship (LISREL) and with explaining parametric methods used rather than nonparametric tests. The researcher explained the reasons why the two survey instruments: PLBQ and WAS were chosen. And justification of work autonomy in leadership realm had the same context with empowerment.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between CEO leadership style and the professional work autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies. After reviewing the literature, the researcher administered survey instruments and analyzed collected data using statistical software. This chapter presents a description of the research design, participants, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis, reliability and validity of the research, protection of human subjects, and a summary.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the leadership styles of chief executive officers (CEOs) and the professional work autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies. Because of the nature of this research, a quantitative survey study design was used.

Creswell (1994) asserted that

A quantitative study, consistent with the quantitative paradigm, is an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analyzed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true. (p. 2)

Also, McMillan and Schumacher (2001) explained that survey research can describe the characteristics of a population, examine relationships between variables, or delineate the reasons for particular practices. This research used quantitative methods to collect numeric data for statistical analyses involving describing demographic characteristics, confirming correlations between leadership and autonomy, investigating

the differences between two or more groups on a variable, and delineating the reasons for leadership behavior associated to autonomy and perceptible differences of autonomy in demographic characteristics. Hence, this study was a quantitative survey study.

Participants

Population

There are 37 domestic and 10 foreign securities investment trust companies in the Securities Investment Trust & Consulting Association (SITCA) in Taiwan. According to regulations issued by the official Securities and Futures Bureau, Financial Supervisory Commission, in Yuan, Taiwan, legalized investment companies must be members of SITCA. Data from SITCA showed that in 2003, there were 2,964 subordinates in the 47 investment companies. In this research, the population only is comprised of those in marketing, research and customer service departments of 37 domestic securities investment trust companies. Therefore, the number of the population is less 2,964.

Sample

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) stated that “the general rule in determining sample size is to obtain a sufficient number to provide a credible result” (p. 177). Robinson and Robinson (1996) indicated the number of subjects in a research study must reflect the overall population being studied. In the book, *Performance Consulting: Moving Beyond Training*, the sample size table indicates a sample size of 340 subjects required for studying a population of 3,000 with a significance of 0.05. Therefore, a sample size of at least 340 subjects was required for the 2,964 total subordinates in the investment companies. The researcher sent out 555 surveys, and 356 were deemed valid. Therefore, the sample size is adequate for this research; there are fewer than 2,964

subordinates in marketing, research and customer service departments of 37 domestic securities investment trust companies. So, for correlation between leadership and autonomy and difference per subordinates' perception, the results of the study can be generalized to the population. McMillan and Schmacher said that 15 is the minimum number of subjects needed in each subgroup when comparing groups. Tables 10 and 12 show that the number in each subgroup is greater than 15. So, the comparative results can be trusted.

Sampling

The purpose of random sampling is to increase the variation among samples to reflect the qualities of population (Keller & Warrack, 2002). So, to reach the real qualities of the population of the research, the random-sampling technique was a prerequisite.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) explained that “the population is divided into subgroups, or strata, on the basis of a variable chosen by the researcher. Once the population has been divided, samples are drawn randomly from each subgroup” (p. 172) for stratified random sampling. Stratified random sampling involves proportional and nonproportional sampling. Proportional sampling is “based on the percentage of subjects in the population that is present in each stratum” (p. 172). For nonproportional sampling, “the researcher selects the same number of subjects to be in each stratum of the sample” (p. 172). Because the certain number of three types of professional subordinates in each company was unknown before the researcher visited those companies, nonproportional stratified random sampling was scheduled.

Survey instruments were distributed to 555 subordinates in the investment-related departments of 37 investment companies, with 15 of each type of survey going to three

sorts of professionals in each company. Of the 396 instruments returned for each type, 356 of each were valid, making the return rate of valid subjects 64.41%.

Instrumentation

Two surveys instruments were administered. The first one was the modified President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (PLBQ), and the second one was the Work Autonomy Scales (WAS).

President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire

PLBQ. Because there were too many statements for people to respond to in the LBDQ and because of culture differences between the West and the East, S. F. Lin developed a questionnaire with 35 statements based on the LBDQ to measure presidential behavior at Taiwanese schools in terms of consideration and initiating structure in 1983. The questionnaire modified in 1990 is known as the President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire. The PLBQ has two major dimensions—consideration and initiating structure. These two dimensions are extended into four dimensions, including high initiating structure and consideration, high initiating structure and low consideration, low initiating structure and high consideration, and low initiating structure and consideration.

1. High initiating structure and high consideration lead to organizational efficacy and better relationships between a leader and subordinates.
2. High initiating structure and low consideration show organizational efficacy and worse relationships between the leader and the subordinates.
3. Low initiating structure and high consideration demonstrate less organizational efficacy and higher relationships between the leader and the subordinates.

4. Low initiating structure and low consideration show less organizational efficacy and lower relationships between the leader and the subordinates.

Statements. The questionnaire has 35 statements divided into consideration, initiating structure, and examination dimensions; statements 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 13, 17, 19, 20, 24, 26, 27, 31, 33, and 34 are included in the consideration dimension; statements 1, 2, 4, 8, 11, 15, 16, 18, 22, 23, 25, 29, 30, and 32 are included in the initiating structure dimension; and statements 7, 14, 21, 28, 35 are statements that are used to filter voidable questionnaires (Lin, 1983). In other words, only 30 statements were used to measure leadership style.

Modified PLBQ. To appropriately use the instrument, some words for schools had to be substituted (see Appendixes G & H) (e.g., subordinates for teachers, continuing learning for research, company for school and institute, works for classes, CEO for president).

Subjects expressed their responses, opinions, ideas, or beliefs to statements of the modified President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale. The five categories of responses were: 1 = *never*, 2 = *seldom*, 3 = *occasionally*, 4 = *often*, and 5 = *always*.

Breaugh's Work Autonomy Scales

WAS. Breaugh (1985) developed the Work Autonomy Scales and divided the measurement into three categories: work method autonomy, work scheduling autonomy, and work criteria autonomy. Breaugh (1985) and Dee et al. (2000) defined the three categories as:

1. Work method autonomy: The degree of method that people can exert in their work. This dimension is the extent to which subordinates can decide their job content and service emphases.
2. Work scheduling autonomy: The level to which people can dominate the schedules of their work. This dimension involves the freedom of subordinates to decide the timing of jobs and services.
3. Work criteria autonomy: The degree of freedom to which people can measure their performance. This dimension evaluates the extent of freedom demanded by subordinates to decide the standards by which they will be measured in their jobs.

Statements. This instrument contains nine questions, with three statements in each of three categories. The responses are measured using a 7-point Likert scale in which 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *somewhat disagree*, 4 = *no opinion*, 5 = *somewhat agree*, 6 = *agree*, and 7 = *strongly agree*.

Reliability and Validity of Survey Instrument

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) said that internal consistency is the most popular form of reliability estimation, for which the Cronbach alpha coefficient is a type of estimation (Cooper & Emory, 1995). The reliability coefficient shows the degree of reliability; the higher the coefficient, the better the reliability. Cronbach (1951) classified the meaning of alpha coefficient; < 0.5 means unbelievable, $0.5 < \alpha < 0.7$ is believable, $0.7 < \alpha < 0.9$ is very believable, and $0.9 < \alpha < 1$ is extremely believable.

Evidence of internal validity can be calculated through convergent, and discriminant validity measures (Cooper & Emory, 1995). Confirmatory factor analysis is

used to measure an analytical model framed through theoretical explanation with collected data (Wong, 2004) for convergent and discriminant validities.

Pilot test for modified PLBQ. The researcher conducted a pilot test to determine whether the items and the directions for the President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire were clear. Pilot tests are run because “the researcher wants to know whether it takes too long to complete, whether the directions and items are clear, and so on” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 267). Therefore, two procedures were employed to be sure the items were clear to interviewees:

1. The chairman reviewed words that were revised to reflect a business environment rather than a school environment.
2. A pilot test was conducted after the questionnaire was reviewed.

Chiang (2002) said that the size of samples should be greater than 40 for a pilot test. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) suggested that “it is best to locate a sample of subjects with characteristics similar to those that will be used in the study” (p. 267). They also shared that sufficient variability for the answers may be considered. So the researcher sent out 60 questionnaires out of three departments: research, marketing, and customer service from the companies with the same characteristics (securities investment consulting companies), using convenience sampling. The researcher obtained 43 responses in an attempt to ensure that respondents could understand each statement clearly, that the instructions were clear, and to determine the time it would take to complete a questionnaire (5–10 minutes). In addition, McMillan and Schumacher (2001) suggested that an estimate of reliability may be calculated. Cronbach alpha was employed to determine the instrument’s reliability because internal inconsistency would emerge if

the directions and items were inaccurate.

Table 6 reports the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the modified PLBQ. All the coefficients were greater than 0.7, which mean “very believable” (Cronbach, 1951).

Table 6

Cronbach Alpha Coefficients of Modified PLBQ

Survey Instrument	Dimensions	Coefficients
Modified PLBQ	Consideration	0.758
	Initiating Structure	0.849
	Leadership Styles	0.879

Modified PLBQ and WAS. Before processing statistical analyses, data quality must be verified because interviewees, researchers, situations, and survey instruments could result in measurement error, which can reduce the reliability and validity of research (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) said that the reliability and validity must be verified if the research will generate significant influence on individuals or programs. Data on the original PLBQ was compiled based on the responses of Taiwanese teachers. However, this research surveyed the subordinates of Taiwanese investment companies from SITCA. Therefore the researcher conducted tests of reliability and validity on the modified instrument. Additionally, because the WAS was originally researched based on Western culture, new tests of reliability and validity were needed.

In LISREL, the reliability and validity of a survey instrument are assessed using three measurements: item reliability equals squared factor loading, composite reliability equals $(\sum \text{factor loading})^2 / (\sum \text{factor loading})^2 + \sum (1 - \text{item reliability})$, and variance

extracted equals $(\sum \text{item reliability}) / [\sum \text{item reliability} + \sum (1 - \text{item reliability})]$ (Wong, 2004). Additionally, composite reliability and variance extraction can measure reliability and convergent validity (Sorebo, Christensen, & Eikebrokk, 2004), and variance extraction can be regarded as the critical value for discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Item reliability that equals the squared factor loading is lower than the 0.5 cutoff value recommended by Bagozzi and Yi (1988), although all paths have significant t values. However, it is quite common to find that several measures of an estimated model have squared factor loadings below the 0.5 threshold. When new items or newly developed scales are employed, a more suitable cutoff value may be 0.16 or 0.25 (Hulland, 1999) because $(\sum \text{item reliability}) / [\sum \text{item reliability} + \sum (1 - \text{item reliability})]$ equals $\sum \text{item reliability} / n$. Researchers regard the composite reliability value for the support usage construct, which is considerably greater than the 0.5 cutoff value recommended by Raine-Eudy (2000).

The cutoff value of item reliability, composite reliability, and variance extraction should be 0.5 for the modified PLBQ because it was modified based on Taiwanese culture since 1983. The WAS is a newly developed scale to Taiwanese culture; hence, 0.16 or 0.25 may be a more suitable cutoff value for item reliability and variance extraction, and 0.5 would be a better composite reliability cutoff.

The tests of composite reliability and convergent and discriminant validity were processed by LISREL. Table 7 shows the composite reliability and convergent validity of the modified PLBQ. The reliability and validity of the modified PLBQ were confirmed, except for the item reliability of item 16. Overall, this questionnaire can be considered a

good survey instrument.

Table 7

Test of Composite Reliability and Convergent Validity for Modified PLBQ

	Factor Loading	T-Value	Measurement Error	Item Reliability	Variance Extraction	Composite Reliability
Consideration						
Item 3	0.9	12.79	0.19	0.81	0.74	0.93
Item 5	0.84	11.73	0.29	0.71		
Item 6	0.93	13.43	0.14	0.86		
Item 10	0.87	12.23	0.24	0.76		
Item 12	-0.93	-13.44	0.14	0.86		
Item 13	0.76	10.41	0.42	0.58		
Item 17	-0.96	-13.92	0.08	0.92		
Item 19	-0.80	-11.11	0.36	0.64		
Item 20	0.83	11.71	0.31	0.69		
Item 24	0.85	12.00	0.28	0.72		
Item 26	0.94	13.66	0.12	0.88		
Item 27	0.95	13.84	0.10	0.90		
Item 31	0.77	10.54	0.42	0.59		
Item 33	0.87	12.29	0.24	0.76		
Item 34	0.71	9.53	0.50	0.50		
Initiating structure						
Item 1	0.98	14.42	0.04	0.96	0.76	0.94
Item 2	0.98	14.35	0.04	0.96		
Item 4	-0.92	-13.29	0.15	0.85		
Item 8	-0.82	-11.47	0.33	0.67		
Item 9	-0.94	-13.66	0.12	0.88		
Item 11	0.85	11.97	0.28	0.72		
Item 15	0.76	10.49	0.42	0.58		
Item 16	0.80	11.21	0.36	0.64		
Item 18	0.56	7.37	0.69	0.31		
Item 22	0.96	14.07	0.08	0.92		
Item 23	0.98	14.38	0.04	0.96		
Item 25	0.84	11.83	0.29	0.71		
Item 29	0.83	11.59	0.31	0.69		
Item 30	0.91	13.06	0.17	0.83		
Item 32	0.83	11.70	0.31	0.69		

Table 8 presents the composite reliability and convergent validity of the WAS. All item reliabilities were greater than the 0.16 or 0.25 cutoff value in all the items of the three dimensions of method, scheduling, and criteria, and all composite reliabilities were greater than the 0.5 cutoff value for the three dimensions of method, scheduling, and criteria. Also, all convergent validities for variance extraction were higher than 0.16 or 0.25. Therefore, the reliability and validity of WAS were confirmed in this study.

Table 8

Test of Composite Reliability and Convergent Validity for WAS

	Factor Loading	T-Value	Measurement Error	Item Reliability	Variance Extraction	Composite Reliability
Method	0.85	8.77	0.28	0.72	0.59	0.81
	0.67	7.12	0.55	0.45		
	0.78	8.13	0.39	0.61		
Scheduling	0.51	4.18	0.74	0.26	0.30	0.56
	0.57	4.54	0.68	0.32		
	0.56	4.49	0.69	0.31		
Criteria	0.79	6.92	0.38	0.62	0.35	0.60
	0.50	4.98	0.75	0.25		
	0.43	4.38	0.82	0.18		

Table 9 presents the correlations and squared correlations among the different constructs for the survey instruments. The right-hand column shows the variance extracted against the squared correlation of the remaining constructs, which indicates adequate discriminant validity because each squared correlations is lower than the

variance extraction (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The squared correlations between any two different dimensions were lower than variance extraction in modified PLBQ and WAS, so discriminant validity was confirmed in the two survey instruments.

Table 9

Test of Discriminant Validity for Modified PLBQ and WAS

Modified PLBQ	Dimensions	Consideration	Initiating Structure	Variance Extraction
	Consideration	1	0.1	0.74
	Initiating Structure	0.1	1	0.76

WAS	Dimensions	Method	Scheduling	Criteria	Variance Extraction
	Method	1	0.39	0.18	0.59
	Scheduling	0.39	1	-0.03	0.30
	Criteria	0.18	-0.03	1	0.35

Return Rate of Valid Data

Babbie (1998) recommended that a 50–60% return rate of valid data is acceptable, 60–70% is very acceptable, and greater than 70% is extremely acceptable for estimating a population by samples. In this research, the valid return rate was 64.41% (356/555), which locate at a very-acceptable range. Therefore, this return rate was acceptable for estimating a population by samples, according to Babbie.

Data Collection

In survey research, data collection involves mail, telephone, and hand delivery in which questionnaires are delivered personally to respondents and collected immediately upon completion (Huang, 1999). Huang stated that hand delivery provides advantages

including flexibility, amount of data collected, and accuracy of data as measured by the questions: “How congruent are one’s findings with reality?” and “Are we observing or measuring what we think we are observing or measuring?” (Merriam, 2002, p. 25). Because the accuracy of the data affects the validity of the analysis results and because hand delivery leads to greater accuracy, hand delivery was used.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) said that probability sampling (i.e., simple random, systematic, stratified random and cluster samplings) can yield better effects in reliability and validity than nonprobability sampling (i.e., convenience, purposeful and quota samplings). They also explained that “ the probability of selecting each member of the population is known, though probabilities are not necessarily equal” (p. 170) for probability sampling. In contrast, the probability is unknown for nonprobability sampling.

In this study, the modified PLBQ and WAS were used to collect data from 15 randomly selected subordinates in three types of departments of each Taiwanese investment company. The total sample size was 555 subordinates. Supervisors at the selected companies granted access to the employees. Also, to implement stratified random sampling, the researcher visited three types of professionals selected by drawing numbered lots. These lots coded which subordinates in each company would fill out the two survey instruments. The researcher delivered packages that contained an introductory letter (see Appendixes C and D), a consent form (see Appendixes E and F) and a survey instrument (see Appendixes G and H) with English and Chinese versions. The instruments were returned to the researcher immediately after they were completed. Each returned survey instrument was coded according to the company identification.

Hypotheses of the Research

Primary Hypothesis

To confirm the relationship between CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies, the primary hypothesis based on several aspects included:

1. Relationship between two dimensions of leadership style: consideration and initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.
2. Relationship between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy.
3. Relationship between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Also, goodness of fit was confirmed for the relationship between two dimensions of leadership behavior: consideration and initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy; between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy; and between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Following this primary hypothesis, several null sub-hypotheses were examined by SPSS as well.

Sub-Hypothesis One

There are no significant differences among the four types of perceived leadership styles (low consideration and low initiating structure, high consideration and high initiating structure, low consideration and high initiating structure, and high consideration and low initiating structure) and overall work autonomy.

Sub-Hypothesis Two

There are no significant differences among the four types of perceived leadership

styles and each dimension of work autonomy (work method, scheduling and criteria).

Sub-Hypothesis Three

There are no significant differences between demographic factors of gender, marital status, level of education, age, and tenure and overall work autonomy.

Sub-Hypothesis Four

There are no significant differences between demographic factors of gender, marital status, level of education, age, and tenure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Sub-Hypothesis Five

There are no significant differences among the three dimensions of work autonomy.

Data Analysis

In this research, linear structural relationship was used to confirm assumed theoretical models between leadership and work autonomy; between the two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria; between consideration and work method, scheduling, and criteria; and between initiating structure and work method, scheduling and criteria. The researcher used LISREL 8.3 with a significance level of 0.05. In addition, the researcher used SPSS 12.0 for Windows to conduct analyses to determine the means, frequencies, percentages, and standard deviations of data. One-way ANOVAs, Scheffe tests, and *t*-test, also were processed with a significance level of 0.05.

Joreskog and Sorbom (1993) explained that researchers must form an assumed theoretical framework of cause-and-effect based on theories to verify the precision of hypotheses before processing LISREL (i.e., LISREL is used to measure an analytical

model framed through theoretical explanation with collected data). Wong (2004) said that LISREL can be used to confirm goodness-of-fit for relationship, which means that the extent of an assumed theory framework fits the practical collected data.

ANOVA is employed to examine the differences in the mean (average value) of two or more groups (Howell, 1999). For one-way ANOVA, there is only one independent variable, and Scheffe test is a post-hoc test that examines which mean is different from other groups' when significance emerges among more than three groups (Carven & Nash, 2000). T-test is employed to test the characteristic of a population (Keller & Warrack, 2002).

In this research, the primary hypothesis was confirmed with LISREL. Sub-hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 4 were tested with one-way ANOVA. The Scheffe test was employed to examine where the differences were between groups in sub-hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4. Sub-hypothesis 5 was examined with the *t*-test.

Reliability and Validity of the Research

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) explained that "internal reliability refers to the consistency of measurement—the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument or occasions of data collection" (p. 244). That is, if the study were repeated, would it yield the same results? In this research, the reliability of the modified President Leadership Behavior questionnaire is 0.93 for initiating structure and 0.94 for consideration. The cutoff value was set at 0.7 because it was modified based on Taiwanese culture. The reliability of the Work Autonomy Scales is 0.81 for work method, 0.56 for work scheduling, and 0.6 for work criteria. The cutoff value was set at 0.5 because the WAS was a newly developed scale to Taiwanese culture. Those revealed

stable consistence.

Internal validity is usually construed as “How congruent are one’s findings with reality?” or “Are we observing or measuring what we think we are observing or measuring?” (Merriam, 2002, p. 25). The validity of the modified PLBQ was 0.74 for consideration and 0.76 for initiating structure; the cutoff value was set at 0.5. The validity of the WAS was 0.5 for work method, 0.3 for work scheduling, and 0.35 for work criteria; the cutoff value was set at 0.25. The validity was confirmed. Those represented that data can reach the research purpose.

External validity is also known as generalizability (Merriam, 2002). Merriam asserted, “This involves providing an adequate database, that is, enough description and information that readers will be able to determine how closely their situations match, and thus whether findings can be transferred” (p. 29). In this research, there were two general categories of external validity that needed to be considered: population external validity and ecological external validity (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). McMillan and Schumacher explained that:

The extent to which the results can be generalized to other people is referred to as population external validity; ecological external validity refers to the conditions of the research and the extent to which generalizing the results is limited to similar conditions. (p. 193)

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) said that techniques to promote population external validity include sample selection, where samples drawn will cause an error in the sampling process if they are not chosen randomly. In this quantitative research, the samples were drawn with non-proportional stratified random sampling, which would

naturally promote population external validity.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) also offered methods to increase ecological external validity. One is description of variables, where generalization is limited to the category of the independent and dependent variables. In this research, independent and dependent variables were classified clearly.

Protection of Human Subjects

This research was reviewed and approved for the protection of human subjects' rights by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of the Incarnate Word. A consent form accompanied the survey introductory letter, which explained the purpose, benefits, and risks of the research. In addition, the letter pledged anonymity to the subjects, their institutions, and affiliations. The letter also included a statement of the affect of the survey instrument. Only the researcher could access the data and code the survey instrument. Additionally, the researcher agreed that individual information would not be shared and that only group data would be reported.

Summary

This chapter included a discussion of the research design, participants (population, sample, and sampling), instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis, reliability and validity of the research, and efforts to protect human subjects. This research was a survey study implemented with a quantitative approach. Research hypotheses addressed the relationship between CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of subordinates and between subordinates' demographics and two independent variables of CEO leadership style and work autonomy of subordinates.

The population was composed of the subordinates in the investment-related

departments. Non-proportional stratified random sampling was employed to collect data through hand delivery, where two survey instruments, the modified PLBQ and WAS, were sent to 555 subordinates and returned to the researcher. The reliability and validity of the modified PLBQ and WAS were confirmed.

In addition, the researcher confirmed correlation and goodness of fit for the relationship between leadership and autonomy using LISREL. The researcher calculated descriptive and inferential statistics including means, frequencies, percentages, standard deviations, one-way ANOVA, Scheffe test, and *t*-test with SPSS.

Chapter Four: Results

Introduction

The primary purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between perceived CEO leadership styles and subordinate work autonomy in Taiwanese investment companies. This relationship was confirmed through practical data on two variables: leadership style and subordinate work autonomy. The sub-purpose was to examine differences based on two variables: subordinates' demographic characteristics, and subordinate work autonomy.

Data for analyses were collected through responses on survey instruments collected from the subordinates of 37 investment companies of the Securities Investment Trust & Consulting Associates of R. O. C. (SITCA). The survey instruments were distributed to 555 subordinates in investment-related departments; 15 instruments were sent to three sorts of professionals in each company for each type of survey instrument. Of those instruments distributed, 396 instruments were returned for each type, and 356 of these were deemed valid.

In this research, linear structural relationship (confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis, including path coefficient or correlation coefficient and *t* value) was involved in confirming the alternative theoretical model 1 between leadership and work autonomy; the alternative theoretical model 2 between the two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria; the alternative theoretical models 3 and 4 between consideration and work method, scheduling, and criteria and between initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria. A significance level of 0.05 was used. In addition, means, frequencies,

percentages, standard deviations, one-way ANOVAs, Scheffe tests, and a *t*-test were processed.

Information of Demographics on Survey Respondents

Table 10 reports that information about demographics, including gender, level of education, age, tenure, and marital status.

Table 10

Demographic Information on Survey Respondents

Demographics	Categories	<i>f</i>	P
Gender	Male	145	40.7
	Female	211	59.3
Education	Master and over	86	24.2
	Undergraduate	164	46.0
	Under Undergraduate	106	29.8
Age	25 and under	27	7.6
	26–30	117	32.9
	31–35	122	34.3
	36–40	61	17.1
	41 and older	29	8.1
Tenure	One and under	35	9.8
	1–3	80	22.5
	3–5	77	21.6
	5–7	78	21.9
	7–10	49	13.8
	10 and longer	37	10.4
Marital Status	Single	202	56.7
	Married	154	43.3

Information of Perceived CEO Leadership

Data were collected using the modified PLBQ for leadership style classified into

the two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure. They later were classified into the four combination dimensions of high consideration and high initiating structure, low consideration and low initiating structure, high consideration and low initiating structure, and low consideration and high initiating structure after statistics processing.

Mean scores and standard deviations of subordinates' perception of the two dimensions of perceived leadership and leadership are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Mean and Standard Deviations in Perceived Leadership Styles

Dimensions	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Consideration	44.84	3.76
Initiating Structure	44.22	5.78
Leadership Styles	89.06	7.69

Miskel and Hoy (1987) indicated that the mean of the total score of each dimension can be the critical value for high and low dimension. In their book, *Educational Administration: Theory Research and Practice*, Miskel and Hoy used the critical value (i.e., the mean of the total score of each dimension) to categorize consideration into high and low consideration. Using this methodology, the researcher also developed classifications of high and low initiating structure. Hence, the categories of low consideration and initiating structure, high consideration and initiating structure, low consideration and high initiating structure, and high consideration and low initiating structure were produced for four dimensions of perceived leadership.

In this research, leadership style was regarded as the combination of consideration and initiating structure for a CEO's behavior. With different intensities of the two

dimensions, four leadership styles were generated: low consideration and low initiating structure, high consideration and high initiating structure, low consideration and high initiating structure, and high consideration and low initiating structure. The maximum score on consideration and initiating structure was 75 each, and the minimum was 15 for consideration and initiating structure each; so the score range was 30 to 150.

356 could be divided into four types of leadership styles according to the perceived leadership styles. Table 12 presents the frequencies and percentages from subordinates' perception of CEO leadership styles and shows that most subordinates perceived their CEOs' leadership style as low consideration and low initiating structure.

Table 12

Frequencies and Percentages for Four Dimensions of Perceived Leadership Styles

Consideration	Initiating Structure	<i>f</i>	P
High	High	77	21.63
High	Low	84	23.60
Low	High	67	18.82
Low	Low	128	35.95

Table 13 presents the mean scores of leadership style and each dimension of perceived leadership style by demographics. Subordinates who were male, married, in the master's level-and-over education level, age 36–40, and with 5–7 years of tenure perceived the highest leadership style in each of the demographic categories. In addition, those who were male, married, in the master's level-and-over education level and undergraduate, ages 31-35 and 36-40, and with 5–7 and 7-10 years of tenure perceived higher initiating structure than consideration.

Table 13

Mean Scores of Perceived Leadership Styles by Subordinates' Demographics

Demographics	Categories	Dimensions		
		Consideration	Initiating Structure	Leadership Styles
Gender	Male	45.18	45.73	90.91
	Female	44.61	42.73	87.34
Education	Master's and over	46.14	47.54	93.68
	Undergraduate	43.98	44.41	88.39
	Under Undergraduate	44.43	40.76	85.19
Age	25 and under	44.17	40.48	84.65
	26–30	44.52	43.72	88.24
	31–35	45.23	46.24	91.47
	36–40	45.67	46.55	92.22
	41 and older	44.62	44.08	88.70
Tenure	One and under	44.60	40.72	85.32
	1–3	44.15	43.52	87.67
	3–5	44.90	43.89	88.79
	5–7	45.31	46.58	91.89
	7–10	45.39	46.33	91.72
	10 and more	44.76	44.23	88.99
	Marital Status	Single	44.14	44.78
Married		44.33	44.92	89.25

Information of Subordinate Work Autonomy

Data on subordinate work autonomy were collected using the Work Autonomy Scales, which is divided into three dimensions: method, scheduling, and criteria. The maximum score for each dimension was 21 and the minimum was 3, for a score range of 9 to 63. Table 14 presents the means and standard deviations for the dimensions of work autonomy as well as for work autonomy. The highest mean score was in the method

dimension, indicating that subordinates felt the most empowered with their work in method.

Table 14

Mean and Standard Deviations in Subordinate Work Autonomy

Dimensions	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Method	15.30	2.32
Scheduling	14.97	2.71
Criteria	8.39	2.17
Work Autonomy	38.66	4.75

Table 15 presents the mean scores for each dimension of subordinate work autonomy and for work autonomy by subordinates' demographics. Subordinates who were male, married, in the master's level-and-over education level, age 36–40, and with 7–10 years of tenure perceived the highest work autonomy. Additionally, subordinates who were male, married, in the master's level-and-over education level, age 36–40, and with 7–10 years of tenure perceived the highest autonomy in work method. Subordinates who were male, single, in the master's level-and-over education level, age 31–35, and with 7–10 years of tenure perceived the highest autonomy in work scheduling. Subordinates who were male, married, in the master's level and over education level, age 31–35, and with 5–7 years of tenure perceived the highest autonomy in work criteria.

Document continues with Table 15 on the following page.

Table 15

Mean Scores of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Subordinates' Demographics

Demographics	Categories	Dimensions			
		Method	Scheduling	Criteria	Work Autonomy
Gender	Male	15.58	15.01	9.46	40.05
	Female	15.11	14.95	7.25	37.31
Education	Master's and over	16.20	16.04	10.42	42.66
	Undergraduate	14.55	14.22	8.88	37.65
	Under Undergraduate	15.24	14.64	5.88	35.76
Age	25 and under	14.56	14.11	6.22	34.89
	26–30	14.81	14.06	8.15	37.02
	31–35	15.38	15.67	9.87	40.92
	36–40	16.33	15.59	9.09	41.01
	41 and older	15.55	15.24	8.57	39.36
Tenure	One and under	14.87	14.28	6.43	35.58
	1–3	14.31	13.68	8.53	36.52
	3–5	15.71	15.31	8.71	39.73
	5–7	14.97	15.57	9.39	39.93
	7–10	16.27	15.65	9.14	41.06
	10 and more	15.77	15.29	8.09	39.15
Marital Status	Single	14.90	14.99	8.23	38.12
	Married	15.61	14.97	8.51	39.09

Information of Two Survey Instruments

Table 16 shows the mean scores for the different dimensions of subordinate work autonomy and work autonomy by each of the four perceived CEO leadership styles. Results indicate that subordinates perceiving high consideration and initiating structure of perceived leadership style felt the most empowered in work autonomy, and subordinates perceiving low consideration and low initiating structure felt the least empowered.

Table 16

Mean Scores of Subordinate Work Autonomy by Four Dimensions of Perceived Leadership Styles

Dimensions			Dimensions		
Consideration	Initiating Structure	Method	Scheduling	Criteria	Work Autonomy
High	High	16.92	16.22	9.11	42.25
High	Low	14.12	16.20	9.76	40.08
Low	High	15.02	14.55	7.70	37.27
Low	Low	15.15	12.99	7.06	35.20

Research Hypotheses

The primary purpose of this research was to confirm the relationship between perceptions of CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of subordinates; the sub-purpose was to examine the differences based on subordinate work autonomy, and subordinates' demographics in Taiwanese investment companies. The primary hypothesis based on several aspects included: (a) relationship between two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and work method, scheduling and criteria, (b) relationship between consideration and work method, scheduling and criteria, and (c) relationship between initiating structure and work method, scheduling and criteria. Goodness of fit on the extent to pragmatic data fitting a theoretical model was also confirmed for the above relationships.

In addition, null sub-hypotheses were examined, which include: (a) no significant difference among the four types of leadership and overall work autonomy, (b) no significant difference among the four types of leadership and each dimension of work autonomy style, (c) no significant difference between subordinates' demographics and

overall work autonomy, (d) no significant difference between subordinates' demographics and each dimension of work autonomy, and (e) no significant difference among work method, scheduling and criteria.

Test of Primary Hypothesis

LISREL was employed to confirm the relationship between leadership style and work autonomy. Joreskog and Sorbom (1993) explained that researchers must form an assumed theoretical framework of cause and effect to verify the precision of assumptions before processing LISREL. LISREL is used to confirm an assumed model for the goodness-of-fit test and relationships between two dimensions of leadership style and work method, scheduling, and criteria; between consideration and work method, scheduling, and criteria; and between initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria. Browne and Cudeck (1993), Steiger (1990) and Taylor and Todd (1995) recommended that some frequently-used indicators such as NCI (χ^2/df) < 3, SRMR or RMR < 0.08, RMSEA < 0.08, AGFI > 0.8, NNFI > 0.9, and CFI > 0.9 as standard values for goodness of fit. Wong (2004) suggested some standard values such as the better for the smaller χ^2 , SRMR or RMR < 0.05, RMSEA < 0.05, AGFI > 0.9, NNFI > 0.9, and CFI > 0.9. Based on the principle with clear cut-off value, the researcher sorted the acceptable values by combining the both and using stricter standard values (see Table 17).

Document continues with Table 17 on the following page.

Table 17

Acceptable Standard Indices

Test Statistic	Standard Indices
NCI (χ^2/df)	<3
SRMR or RMR	<0.05
RMSEA	<0.05
AGFI	>0.90
NNFI	>0.90
CFI	>0.90

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

Robbins (2001) said, "Leadership is the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals" (p. 314). Nahavandi (2003) stated, "Achievement of goals includes meeting financial goals, producing quality products or services, addressing the needs of customers, and so forth" (p. 6). Robbins added that "decision making is being pushed down to the operating level, where workers are being given the freedom to make choices about schedules and procedures and to solve work-related problems" (p. 16), which is known as empowerment. Robbins pointed out, "Empowerment improves employee productivity" (p. 375). Shortly, leaders lead subordinates by empowerment to improve organizational efficacy to achieve goals.

Relationship between two dimensions of leadership style and each dimension of work autonomy. Wong (2004) said that a researcher must consider how many observed variables each latent variable includes before setting an assumed model. A researcher must identify latent variables in observed variables. In this research, the latent variables were the dimensions, and the observed variables were the statements of questionnaires.

For the leadership style questionnaire, the two dimensions involved 30 statements on consideration and initiating structure. There were 9 statements in three dimensions in the work autonomy questionnaire. Also, Nahavandi (2003) shared that administrative control is used for organizational goals, which reflects initiating structure behavior. Cunha (2002) and Yi and Yang (2005) stated that consideration behavior is particularly associated with work autonomy, which accompanies subordinate satisfaction. Owens (1991) said that leadership is the interpersonal patterns of finding followers' potential needs and gratifying those needs so that the goals of the organization can be reached by influencing these followers. Therefore, some leaders exert initiating structure and consideration behaviors in the empowerment process to achieve organizational effectiveness. Figure 3 shows the alternative model 1.

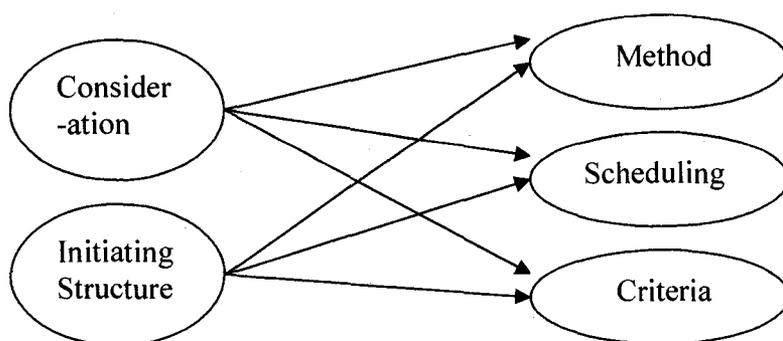


Figure 3. Alternative model 1 for the relationship between two dimensions of leadership style and each dimension of work autonomy.

Therefore, *hypothesis one* is that there are significant and positive relationships between two dimensions of leadership style and each dimension of work autonomy.

The equations for different dimensions of leadership and of autonomy follow:

$$\text{Method} = 0.11 * \text{consideration} + 0.62 * \text{initiating structure, and } r = 0.64$$

$$t = 1.3 \text{ for criteria and consideration, and } t = 4.54 \text{ for criteria and initiating structure } (10)$$

Scheduling = 0.33 * consideration + 0.19 * initiating structure, and $r = 0.41$

$t = 3.16$ for scheduling and consideration, and $t = 1.70$ for scheduling and initiating

structure (11)

Criteria = 0.23 * consideration + 0.41 * initiating structure, and $r = 0.49$

$t = 3.12$ for method and consideration, and $t = 5.16$ for method and initiating

structure (12)

Table 18 presents the correlation and t value between the two dimensions of leadership style and the each dimension of work autonomy.

Table 18

Correlation and t Value Between Two Dimensions of Leadership Style and each dimension of work autonomy

	Method				Scheduling				Criteria			
	r	t	r	Sig.	r	t	r	Sig.	r	t	r	Sig.
C	0.11	1.3		No	0.33	3.16*		Yes	0.23	3.12*		Yes
I-S	0.62	4.54*		Yes	0.19	1.70		No	0.41	5.16*		Yes
T			0.64	Yes			0.41	Yes			0.49	Yes

Note. C = Consideration; I-S = Initiating Structure; T = Leadership Styles. Sig. = Significant.

* $p < 0.05$. Critical t Value = 1.96.

Results showed there were significant and positive relationships between the two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and different dimensions of work autonomy—work method, scheduling and criteria. This model belonged to a multiple regression (at least two independent variables), so even one independent variable is not significantly correlated to dependent variable, only if another is still significantly related with the dependent variable, significant correlation can be inferred.

Table 19 presents the comparison values of goodness of fit for the alternative model 1 and acceptable standard indices.

Table 19

Comparisons of Acceptable Standard Indices and Fit Indices of Alternative Model 1

Test Statistic	Standard Indices	Model 1
NCI (χ^2/df)	<3	2.12*
SRMR or RMR	<0.05	0.18
RMSEA	<0.05	0.06
AGFI	>0.90	0.80
NNFI	>0.90	0.86
CFI	>0.90	0.87

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

Relationship between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy. In the 1960s, Fiedler said that leaders are effective when their groups perform well to achieve organizational goals (as cited in Nahavandi, 2003). Effective leaders or managers spend their time communicating with subordinates; managing conflict; and training, developing, and motivating employees to reach organizational goals (i.e., showing consideration of job relationships by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, and regard for their feelings) (Luthans, 1989; Robbins, 2001). Yet, trust is the base of autonomy in leadership realm (Schindler & Thomas, 1993). In other words, consideration behavior is employed by some leaders for work autonomy to achieve organizational effectiveness. Therefore, alternative model 2 was framed for leadership behavior (see Figure 4).

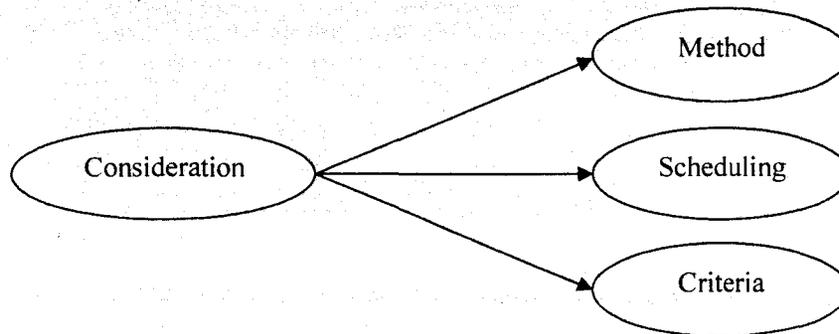


Figure 4. Alternative model 2 for the relationship between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy.

Therefore, *hypothesis two* is that there are significant and positive relationships between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy.

The equation for consideration and each dimension of work autonomy follows:

$$\text{Method} = 0.17 * \text{consideration } t = 1.91 \text{ for criteria and consideration} \quad (13)$$

$$\text{Scheduling} = 0.35 * \text{consideration } t = 3.31 \text{ for scheduling and consideration} \quad (14)$$

$$\text{Criteria} = 0.26 * \text{consideration } t = 3.45 \text{ for method and consideration} \quad (15)$$

Table 20 shows the correlation and t value between the two dimensions of leadership style and each dimension of work autonomy.

Document continues with Table 20 on the following page.

Table 20

Correlation and t Value between Consideration and Each Dimension of Work Autonomy

	Method			Scheduling			Criteria		
	r	t	Sig.	r	t	Sig.	r	t	Sig.
C	0.17	1.91	No	0.35	3.31*	Yes	0.26	3.45*	Yes

Note. C = Consideration. Sig. = Significant.

* $p < 0.05$. Critical t Value = 1.96.

Hence, there are significant and positive relationships between consideration and scheduling and criteria. However, there is no significant relationship between consideration and method. Consideration will have a significantly positive effect on work scheduling and criteria, but consideration will not generate a significant effect on method.

The comparison values of goodness of fit for the alternative models 1 and 2 are reported in Table 21.

Document continues with Table 21 on the following page.

Table 21

Comparisons of Acceptable Standard Indices and Fit Indices of Alternative Model 2

Test Statistic	Standard Indices	Model 1	Model 2
NCI (χ^2/df)	<3	2.12*	1.83*
SRMR or RMR	<0.05	0.18	0.11
RMSEA	<0.05	0.06	0.05*
AGFI	>0.90	0.80	0.88
NNFI	>0.90	0.86	0.93*
CFI	>0.90	0.87	0.93*

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

Relationship between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Nahavandi (2003) stated, "The initiation-of-structure concept provides that effective leadership involving giving direction, assigning tasks to followers, and setting deadlines" (p. 42) to attain organizational goals. That reflects work method, scheduling and criteria in work autonomy. Also, Dee et al. (2000) argued when leaders own less of control, subordinates maintain more freedom (work autonomy) in their jobs. That is, some leaders employ initiating structure behavior to empower subordinates. So alternative model 3 was framed for leadership behavior (see Figure 5).

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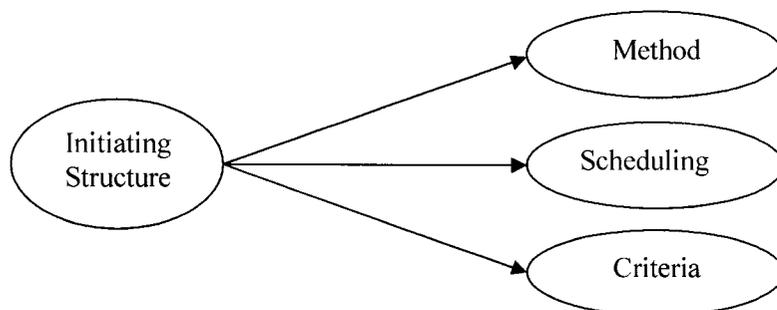


Figure 6. Alternative model 3 for the relationship between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Hence, *hypothesis three* is that there are significant and positive relationships between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy.

Following are the equations for initiating structure and the each dimension of work autonomy:

$$\text{Method} = 0.61 * \text{initiating structure } t = 4.60 \text{ for criteria and initiating structure} \quad (17)$$

$$\text{Scheduling} = 0.20 * \text{initiating structure } t = 2.03 \text{ for scheduling and initiating structure} \quad (18)$$

$$\text{Criteria} = 0.44 * \text{initiating structure } t = 5.37 \text{ for method and initiating structure} \quad (19)$$

Table 22 shows the correlation and t value between initiating structure and the each dimension of work autonomy.

Document continues with Table 22 on the following page.

Table 22

*Correlation and t Value between Initiating Structure and Each Dimension of Work
Autonomy*

	Method			Scheduling			Criteria		
	r	t	Sig.	r	t	Sig.	r	t	Sig.
I-S	0.61	4.60*	Yes	0.20	2.03*	Yes	0.44	5.37*	Yes

Note. I-S = Initiating Structure. Sig. = Significant.

* $p < 0.05$. Critical t Value = 1.96.

So there are significant and positive relationships between initiating structure and method, scheduling, and criteria. Initiating structure has a significantly positive effect on work method, on work scheduling, and on work criteria.

Table 23 shows the comparison values of goodness of fit for the model 1, model 2, and model 3. From the confirmatory analyses of goodness of fit, the practical collected data from subjects is the most suited to the theoretical assumption of initiating structure and the each dimension of work autonomy.

Document continues with Table 23 on the following page.

Table 23

Comparisons of Acceptable Standard Indices and Fit Indices of Alternative Model 3

Test Statistic	Standard			
	Indices	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
NCI (χ^2/df)	<3	2.12*	1.83*	1.36*
SRMR or RMR	<0.05	0.18	0.11	0.04*
RMSEA	<0.05	0.06	0.05*	0.03*
AGFI	>0.90	0.80	0.88	0.91*
NNFI	>0.90	0.86	0.93*	0.97*
CFI	>0.90	0.87	0.93*	0.97*

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

According to goodness of fit, the collected data is most suited to the theoretical assumption of initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy (see Table 23).

Conclusively, the alternative model 1 did not report good fit indices, which indicate that leaders did not employ consideration and initiating structure behaviors simultaneously for empowerment and to balance organizational goals and subordinate satisfaction for efficacy. That is, leaders tended to only exert consideration behavior or initiating structure behavior for empowerment. According to Table 23, the alternative model 3 matched all the standard indices. In other words, the leaders of Taiwanese investment companies tend to use initiating structure behavior for empowerment.

Tests of Sub-Hypothesis One and Sub-Hypothesis Two

Sub-hypothesis one was tested by one-way ANOVA to assess the differences for perceived CEO leadership styles: low consideration and low initiating structure, high

consideration and high initiating structure, low consideration and high initiating structure, and high consideration and low initiating structure in work autonomy. Sub-hypothesis two was tested by one-way ANOVA to assess the differences for perceived CEO leadership styles in the each dimension of work autonomy: method, scheduling, and criteria. Also, the Scheffe test was employed to identify two differential groups among and over three groups (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

Null hypotheses. There are no significant differences among four types of perceived leadership styles and overall work autonomy, and each dimension of work autonomy. Results showed that there were significant differences in the each dimension of work autonomy and in work autonomy among four types of perceived leadership styles. Using Table 16 and the Scheffe test, high consideration and high initiating structure to the highest scores in work autonomy, and low consideration and low initiating structure to the lowest results in work autonomy, compared to other perceived leadership styles can be inferred with the significant level of 0.05.

Table 16 reports the effect of perceived leadership styles on work autonomy and the each dimension of work autonomy; these are descriptive statistics. To generalize results to the population's characteristics of Taiwanese investment companies based on the study's subjects, inferential statistics were required.

Table 24 shows there were significant differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy among four types of leadership styles.

Table 24

ANOVA for Subordinate Work Autonomy on Four Types of Perceived Leadership Style

Dimensions	Groups	SS	df	MS	F	p
Method	Between	298.890	3	99.630	21.670	.000*
	Within	1618.346	352	4.598		
	Total	1917.236	355			
Scheduling	Between	690.141	3	230.047	42.205	.000*
	Within	1918.631	352	5.451		
	Total	2608.772	355			
Criteria	Between	410.761	3	136.920	38.319	.000*
	Within	1257.744	352	3.573		
	Total	1668.506	355			
Work Autonomy	Between	2689.451	3	896.484	60.455	.000*
	Within	5219.771	352	14.829		
	Total	7909.222	355			

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

The Scheffe test indicates that the differences between high consideration and high initiating structure and low consideration and low initiating structure in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy reached the level of 0.05 (see Table 25). Using Table 16 and the Scheffe test, that high consideration and high initiating structure to the highest scores in work autonomy, and low consideration and low initiating structure to the lowest results in work autonomy, compared to other perceived leadership styles with the significant level of 0.05 is inferred.

Table 25

Multiple Comparisons of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Four Types of Perceived Leadership Style

Dimensions	(I) Leadership Styles	(J) Leadership Styles	(I-J) Mean Difference	SE	<i>p</i>	
Method	1	2	-1.767	.309	.000*	
		3	1.029	.323	.019*	
		4	.125	.301	.982	
	2	3	2.776	.358	.000*	
		4	1.872	.338	.000*	
	3	4	-.904	.351	.087	
	Scheduling	1	2	-3.233	.336	.000*
			3	-3.214	.352	.000*
			4	-1.557	.327	.000*
2		3	.153	.390	.992	
		4	1.672	.368	.000*	
3		4	1.652	.382	.001*	
Criteria	1	2	-2.045	.272	.000*	
		3	-2.696	.285	.000*	
		4	-.639	.265	.124	
	2	3	-.654	.315	.226	
		4	1.406	.298	.000*	
	3	4	2.056	.309	.000*	

Table 26 (Continued)

Dimensions	(I) Leadership Styles	(J) Leadership Styles	(I-J) Mean Difference	SE	<i>p</i>
Work Autonomy	1	2	-7.046	.555	.000*
		3	-4.876	.580	.000*
		4	-2.071	.540	.003*
	2	3	2.169	.643	.008*
		4	4.984	.607	.000*
	3	4	2.805	.630	.000*

Note. 1, 2, 3, and 4 represent Leadership Styles; 1 = (LC, LI), 2 = (HC, HI), 3 = (LC, HI), 4 = (HC, LI); LC = Low Consideration, LI = Low Initiating Structure, HC = High Consideration, HI = High Initiating Structure.

* $p < 0.05$.

A significant difference in work autonomy existed based on different perceived CEO leadership styles and thus, the sub-hypothesis one was rejected. There were significant differences in different dimensions of work autonomy based on different perceived CEO leadership styles, so sub-hypothesis two was rejected.

Tests of Sub-Hypothesis Three and Four

Sub-hypothesis three and four were tested by one-way ANOVA to assess the effects of different subordinate's demographics on work autonomy and different dimensions of work autonomy. Also, as a post-hoc analysis, the Scheffe test was employed to identify two differential groups among and over three groups (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

Null hypothesis one. There are no significant differences between gender and overall work autonomy, and each dimension of work autonomy. This hypothesis was

partially rejected because significant differences were found in work autonomy and the criteria of work autonomy between the subordinate's gender.

Table 26 shows there were significant differences in work autonomy between the subordinate's gender because the two subgroups were significantly different at the level of 0.05. Additionally, there were significant differences in the criteria of work autonomy between the subordinate's gender because the two subgroups were significantly different at the level of 0.05. Combining Tables 26 and 15, it can be inferred that male subordinates were more empowered with their work autonomy and criteria than the female subordinates.

Table 26

ANOVA of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Gender

Dimensions	Groups	SS	df	MS	F	p
Method	Between	18.628	1	18.628	3.473	.063
	Within	1898.608	354	5.363		
	Total	1917.236	355			
Scheduling	Between	.253	1	.253	.034	.853
	Within	2608.519	354	7.369		
	Total	2608.772	355			
Criteria	Between	459.831	1	459.831	134.676	.000*
	Within	1208.675	354	3.414		
	Total	1668.506	355			
Work Autonomy	Between	689.743	1	689.743	33.821	.000*
	Within	7219.479	354	20.394		
	Total	7909.222	355			

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

Null hypothesis two. There are no significant differences between level of education and overall work autonomy, and each dimension of work autonomy. This hypothesis was rejected because analysis indicated there were differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy among the subordinate's education levels. Using Table 15 and the Scheffe test, the results indicated that subordinates with a master's level and over education level were more empowered with their work than the others in work autonomy and different dimensions of work autonomy with the significance level of 0.05.

The data in Table 27 shows the differences in work autonomy at the significant level of 0.05 and in each dimension of work autonomy at the significance level of 0.05 among the subordinate's education levels.

Document continues with Table 27 on the following page.

Table 27

ANOVA of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Education

Dimensions	Groups	SS	df	MS	F	p
Method	Between	154.200	2	77.100	15.437	.000*
	Within	1763.036	353	4.994		
	Total	1917.236	355			
Scheduling	Between	190.852	2	95.426	13.932	.000*
	Within	2417.920	353	6.850		
	Total	2608.772	355			
Criteria	Between	1064.507	2	532.254	311.069	.000*
	Within	603.999	353	1.711		
	Total	1668.506	355			
Work Autonomy	Between	2395.976	2	1197.988	76.704	.000*
	Within	5513.246	353	15.618		
	Total	7909.222	355			

Note. *p<0.05.

Results of the Scheffe test indicate the groups without differences and with differences in work autonomy, and each dimension of work autonomy (see Table 28). Comparing group 1 to groups 2 and 3 shows differences in method. Comparing group 1 to groups 2 and 3, and group 2 to group 3 shows difference in scheduling, criteria, and work autonomy. On the average, subordinates in the group with a higher education level were more empowered in work autonomy than in groups with a lower education level. Based on Tables 15 and 28, the subordinates with a master's level or over education level perceived the highest autonomy than the others in work autonomy, method, scheduling and criteria.

Table 28

Multiple Comparisons of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Education

Dimensions	(I) Education	(J) Education	(I-J) Mean Difference	SE	<i>p</i>
Method	1	2	1.647	.297	.000*
		3	.962	.324	.013*
	2	3	-.685	.278	.050*
Scheduling	1	2	1.824	.348	.000*
		3	1.402	.379	.001*
	2	3	-.421	.326	.434
Criteria	1	2	1.544	.174	.000*
		3	4.547	.189	.000*
	2	3	3.002	.163	.000*
Work Autonomy	1	2	5.016	.526	.000*
		3	6.912	.573	.000*
	2	3	1.895	.492	.001*

Note. 1 = Master and over; 2 = Undergraduate; 3 = Under Undergraduate.

* $p < 0.05$.

Null hypothesis three. There are no significant differences between age and overall work autonomy, and each dimension of work autonomy. This hypothesis was rejected because analysis found differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy among the subordinate's age. The results of the Scheffe test indicate the groups without differences and with differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy.

Table 29 shows there were differences in work autonomy at the significance level of 0.05, as well as each dimension of work autonomy at the significance level of 0.05 among the subordinate's age.

Table 29

ANOVA of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Age

Dimensions	Groups	SS	df	MS	F	p
Method	Between	110.820	4	27.705	5.383	.000*
	Within	1806.416	351	5.146		
	Total	1917.236	355			
Scheduling	Between	202.575	4	50.644	7.388	.000*
	Within	2406.198	351	6.855		
	Total	2608.772	355			
Criteria	Between	375.031	4	93.758	25.442	.000*
	Within	1293.475	351	3.685		
	Total	1668.506	355			
Work Autonomy	Between	1614.799	4	403.700	22.512	.000*
	Within	6294.423	351	17.933		
	Total	7909.222	355			

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

The results of the Scheffe test indicate the groups without differences and with differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy (see Table 30). Comparing group 2 to groups 3, 4, and 5 indicate differences in the work method. Comparing group 1 to group 4 and group 2 to group 4 indicates differences in work scheduling. Comparing group 2 to group 4, group 2 to group 5, group 3 to group 4, and group 4 to group 5 indicate there are no differences in work criteria. Comparing group 1 to group 2 and group 4 to group 5 indicate no differences in work autonomy.

Document continues with Table 30 on the following page.

Table 30

Multiple Comparisons of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Age

Dimensions	(I) Age	(J) Age	(I-J) Mean Difference	SE	p
Method					
1	1	2	-.247	.484	.992
		3	-.821	.482	.576
		4	-1.772	.524	.024*
		5	-.996	.606	.610
2	2	3	-.573	.293	.433
		4	-1.524	.358	.001*
		5	-.748	.470	.640
3	3	4	-.950	.355	.131
		5	-.174	.468	.998
4	4	5	.776	.511	.681
Scheduling					
1	1	2	.051	.559	1.000
		3	-1.561	.556	.099
		4	-1.479	.605	.204
		5	-1.130	.700	.626
2	2	3	-1.612	.338	.000*
		4	-1.530	.413	.009*
		5	-1.181	.543	.318
3	3	4	.081	.410	1.000
		5	.430	.540	.959
4	4	5	.348	.590	.986
Criteria					
1	1	2	-1.937	.409	.000*
		3	-3.654	.408	.000*
		4	-2.873	.443	.000*
		5	-2.357	.513	.000*
2	2	3	-1.715	.248	.000*
		4	-.936	.303	.051
		5	-.420	.398	.892
3	3	4	.778	.301	.156
		5	1.294	.396	.032*
4	4	5	.516	.432	.840

Table 31 (Continued)

Dimensions	(I) Age	(J) Age	(I-J) Mean Difference	SE	p
Work Autonomy	1	2	-2.133	.904	.236
		3	-6.034	.900	.000*
		4	-6.125	.978	.000*
		5	-4.484	1.132	.004*
	2	3	-3.901	.547	.000*
		4	-3.991	.668	.000*
		5	-2.350	.878	.130
	3	4	-.090	.664	1.000
		5	1.550	.874	.535
	4	5	1.641	.955	.567

Note. 1 = 25 and under Year; 2 = 26 to 30 Year; 3 = 31 to 35 Year; 4 = 36 to 40 Year; 5 = 41 and over Year.

* $p < 0.05$.

Null hypothesis four: There are no significant differences between tenure and overall work autonomy, and each dimension of work autonomy. This hypothesis was rejected because results indicated there were differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy among the subordinate's tenure.

The Scheffe test reports the groups without differences and with differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy. Table 31 shows there were differences in work autonomy at the significance level of 0.05 and in each dimension of work autonomy at the significance level of 0.05 among tenure.

Document continues with Table 31 on the following page.

Table 31

ANOVA of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Tenure

Dimensions	Groups	SS	df	MS	F	p
Method	Between	160.340	5	32.068	6.388	.000*
	Within	1756.896	350	5.020		
	Total	1917.236	355			
Scheduling	Between	212.058	5	42.412	6.194	.000*
	Within	2396.714	350	6.848		
	Total	2608.772	355			
Criteria	Between	239.038	5	47.808	11.706	.000*
	Within	1429.467	350	4.084		
	Total	1668.506	355			
Work Autonomy	Between	1200.370	5	240.074	12.525	.000*
	Within	6708.852	350	19.168		
	Total	7909.222	355			

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

The Scheffé test reports the groups without differences and with differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy (see Table 32). Comparing group 2 to groups 3, 4, and 5 indicates differences in work method. Comparing group 2 to groups 3 and 5 shows differences in work scheduling. Comparing group 1 to groups 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 shows differences in work criteria. Comparing group 1 to groups 3, 4, 5, and 6, and group 2 to groups 3, 4, 5, and 6 shows differences in work autonomy.

Document continues with Table 32 on the following page.

Table 32

Multiple Comparisons of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Tenure

Dimensions	(I) Tenure	(J) Tenure	(I-J) Mean Difference	SE	<i>p</i>
Method					
	1	2	.567	.454	.905
		3	-.836	.456	.646
		4	-.095	.455	1.000
		5	-1.404	.495	.158
		6	-.894	.528	.720
	2	3	-1.404	.357	.010*
		4	-.663	.356	.629
		5	-1.971	.406	.000*
		6	-1.462	.445	.058
	3	4	.740	.359	.517
		5	-.567	.409	.859
		6	-.058	.448	1.000
	4	5	-1.308	.408	.071
		6	-.799	.447	.670
	5	6	.509	.487	.955
Scheduling					
	1	2	.601	.530	.936
		3	-1.023	.533	.597
		4	-1.288	.532	.323
		5	-1.359	.579	.359
		6	-1.014	.617	.749
	2	3	-1.625	.417	.011*
		4	-1.890	.416	.001*
		5	-1.960	.474	.005*
		6	-1.611	.520	.090
	3	4	-.264	.420	.995
		5	-.335	.478	.992
		6	.013	.523	1.000
	4	5	-.070	.477	1.000
		6	.278	.522	.998
	5	6	.349	.569	.996

Table 33 (continued)

Dimensions	(I) Tenure	(J) Tenure	(I-J) Mean Difference	SE	p
Criteria					
	1	2	-2.096	.409	.000*
		3	-2.277	.411	.000*
		4	-2.963	.411	.000*
		5	-2.710	.447	.000*
		6	-1.663	.476	.034*
	2	3	-.181	.322	.997
		4	-.867	.321	.204
		5	-.613	.366	.730
	3	4	.433	.401	.948
		5	-.685	.324	.486
		6	-.432	.369	.927
	4	5	.614	.404	.804
		6	.253	.368	.993
	5	6	1.300	.403	.068
	5	6	1.046	.440	.343
Work Autonomy					
	1	2	-.926	.887	.955
		3	-4.137	.892	.001*
		4	-4.347	.890	.000*
		5	-5.473	.968	.000*
		6	-3.568	1.032	.038*
	2	3	-3.210	.698	.001*
		4	-3.420	.696	.000*
		5	-4.546	.794	.000*
	3	6	-2.641	.870	.104
		4	-.209	.703	1.000
		5	-1.335	.800	.733
	4	6	.569	.875	.995
		5	-1.125	.798	.850
		6	.779	.873	.977
	5	6	1.905	.953	.551

Note. 1 = 1 and under Year; 2 = 1 to 3 Year; 3 = 3 to 5 Year; 4 = 5 to 7 Year; 5 = 7 to 10 Year; 6 = 10 and over Year.

* $p < 0.05$.

Null hypothesis five. There are no significant differences between marital status and overall work autonomy, and each dimension of work autonomy. This hypothesis was partially rejected. There were no differences in scheduling and criteria of work autonomy between the subordinate's marital status. However, married subordinates perceived more empowerment with their work in work autonomy and work method than the single.

Table 33 shows there were differences in work autonomy and method of work autonomy at the significance level of 0.05 between the subordinate's marital status. Combining Tables 33 and 15 indicates married subordinates perceived that they were more empowered with their work in work autonomy and work method than single subordinates.

Document continues with Table 33 on the following page.

Table 33

ANOVA of Subordinate Work Autonomy on Marital Status

Dimensions	Groups	SS	df	MS	F	p
Method	Between	45.017	1	45.017	8.512	.004*
	Within	1872.219	354	5.289		
	Total	1917.236	355			
Scheduling	Between	.041	1	.041	.006	.941
	Within	2608.731	354	7.369		
	Total	2608.772	355			
Criteria	Between	6.980	1	6.980	1.487	.223
	Within	1661.526	354	4.694		
	Total	1668.506	355			
Work Autonomy	Between	83.702	1	83.702	3.786	.050*
	Within	7825.519	354	22.106		
	Total	7909.222	355			

Note. * $p < 0.05$.

Sub-Hypothesis Five

Null hypothesis. There are no significant differences between work method, scheduling and criteria of work autonomy. Cann (2002) stated that goodness of fit reflects the context of r , so it does not illustrate whether an association is statistically significant among the variables; for this, additional tests must be performed by ANOVA, t -test, and so on. Table 22 reports initiating structure had a high correlation with work method, because the correlation 0.61 is greater than 0.5 (Gau, 2001). Also, combining Tables 14, 22 and 34 shows that an association between initiating structure and work method was statistically significant (the most important factor) among the three dimensions: work method, scheduling and criteria.

Table 34 shows there were significant differences between the three dimensions of work method, scheduling and criteria at the significance level of 0.05. Combining Tables 14, 22 and 34, work method was perceived by subordinates with the highest autonomy.

Table 34

T Test between Different Dimensions of Work Autonomy

	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Method	2.707	355	.007*
Scheduling	.012	355	.974
Criteria	-58.070	355	.000*

Note. * $p < 0.05$. A Two-Tail Test. Test Value = 14.97 from the Mean of Scheduling.

Summary

This research confirmed the relationship between perceived leadership style and subordinate work autonomy in Taiwanese investment companies, and examined the difference based on subordinate work autonomy and subordinates' demographics. Data for analysis was collected through two survey instruments (modified PLBQ and WAS) from the subordinates of 47 SITCA investment companies. The survey instruments were distributed to 555 subordinates, with 15 of each type of survey instrument sent to each company. There were 396 instruments returned for each type of instrument, out of which 356 were valid.

Results included descriptive analysis of subordinates' demographic characteristics of the survey (see Table 10) and conditions of perceived CEO leadership style (see Tables 11, 12, and 13), subordinate work autonomy (see Tables 14 and 15) and combination of perceived leadership style and subordinate work autonomy (see Table 16).

The primary hypothesis confirmed the relationship between two dimensions of leadership style and each dimension of work autonomy (see Table 18), between consideration and each dimension of work autonomy (see Table 20) and between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy (see Table 22) through LISREL (path-analytical correlation coefficient, *t* value). The results confirmed significantly positive correlations between the two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria; between consideration and work method and scheduling; and between initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria. There was no significantly positive correlation between consideration and work method.

LISREL also provided information about the level of accuracy in goodness of fit for collected data to theoretical frameworks. The alternative model 3 (see Figure 5) between initiating structure and each dimension of work autonomy was the most fit theoretical model (see Table 23) for the relationship between CEO's leadership behavior and subordinate work autonomy in the Taiwanese investment companies; that is, subordinates perceived that leaders tended to exert initiating structure behavior for empowerment.

Sub-hypothesis one was tested with one-way ANOVA to determine the difference for CEO leadership styles in work autonomy. Sub-hypothesis two was tested by one-way ANOVA to assess the difference for CEO leadership styles in the each dimension of work autonomy. The result of the one-way ANOVA indicated that there were significant differences in work autonomy and every dimension of work autonomy based on different perceived leadership styles (see Table 24). Descriptive and inferential statistics (see

Tables 16 and 25) related high consideration and high initiating structure to the highest scores in work autonomy and connected low consideration and low initiating structure to the lowest results in work autonomy.

Sub-hypothesis three was examined with one-way ANOVA to evaluate the differences of subordinate demographics in work autonomy, and sub-hypothesis four was examined by one-way ANOVA to assess the differences of subordinate demographics in each dimension of work autonomy. Data showed that the differences in work autonomy based on subordinates' gender, education level, age, tenure, and marital status were significant. Most significant differences of each dimension of work autonomy based on different demographic variables existed (see Tables 26, 27, 29, 31 and 33); however, partial no-significant differences of each dimension of work autonomy based on different demographic variables were reported in Tables 26 and 33. Multiple comparisons of subordinate work autonomy on subordinate's education level, (see Table 28), age (see Table 30), and tenure (see Table 32) were reported.

It can be concluded that male subordinates were more empowered in work autonomy and work criteria as presented by higher mean scores than female subordinates with Tables 15 and 26. Combining Tables 15, 27, and 28, the subordinates with master's level and over perceived the highest empowerment with their work when compared with the others in work autonomy and different dimensions of work autonomy. It also was reported that married subordinates perceived more empowerment with their work in work autonomy and work method than single employees as Tables 15 and 33.

A *t*-test was used to assess the differences among work method, scheduling, and criteria of work autonomy in sub-hypothesis five. Combining Tables 14, 22 and 34, the

researcher can realize that initiating structure behavior is significantly associated to work method autonomy (the most important factor) among the three dimensions of work method, scheduling and criteria in Taiwanese investment companies.

Chapter Five: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This research confirmed the relationship between perceived leadership style and subordinate work autonomy in Taiwanese investment companies. It also examined differences based on subordinate work autonomy and subordinates' demographics. A quantitative approach was employed to conduct this study. Questionnaires were sent to 555 subordinates in three sorts of professional departments of 37 SITCA companies. Of these questionnaires, 396 survey instruments were returned for each type of instrument, and 356 of those were determined to be valid.

Data analysis confirmed significantly positive correlations between the two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria; between consideration and work method and scheduling; and between initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria. There was no significantly positive correlation between consideration and work method.

Besides the relationships confirmed by LISREL, tests of goodness of fit were reported for the theory framework. The alternative model 3 between initiating structure and work method, scheduling, and criteria was the best theoretical model for the relationship between a CEO's leadership behavior and subordinate work autonomy in Taiwanese investment companies; that is, the CEOs in these companies tended to employ initiating structure behavior to empower employees.

Difference tests were also conducted using SPSS. Results indicated significant differences in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy based on perceived leadership styles. Combining descriptive and inferential statistics, analytical results

showed that high consideration and high initiating structure combined with the highest work autonomy, and low consideration and low initiating structure connected to the lowest work autonomy. Male subordinates were more empowered in work autonomy than female subordinates. Subordinates with a master's level and over education level were most empowered in work autonomy and each dimension of work autonomy. Married subordinates perceived more empowerment with their work in work autonomy. Additionally, initiating structure behavior significantly associated to work method (the most important factor) was reported.

Discussion of the Results

Factors such as culture, Confucianism, and stereotype could result in different perceptions of the relationship between leadership and work autonomy by different groups in Taiwan because cultures originate from nations, ethnicities or groups, and organizations. Taiwanese society has been affected by Confucianism, and stereotypes are, for people, self-fulfilling prophecies. Additionally, this section discusses statistical results about the relationships between leadership and work autonomy, pragmatic employed leadership and work autonomy, the differences for leadership in total dimensions of work autonomy, the differences of demographics on total dimensions of work autonomy, and the differences among work method, scheduling and criteria.

Primary Hypothesis

This research confirmed the correlation and goodness of fit, in which the confirmed relationship and goodness of fit were based on existing theoretical frameworks to pragmatic collected data.

Correlation. Table 18 indicates that there were significant and positive

relationships between two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and scheduling and criteria. There also was a significant and highly positive relationship between two dimensions of consideration and initiating structure and method because Gau (2001) said if the correlation coefficient is greater than 0.5, the correlation could be classified as highly correlated. Table 20 reports that there were significant and positive relationships between consideration and scheduling and criteria, but there was no significant relationship between consideration and method. Table 22 shows that there were significant and positive relationships between initiating structure and scheduling and criteria. There also was a significant and highly positive relationship between initiating structure and method.

Ferris (1983) supported autonomy directly influenced by leaders' behaviors. Liden and Graen (1980) mentioned that a high-quality relationship is based on greater job responsibilities to subordinates, and then they express more contribution to their units, which shows the significance for the relationship between leadership and work autonomy.

Goodness of fit for cause-effect relations. Following the standard values for the test of goodness of fit, the alternative model 1 for the relationship between two dimensions of leadership and each dimension of work autonomy did not fit well (see Table 19). The alternative model 2 for the relationship between consideration and the each dimension of work autonomy improved (see Table 21). And the alternative model 3 for the relationship between initiating structure and the each dimension of work autonomy was the best theoretical model (see Table 23) of the relationship between CEO's leadership behaviors and work autonomy of subordinates in the Taiwanese investment companies. This shows that subordinates perceived that leaders tended to

use initiating structure behavior for empowerment.

Taiwan is characterized with high power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity, low individualism, and long-time orientation because Taiwanese society reflects Confucianism (Hwang, 2001). In high-power distance cultures, effective leaders give direction, assign tasks, and give deadlines to followers (Nahavandi, 2003), which is known as initiating structure. Miner and Smith (1982) said the concept of motivating to manage involves a desire for power and control over others as an essential component in the initiating-structure cultures. This concept supports why Taiwanese leaders tend to employ initiating structure in empowering subordinates.

Sub-Hypotheses One and Two

Using Tables 16 and 25, high consideration and high initiating structure to the highest work autonomy, low consideration and low initiating structure to the lowest work autonomy, and high consideration and low initiating structure to higher work autonomy than low consideration and high initiating structure can be inferred with a significance level of 0.05.

Ferris (1983) concluded that the subordinates who were supervised by the dimension of low consideration and low initiating structure perceived the lowest work autonomy; employees who were in the dimension of high consideration and high initiating structure were empowered with the highest work autonomy. Subjects in Ferris' study who were in the low consideration and high initiating structure perceived empowerment as high as those in the high consideration and low initiating structure. This conclusion was not supported by the results from Taiwanese investment companies.

Sub-Hypotheses Three and Four

Combining Tables 15, 26, 28, 30, 32 and 33, gender, level of education and marital status were differentiated in work autonomy. Moreover, subordinates with master's level and over degrees were most empowered in total dimensions of work autonomy among three levels of education.

The special influence of Confucianism on Taiwanese society has affected the relationship of subordinates' demographics and subordinate work autonomy. In traditional Taiwanese society, most women stay at home as housekeepers while most men work outside the home to provide financial resources. Rapid changes in Taiwanese society have led more women to take partial responsibility for the family's financial support. But most women are still in charge of most of the housework, so they cannot pay as much attention to their jobs as men can. Also, Ayman (1993) stated that not only are women stereotyped as weak and not equal to men but also women are perceived as unimportant. Hence, male subordinates felt more empowered with their jobs than female subordinates in work autonomy (see Tables 15 and 26).

Knowledge-intensive companies are usually characterized as those in which a highly educated workforce engages in mainly intellectual work (Cunha, 2002). So, to survive in a knowledge industry, Taiwanese investment companies must aggressively employ more highly educated professionals. These new subordinates are preferred by Taiwanese financial companies (Lin, 2004). Also, Friedman (1999) said that increasing employees' professional autonomy, which gives them more decision-making power and freedom to perform, could promote organizational efficacy. So, subordinates with master's level and over degrees felt more empowered with their work than did

subordinates with lower degrees in total dimensions of autonomy in Taiwanese investment companies (see Tables 15 and 28).

Conservative organizations in Taiwanese society more closely reflect Confucianism's influence on leadership in which elders get more respect (Wu, 2003). That is, older subordinates obtain more autonomy and become more experienced in interacting with the others; senior subordinates attain higher organizational status as they get older. This research shows subordinates in the 31–35, 36–40, and 41 and older age groups have the same roles in the organization and are paid with same attention on their work autonomy (see Tables 15 and 30), which does not support the theory that senior subordinates attain higher work autonomy as they age.

Theoretically, subordinates make more contributions over the years of working in a company; therefore, with an increase of tenure, subordinates obtained more respect and higher organizational status; Crozier and Friedberg (1977) said that as an individual's tenure in the organization increases, there are likely to be fewer others with a similar stock of knowledge, making it more valuable and the individuals possessing it more powerful (as cited in Perrone, Zaheer & McEvily, 2003). However, the results revealed that the subordinates with higher tenure did not perceive higher work autonomy (see Tables 15 and 32). This did not support the terms of speciality, experience, and judgment instilled in the employees with high tenure (Robbins, 2001).

Family is an important unit and makes up the traditional society (Wu, 2003). Because of that, married subordinates are regarded as the base of society and expect more from work autonomy than single subordinates (see Tables 15 and 33). Robbins (2001) mentioned that married people are given with increased responsibilities that may make a

job with more values and significance.

Sub-Hypothesis Five

Dee et al. (2000) explained that method autonomy is the most important factor in determining organizational members' perceived support for innovation (creativity). Work method significantly addressed (the most important factor) by initiating-structure culture illustrate that leaders of Taiwanese investment companies recognized that subordinates have competencies (professional knowledge) that leaders do not own (Tjosvold, Yu, & Liu, 2003) to conduct innovation, but leaders still desired control over subordinates with set schedules and criterias (see Table 34).

Conclusively, with increased age comes with more tenure (Robbins, 2001), and results did not support the significance of age and tenure (with increased age and tenure go with more autonomy) in the research. Knowledge-intensive companies are usually characterized as those in which a highly educated workforce engages in mainly intellectual work (Cunha, 2002). So, to survive in a knowledge industry, Taiwanese investment companies must aggressively employ more highly educated professionals. Subordinates who are older or who have more tenure are replaced with subordinates who have a master's level and over. These new subordinates are preferred by Taiwanese financial companies (Lin, 2004) with higher empowerment in innovation (work method) and flexibility (work scheduling and criteria) than others; as Friedman (9999) said, increasing employees' professional autonomy gives them more decision-making power and freedom to perform, which could promote organizational efficacy.

Conclusions

This research found many significant results as it investigated the relationship

between perceived CEO leadership style and subordinate work autonomy in Taiwanese investment companies. The research data provide CEOs with information they can use to improve and adjust their leadership to fortify relationships with subordinates so that their companies can achieve higher service quality and subordinate performance.

Subordinates who perceived CEO leadership to be high consideration and high initiating structure felt the most empowerment in their jobs; in contrast, subordinates who perceived CEO leadership to be low consideration and low initiating structure felt the least empowerment in their work. Based on Taiwanese traditional culture, a leader should be like a father who sustains relationships with followers and identifies accurate tasks for them. However, subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies perceived leaders in the initiating structure to offer work autonomy. Yi and Yang (2005) cited the words of Richard Branson, the founder of the Virgin companies, who said consideration is the most imperative characteristic of a leader's behavior that will achieve effective work autonomy. Also, Friedman (1999) stated that organizational members who have low autonomy can only make decisions that would not affect the basic procedures and principles of their work. The leaders of Taiwanese investment companies tend to give the subordinates to make decisions in their work method; in other words, low autonomy is allowed by initiating structure (control) in Taiwanese investment companies. Therefore, the CEOs should adjust leadership style to promote subordinate satisfaction with consideration behavior and reach organizational goals with initiating structure behavior to balance control and work autonomy for empowerment (effective leadership).

Male subordinates felt more empowered with their jobs than female subordinates, and married subordinates felt more empowered than single subordinates. These results

showed that subordinates were potentially influenced by Taiwanese culture and stereotypes. Hence, leaders have to surrender cultural restrictions and stereotypes and provide more opportunities to the subordinates with least empowerment for the demographic variables. In addition, subordinate work autonomy mostly increased with the subordinate's level of education for more professional demand resulting from competitive pressure.

Recommendations

Based on the results of this research, the following recommendations were presented, including suggestions for the leaders of Taiwanese investment companies and for future research. The leaders can recognize what characteristics they need to develop for organizational development, and future researchers can focus on potential issues.

Suggestions for Leaders of Taiwanese Investment Companies

According to the findings of this research, following are the implications for leaders of Taiwanese investment companies based on Taiwanese culture, Confucianism, and stereotypes and the applications.

Implications. Relationship is based on Confucianism (Yeung & Tung, 1996) and is considered a pivotal factor in Taiwanese society (Wellman, Chen, & Weizhen, 2002). Relationship known as guanxi (Tong & Yong, 1998) can be extended among groups or individuals for interdependent benefits, although it is usually initialized in family relations in traditional Taiwanese society (Tung, 1996). In other words, the relationship is a pivotal element in the Taiwanese society. High-power distance (initiating structure) accompanies inequality in the traditional boss-subordinate relationship (Hofstede, 1980). Applied in practical Taiwanese companies, the CEO is designated by board members for

a special relationship with them; the essential superiority of leadership is intentionally ignored. The CEO who is appointed on purpose can wield unchallenged power to control rather than lead the company; leadership is substituted by power. Additionally, initiating structure reflects high-power distance which may hamper the development of clan control. Alvesson (1995) debated that knowledge-intensive companies depend greatly on clan control (teamwork or minimal structure) as an element of autonomy (Floyd & Lane, 2000). Those clearly imply that leaders must adjust their roles for organizational goals and subordinate satisfaction to achieve leadership effectiveness.

Friedman (1999) stated that organizational members who have high autonomy work independently, activate new activities, and can change current work procedures to adapt to a changing circumstance. Conversely, people with low autonomy can only make decisions that would not affect the basic procedures and principles of their work. In this research, the leaders of Taiwanese investment companies prefer subordinates to make innovations with autonomy in work method, but work scheduling and criteria are less addressed. That is, low autonomy is characterized in Taiwanese investment companies.

Taiwanese investment companies have encountered very tough and competitive situations since Taiwan joined the World Trade Organization (WTO) on Jan. 1, 2002. Because members have an obligation to follow the standards of the WTO, the investment market was forced open to foreign companies. The competitive pressure of foreign companies and the impact of foreign cultures have caused more professional demand to replace the consideration of age and tenure.

Driskell and Mullen (1990) ascertained that expectations associated with the status of a social group have a direct relationship on the observer's behavior. People have

distinct expectations (stereotypes) of the status of a social group, in which men and women reflect not only physical characteristics but also social roles (Deaux, 1984). Men and women play different roles in both family and society (Ruan, 1985), and society is grounded on families (Wu, 2003). Stereotypes are based on gender and marital status, which may lead to inequalities or dissatisfaction.

Applications. Richard Branson, founder of the Virgin group of businesses, said consideration is the most important characteristic needed for an effective leader to achieve autonomy (Yi & Yang, 2005). Cunha (2002) said that consideration behavior is particularly relevant for companies operating in an abrupt environment with innovative development and flexible adjustments. Consideration is characterized as trust, respect, equality and so on (Robbins, 2001). Hence, consideration behavior is significantly related to subordinate satisfaction for work autonomy.

In addition, Robbins (2001) said that a learning organization is required for employees to adapt to a dynamic environment in which consideration behavior is implied (Senge, 1990). Therefore, an effective leader may create a learning organization through consideration behavior. However, risks will emerge only using consideration behavior. To balance administrative control and subordinate satisfaction for adaptability, initiating structure may accompany consideration in leadership behaviors.

Leader behavior with the high consideration and high initiating structure is the most effective leadership for empowerment in Taiwanese investment companies. Hence, leaders of Taiwanese investment companies could create a learning environment (adaptability) with high consideration behavior which accompanies high initiating structure for the highest effectiveness in leadership.

Senge (1990) stated that a shared vision, discarding old ways of thinking, interrelationship, multiple-channel communication, and co-work are the characteristics of a learning organization. Following are the steps that Taiwanese investment companies can take to adapt to a quickly changing environment:

1. A shared vision: A common vision that all the members of a Taiwanese investment company agree upon is established.
2. Discarding old ways of thinking: Data show that the perceived leadership style of high consideration and high initiating structure led to the highest subordinate work autonomy. So the leaders of Taiwanese investment companies must recognize that high-power distance would block organizational efficient operation. Hence, establishing a good relationship with followers is a way to attain efficiency besides initiating structure.
3. Interrelationship: Results showed that of the three dimensions of work autonomy, subordinates felt less empowered with work scheduling and criteria. That is, the CEO needs to give subordinates higher flexibility to work independently, activate new activities, and change work procedures to promote their interrelationship with a dynamic environment.
4. Multiple-channel communication: To flatten power distance, there should not be any fear of criticism or punishment to people so that they can openly communicate with each other.
5. Co-work: Stereotypes should be put aside. No matter their gender, level of education, age, tenure, and marital status, all people should be treated equally to work together to achieve the company's shared vision. Also,

minimal structure (teamwork) is required for innovation and flexibility, in which members interact to share information and make decisions to help other members perform within their area of responsibility.

Conclusively, Dess and Picken (2000) suggested that 21st century leaders “be proactive in facilitating organizational learning and encouraging positive adaptation to external changes” (p. 31). To do so, leaders should empower their employees at all different levels no matter gender, level of education, age, tenure, and marital status. They should also make their employees capable to gather and align information from the outside, share knowledge, and challenge original values for organizational effectiveness.

In such an organization, respect for people, trust and support, power equalization, confrontation, and participation will emerge for organizational development (Robbins, 2001). Followings are these concepts applied in Taiwanese investment companies:

1. **Respect for people:** People are treated with dignity and respect connected to the concept of *ren* in Confucianism: pay respect to elders, present mercy to young people, and pass love to others (Ruan, 1985). The opinions and behaviors of organizational members are completely respected.
2. **Trust and support:** An efficient and effective organization is characterized with trust and a supportive circumstance. Autonomy is a trust-based process (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) in which the competence of employees is affirmed between leaders and subordinates (Whitener et al., 1998). That is, leaders trust in the capability of employees, and employees pay loyalty to leaders. Also, leaders can provide assistance in promoting work autonomy from a low level to a high level to increase subordinate satisfaction.

3. Power equalization: Hierarchical structure is broken down in an effective organization. High-power distance accompanies inequality in the leader-subordinate relationship (Hofstede, 1980). Breaking down hierarchical structure is the basic principle in transforming a company from high-power distance to low-power distance.
4. Confrontation and equality: Problems could be openly resolved rather than handled under the table. Equality is the context of confrontation based on low-power distance rather than on special relationship.
5. Participation: Decision making is pushed down the operation level for uncertain circumstances and flexibility for work autonomy to increase subordinate satisfaction, which is the role of participation and satisfaction.

After Taiwan joined the WTO, intense competition emerged. With long-term developmental experience in the global investment market, foreign securities investment trust companies embarked on a large-scale strategy to influence the developing investment market. As a result, Taiwanese investment companies encountered unprecedented competition. However, these companies have faced two stiff challenges: Taiwanese cultural differentiation and an unfamiliar market. Although the two issues need to be overcome, sooner or later will they be gone. When this happens, Taiwanese investment companies will lose their original advantages and die out if they do not fortify their competitive competence during the transition. Because the financial industry creates profits based on knowledge (Shieh, 2003), the defense of talented staff is a core issue in financial market. That is, the investment companies that have elite investment-related staffs can be outstanding in a highly competitive environment. Thus, attracting and

sustaining such talents is a pivotal issue. The CEOs of Taiwanese investment companies should adjust their current leadership behavior to make their leadership more effective.

Suggestions for Future Research

This research contributes to the leadership effectiveness in Taiwanese investment companies. There is some further research that can be conducted.

1. This research was limited to securities investment trust companies of Taiwanese investment companies. Further research can address different types of investment companies including securities investment consulting companies in Taiwan. This would more fully investigate the relationship between CEO leadership styles and subordinate work autonomy in all Taiwanese investment companies. The results from the research can be compared so that any differences between types of investment companies can be known in an organizational culture.
2. CEO leadership and subordinates' demographics were used to assess their influence on subordinate work autonomy. However, other variables such as organizational culture, subordinate performance, organizational commitment, and personal motivators may have an impact on subordinate work autonomy. Therefore, future research can contain these factors related to work autonomy for comprehensive measurement in the achievement of organizational goals.
3. The relationship between a subordinate's perception of CEO leadership style and subordinate work autonomy was investigated, but this research only presented subordinates' viewpoints. Further research can focus on

viewpoints of CEOs reviewing their own leadership. The results of such research can be compared with the current research. Leaders then can see any gaps in perception and adjust leadership behavior for organizational effectiveness.

4. To precisely measure professional work autonomy, a questionnaire based on Taiwanese culture is needed. National culture deeply penetrates people's values and beliefs; a Taiwanese questionnaire is needed to present practical perceptions and promote accuracy in future research and make a greater contribution to the investment field.

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Appendix A

President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (English)

A=Never, B=Seldom, C=Occasionally, D=Often, E=Always		A	B	C	D	E
1	Makes her/his attitudes and requirements clear to the teachers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Likes to try new ideas at the institute.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Helps the teachers in a private capacity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Rules the institution inflexibly and forcibly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Is understanding and makes the teachers glad to be part of the institute.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Lets the teachers understand the reasons behind the policies of the institute.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Makes it difficult for teachers to take long sick leave for major illnesses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Criticizes poor work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Speaks with an unquestionable manner.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Finds time to listen to teachers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Asks teachers to do research after classes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	Does not socialize with teachers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	Looks out for the welfare of teachers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	Issues new contracts to teachers before the start of the new school year.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	Keeps schedules and progress of the work to be done.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	Requires the teachers to maintain definite standards of performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	Refuses to explain her/his actions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	Acts without consulting the teachers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	Expresses support for the teachers' actions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	Makes major decisions of the institute.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	Encourages the use of uniform procedures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	Makes teachers recognize their roles in the institute.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	Treats all teachers as her/his equals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	Asks teachers to follow the educational rules and regulations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	Willing to implement changes based on the majority opinion of the teachers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	Is friendly and approachable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	Castigates teachers in front of guests in ceremonies held at the institute.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	Lets teachers know of what is expected from them by the	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	people outside the institute.					
30	Makes sure that teachers are working to their capacity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	Makes teachers feel at ease when talking with them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32	Ensures that the work of the teachers is coordinated.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	Puts teachers' suggestions into action.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34	Gets the teachers' approval on important matters before implementing them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35	Hosts meetings in the role of the president at the institute.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix B

President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (Chinese)

我認爲我們學校校長		從未	很少	有時	時常	總是
1	態度明確，敢於要求教師	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	喜歡在學校試行其新觀念	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	私下幫助教師	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	採取強硬、嚴厲的做法來管理學校	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	體諒教師，每位教師樂於成爲學校的一員	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	讓教師了解其處理校務的原則和想法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	對重病住院教師之請假，藉故刁難	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	指責教師工作不夠完善	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	以一種不容置疑之態度講話	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	抽空聽取教師之意見	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	要求教師在課餘繼續從事教學研究	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	不與教師往來	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	重視教師的福利	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	在新學期開學前，發聘書給教師	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	將要做的事情，排定工作程序和進度	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	要求工作保持一定的水準	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	不說明其做法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	強調工作要如期完成	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	不與教師研商做法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	表現支持教師之行動	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	裁決校內重大措施	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	鼓勵教師採取一致的步驟	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	讓教師了解其在學校中的職責和立場	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	將所有教師視爲同仁	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	要求教師遵守教育法令與規章	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	依多數教師的意見改變現狀	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	待人和氣，平易近人	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	有外賓參加的正式典禮中，當場責備教師	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	設法使教師了解別人或外界對教師之期望	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	使教師竭盡所能地工作	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	與教師交談時，令教師感覺輕鬆自在	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32	留意教師之間的工作協調	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	採納教師的意見並且付諸實行	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34	實施重要事項之前，徵求教師的同意	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35	以校長身分，主持校內的會議	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Permission Letter

林原勗先生您好:

您寄來的大函收到了,謝謝您.同意您使用我所編製之校長領導行為問卷,並授權依實際需要略作修改,惟論文完成後,請寄給我一份.通訊地址:106 台北市和平東路二段 134 號國立台北師範學院.

國立台北師範學院 林新發謹上 10月26日

Lin, Hsin-fa

Dear Mr. Lin

I grant permission for you to use the President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire and modify it. I will appreciate you returning research results

Lin, Hsin-fa 10/26/04

From: adams0109@yahoo.com.tw
To: hsinfa@tea.ntptc.edu.tw
Sent: Tuesday, October 26, 2004 9: 34 PM
Subject: ask for a permission letter

林教授新發您好:

敝人是美國 University of the Incarnate Word 的組織領導研究所的博士生.懇請教授允許我使用您所設計的"President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire". 且個人將在問卷的文字稍作修改, 例如: 校長改爲 CEO, 學校改爲公司, 教師改爲下屬, 研究改爲在職進修. 也懇請您允許

祝 教安

林原勗

Dear Professor Lin

I am a doctoral student at University of the Incarnate Word. Can I use your President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire, and modify it to my research topic, such as school into company, president into CEO, teacher into subordinate, and research into continuing study.

Please allow it.

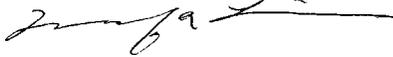
Lin, Yuan-Hsu

Permission Letter

I grant Mr. Yuan-Hsu Lin, a doctoral student at University of the Incarnate Word in San Antonio, Texas, U.S.A., permission to use the President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire and modify it for current requirement in his dissertation.

Please feel free to contact me. Also, I will appreciate you returning research results.

Sincerely yours

Signature: 

Lin, Hsin-fa

Date: Nov. 15, 2004

E-mail: hsinfa@tea.ntptc.edu.tw

National Taipei Teachers College

Appendix C

Survey Introductory Letter to Subject (English)

To Whom It May Concern:

The purpose of this letter is to invite you as a subject in the research: A study of CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of subordinates in the Taiwanese investment companies, conducted by Yuan-Hsu Adam Lin for a doctoral dissertation at University of the Incarnate Word at San Antonio in Texas in the U.S.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the possible relationship between the perceptions of CEO or leadership style and professional autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies.

Spending twenty to thirty minutes for you to complete the survey in this research will be greatly appreciated. You will receive a research package, including introductory letter, an informed consent form, and survey instruments in an unsealed envelop from the researcher. After you sign on the informed consent form and complete the survey instruments, please put them in the envelop, and then return the envelop to the researcher.

Your returning the completed survey will show your consent to participate. You may contact the researcher, if you need to know general results of this research. In addition, you may be free to withdraw from this survey at any time. Moreover, your anonymity in this research will be guaranteed, and no connection between your name and results will be reported. In addition, everything I learn from you in the research will be strictly confidential. Furthermore, after being used in this research, the completed survey will be destroyed. Moreover, if you have any questions about your right in the research, the Institutional Review Board at University of the Incarnate Word will be glad to answer your question. You may call 210-829-2757 at the office of the Dean of Graduate Studies and Research, or you may contact me.

Your cooperation in participating in this research is deeply appreciated.

Sincerely,

Yuan-Hsu Lin

210-828-0853(US)

042-5327281(Taiwan)

adams0109@yahoo.com.tw

Appendix D

Survey Introductory Letter to Subjects (Chinese)

敬啓者：

本人為美國德州聖安東尼奧 University of the Incarnate Word 組織領導所博士生，此信之目的為邀請您參與本人博士論文研究。

此研究之目的係探討台灣地區投資公司總裁或總經理的領導風格與員工專業工作自主權的關係，並對下屬進行問卷調查，以期對 CEO 或總經理之領導與授權提出改進建議，進而達到組織效率。

非常感謝您願意花費二十至三十分鐘之時間來完成此問卷，您將從本研究之助理處收到一個未封口信封，內有本說明信函、受事者須知與同意書，以及問卷。當您完成問卷填答後，交給研究者。

繳回已填答問卷之行爲顯示您同意參加本研究的問卷調查。如果您想知道研究結果，請與我聯繫。此外，於研究進行中，您若有感到不妥之處，可隨時撤回您的問卷。本研究係採匿名方式爲之，您的姓名將不會被公佈，而您的相關資料將受到嚴格保密，並僅用在學術研究上，不做其他用途。您填答之問卷亦將於本研究採用後銷毀。若您對自身權益有任何問題，本校博士論文倫理道德委員會將樂於回答您的問題，聯絡電話如下，研究所所長 012-1-210-829-2757(美國)；或者也可以直接與我聯繫。

再次爲您的參與致上十二萬分之謝意。

敬祝

安

林原勗 敬上
美國 210-828-0853
台灣 042-5327281
adams0109@yahoo.com.tw
民國九十三年九月三十日

Appendix E

Survey Consent Form (English)

Title of the Research: Perceptions of CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies.

Purpose of the Research: The purpose of this study is to investigate the possible relationship between the perceptions of CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies.

Principal investigator: Yuan-Hsu Lin

Phone: 210-828-0853 (US), 04-25327281 (Taiwan)

E-mail: adams0109@yahoo.com.tw

Thank you for voluntarily taking part in this survey that attaches your demographic characteristics, and the CEO Leadership Behavior Questionnaire. It might take you twenty to thirty minutes to finish this survey. Your signature on this form shows that you have been informed about the conditions and safeguards of this research, and agree to participate in this research. You may withdraw from the survey without any penalty for any reason whenever you do not feel like participating. Participants will encounter no risk and confidentiality of each participant will be completely protected. Your anonymity is ensured and group results instead of individual result will be reported. If there is any question relating to your participation in this research, please contact the researcher through the phone number and e-mail address listed at the top of this page. The Institutional Review Board at University of the Incarnate Word will review on human subjects and will answer any question about the rights of a research subject. The phone number of Dean of Graduate Studies and Research is 210-829-2757.

I have read the information provided and agree to participate in this survey.

Signature of Subject

Date (Time)

Phone Number

E-mail Address

Appendix F

Survey Consent Form (Chinese)

研究計劃名稱：台灣投資公司總裁或總經理領導風格與員工專業工作自主權之研究

研究目的：探討領導風格與自主權的關係

研究者：林原勗，美國德州聖安東尼奧 University of Incarnate Word 組織領導所博士生。

聯絡電話：210-828-0853(美國), 042-5327281(台灣)

電子郵件信箱：adams0109@yahoo.com.tw

敬啟者：

感謝您自願參與本問卷調查，本問卷包含，下屬個人資料(不含姓名)、總裁或總經理領導行為問卷，本問卷可能佔用您二十至三十分鐘來完成，您文末之簽名代表您清楚了解本研究調查之狀況、參與者權利之保護、以及您已同意參與本研究調查。您有全隨時退出本研究調查，而不用負擔任何責任。您將不會因參與本研究調查而遭受任何危害，您的資料也將被絕對保密。您之參與本研究調查是以匿名方式為之，而本研究調查之結果係以團體資料呈現。有關研究調查之參與，若您有任何問題，歡迎隨時利用前述之電話或電子郵件信箱，來電或信查詢。本校博士論文倫理道德審查委員會亦樂於回覆有關您參與本研究調查之權利問題(210-829-2757 研究所所長)。

本人以詳閱上列資訊，並同意參與本研究調查。

受試者簽名

日期

時間

聯絡電話

電子郵件信箱(E-mail)

Appendix G

Survey Instrument (English)

Survey on The Relationship between the Perceptions of CEO Leadership Style and Professional Work Autonomy of Subordinates in Taiwanese Investment Companies.

Please place a “√” in the appropriate box.

Please tell us about yourself:

Gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
Age	<input type="checkbox"/> 21 or under <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40 <input type="checkbox"/> 41 or over
Marital Status	<input type="checkbox"/> Married <input type="checkbox"/> Single
Years of servicing at the company	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 or under <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 <input type="checkbox"/> 3-5 <input type="checkbox"/> 5-7 <input type="checkbox"/> 7-10 <input type="checkbox"/> 10 or over
Level of Education	<input type="checkbox"/> Master or over <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor <input type="checkbox"/> Under bachelor
Monthly Salary	<input type="checkbox"/> NT\$35,000 or under <input type="checkbox"/> NT\$35,001-55,000 <input type="checkbox"/> NT\$55,001-75,000 <input type="checkbox"/> NT\$75,001 and over
Title	<input type="checkbox"/> Assistant President <input type="checkbox"/> Manager <input type="checkbox"/> Assistant Manager <input type="checkbox"/> Other

Section I : CEO or President Leadership Behavior Questionnaire

There are 35 questions in this section, which describe the CEO leadership style at your company. Please place a “√” in only one box to the right of each question that most accurately describes your observations on the leadership style of the CEO with respect to the question.

I perceived that the CEO or president

A=Never, B= Seldom, C=Occasionally, D= Often, E=Always		A	B	C	D	E
1	Makes her/his attitudes and requirements clear to the subordinates.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Likes to try new ideas at the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Helps the subordinates in a private capacity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Rules the company inflexibly and forcibly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Is understanding and makes the subordinates glad to be part of the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Lets the subordinates understand the reasons behind the policies of the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Makes it difficult for subordinates to take long sick leave for major illnesses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Criticizes poor work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Speaks with an unquestionable manner.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Finds time to listen to subordinates.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Asks subordinates to continue learning after jobs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	Does not socialize with subordinates.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	Looks out for the welfare of subordinates.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	Issues new contracts to subordinates before the start of new company year.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	Keeps the schedules and progress of work to be done.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	Requires the subordinates to maintain definite standards of performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	Refuses to explain her/his actions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	Acts without consulting the subordinates.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	Expresses support for the subordinates' actions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	Makes major decisions of the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	Encourages the use of uniform procedures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	Makes subordinates recognizing their roles in the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	Treats all subordinates as her/his equals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	Asks subordinates to follow the company' rules and regulations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

26	Willing to implement changes based on the majority opinion of the subordinates.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	Is friendly and approachable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	Castigates subordinates in front of guests in ceremonies held at the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	Lets subordinates know of what is expected from them by the people outside the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	Makes sure that subordinates are working to their capacity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	Makes subordinates feel at ease when talking with them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32	Ensures that the work of the subordinates is coordinated.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	Puts subordinates' suggestions into action.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34	Gets the subordinates' approval on important matters before implementing them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35	Hosts meetings in the role of the CEO at the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section II Breugh's Work Autonomy Scales

This survey is to test your perceived professional autonomy. There are 9 questions. Please read the following statements, and select a degree which can mostly express your opinion. Please respond to every statement. The scale involves:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = No Opinion, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree.

Adopted from Breugh (1985, p. 570)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Work Method Autonomy							
1	I am allowed to decide how to go about getting my job done (the methods to use).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	I am able to choose the way to go about my job (the procedures to utilize).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	I am free to choose the method(s) to use in carrying out my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Work Scheduling Autonomy							
1	I have control over the scheduling of my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	I have control over the sequencing of my work activities (when I do what).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	My job is such that I can decide when to do particular work activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Work Criteria Autonomy							
1	My job allows me to modify the normal way we are evaluated so that I can emphasize some aspects of my job and play down others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	I am able to modify what my job objectives are (what I am supposed to accomplish).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish (what my supervisor sees as my job objectives).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix H

Survey Instrument (Chinese)

領導風格與自主權的關係

請在合適的選項中打“√”

個人基本資料

性別	<input type="checkbox"/> 男 <input type="checkbox"/> 女
年齡	<input type="checkbox"/> 25 歲或以下 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 歲 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 歲 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40 歲 <input type="checkbox"/> 41 歲或以上
婚姻狀況	<input type="checkbox"/> 結婚 <input type="checkbox"/> 未婚
年資	
學歷	<input type="checkbox"/> 碩士或以上 <input type="checkbox"/> 大學 <input type="checkbox"/> 大學以下
月薪	<input type="checkbox"/> NT\$35,000 或以下 <input type="checkbox"/> NT\$35,001-55,000 <input type="checkbox"/> NT\$55,001-75,000 <input type="checkbox"/> NT\$75,001 以上
職級	<input type="checkbox"/> 協理 <input type="checkbox"/> 經理 <input type="checkbox"/> 襄理 <input type="checkbox"/> 其他

第一部分: 總裁或總經理的領導行為問卷

填答說明:

本部分共三十五題, 皆為描述貴公司總裁或總經理的領導行為之敘述, 每題均有五個不同程度之選項, 請依照個人實際觀察, 於最適選項中打勾(✓)。

我認為我們公司總裁或總經理		從未	很少	有時	時常	總是
1	態度明確, 敢於要求下屬	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	喜歡在公司試行其新觀念	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	私下幫助下屬	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	採取強硬、嚴厲的做法來管理公司	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	體諒下屬, 每位下屬樂於成為公司的一員	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	讓下屬了解其處理公司事務的原則和想法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	對重病住院下屬之請假, 藉故刁難	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	指責下屬工作不夠完善	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	以一種不容置疑之態度講話	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	抽空聽取下屬之意見	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	要求下屬在下班後繼續在職進修	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	不與下屬往來	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	重視下屬的福利	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	在公司新年度前, 發聘書給下屬	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	將要做的事情, 排定工作程序和進度	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	要求工作保持一定的水準	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	不說明其做法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	強調工作要如期完成	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	不與下屬研商做法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	表現支持下屬之行動	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	裁決公司內重大措施	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	鼓勵下屬採取一致的步驟	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	讓下屬了解其在公司中的職責和立場	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	將所有下屬視為同仁	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	要求下屬遵守公司法令與規章	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	依多數下屬的意見改變現狀	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	待人和氣, 平易近人	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	有外賓參加的正式典禮中, 當場責備下屬	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	設法使下屬了解別人或外界對下屬之期望	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	使下屬竭盡所能地工作	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	與下屬交談時, 令下屬感覺輕鬆自在	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32	留意下屬之間的工作協調	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	採納下屬的意見並且付諸實行	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

34	實施重要事項之前，徵求下屬的同意	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35	以總裁或總經理身分，主持公司內的會議	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

第二部分: Breugh 的工作自主權量表

填答說明:

本問卷是測驗您對於專業自主權的同意程度. 本問卷包含九個問題. 請仔細閱讀下列各項敘述, 並圈出最能符合您意見的程度.

同意程度為:

1 = 非常不同意, 2 = 不同意, 3 = 少許不同意, 4 = 無意見, 5 = 少許同意, 6 = 同意, 7 = 非常同意

Adopted from Breugh (1985, p. 570)

	非常 不同意	不 同意	少 許 不 同意	無 意 見	少 許 同 意	同 意	非 常 同 意
1. 我被容許有自主權決定如何完成工作 (就方法而言).							
2. 我有權選擇以何種方法執行工作 (就程度而言).							
3. 我有自由選擇以何種方法去執行我的工作.							
4. 我完全控制我的工作計劃.							
5. 在某種程度上我能控制我的工作 (就時間而言).							
6. 我能決定何時做特定的工作.							
7. 我的工作容許我修改一些既定的評鑑方法, 令我能強調或減低某些工作方面的重要性.							
8. 我能修改我的工作目標 (就我應該達到的成果而言).							
9. 某種程度上我能控制我應該達到的目標 (就我上司認定的目標而言).							

Permission Letter

Dear Mr. Lin:

Since the Chinese version of Breugh's work autonomy scales has been published, you should be able to use it.

Jessica Chen

-----Original Message-----

From: adams0109@yahoo.com.tw [mailto:adams0109@yahoo.com.tw]

Sent: Tuesday, October 26, 2004 10:38 PM

To: 陳心華; hhchen11@hotmail.com

Subject: ask for a permission letter

陳博士您好,

敝人是 University of The Incarnate Word 的學生. 正在研究有關"The relationship between the perceptions of CEO leadership style and professional autonomy of subordinates in Taiwanese investment companies". 請您允許我使用中文版的 Breugh's work autonomy scales. 以及可否給我一份 permission letter.

祝 教安

林原勗 (Lin, Yuan-Hsu)



元智大學 應用外語系
 元智大学 応用外国語学科
 Yuan Ze University
 Department of Foreign Languages and Applied Linguistics

November 1, 2004

Mr. Yuan-Hsu Lin
 73 Tan-Hsin Road, Sec. 3
 Tan-Tzu Hsiang, Taichung 427
 Taiwan, R.O.C.

Dear Mr. Lin:

I hereby grant Mr. Yuan-Hsu Lin, a doctoral student at the University of Incarnate Word in San Antonio, Texas, U.S.A., permission to use in his dissertation "The Relationship Between the Perceptions of CEO Leadership Style and Professional Autonomy of Subordinates in Taiwanese Investment Companies" the translated Chinese version of Breaugh's multi-dimensional measure of work autonomy questionnaire, published in *Higher Education (2000)*, which was developed by Henkin, A.B., Dee, J. R., and myself. I also grant my permission to include a copy in an appendix in his dissertation.

Please feel free to contact me or Dr. Dee if you have any question. Also, please keep us informed of your results. I would enjoy reading your findings. Good luck.

Sincerely yours,

Jessica Hsin-Hwa Chen
 Chair

Email: hhchen@saturn.yzu.edu.tw

中壢市遠東路135號

135 Yuan Tung Road
 Chung Li 320
 Taiwan

886-3-463-8800 Ext. 727
 Fax 886-3-455-2237
www.yzu.edu.tw/yzu/fl

Appendix I

UNIVERSITY OF THE INCARNATE WORD
Institutional Review Board
Research Approval Form

Dissertation Research

1. Principal Investigator: Yuan-Hsu Lin
2. Dissertation Chair: Dr. Absael Antelo
3. Division/Discipline: Organizational Leadership Ph. D.
4. Research Category: Exempt
5. Purpose of study:
The purpose of this study is to investigate the possible relationship between the perceptions of CEO leadership style and professional work autonomy of subordinates in the Taiwanese investment companies. Subordinates' perceptions of CEO leadership style was investigated, subordinate work autonomy was verified, the correlation between the perceived CEO leadership and subordinate work autonomy was measured, and the differences among subordinates' demographics in work autonomy were assessed.
6. Does this research involve any of the following : Yes No

	Yes	No
Inmates of penal institutions	___	<u>X</u>
Institutionalized mentally retarded	___	<u>X</u>
Institutionalized mentally disabled	___	<u>X</u>
Committed patients	___	<u>X</u>
Mentally retarded outpatient	___	<u>X</u>
Mentally disabled outpatient	___	<u>X</u>
Pregnant women	___	<u>X</u>
Fetus in utero	___	<u>X</u>
Viable fetus	___	<u>X</u>
Nonviable fetus	___	<u>X</u>
Dead fetus	___	<u>X</u>
In vitro fertilization	___	<u>X</u>
Minors (under 18)	___	<u>X</u>

For each "Yes", state what precautions you will use to obtain informed consent:

7. Duration of study: 6 Months
8. How is information obtained?
Survey instruments (See Appendix G & H).
10. Confidentiality---identifiers used for subjects? __ Yes X No

11. Benefits of research

There is a high level of competition among investment companies; retention of strategic personnel has become an important point in promoting customer satisfaction. Therefore, it is necessary for the leaders of the Taiwanese investment companies to understand what dimension of leadership style they are in and to adjust their leadership behavior to increase higher subordinate work autonomy, which will create higher subordinate satisfaction. This, in turn, will increase productivity, reduce absenteeism, and decrease turnover.

12. Possible risk to subject: None

13. "Protection of Human Subjects" section is on page 88 of dissertation.

14. Informed Consent Form is in Appendix E & F of dissertation.

15. Source of funding: N/A

***** IF CHANGE IN RESEARCH OCCURS, THE IRB MUST BE NOTIFIED BEFORE RESEARCH IS CONTINUED**

Principal Investigator signature _____ Date _____

IRB Approval signature _____ Date _____