THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE AND

EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION IN TAIWAN FASHION RETAIL

DEPARTMENT STORES

A Dissertation

by

Lin-Chin Lin

Presented to the School of Graduate Studies of the
University of the Incarnate Word
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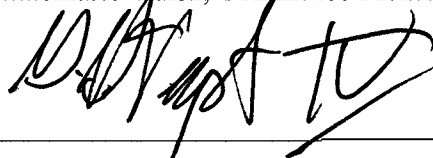
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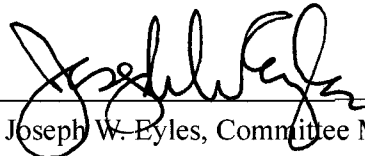A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE AND
EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION IN TAIWAN FASHION RETAIL
DEPARTMENT STORES

By

Lin-Chin Lin

Dissertation Chair: Dr. Nancy Robbins

This study described and examined the relationship of employees'

perceptions of manager's leadership style on the job satisfaction of employees at

fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. Specifically, this research indicated

whether a transformational or transactional leadership style had a positive relationship

with employees' job satisfaction.

This study utilized three questionnaires, the Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire (MLQ-5X short form), the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) instrument, and

a demographic data survey instrument.

The collected data were analyzed via descriptive statistics, two tailed t-test,

and one-way ANOVA by the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS 10.0)

for Microsoft Windows. The data showed there is a positive relationship between

manager's leadership style and employee job satisfaction in fashion retail department

stores in Taiwan.

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Chapter I Introduction

Context of the Study

In today's global environment, managers in fashion retail department stores face many new challenges including increased global competition. The managerial implication is that without effective leadership, many challenges may render some managers ineffective, and subsequently, may cause some organizations to fail. An effective manager of people has to motivate employees and provide employees with a sense of mission and purpose. Leadership has been defined as the process of influencing others toward achievement of organization goals (Yukl, 2001). Therefore, effective managers can be considered leaders (Gardner, 1986; Grove, 1986).

To face today's rapid changing environment, the need for outstanding leaders have greater significance than in the past. A leader who can initiate change, provide a vision and integrate a multiple culture into this changing environment provides a basis for the organization to operate successfully (Dessler, 1995). Leaders in the twenty-first century must be willing to experiment, push the limits of their assumptions, and consider the inconceivable. Change is an integral part of transformational leadership, but transformational behaviors are less likely to be observed in these change resistant organizations than elsewhere. In spite of the many potential advantages held in transformational leadership, fashion retail department stores are hesitant to adopt the transformational leadership model.

Bass and Stogdill (1990) found that four factors emerged when they described transformational leaders. These factors are: charismatic leadership, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. These

transformational factors plus transactional factors are measured through the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (see Appendix A). There are nine leadership factors includes in the 1995 version of the MLQ. These nine factors are defined within three leadership categories; transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. These categories, according to Bass, encompass the full range of leadership. The factors with these categories include five within the transformational leadership category, three within transactional leadership, and the nonleadership factor representing the laissez-faire category (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Many leadership scholars and practitioners (Bass 1985, 1990b; Bennis & Nanus 1985; Conger & Kanungo 1987) have proposed that today's organizations need leadership that inspires followers and enables them to enact revolutionary change. Transformational leadership theory proposes that leaders use behaviors that are more complex than initiation of structure and consideration. Based on the observations of many leaders, it is clear that the two dimensions cannot account for the full range of behaviors ascribed to many leaders. Transformational leadership also suggests that the majority of leadership theories focus on the exchange and transaction between leaders and their followers (Nahavandi, 2000).

The question of leadership in business organizations, although arriving relatively late to the study of leadership, has gained considerably in stature since the Industrial Revolution and continues to gain in importance as people move to a world economy (Srogdill, 1974; Urwick & Wolf, 1984). Leadership has been defined as "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement" (Roach 1986, p. 18). The leader's leadership style could directly affect subordinates'

working attitude, total production, and enterprises' success.

In the 1930s and 1940s job satisfaction studies began to focus on the impact the leader and the work group had on individual level of satisfaction. The leadership style, environment, individual demographic background, and interpersonal relationship can change subordinate's job satisfaction.

"The inquirer and the 'object' of inquiry interact to influence one another; knower and known are inseparable" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 94). I realized that my inquiry was influenced by my past fashion business experience as a leader and follower and educational experience as a student and teacher. Hence it is important to report my thoughts and ideas about the relationship between leader's leadership and employees' job satisfaction to document the context of this research.

My fascination with the phenomenon of leadership and my studies in graduate business school inspired this undertaking. The relationship among managers and employees in business particularly within the fashion retail department store is important to examine because there are more and more business owners establishing fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. Therefore, the increase of competition in the fashion retail department stores has become the current critical issues.

Taiwan's fashion retailing has followed the Japanese model being largely focused on department stores that rent out the bulk of the floor space to concessions. According to the Ministry of Economic Affairs' Industrial Development Bureau (2003) indicated that with an increased number of shopping centers opening, and a growing number of department stores, the retail industry is developing quickly to provide more opportunities for prospective retailers. The operating profits of the fashion retail

department stores have increased to U.S. $14 million dollars and the numbers of the retail department stores have increased 14% from 1982 to 1993. In the opinion of many expert scholars, fashion retail department stores have demonstrated substantial growth in their profits over the past one or two decades. In their view, the factors for improving profits growth are the increase of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the higher educational quality to increase the value of the consumption level, globalization, and the function of the free market.

The fashion retail department store in Taiwan also called *Economic Window Display*, because it is a reflection of the national economy and consumer's spending ability. Even thought the fashion retail department stores in Taiwan are thriving, they are still affected by globalization and its effect on the function of the free market. It has also been affected by the competition between the various fashion retail businesses.

Now in the twenty-first century, in every retail store across Taiwan, there is at least one retail sales manager. The retail trade industry provides goods and services directly to customers, the retail manager is responsible for ensuring that customers receive satisfactory service and quality goods. Retail sales managers must try to get along with all types of people. Patience and a mild temperament are necessary when dealing with demanding customers. They must also be able to motivate, organize, and direct the work of subordinates and communicate clearly and persuasively with customers and other managers. Therefore, managers must display leadership and team building skills, self-confidence, motivation, and decisiveness (Turner, 2002). Thus, the leadership role of managers has become an increasingly critical element in the successful implementation of the retail department store. Leadership is an observable and learnable set of practices.

Individuals who possess the desire and persistence to lead may enhance their skills and abilities required for the leadership role (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).

However, research reported on fashion retail department store employee job satisfaction is very limited. Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p, 1300). He distinguished job satisfaction from morale by demonstrating that satisfaction has an individual and temporal orientation toward the past and present rather than a group toward the future. It is the individual's overall evaluation of the job, generally expressed in two forms (Bagozzi, 1980). The first is a strictly cognitive one in that specific facets of the job are considered by the individual as a means of satisfying needs, while the second is largely affective in content.

Statement of Problems

Responsibility for the day-to-day management of a department is accomplished by following company policies and procedures. This includes assuring that sales targets are met by ensuring that the most suitable products or services are available for the customer and finding the best ways of selling them quickly and profitably. The goal of any retail managers job is to improve the commercial performance of the company, working towards an increased market share by exploiting opportunities to maximize profitability, increase customer satisfaction and ensure continued business growth. A major part of the job is managing and motivating staff to increase sales and improve efficiency (Turner, 2002).

According to the Consortium of Retail Teaching Companies (CORTCO), the following skills and personal characteristics are required: customer focus; excellent

communication and interpersonal skills; the ability to maintain energy levels and generate fresh and innovative ideas; multiskilled and capable of multi-tasking; entrepreneurial with good risk assessment skills; a team player with the capability to use initiative and adopt a leadership role as appropriate; the ability to tune in to other people in an environment that is often pressurized. Previous experience in retailing or in a commercial environment with a strong customer services focus is highly desirable.

In the twenty-first century, more businesses and companies require their workers to work more on team operations rather than individually. One of the most effective elements to those teams' success is its leaders. Without the management of a strong leader, a team can only go so far. In a startling statistic reported by *USA Weekend* on February 23, 2003, 40% of all new managers are out of a job within the first 18 months in the retail businesses. However, beyond the obvious reasons, such as termination or voluntary leave, the simple facts are that they were not prepared to work in partnerships and on teams. Throughout this study, the importance of practicing leadership will be discussed. The study will explore the relationship between managers' leadership style and job satisfaction of employees at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan.

Over the past decade, a growing body of business research has substantiated a linkage between customer services and customer satisfaction. Customer service employees are portrayed in linkage research as key to maintaining or enhancing customer satisfaction. This is due to their *boundary spanning* role (Aldrich & Herker, 1977). That is, a role straddling both the worlds and concerns of the employer, and the customers with whom they interact.

As Caroselli (1992) points out in an earlier article on employee and customer

satisfaction: as employees are treated, so will they treat the customer. So, the key to satisfied customers and increased profits is the satisfied employee in the customer service or boundary role. In large part, this means that achieving a competitive business advantage depends on understanding and acting on what it takes to maximize service employee job satisfaction.

"A happy subordinate is a productive subordinate" could be essentially summarized by the findings of early studies on the job satisfaction and performance relationship. Vroom (1964) indicated that if there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and productivity, the correlations are consistently low. However, introduction of moderating variables has improved the relationship (Herman, 1973). Robbins (2001) concluded that,

> if you do a good job, you intrinsically feel good about it. Additionally,
>
> assuming that the organization rewards productivity, your higher
>
> productivity should increase verbal recognition, your pay level, and
>
> probabilities for promotion. These rewards, in turn, increase your level of
>
> satisfaction with the job. (p. 107)

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to describe and examine the relationship of employees' perceptions of manager's leadership style on the job satisfaction of employees at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. Specifically, this research will indicate whether a transformational or transactional leadership style has a positive relationship with employees' job satisfaction.

Research Questions

Within the context of the purpose of the study, the following three research questions are posed:

1. What is the current managers' leadership style at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

2. What is the relationship between the managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfaction at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

3. Are there differences in the relationship among managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfaction levels based up on the employees' gender, age, educational background and years of work experience?

Methodology

In order to test the research questions, the leadership style will be measured using Bass and Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the employee's self-perceptions of job satisfaction will be measured using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). Demographic data will be collected thorough the use of a demographic data survey instrument, developed for the specific purpose of this study.

Definitions of Terms

Fashion Retail Department Store

A large retail store carrying a wide variety of merchandise and organized into various departments for sales and administrative purpose; commonly part of a retail chain.

Leadership

Leadership is as an interactive process between the leader and follower whereby the leader attempts to influence the follower to achieve a desired goal.

Transformational Leadership

The leadership behavior that motivates and inspires followers to do more than originally expected (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Transactional Leadership

The leadership behavior emphasizing an exchange of subordinate effort to the realization of rewards or the avoidance of punishment (Bass, 1985).

Laissez-faire Leadership

The leadership behavior that emphasizes minimal supervisor-subordinate interaction, avoidance of responsibility and action, and minimal attempt to motivate followers or to satisfy their needs (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Job Satisfaction

The feelings a worker has about his or her job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives (Blegen, 1993).

Delimitation and Limitations of the Study

This research will focus on the manager's leadership style and employees' job satisfaction. Data will be collected within three fashion retail department stores across Taiwan. The respondents of this research are limited to managers and employees who have been in their current position for at least six months to ensure sufficient experience to assess the manager's leadership style as well as employees' own level of job satisfaction at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan.

Significance of the Study

This study attempts to enhance the understanding of the relationship between the managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfaction in fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. It benefits leaders to identify their leadership style and adapt their behavior to particular situations. In addition, there is limited research and studies in the field of fashion industry. Hopefully this study can provide the understanding to managers for enhancing employees' job satisfactions.

Chapter II Review of Literature

The specific areas of concentration for the literature review in this chapter

includes (a) leadership, (b) transformational/transactional leadership theory, (c) job

satisfaction, and (d) fashion retail department stores in Taiwan.

Leadership

Identifying leadership styles, behaviors, and practices is valuable and important

for contributing to the professional growth and development of individual managers and

attainment of organizational goals. Scholars use scientific methods to understand and

predict leadership effectiveness and make specific attempts to identify and measure

leadership characteristics. The modern scientific approach to leadership can be divided

into three eras or approaches: the trait era, the behavior era, and the contingency era.

Each era is characterized by distinct contributions to people's understanding of leadership,

and each continues to influence people's thinking about the process.

A plethora of literature exists on the subject of leadership. In fact, leadership as

a behavior is considered a universal human phenomenon. Citing various anthropological

reports on primitive groups in Australia, Fiji, the Congo, New Guinea and elsewhere,

Smith and Krueger (1933) concluded that leadership behavior occurs universally among

all people regardless of culture, class, education or training.

The earliest literature concerning the concept of leadership as a universal

human phenomenon was concerned almost entirely with theoretical issues. Theorists

sought to identify types of leadership styles and behaviors in order to determine the

relationship of the styles and behaviors to the functional demands of society. Theorists

attempted to account for the emergence of leadership among groups either by examining

the qualities of the person in the leadership role or by examining the elements of the situation being observed (Bass, 1981).

Leadership, a sophisticated concept, has many different definitions. In 1929, J.B. Nash suggested that effective leaders were able to influence change in the conduct of people. Stogdill, in 1950, termed leadership as the process of influencing the actions and activities of a organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal attainment. Other definitions of leadership indicate that recognition of worker's contributions and talents by the leader within an organization and the need for the personal power within the worker defines a true leader's ability (Cumbey & Alexamder, 1998).

"Leadership in one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (Burns, 1978, p. 2). Birnbaum (1989) concurred when he wrote, "Although we have learned much about leadership, there is still no agreement on how leadership is defined, measured, assessed or linked to outcomes..." (p. 125).

The study of leadership has occurred since the beginning of civilization. From Pharaohs through Napoleon to Mother Teresa, scholars have attempted to identify the formula for successful leadership (Bass, 1990). Many theorists have attempted to define leadership. Bass (1990) noted that there may be as many definitions as there are individuals who have studied the concept. Peter Drucker (1996) stated it most simply when he noted that an individual is only a leader if he or she has followers. A leader is highly visible, sets examples, and takes responsibility. Clark and Clark (1992) defined leaders as "people who simply have a compulsion to get things moving" (p. 3). Hersey and Blanchard (1982) referred to leadership as, "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in effort toward goal achievement in a given situation" (p. 3).

Quite naturally, most of the research into leadership involves close attention to the actual leader. What is a leader? After reviewing 163 leadership studies Stogdill (1974) concluded:

> The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons' behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand. (p. 7)

The study of leadership is not a new phenomenon. Stogdill (1974) traced the origin of the word leader to the year 1300 and the word leadership to the year 1800 (p. 7). What is leadership? Jago (1981) emphasized the symbolic and non coercive nature of leadership. He believed that it is the leader's role to organize and control the group in such a way that it will help them accomplish their goals. Leadership has been studied since the beginning of recorded history, but the study of leadership in a business context did not really begin until the Industrial Revolution. Leadership as a body of theory and research is an American creation (Stogdill, 1974; Urwick & Wolf, 1984). Over the course of time, the study of leadership and management has evolved through three major schools of thought and countless minor contributions (McCall, 1998). The researcher's current understanding of leadership is based on these interrelated schools of leadership thought as described in the next three sections.

The Trait Era

The Trait describes a basic understanding of the concept of leadership before it was studied scientifically. This was generally the era of a leader as someone who could impose his/her will on others (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Newstrom & Bittel, 1996). The concept of the legitimate leader evolved from the leader as the most physically dominant person to the concept of the person most entitled to the leaders' role. The European concepts of authority based on feudal and religious relationships helped to reinforce this concept and helped it to make a lasting impression on the current view of leadership. The political, church, military and business type organizations were, and largely continue to be, based on the concepts of leader legitimacy, leader permanence, the role of the follower, rewards of loyalty, and leader prestige (Miller, 1964). These components are all essential to an understanding of the legitimate leader concept.

The business adaptation of these principles is reflected in the management principles of the Industrial Revolution. For the first time in history, large business organizations were emerging, and direct control of the workers was not effective or in some cases not even possible (Morgan, 1996; Urwick & Wold, 1984). The leadership of these large developing organizations was based on recruiting the right leaders, that is those from the right class, and promoting them. Business owners believed that if the correct person was selected with the right pedigree, they would succeed. Development of leadership talent was not an issue (Lee, 1997). Vestiges of the legitimated leader thinking still influence many leadership selection decisions today in organizations (Passmore & Fagans, 1992), but the mainstream of leadership research moved on to a much more promising area early in the twentieth century (Kanter, 1983; Morgan, 1996).

The trait leadership theories, was popular prior to about 1945 (Hersey &

Blanchard, 1988). Generally, researchers during this period of time believe that great men

inherited their leadership skills; that leaders were born, not made (Stogdill, 1974).

Stogdill (1974) stated that the great-man theories of leadership attempted to explain

leadership on the basis of inheritance. Early writers believed that leadership was based

upon the notion that history is shaped by the leadership of great-men (Bass, 1990).

Bass (1990) cited the following examples of great-men: Moses, when he leads

the Jews out of Egypt, and Churchill as a leader in the allied victory of World War II.

Current day "great-men" can be demonstrated by those transformational leaders, such as

Lee Lacocca, who turnaround failing businesses. Martin Luther King Jr, who inspired the

civil rights movement among African-Americans, is considered to be a great-man. John F.

Kennedy is considered by many to be a *great man* in the political field (Bass, 1990).

Fielder (1967) best summarizes this theory in his comment: "Implicit in the

Great Man theory.... It is the individual's personality or charisma which determines

whether a man becomes a leader. Hence, the man who has the right personality will

emerge as a good leader in most if not all groups and organizations." (p. 16)

As with the great-man theories, the trait theories generally assumed that leaders

are born not made (Stogdill, 1974). "If the leader is endowed with superior qualities that

differentiate him from his followers, it should be possible to identify these qualities"

(Stogdill, 1974, p. 17). This assumption gave rise to the trait theories of leadership. The

trait theories focused on two areas: the differences between leaders and non-leaders and

the differences between effective and ineffective leaders (Hollander, 1978, p. 21). Trait

theories attempt to identify the universal traits or personality characteristics of successful

leaders.

Early leadership researchers were confident that traits essential for leadership effectiveness could be identified by empirical research. The kinds of traits studied most often in the early leadership research included physical characteristics, aspects of personality and aptitudes (Yukl, 2001). Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 trait studies conducted from 1904 to 1948 and found that the pattern of results was consistent with the conception of a leader as someone who acquires status through demonstration of ability to facilitate the efforts of the group in attaining its goals. The traits can be divided into the following: intelligence, alertness to the needs of others, understanding of the task, initiative and persistence in dealing with problems, self-confidence, and desire to accept responsibility and occupy a position of dominance and control. "The importance of each trait depended on the situation, and the research did not identify any trait that were necessary or sufficient to ensure leadership success" (Yukl, 2001, p. 177). Therefore, Stogdill concluded, "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits.... the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers" (1948, p. 64).

Despite some limited success, however, the massive research effort of the 1930s and 1940s has failed to identify any traits that guarantee leadership success (Stogdill, 1974). Hennings (1961) and Jago (1982), among others, support Stogdill's conclusions. Leadership traits, of course, mean very little unless they are applied. Exactly what causes these traits to be applied or activated is the subject of some current research. Trait activation research is looking into which trait relevant situations arouse certain behaviors

(Tett, 1998) and it is in the examination of leadership behaviors where people begin to see leadership in context.

Behavior Era

The new area of focus in the beginning of the twentieth century, the behavior era, coincided with subtle leadership changes from domination to influence. Leaders began to rely more heavily on interpersonal skills such as establishing goals, providing feedback, and recognizing performance to motivate workers (Drath, 1998). The influence of trade unions and the scale of mobilization required by the world wars dramatically changed the face of leadership studies. The workforce environment was still characterized by a great deal of manual labor, a strict division of work and a large unskilled labor force, but many leaders have begun to emerge from the ranks instead of from the upper classes. This was the period of the classical leadership theorists such as the Frenchman Henri Fayol, the American F.W. Mooney, and the Englishman Col. Lyndall Urwick who laid the groundwork for studying leadership by providing structure and direction to the field (Morgan, 1996).

The era's defining events, the two world wide wars, swept away many of the serious legitimate era leadership concepts as leaders tried to cope with the demands of waging wars on an unprecedented scale and maintaining the industrial base to support those efforts (Ferguson, 1998; George, 1972). Leaders were faced with finding effective ways to manage organizations that were larger than any in history and ones which had expanded at an unprecedented rate (Cummings & Worley, 1997). Leadership skills had to involve a logical approach to solving the enormous manufacturing and logistical problems presented by the war effort. It was about this time that behaviorism began to

move out of the laboratory and into the field as leaders searched for ways to improve productivity with a dwindling labor pool (George, 1972).

The behavior leadership era brought into question the concept of the legitimate or rightful leader. Developing leaders during this period focused on increased training, particularly training employees how to solve problems quantitatively (Lee, 1997). Behavior leadership seems to have satisfied the leadership need of this climatic period, but the study of leadership was moving in a much more scientific direction (George, 1972; Koontz, 1961).

The behavioral era, which focuses on observable leadership actions, provides methodology for addressing some of the weaknesses of trait research (Roethlisberger, 1964). These theories found favor from about 1945 to the mid-1960 (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The major theories that impacted managerial thinking during this phase were the Ohio State Studies, the Michigan Studies, Likert's Four Systems Management, and the Managerial Grid. The behavioral theorists postulated that a leader's style was dominated by a either a job-centered or an employee-centered emphasis. The research efforts identified below focuses on these two categories of leadership behavior.

The Ohio State Studies. In 1945, Shartle (1950) with the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University (Bowers & Seashore, 1966) organized the Ohio State Leadership Studies. These studies were an attempt to study the behaviors of leaders as opposed to traits. Additionally, they constituted one of the largest and most comprehensive research programs in the field of organizational behavior and industrial psychology (Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, & Stogdill, 1974).

In order to collect data relevant to the leader's behavior, the researchers at Ohio

State University constructed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) instrument. This instrument included descriptive statements which were assigned to one of nine dimensions or categories of leader behavior as postulated by the researchers. Subsequently, the nine categories were factor analyzed and reduced to four, then eventually to two categories: "consideration" and "initiating structure" (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Halpin & Winter, 1957; & Fleishman, 1951, 1953). Yukl (2001) explained both behavior dimensions:

1. Consideration is identified by characteristics that included the leader being friendly, supportive, concerned, open and consultative to a subordinate.

2. Initiating Structure occurs when the leader defines and structures his or her own role, and the subordinates toward attainment of the formal goals of the group.

The Ohio State researchers hypothesized that the most effective leadership style would be the one that is both high in consideration and high in initiating structure (Jago, 1981). However, many critics have pointed out that while "it is relatively easy to call certain behaviors of leaders effective once the desired outcomes have been observed, it is much more difficult to stipulate in advance the behavior of leaders that result in the desired outcomes" (Bensimon, 1993, p. 14). Due to the lack of consistent findings, many researchers theorized that the appropriate leadership style may be a function of the individual and the situation.

The Michigan Studies. The approach of the Michigan research at the University of Michigan Survey Research Center was to examine the relationship among leader behavior, group process, and measure of group performance. Leader dimensions utilized

in the Michigan Studies were labeled employee-orientation and production-orientation. Originally, the variables were conceptualized on opposite ends of a single continuum (Kahn, 1956). The researchers believed that a manager was either employee-oriented or production-oriented or some degree between, but not both.

The research showed that three types of leadership behavior differentiate between effective and ineffective leaders. Yukl (2000) concluded that they are as follows:

1. Task-Oriented Behavior: Effective leaders did not waste their time and effort doing the same work as their subordinates. Instead, the more effective leaders concentrated on task-oriented functions. Furthermore, effective leaders lead subordinates in setting performance goals that were high but realistic. The behavior of initiating structure in the Ohio State leadership studies is similar to this task-oriented behavior.

2. Relations-Oriented Behavior: Effective leaders were more supportive and helpful with subordinates, which included showing trust, confidence, appreciation, and being friendly, considerate and helpful. The behaviors labeled "consideration" in the Ohio State leadership studies appears similar to this relations-oriented behavior.

3. Participative Leadership: Effective leaders used more group supervision instead of supervising individual subordinates separately. Subordinates participated in the group meetings for decision making, improved communication, promoted cooperation, and facilitated conflict resolution. The role of leader in group meetings should be primarily to lead the discussion and keep it supportive. Even though, subordinates participated

in the meetings, the leader did not abdicate the responsibilities, and remained responsible for all decisions.

Early studies lead researchers to conclude that employee-oriented leaders were more effective leaders than production oriented leaders (Likert & Likert, 1976). However, subsequent testing of the Michigan Studies found, as did the Ohio State Studies, that no universally superior leadership style exists for all situations.

The Managerial Grid. Building on the Ohio State Studies and the Michigan Studies, Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the Managerial Grid. Leader dimensions utilized in the grid are concern for people and concern for production. The researchers hypothesized that a leader's basic orientation would be one of five basic styles (Barrow, 1977). These include: Impoverished (low task and relationship behaviors), Country Club (low task and high relationship behaviors), Middle-of-the-Road (medium task and relationship behaviors), Task (high task and low relationship behaviors), and Team (high task and relationship behaviors). Blake and Mouton hypothesized that the Team approach was the most effective leadership style (Tetrault, Scuriesheim & Neider, 1988).

According to McKee (1999),

> The Grid strategy for change and development is about learning how to use the power in organization life effectively and in a manner that continually reinforces the core values of the corporation. The strategy is about understanding and learning how to build and maintain healthy and productive relationships that are characterized by trust, respect, openness, and candor. Grid is a strategy that provides a framework and practical tools for working with people in the most effective manner possible. (p. 125)

Overall, the behavioral theory has made a valuable contribution to the study of managerial styles. It has provided a classification of a number of styles. Much of the research generally supports the idea that styles can be characterized by a combination of two leadership behaviors, one oriented toward the task (initiating structure, concern for production) and one oriented toward interpersonal relations (consideration, concern for people). However, many conflicting opinions within this theory still remain. To some, the interpersonal-oriented leader is considered more effective; to others, the task-oriented leader; and to still others the leader who is high in both dimensions is the best. Thus there developed a need for research to integrate the various ideas and incorporate the impact of varying situations on leadership styles and their effectiveness.

The Contingency Era

The shifting of leadership research toward a more scientific approach—the contingency era—has been driven to maturity by three forces: work design, humanism and process management. Each of these forces represents an important piece of the puzzle for understanding the requirements of being a successful leader in today's organizations.

A major contributor to the modern leader era was Frederick Taylor, the Father of Scientific Management (Urwick & Wolf, 1984). Taylor was a pioneer in studying work design. Five simple principles, which Taylor believed should drive leadership in business, still impact many organizations despite heavy criticism and more proven modern methods that result in improved productivity (Sashkin, 1981). Taylor believed that (a) thinking, planning, and design of the work must reside with the manager not the employee. The employee must only be concerned with carrying out the manager's plan.

(b) The leader must use scientific methods to design the job in order to be very precise in describing what must be done. (c) The leader must always select the best person for the job, (d) the employees must be trained, and, (e) the leader must monitor worker performance to ensure that the procedure are followed and that appropriate results are achieved (Morgan, 1996). Taylor's "time and motion" approach spawned a large and long lasting leadership following focused on making scientific and precise measurements of the job tasks. Because it did not take into account the human element of the job, it caused a great deal of psychological damage to employees (Passmore & Fagans, 1992) and consequently only had limited success in defining the role of the leader (Sashkin, 1981).

A series of influential efforts that helped to define the contingency era were Elton Mayo's 20 year effort at the Hawthorne Works. This series of studies generated a great deal of interest in how group interaction impacts performance. Despite the fact that some of the results have been questioned (Bass & Stogdill, 1990), it helped to establish interest and credibility for measuring and dealing with the human factors of leadership (George, 1972). The interest in human behavior sparked by Mayo's work served to expand the narrow focus on job design initiated by Taylor. It helped by opening new directions for researchers to examine the human element of leadership. The blend of observing actual work with research into how behaviors effect performance is a line of reasoning and research that continues to be influential today (Deets & Morano, 1986; Sashkin, 1981).

The behavior movement in business was triggered by Mayo, but developed in depth by many others (Ertner & Newby, 1993), and continues to place the individual at

the center of the research into performance and leadership (Odiome, 1991). This approach has provided researchers with valuable techniques and procedures for describing and classifying workplace behaviors (Skinner, 1964). It has also provided invaluable direction to the study of leadership by developing means of describing and measuring leadership behaviors that facilitates selection and development (Ertmer & Newby, 1993; Odiome, 1991; Zemke, 1978).

In the last 20 years, a new perspective that incorporates both the scientific school logic and the behavioral school understanding has gained widespread attention (Cummings & Worley, 1997). This new management school began as an effort to improve the quality of products in the Bell Laboratories during World War II and has since become a worldwide movement to use statistical measurement to improve most aspects of organizational life. W. Edwards Deming, Philip B. Crosby, and Joseph M. Juran are three U.S. quality experts who have inspired widespread adoption of an approach known as Total Quality Management (TQM) (Cummings & Worley, 1997). The guiding principal of Total Quality Management is continuous improvement in quality through the use of individual responsibility, team work, and technology (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 1995). This is, of course, an extension of the previous work of Mayo and Taylor.

The contingency era demands a new type of leader. Leaders now must have experience in the processes they are expected to manage. They must understand how to use measurement techniques to improve performance. They must understand the skills of building teams, teaching others to solve problems, gaining commitment, and knowledge about how people learn (Cummings & Worley, 1997).

One of the earliest researchers to recognize the interactive relationship between the leader, the followers and the situation was Fredrick Fiedler. Fiedler's research began with the premise that responses to questions involving your least preferred coworker (LPC) would reveal a leader's tendency to be either a relationship-oriented leader or a task-oriented leader. The LPC scale asks a leader to think of all the persons with whom he or she has ever worked, and then to describe the one person with whom he or she worked the least well with. This person can be someone form the past or someone he or she is currently working with. From a scale of 1 through 8, leaders are asked to describe this person on a series of bipolar scales such as those shown below:

Unfriendly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Friendly

Uncooperative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Cooperative

Hostile 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Supportive

Guarded 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Open

The responses to these scales (usually sixteen in total) are summed and averaged: a high LPC score suggests that the leader has a human relations orientation, while a low LPC score indicates a task orientation. Fiedler's logic is that individuals who rate their least preferred coworker in relatively favorable light on these scales derive satisfaction out of interpersonal relationship; those who rate the coworker in a relatively unfavorable light get satisfaction out of successful task performance.

This approach is very much along the lines of the Ohio State studies and results. Fiedler then proceeded to examine tasks and their relationship to leaders across three dimensions: the level of trust, the clarity of the goals and the degree of power the leader has over the rewards and punishments (Fiedler, 1967). The theory, at this point, had

accounted for the leader's style and the relationship of the leader to the followers. The remaining factor was the situation. Fiedler was able to define eight situations resulting from combinations and degrees of such factors as strength of the relationship between the leader and the followers, the degree of structure of the task the followers are pursuing and the amount of power the leader has. Essentially it is a three point scale where the situation is judged as being favorable if:

- The leader has control
- Has the ability to predict the outcome
- The leader is accepted and supported
- The task is clear
- The leader has the power to reward and punish (Fiedler, 1974).

Fiedler's contingency model and the results of some of the related research provide additional insight into the development of a leadership potential model. To Fiedler, leadership behavior consists of directing and coordinating work of the group members through structuring the work, praising or criticizing group members, and showing concern for the employees (Fiedler, 1967).

Fiedler's model holds that leadership effectiveness is dependent on an appropriate match between leader style and group task situation. Once again, here is additional evidence that a leader must be aware of how his/her personality impacts followers, how to assess the situation and the strength of his/her relationship with the followers. When the leader is capable of making these assessments, he/she must then be able to select behaviors that will positively impact the effectiveness of the group (Fiedler, 1974). Fiedler (1974) also believed that as job conditions change (time, situation, and

level), leaders need to be rotated to take advantage of their strengths. These findings reinforce other research suggesting that the potential leader must be able to *read* or understand the situation and be flexible in order to adapt to it. A leader's ability to motivate subordinates to change is only effective if subordinates have an active need that the change can satisfy. According to Fielder, leaders' styles did not change easily. Therefore, there are really only two ways in which to improve leader effectiveness. First, to change the leader to fit the situation. The second would be to change the situation to fit the leader. That would be done by restructuring tasks or increasing or decreasing the power that the leader has to control factors such as salary increases, promotions, and disciplinary actions.

An individual leadership style represents an underlying need-structure (Fiedler, 1967). Task-motivated individuals strive to accomplish the task at hand while relations-motivated individuals strive to maintain strong interpersonal relations (Fiedler, 1976).

The Contingency Model predicts leader effectiveness which is defined by how well the group completes the assigned task. Leaders are held accountable for results and task completion. According to Fiedler and Garcia (1987) leader effectiveness is contingent on the following three factors:

1.   The leader's need structure, specifically, whether the leader is primarily motivated to seek task accomplishment or to seek satisfaction of interpersonal needs.

2.   The leader's situational control, this is, the leader's confidence that the task will be accomplished.

3.   The interaction between the leader's need structure and situational controls

(Fiedler and Garcia, 1987).

The Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness was the first theory to

integrate trait and situation theories of leadership. This integration led to a greater

understanding of the leadership phenomenon and the introduction of contingency theories.

Fiedler has continued to modify and update the theory. The Contingency Model is a

living theory adapting to new information, techniques, and ideas (Bass, 1981).

The basic premise that leadership effectiveness is contingent on the interaction

between the leader personality and the leadership situation has not changed. The

prediction that task-oriented leaders will perform best in favorable and unfavorable

situations has continued to receive statistical support from laboratory and field tests

(Strube & Garcia, 1980).

Transformational/Transactional Leadership Theory

Common themes of desired leadership that have emerged in the last decade

continually focus on team emphasis, flat organizations, spreading the responsibilities,

decentralizing, caring for the individual, and creating more ownership (Bass, 1990; Bass

& Acolio, 1994; Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Transformational leadership emulates many of

these variables. Downton (1973) was one of the first to introduce the concept of

transformational-transactional leadership. Burns (1978) offered the first comprehensive

theory, and Bass with others has expanded this research (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass &

Avolio, 1994).

Transformational leadership is a leadership paradigm first proposed by Burns

(1978). Burns' research focused on the interrelationship between leaders and followers

when leaders provide direction, assess follower reaction, and adjust their leadership approach accordingly. In the process of analyzing this interrelationship as it pertained to political leaders, Burns formulated the transformational leadership concept. He observed that transformational leadership existed when persons interacted in ways in which both leaders and followers were raised to higher levels of motivation and morality.

Bass contended that transformational leadership augments the variables of transactional leadership. Transactional (ordinary) leadership occurs, as described by Burns (1978), when "leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another" (p. 4). Bass and Avolio (1994a) elaborated, noting the "focus of the leader can be either to correct a problem or to establish an agreement to increase the probability of achieving positive results..." (p. 12). Transformational (exceptional) leadership, on the other hand, is one of the leader "stimulating and elevating" the follower (Burns, 1978).

Bass and Avolio (1994a) noted that transformational leadership occurs when leaders:

1. stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives;

2. generate awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organization;

3. develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential;

4. motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests toward those that will benefit the group (p. 2).

Transformational leaders ask followers to transcend their own self interests for the good of the organization, to consider their long-term development needs rather than needs of the moment, and to become more aware of the importance of designated

outcomes. In so doing followers are converted transformed into leaders (Bass, 1985).

The potential outcomes of transformational leadership, as provided by Bass (1985), can include:

1. Quantum leaps in individual and group performance,

2. Revolutionary, higher order changes in group attitudes and values,

3. Dramatic improvement in the rate of change in a group's speed and accuracy, and

4. The elevation of followers' concerns to that of recognition, achievement, and self-actualization.

The occurrence and implementation of transformational leadership and its more positive contribution to organizational performance (Howell & Avolil, 1993; Bass & Avolio, 1993a) can help any organization stay on the path toward their ultimate goals (Gasper, 1992).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) clarified the difference between the two theories by equating transactional leadership with *managing* and transformational leadership with *leading*. Bennis (1989) provided enlightenment regarding the difference between the two terms, indicating, "Leaders are people who do the right thing; managers are people who do the things right" (p. 18). According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), this includes giving the organization a sense of purpose and direction. They further noted that when these elements are in place followers are empowered enhancing their own feelings of worth and purpose.

Over the past 15 years, there has been considerable interest in testing a new paradigm known as transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985). Whereas previous

leadership theories have not been able to address the full range of leadership style, transformational leadership theory challenges existing assumptions by viewing leadership as a process of transforming the mindset of subordinates and empowering them to perform beyond what is normally expected of them. Emphasizing the use of emotional as well as rational processes, transformational leaders are hypothesized to inculcate subordinates with feelings of commitment, improved performance, and increased job satisfaction (Bass, 1985).

Burns' (1978) original construct stated that transactional and transformational leadership were at the opposite ends of the same continuum, meaning a person was one or the other (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Bass (1985) disputed this theory, arguing that augmentation of transactional leadership with transformational leadership factors raises individuals to higher levels of performance more than those solely under the auspices of a transactional leader. To prove his theory he proposed the Model of the Full Range of Leadership which incorporated leadership characteristics of both transformational leadership and transactional leadership models as well as a non-leadership factor coded laissez-faire. To operationsalize his model he developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The original MLQ identified six leadership factors to be assessed by the leaders' followers. Bass' hypothesis was that those leaders scoring high on transformational leadership factors enhanced the performance of followers in the areas of satisfaction with the leader, perceived effectiveness of leader, and extra effort given by the follower beyond what would be expected of a leader possessing only transactional leadership factors. Several studies have confirmed Bass' theory that augmentation of transactional leadership factors with the transformational

leadership factors enhances followers' performance (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The 1995 version of the MLQ (Form 5X-Short) includes nine leadership factors. These nine factors are defined within the three leadership categories of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. These categories, according to Bass, encompass the full range of leadership. The factors with these categories include five within the transformational leadership category, three within transactional leadership, and the nonleadership factor representing the laissez-faire category (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Job Satisfaction

Prior to analyzing whether a particular employee is satisfied or not with his or her job, the concept of job satisfaction must be defined. Balzer, Smith, Irwin, Bochiochi, Robie, Sinar, and Parra (1997) defined job satisfaction as "the feelings a worker has about his or her job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectation, or available alternatives" (p. 10). Balzer (1997) also reported that employees may have different feelings about different aspects of their job. Job satisfaction has been an area of interest for employers for many years since it is important to assess the level of satisfaction for employees.

Balzer (1997) have also developed three principal reasons for this interest by practitioners and mangers as the following:

1. Humanitarian concerns. Management strives for their employees to be satisfied with their jobs. Job satisfaction is aligned to overall life satisfaction including mental and physical health.

2. Economic concerns. This area focuses in on the commitment of a

particular employer or organization that is willing to invest resources to heighten job satisfaction. In the end, employers benefit from job satisfaction since employees tend to be absent less, employee retention is longer, and employee productivity is greater. Therefore, job satisfaction provides a savings for employers and organizations in the end. Substitutes are needed less; less time and effort are needed for hiring new employees, and productive employees gain greater profits. Employers that are aware of the deficiency within the organization related to job satisfaction can utilize the data to develop an action plan to remedy the problem.

3. Theoretical concerns. Many theorists have defined the concept of job satisfaction. Many theorists have defined it as a direct cause of attendance, high standards, carrying out the missions of the organization and cooperating with others. Other theorists have defined job satisfaction as a consequence of this behavior since it fosters rewards from the organization. Regardless of the definition that is followed, job satisfaction is an important tool if assessed accurately.

As early as the Industrial Revolution, there were documented concerns about fragmented, meaningless tasks and the impact those tasks had on worker satisfaction (Weir, 1976). Karl Marx (1848) pointed out that fragmented work can result in a lack of fulfillment and may give rise to feelings of misery rather than joy.

Studies of job satisfaction date back to the beginning of the twentieth century. Among the early studies were those by Taylor (1911), Munsterberg (1913) and Fryer (1931) who studied the relationship of job satisfaction to factors such as age, marital

status, education, and religion. In the late 1920s and the early 1930s, the study of job

satisfaction began in earnest. Perhaps the best-known study that took place during this

time was conducted by Elton Mayo at the Western Electric Hawthorne Plant near

Chicago (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

Mayo and his colleagues began their investigation of productivity of individuals

by studying the relationship between workers' output and the physical conditions of the

work environment. However, they became convinced that the only factor that showed a

continuous relationship with improved output was the attitude of the workers.

Furthermore, the attention of investigators seemed to affect the attitudes and behavior of

research subjects (Gruneberg, 1979). The findings reported by Mayo led many managers

and industrial psychologists to try to improve the happiness of workers as a means of

improving their production.

At the same time that Mayo and his colleagues reported their findings, Hoppock

published the first really comprehensive treatment on the topic of job satisfaction

(Gruneberg, 1979). In his classic series of studies, Hoppock (1935) observed that there

were more satisfied workers than he had expected to find. For example, at least

two-thirds of all the workers he surveyed in the community of Hew Hope, Pennsylvania,

were satisfied.

Hoppock (1935) found that job satisfaction was related to gender, age, and

occupational level. He was also the first to conclude that job satisfaction was only a part

of the adult workers' overall satisfaction. Among the factors he found that contributed to

a worker's satisfaction level were the ability to adapt to situations, interpersonal skills,

socioeconomic or group status, and the suitability of the individual to the job he

performed.

Since Hoppock's (1935) pioneering work, *Job Satisfaction*, the study of job satisfaction has been of great interest to researchers. Indeed, Cranny, Smith, and Stone (1992) suggest that more than 5,000 studies of job satisfaction have been published since the 1930s. Consequently, this research has resulted in several theories of job satisfaction. Most researchers who studied job satisfaction based their studies on various theories of needs and motivation. Two of the most significant and most popular theories, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Hertzberg's Motivation-hygiene Theory, are described in this section. Additionally, a description of Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness, and Growth Need's Theory is discussed because of its relationship to Maslow's Theory.

Malsow's Hierachy of Needs. Abraham Maslow (1954) attempted to synthesize a large body of research related to human motivation. Prior to Maslow, researchers generally focused separately on such factors as biology, achievement, or power to explain what energizes, directs, and sustains human behavior. Maslow posited a hierarchy of human needs based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. Within the deficiency needs, each lower need must be met before moving to the next higher level. Once each of these needs has been satisfied, if at some future time a deficiency is detected, the individual will act to remove the deficiency. The first four levels are:

1. Physiological: hunger, thirst, bodily comforts, etc.;

2. Safety/security: out of danger;

3. Belonginess and Love: affiliate with others, be accepted; and

4. Esteem: to achieve, be competent, gain approval and recognition.

According to Maslow, an individual is ready to act upon the growth needs if and only if the deficiency needs are met. Maslow's initial conceptualization included only

one growth need--self-actualization. Self-actualized people are characterized by: a) being problem-focused; b) incorporating an ongoing freshness of appreciation of life; c) a concern about personal growth; and d) the ability to have peak experiences. Maslow later differentiated the growth need of self-actualization, specifically naming two lower-level growth needs prior to general level of self-actualization (Maslow & Lowery, 1998) and one beyond that level (Maslow, 1971). They are:

5. Cognitive: to know, to understand, and explore;

6. Aesthetic: symmetry, order, and beauty;

7. Self-actualization: to find self-fulfillment and realize one's potential; and

8. Self-transcendence: to connect to something beyond the ego or to help others find self-fulfillment and realize their potential.

Maslow's basic position is that as one becomes more self-actualization and self-transcendence, one becomes more wise (develops wisdom) and automatically knows what to do in a wide variety of situations. Maslow's (1954) theory states that people strive to become all they are capable of becoming and this theory has been the basis of a plethora of attempts to study motivation and job satisfaction.

Daniels (2001) suggests that Maslow's ultimate conclusion that the highest levels of self-actualization are transcendent in their nature may be one of his most important contributions to the study of human behavior and motivation.

Maslow (1954) described a fluid relationship existing among the needs. In his model, dissatisfaction, or an unmet need, is a motivator of behavior while satisfaction, or a completely met need, is not. As one need becomes satisfied, the next higher need on the pyramid will be felt and will motivate behavior. Higher level needs become activated

only when lower level needs become satisfied. Once a need is satisfied, it is no longer

considered important; and as long as it remains satisfied, the individual will be motivated

to move up the hierarchy toward satisfying higher-level needs.

Most people operate at a variety of need levels simultaneously, experiencing

partial satisfaction and dissatisfaction in all needs at the same time. The degree to which a

person is satisfied tends to decrease as one goes up the hierarchy. Felt needs very with the

situation, and the intensity of the need determines individual action. A person moving up

the pyramid may reverse direction and move downward if lower level needs are in

jeopardy. A simple example of this up and down movement is the need for food.

Breakfast will satisfy that basic need, but it will reemerge around lunchtime.

Self-actualization is not automatically met by the job.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygience Theory A much more controversial theory of

job satisfaction and motivation is the motivation-hygiene theory by Frederick Herzberg

(1959). In this study, industrial workers were asked to describe situations in which they

felt especially satisfied and dissatisfied about their works. This major study generally

involved job attitudes and satisfaction. These incidents of satisfaction and dissatisfaction

were grouped together. One group was labeled Motivators, and another group was

labeled Hygienes. Motivators produce satisfaction, five factors are involved: work itself,

achievement, recognition, responsibility and advancement. Hygienes produce

dissatisfaction, which involve interpersonal relationships with subordinates and peers,

supervision-technical, policy and administration, job security, working conditions and

personal life (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959). According to this theory, job

satisfaction occurs when Motivators are relatively strong and Hygienes are relatively

weak.

Employees' satisfaction with their jobs offers important clues concerning the health and profitability of an organization. Measures of strengths and weaknesses tell practitioners where improvements can be made. Researchers gain broader understanding of how situations affect feelings and behavior. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) measures five important aspects or facets of job satisfaction (See Appendix E).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is designed to measure employees' satisfaction with their jobs (See Appendix B). The JDI is easy to administer and score, easy to read, simple in format, and nationally normed. After 40 years of research and application it remains one of the most widely used measures of job satisfaction (DeMeuse, 1985; Zedeck, 1987).

The five facets of the JDI are Work on Present Job, Present Pay, Opportunities for Promotion, Supervision, and Coworkers. These serve to diagnose important aspects of the job. The Job in General scale was developed to evaluate overall, global satisfaction with the job (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989).

The full-length JDI subscales contain either 9 or 18 items, with an overall total of 72 items. Each item is very short—a descriptive word or phrase. The sample JDI Items were showed as follows:

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your job? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write:

Y   for *Yes* if it describes your work

N   for *No* if it does NOT describe it

?   for *?* if you can not decide

WORK ON PRESENT JOB

____ Fascinating

____ Boring

____ Can see results

PRESENT PAY

____ Fair

____ Well-paid

____ Bad

The JDI has been translated into many different languages and dialects. A considerable body of research on the instrument since its publication has provided support for its reliability and validity. These are reported in the revised manual (Balzer et al., 1997) together with new national norms for JDI.

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin's publication of the Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement (1969) described the painstakingly careful development of the JDI. Patricia Cain Smith's relocation from Cornell to Bowling Green State University in the mid-1960's brought with her the JDI and its growing community of users. In an effort to manage the administrative aspects of the JDI for organizational and academic users, and to continue her research in the area of job attitudes, Smith founded the JDI Research Group, an evolving community of industrial-organizational faculty and graduate students.

The JDI research group continues to the present day and is active in efforts to research, refine, develop, and norm the instrument as well as a family of other organizationally relevant measures (e.g., work stress). Dr. Smith continues to lead the

research group with the assistance of Drs. William Balzer and Steve Jex. Along with the 1997 revision of the JDI, a Users' Manual and a new set of national norms was developed.

In order to facilitate ongoing research into job satisfaction, the JDI Research Group has conducted numerous studies using the instrument and has often collected data voluntarily returned by other researchers and organizations (over 12,000 cases). These datasets typically include demographics and numerous other survey measures. Over a period of more than 25 years, the JDI research group has archived a variety of JDI datasets that use different research designs, types of organizations, types of employees, and companion variables.

The JDI research group is working to make a subset of these data available to the research community. Additionally, the JDI research group encourages and supports new research proposals for future uses of the JDI. By utilizing these data, researchers with an interest in work attitudes can explore research questions pertaining to job satisfaction, work stress, control perceptions, trust, and a myriad of other related constructs.

Fashion Retail Department Stores in Taiwan

One of the fastest growing industries in Taiwan is the retail sector. Fashion retail department stores are the most important retail outlets, particularly for cosmetics, fashion, sporting goods, and food and drink. The apparel, shoes and accessories industry encompasses companies that design, manufacture and sell fashions for men, women, and children. They have roughly 40% market share in terms of sales volume. There is an increasingly global nature of the fashion industry in this 21st century. Because "Made in

the USA" is no longer a profitable option, most U.S. apparel companies have moved their productions to Asia and Latin America where labor costs are lower and environmental regulations are less complicated. This means that making all the right moves — at a moment's notice —has never been more important for success.

The growth is clearly evident from the huge number of fashion retail department stores. Among the department stores, there are five stores of Pacific Sogo, ten stores of Hsin Kong Mitsukoshi, nine stores of Far Eastern, three stores of Idee, three stores of Sunrise, two stores of Pan Asia and one store of New York. There are at least seven shopping centers opened in Taiwan in 2001. In 2002, sales totaled NT $172 billion (U.S. $5.2 billion).

Since 1949, when the first department store opened, they have been the primary selling outlet and most popular retail outlet in terms of sales volume. The joint ventures with Japanese companies such as Pacific Sogo, Shin Kong Mitsukoshi plus local department stores such as Far Eastern, Chung Yo, Hang Shin Department store have all experienced great success. Most of these stores have branches in Taiwan's three main cities, Taipei, Taichung and Kaohsiung.

The report of Ministry of Economic Affairs (2002) indicated that Taiwan is the 17th largest economy in the world, in terms of Gross Domestic product, and has the worlds 3rd largest foreign reserves. Taiwan ranked behind Japan, China, Korea, and India in its overall gross domestic product (GDP) in 1995; Taiwan's GDP rose 3.7% in that year to U.S. $250 billion. With a population of 21 million, per capita GDP was U.S. $11,882. Exports totaled U.S. $108.4 billion, and imports were $101.4 billion, giving Taiwan an overall trade surplus of U.S. $7 billion. In 1991, Taiwan GDP per capita was U.S. $8,992.

By 2003 it had reached U.S. $13,167 (forecast 2003). With per capita GDP gaining momentum to return to the U.S. $13,167 level, this has increase the consumer's spending levels. The Taiwan apparel market swelled to U.S. $9.73 billion in 1999, a convincing 9.8% rise over the preceding year.

The new-concept fashion malls also turned into a shopping attraction for foreign tourists. Sales of low-priced casual wear have also increased in open-air markets. Another noteworthy trend was the rapid spread of electronic commerce in fashion goods sales.

The general consumption trend in Taiwan since October 2000 reveals that sales volumes at traditional open markets and department stores have sharply fallen. Sales for men's suits, women's wear and electronic goods have fallen the most. In this recent economic cool down, the consumption trend of the domestic apparel market has been split into two contrasting parts. Sales of foreign luxury brands at a very high price have been increasing while sales of commodities and medium to low priced local products have been decreasing.

From 1999, the designer and fashion industry of the nation are briskly participating in various overseas' exhibitions. High quality, short delivery and the competitive power over price, having the industry as a strong point turns from original equipment manufacturing (OEM) production into the production of its own brands. As well the splendid designers participated in the celebrated overseas collections. The government's fresh view about the fashion industry which can be a high value added industry is encouraging such overseas marketing.

Currently, most of the foreign apparel brands are coming back to Taiwan again

from the retreat caused by the 1997-98 financial crises. Chanel, Burberry, Cartier and Armani are the labels with the highest level of brand recognition among the Taiwan female consumers. Retail prices of apparel sold at department stores consist of commission to the department stores (36%), administrative and promotional expenses (14%), profit (10 - 20%) and the product cost (30 - 40%). Retail prices of imported apparel at department stores are normally triple the export prices.

Taiwan's textile and apparel industry is well developed, representing 10% of the nation's total exports, worth over U.S. $10,000 million, and 2.5% of the total imports, worth over U.S. $2,000 million. The domestic fashion market is facing increasing competition from imported products. Imported items shared over 20% in 2002.

The market basically covers brand name (high-end) fashion, such as Burberrys, Giorgio Armani, Gucci, Dunhill, LV, Pringles etc.; young fashion, such as French Connection, Beneton, Nautica, Top Shop etc.; and street wear products, such as Hang Tang, Giordano, U2 etc.

The main competitors come from Italy, France, Germany, Japan and the US and are competing in the mid to high-end fashion, while some others from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Indonesia and Vietnam etc. are popular at mid-low prices.

There are currently restrictions on the import of certain garments manufactured in Mainland China and these have deterred some UK retailers. Following Taiwan accession to WTO, some of these restrictions have been lifted, such as leather products are allowed in.

Increasing numbers of Taiwanese companies are operating licenses to produce

European clothes locally. They can sell the garments in Taiwan, as an imported brand, or even re-export. The latter trend is developing rapidly.

Some of the British brands of clothing are represented in Taiwan through branch offices of Japanese or Hong Kong agents. Some brands are already merged with Japanese companies, but still maintain the image of British style, and have fared better in Asia than in the UK. These types of companies are usually not interested in being representatives for more British clothes.

A seemingly winning marketing strategy is to develop a strong branding and to open stores aggressively. Store openings with fashion shows and a period of promotions appear to be the best way to affect a market entry.

The rapid increase of all types of retail outlets has led to increased competition, particularly for the fashion department stores. They have tried to address this by opening larger and brighter stores, and Shin Kong Mitsukoshi opened its biggest store in Asia in Tainan. Along with the rapid development of the economy, the rise in incomes, and the change in consumption habits of Taiwan's people, business operations have become larger in scale, more linked in retail chains, more specialized, and more diversified. The Ministry of Economic Affairs is working to coordinate these trends, and is also carrying out projects to help operators so that industrial development can blossom and bear fruit more quickly. Opportunities would include potential partnerships or strategic alliances with department stores and shopping centers, as well as opportunities in retail services management.

The sales and annual growth rate of general merchandise by industry is presented as Table 1.

Table 1.

Sales and Annual Growth Rate of General Merchandise by Industry

Industry	Jan-Nov 2003 Sales (NT$100Million)	+-% Change Between Nov & Oct 2003(%)	+-% Change Between Nov 2003& Nov 2002(%)	+-% Change Between Jan-Nov 2003 & Jan-Nov 2002(%)
General Merchandise	570	3.62	7.13	3.28
Department Store	183	22.80	2.78	-2.95
Supermarkets	64	-1.03	6.31	5.64
Chained Convenient Stores	128	-5.00	13.44	8.59
Retail Outlet	116	-2.91	4.19	1.17
Other General Merchandise	80	-3.83	13.39	7.96

Note. Material source: The 2003/09/29 report of Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Taiwan Textile Federation (TTF) and China Textile Institute (CTI) can also do product promotions by holding seminars or a specific exhibition if requested. TTF focuses more on the product marketing side. CTI focuses on the technical side, e.g. particular functions of a product.

After more than 40 years of growth and development the Taiwan textiles and apparel industry boasts the most complete production system of any industry in Taiwan. Taiwan is the world's third largest producer of synthetic fibers overall, the world's largest producer of glass fiber and polyester-process silk, second in the world in nylon production, and Asia's largest exporter of finished garments. Thus Taiwan proudly holds a key position in global textile production.

In 2002 the number of people working in the Textiles industry in Taiwan exceeded 230,000, or 10.1% of Taiwan's total manufacturing work force. The total value

of output from the textiles industry was U.S. $14.1 billion or 5.9% of Taiwan's gross

manufacturing output. Textile export value topped U.S. $12.1 billion, or 9.3% of

Taiwan's total exports, while imports stayed below U.S. $2.5 billion, or 2.2% of Taiwan's

total imports. Thus the Taiwan textiles industry had a positive balance of trade amounting

to nearly U.S. $9.6 billion, which accounted for 53% of Taiwan's trade surplus. Taiwan's

textile industry produces a very stable positive balance in excess of U.S. $9.5 billion

every year, which makes the textile industry consistently Taiwan's largest earner of

foreign currency by far.

With upstream supply of synthetic fibers for Taiwan's textile industry remaining

sufficiently abundant, and Taiwan's industrial infrastructure fully realized, automated

production and high productivity keep clothing costs low and delivery schedules exactly

right. In addition, customers are taking increasing advantage of Taiwan's outstanding IT

capabilities. Thus Taiwan maintains a very healthy reputation for quality, stability and

competitiveness in the fashion industry.

Summary

In summary, the trend toward studying leadership as a process has gained a

considerable following in recent years. This new trend in leadership study acknowledges

the complexity of the undertaking and stresses comprehensive models featuring

leadership as a matter of managing relationships. These relationships are complicated and

strategically dependent on each other in ways that are just now beginning to be

understood. Leaders must be able to demonstrate that they can manage tactical

relationships. Even before they have an opportunity to manage others, they must

demonstrate decision making skills. They have to be able to provide clear direction and,

on top of all that, they must recognize strategic relationships such as the competitive environment and the changing organization dynamics.

To meet these challenges, the leaders must be adaptable. When assigned a project, the leader must be able to empower employees, provide focus, and gain commitment with a compelling vision (Lamore & Ayman, 1998). Having very strong interpersonal, influencing and communication skills are clear prerequisites for a prospective leader. Bass and Stogdill's (1990) work on transformational leadership creates the most compelling case for impact of the leader's interpersonal skills. They concluded that several tracks of leadership studies have converged in the concept of transformational leadership: charismatic leadership, the study of those leaders who have strong convictions who expresses them well and who have followers who can identify with them; inspirational leadership, the study of leaders who manage the goals and expectations of the followers by cleverly articulating them; and, transactional leadership, the study of the actual mechanics of leading. The transformational leader is an outgoing person who clearly understands the needs of the followers and is able to articulate them in a way that stimulates the emotional and intellectual devotion of the followers. Bass & Stogdill (1990) clearly demonstrate the need for interpersonal skills in leaders and nearly every other leadership model concurs. Several models emphasize the need for a leader to understand the perspective of the followers. Transactional and transformational leadership served as the conceptual framework for this study.

This review of the leadership literature has revealed several themes that are useful for identifying leaders. Given the context of the current business environment, leaders must posses a baseline level of intelligence to deal with complex issues. The application

of the leader's leadership style is a major concern of this study. A leader must do more than simply be flexible in dealing with the environment. A leader must drive change. This means that a leader must understand all the techniques involving the management of change including how followers will react to the change and how to gain their commitment.

Chapter III Methodology

This study described and examined the relationship of employees' perceptions of manager's leadership style on the job satisfaction of employees at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. In order to test the research the following questions were posed:

1. What is the current managers' leadership style at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

2. What is the relationship between the managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfactions at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

3. Are there differences in the relationship among managers' leadership style and employee job satisfaction levels based up on the employees' gender, age, educational background and years of work experience?

Population and Sample

The target population of this study was employees who worked at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. Using a convenience sample, the researcher identified 90 managers and 300 employees randomly chosen from three department stores in three geographical locations; Northern, Central and Southern Taiwan.

Instrumentation

Three instruments were utilized in this study to examine the relationship between the leadership style of managers and employees' job satisfaction. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to measure the subjects' perception of the managers' leadership style in fashion retail department stores. To measure employees' job satisfaction, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was used. Finally, a

demographic instrument designed by the researcher was used to collect demographics

from all subjects (See Appendix C).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X)

   The Multifactor Leadership questionnaire (MLQ) was initially developed by

Bernard M. Bass Ph.D (1985) of the Center for Leadership Studies at Binghamton

University. There have been several revisions made to the MLQ since 1985; the previous

models fell short of explaining a *full range* of leadership styles and behaviors, the full

range model of leadership was developed to broaden the range of leadership styles and

behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Consequently, the Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire (Form 5X) is the most recent and common version to measure the full

range of leadership styles and behaviors. In the last few years alone, MLQ-5X has been

used in nearly 200 research studies, theses, and doctoral dissertations in the world (Bass

& Avolio, 2000). The newly revised version of MLQ-5X was developed by Bass and

Avolio (1995), and it was used in this research study.

   The 1995 version of the MLQ (Form 5X-Short) includes nine leadership factors.

These nine factors are defined within three leadership categories; transformational

leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. These categories,

according to Bass, encompass the full range of leadership. The factors with these

categories include five within the transformational leadership category, three within

transactional leadership, and the nonleadership factor representing the laissez-faire

category (Bass & Avolio, 1995). MLQ-5X comprising 45, 5-choice items distributed over

12 subscales intended to reflect components of transformational leadership styles.

To conduct the survey in Taiwan, Mind Garden Inc provides the Chinese version of the

MLQ-5X (See Appendix D).

Validity. Discriminate Validity measures for all dimensions of the MLQ-5X were determined to range from .46 to .68. Therefore, the MLQ-5X appears to be a reliable instrument to measure the leadership style of a leader.

Reliability. According to the 1995 MLQ Technical Report, through extensive examination of this instrument, the developers found the reliabilities for the total items and for each leadership factor scale ranged from 0.74 to 0.94; these generally high, exceeded standard cut-offs for internal consistency recommended in the literature (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Instrument

The Job Descriptive Index, an instrument developed by the staff at Bowling Green University, is widely regarded as being one of the best available measures of job-facet satisfaction (Imparato, 1972; Smith, Smith, and Rollo, 1974). In this study, this instrument was selected to measure the dependent variable of employee satisfaction. The JDI contains 90 items intended to measure employee satisfaction in the following categories: work on present job (18 items), present pay (9 items), opportunities for promotions (9 items), supervision (18 items), coworkers (18 items), and the job in general (18 items). The JDI has been translated into traditional Chinese by the JDI Research Group at Bowling Green State University (See Appendix E).

Validity. From 1959 to about 1964, the first attempts to validate the JDI scales were undertaken. In their efforts, Smith, et al., (1969) found high levels of convergent and discriminate validity in the instrument. Subsequently, Balzer and Smith (1990) stated that similar results were found in a variety of tests using the instrument with employees

from different organizational levels.

Given the wide use of the JDI instrument in empirical research, the findings of Smith, et al., (1969) and Balzer and Smith (1990), the intecorrelations with the Fiedler's Goup Atmosphere Scale (Vecchio, 1982), and Kerr's (1985) findings, the JDI appears to be a valid instrument for the purposes of this study.

Reliability. Smith, et al., (1975) noted that positive internal consistencies were found for each of the JDI scales ranging from 0.88 to 0.80. Specifically, the internal consistencies were as follows: work (.84), pay (.80), promotion (.86), supervision (.87), and co-workers (.88). Kerr (1985) noted that the JDI has not demonstrated high internal consistency coefficient; however, it has performed adequately given the brevity of the test and JDI's responsiveness to short-term changes in the work environment.

Given the relatively positive internal consistency scores mentioned above, Smith, et al., (1969) claimed the JDI is one of the most valid and soundest measures of satisfaction. Further, given the reliability JDI, as found by Smith, et al., (1969), and Kerr's (1985) review, the instrument appears to be appropriate for the purposes of this study.

Demographic Data Survey Instrument

To understand the demographic information of respondents, the researcher designed four questions to gather personal information from the participants. The questions included gender, age, educational background and years of professional experience. To conduct the survey in Taiwan, the questionnaires were translated from English to Chinese by the researcher (See Appendix F).

Data Collection Procedures

The surveys collected data from the three largest fashion department stores that were identified from a list provided by the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The researcher personally delivered the survey questionnaires to the participants at three main fashion retail department stores across Taiwan.

First, the researcher made telephone contact with the store managers of the three main department stores to get their permission to visit their department store and distribute the instruments to the managers. Secondly, the researcher personally delivered the survey to the department managers.

Third, the department store managers administered the surveys during their weekly meeting with their employees. The manager began by reading a Consent Form (See Appendix G and H) to explain the importance of the research and assure confidentiality of respondents. Next, the manager distributed to the participants a packet containing a cover letter (See Appendix I and J), demographic questionnaire, multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ-5X), and Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and a stamped self-addressed return envelope. The manager also received a packet containing a cover letter, demographic questionnaire, multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ-5X) and a stamped self-addressed return envelope. After completing the survey instruments, the respondents sealed their responses in the addressed, stamped envelopes provided, and the survey was returned directly to the researcher.

Surveys were numerically coded in order to keep a record of respondents and to allow for confidentiality. The coding also enabled the researcher to determine when all three sets of questionnaires had been received. Two weeks following the initial mailing,

the researcher contacted ten managers by phone to encourage their completion of the surveys. One week after the first telephone contact, the researcher contacted the three non-respondents by phone again. Data collection took three to four weeks to complete.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS 10.0) for Microsoft Windows was used to complete the analysis for the collected data.

Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, means, standard deviations and percentages, were reported in order to examine the demographic data, managers and employees' perception of manager's leadership style and the job satisfaction of employees. The .05 level of statistical significance was used to test the hypotheses in this study.

Two tailed T-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to determine whether any significant relationships existed among respondents between employees' perception of manager's leadership style and the job satisfaction of employees, respectively regarding their demographic information.

Chapter IV Results

The data described in this section were obtained from the three sets of

questionnaires, which consisted of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Form 5X)

(MLQ 5X), Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the demographic instrument. The purpose of

this study was to describe and examine the relationship of employees' perceptions of the

leadership style of managers on the job satisfaction of employees at fashion retail

department stores in Taiwan. Specially, this research indicates whether a transformational

or transactional leadership style has a positive relationship with employees' job

satisfaction. The following three research questions as identified in chapter one guided

the results reported:

1. What is the current managers' leadership style at fashion retail department stores in

    Taiwan?

2. What is the relationship between the managers' leadership style and employees' job

    satisfactions at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

3. Are there differences in the relationship among managers' leadership style and

    employee job satisfaction levels based up on the employees' gender, age, educational

    background and years of work experience?

A convenience sample of 90 managers and 300 employees from three

department stores were selected from geographical locations; Northern, Central and

Southern Taiwan. A total of 60 managers and 220 employees responded to the survey,

which represented a total response rate of 71.79 percent. The statistical analyses used in

this study include (a) descriptive analysis, (b) t-test, and (c) one-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA).

Employee Questionnaire Response Analysis

Among the 220 valid employee responses, as shown in Table 2, male employee

response rate comprised approximately 5.9% (n=13) of the total, and female respondents

comprised approximately 94.1% (n=207) of the total. The large number of women

participating in the survey reflected the relatively high number of female to male

employees working for the fashion department store.

Table 2.

The Distribution of Employees by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	13	5.9%
Female	207	94.1%
Total	220	100%

The majority of employees' ages ranged from 20 to 30 years of age, Table 3

indicates that 0.5% (n=1) of employees were below 20 years of age, 69.1% (n=152) were

21-30 years of age, 29.1% (n=64) were 31-40 years of ages, and 1.4% (n=3) were 41-50

years of age.

Table 3.

The Distribution of Employees by Age

Age Range	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 20 years	1	0.5%
21-30 years	152	69.1%
31-40 years	64	29.1%
41-50 years	3	1.4%
Total	220	100%

The education level of employees may also influence employee's job satisfaction, therefore, this question was asked of those surveyed. Table 4 indicates that the largest group of employees was high school educated (47.7%, n=105) and the secondary group was completed college education (44.5%, n=98). Very few of the employees were university graduates (7.3%, n=16) or graduate level (0.5%, n=1).

Table 4

The Distribution of Employees by Education Level

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
High school	105	47.7%
College	98	44.5%
University	16	7.3%
Graduate	1	0.5%
Total	220	100%

An additional potential influence on employee job satisfaction is the number of years employed by the company. Table 5 shows that most employees worked 1-3 years

(69.1%, n=146) and 6-10 years (17.3%, n=38). The rest of the employees worked 4-5

years (14.5%, n=32), and only 1.8% (n=4) worked 11-15 years.

Table 5

The Distribution of Employees by Year of Professional Experience

Years of Working Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1-3 Years	146	69.1%
4-5 Years	32	14.5%
6-10 Years	38	17.3%
11-15 Years	4	1.8%
Total	220	100%

Manager Questionnaire Response Analysis

Ninety store managers were also surveyed to ascertain their perception of their

leadership style. Of those surveyed, 60 managers responded, resulting in a response rate

of 66.7%.

Among the valid responses, as shown in Table 6 male respondents comprised

approximately 40% (n=24) of the total, and female respondents comprised approximately

60% (n=36) of the total. There is still a large number of women participating in the

survey reflecting the relatively high number of female to male managers working for the

fashion department store.

Table 6

The Distribution of Managers by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	24	40%
Female	36	60%
Total	60	100%

The managers' average age was 35 years as indicated in Table 7. The majority of

managers' ages are between 31-40 years (60%, n=36).

Table 7

The Distribution of Managers by Age

Age Range	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 20 years	4	6.7
21-30 years	20	33.3
31-40 years	36	60.0
Total	60	100.0

Over eighty percent of the managers have a college or university degree as

indicates on Table 8.

Table 8

The Distribution of Managers by Education Level

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
High school	11	18.3
College	28	46.7
University	20	33.3
Graduate	1	1.7
Total	60	100.0

A majority of the managers indicated that they had been in their respective occupation for 6-10 years. Table 9 shows the distribution of managers by year of professional experience.

Table 9

The Distribution of Managers by Year of Professional Experience

Years of Working Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1-3 years	11	18.4
4-5 years	8	13.3
6-10 years	40	66.7
11-15 years	1	1.7
Total	60	100.0

The Research Questions

Q1. What is the current managers' leadership style at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

The data of the managers' leadership styles were collected by the Multifactor

Leadership Questionnaire (Form 5X) (MLQ 5X), which included three leadership styles:

Transformational Leadership Style, Transactional Leadership Style, and Laissez-Faire

Leadership Style. For each department store, managers were asked to self-rate (MLQ-5X

leader-form) and employees were asked to rate the managers' leadership style by using

the MLQ-5X rater form.

From the manager leader form, Table 10 indicates the means and standard

deviations for the three leadership styles. The mean of transformational leadership style

(mean=2.62) was the highest among the three leadership styles, followed by transactional

leadership style (mean=2.23), and the lowest laissez-faire leadership style (mean=1.32).

The results indicated that most managers' self-rated as transformation leaders at fashion

retail department store in Taiwan (see Figure 5).

Table 10

The Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Style of the Manager Leader Form

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Transformational	1.05	3.90	2.6225	.5717
Transactional	1.25	3.17	2.2333	.4496
Laissez-Faire	.00	2.75	1.3167	.5728
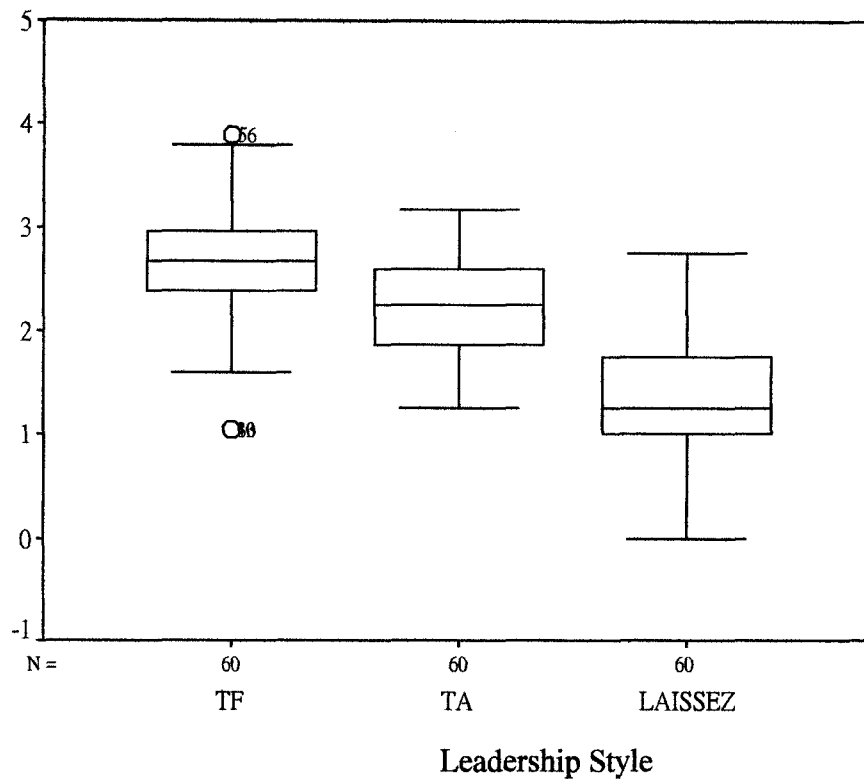
Figure 1. The frequencies of leadership styles of the Manager Leader Form

From the employee rater form, the means and standard deviations for the three

leadership styles are indicated in Table 11. It shows that the mean of transformational

leadership style (mean=2.00) was the highest among the three leadership styles, followed

by transactional leadership style (mean=1.94), and the lowest laissez-faire leadership

style (mean=1.36). Also, the highest maximum score for transformational leadership was

3.90 and the lowest minimum score for the laissez-faire leadership was zero. The results

indicated that from the employees' perceptions of leadership styles at fashion retail

department stores in Taiwan, transformational leadership style and transactional

leadership style were more prominent (see Figure 4).

Table 11

The Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Leadership Style of the Employee Rater Form

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Transformational	.30	3.90	2.0034	.6687
Transactional	.58	3.33	1.9470	.5341
Laissez-Faire	.00	3.50	1.3670	.7350
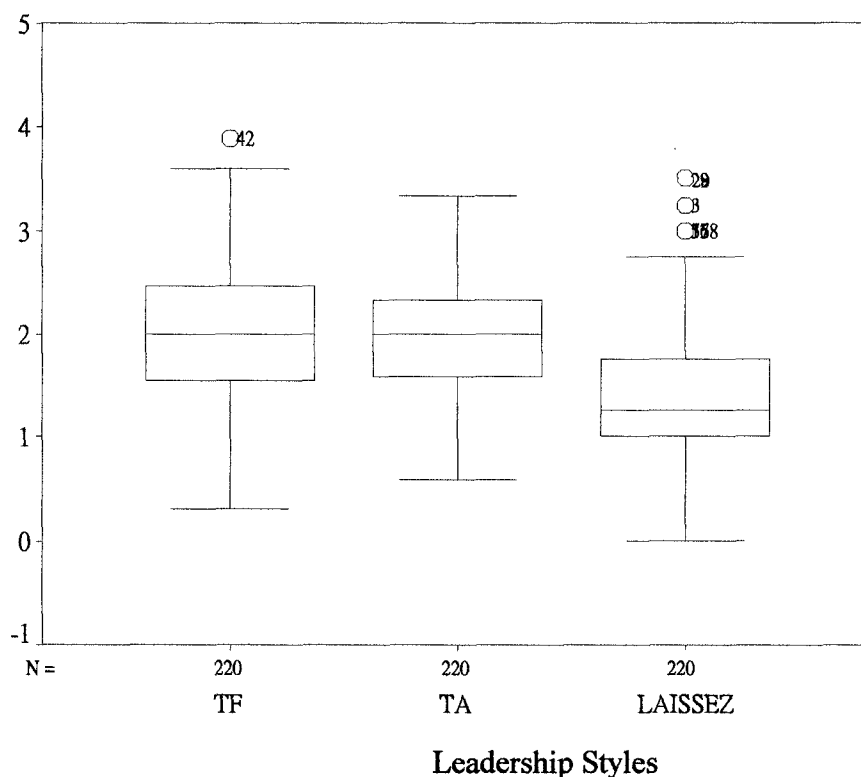
Figure 2. The frequencies of leadership styles of the Employee Rater Form

Q2. What is the relationship between the managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfactions at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

The job in general (JIG) scale was developed to evaluate overall, global satisfaction with the job (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). The JDI contains 90 items intended to measure employee satisfaction in the following categories:

work on present job (18 items), present pay (9 items), opportunities for promotions (9 items), supervision (18 items), coworkers (18 items), and the job in general (18 items). These serve to diagnose important aspects of the job.

Among the items listed above, employees were asked to respond to the questionnaire by indicating Y for yes (satisfaction), N for no (dissatisfaction), and $?$ if they cannot decide (uncertainty). Numerical values of 3, 1, and 0 were assigned, respectively, to the answers provided. The six subscale values were individually summed for each respondent. Since the job in general subscale is an overall measure of an individual's job satisfaction, this subscale was used as the dependent variable.

Table 12 summarizes the means and standard deviations for each facet of job satisfaction. It illustrates that the mean of overall job satisfaction was 26.87, which was approximately at a medium degree (with a range from 0 to 54). The results reflect that the highest degree of job satisfaction by the fashion department store was pay (mean=34.29), followed by co-workers (mean=30.63), work on present job (mean=28.5), job in general (JIG) (mean=26.45), supervision (mean=21.67), and opportunities for promotion (mean=19.62). Figure 5 also shows the highest job satisfied scores is the pay.

Table 12

The Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction

	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Work	19.00	42.00	28.5000	4.2785
Supervision	11.00	39.00	21.6682	5.4508
Coworker	9.00	39.00	30.6273	5.4986
JIG	6.00	36.00	26.4545	3.3094
Pay	16.00	54.00	34.2909	8.5168
Promotions	.00	42.00	19.6182	9.7587

Note. n (the number of the employees)=220; The range of scores on each of the JDI facet scales and the JIG is from 0 (the lowest scores) to 54 (the highest scores).
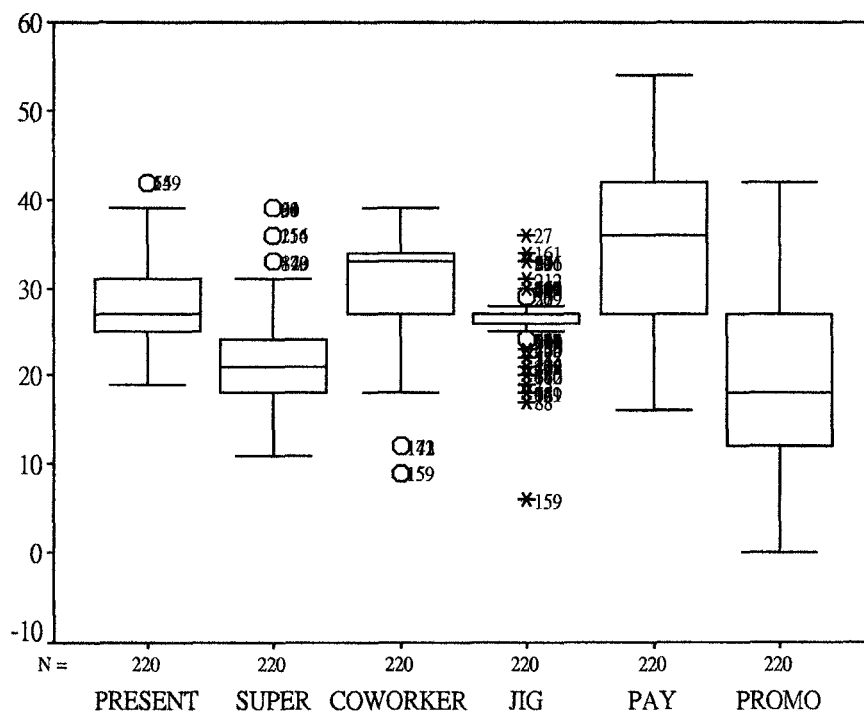

Figure 3. The frequencies of JDI and JIG Scores

Correlation between the leadership style and Job Satisfaction

Table 13 shows the Pearson correlation coefficient between leadership styles and

employees' job satisfaction. There was a statistically significant positive relationship

between transformational leadership and transactional leadership (*r*=. 809). The

statistically significant positive relationship was also found between the transformational

leadership and employee's pay (r=. 188), and opportunities for promotion (r= .214). And,

the transactional leadership has statistically significant positive relationship with

employees' pay (r=. 199) and opportunities for promotion (r=. 172). Both

transformational and transactional leadership have statistically significant negative

relationship with the employee's job satisfactions of supervision of the r =-1.98 and r

=-1.55. The finding found there was a relationship between different dimension of the

leadership's style and different dimensions of the employees' job satisfaction.

Table 13

Pearson Correlation Between Leadership styles & Employees' Job Satisfaction

	TFL	TSL	LFL	Work	Supervision	Co-workers	JIG	PAY	Promotion
TFL	1	.809**	-.045	-.065	-.198**	-.022	.122	.188**	.214**
TSL	.809**	1	.078	-.052	-.155**	.024	.076	.199**	.172**
LAISSEZ	-.045	.078	1	.083	.129	-.109	-.007	.018	-.052

Note. TFL = transformational leadership; TSL = transactional leadership;
LFL = laissez-fair; JIG = job in general

Q3. Are there differences in the relationship among managers' leadership style and

employee job satisfaction levels based up on the employees' gender, age, educational

background and years of work experience?

To answer the third research question, a t-test and one-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA) were computed on each leadership style of the Multifactor leadership

Questionnaires (MLQ-5X) and Job Descriptive Index (JDI) with selected background

characteristics.

The t-test of equality of means was used to test whether any significant

differences exist in employees perceived leadership styles by gender. The results of this

t-test analysis are shown in Table 14. As the result indicates, there were no significant

differences existing in transformational (T=-3.18, p>.05), transactional (T=-.032, p>.05),

and laissez-faire (T=-1.867, p>.05) leadership style by gender. It was also found that

there were no differences between the male employees and female employees in the mean

scores of the employees' perceptions for transformational and transactional leadership

style.

Table 14

The Significant Differences on Perceived Leadership Styles by Gender

	Gender	Number	Mean	SD	T	P
TFL	male	13	1.9462	.8513		
	female	207	2.0070	.6579	-3.18	.751
TSL	male	13	1.9423	.5004		
	female	207	1.9473	.5373	-.032	.974
LFL	male	13	1.0000	.5863		
	female	207	1.3901	.7384	-1.867	.063

According to the results of six facets of job satisfaction respectively in

Table 15. Based on the t-test analysis, *P*-value was greater than .05 there were no

significant differences in the job satisfaction of employees regarding gender at fashion

retail department stores in Taiwan.

Table 15

The Significant Differences on Job Satisfaction by Gender

	Gender	Number	Mean	SD	T	P
Work	male	13	27.0769	3.9256		
	female	207	28.5894	4.2927	-1.238	.295
Supervision	male	13	21.6154	5.4549		
	female	207	21.6715	5.4638	-.36	.845
Coworkers	male	13	29.8462	4.8964		
	female	207	30.6763	5.5412	-.527	.365
JIG	male	13	27.5385	3.9920		
	female	207	26.3865	3.2613	1.219	.456
Pay	male	13	34.0000	9.8658		
	female	207	34.3092	8.4521	-.127	.329
Promotions	male	13	19.5385	7.4455		
	female	207	19.6232	9.9001	-.030	.101

In order to test the relationship between the employees' perceptions of leader's

leadership style and age at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan, one-way analysis

of variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine if any significant differences exist in

the employees' perceptions of the leader's leadership style among the age groups. The

result of ANOVA is shown in Table 16. It demonstrates that there are no significant

differences existing among age groups with respect to transformational ($F=.712$, $p>.05$),

transactional ($F =.283$, $p>.889$), and laissez-faire ($F =1.542$, $p>.05$) leadership style.

Since P-value is greater than 0.05, this test concluded that these data provide substantial

evidence that there was no relationship between the employees' perceptions of leader's

leadership style and age at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan.

Table 16

One Way ANOVA on Leadership Styles by Age

		Number	Mean	SD	F	P
TFL	<20	1	1.7000	.		
	20-25	63	2.0619	.7453		
	26-30	89	1.9966	.6036		
	31-40	64	1.9375	.6587		
	41-50	3	2.4833	1.1815		
	Total	220	2.0034	.6687	.712	.584
TSL	<20	1	1.8333	.		
	20-25	63	1.9590	.5319		
	26-30	89	1.9448	.5033		
	31-40	64	1.9258	.5607		
	41-50	3	2.2500	1.1211		
	Total	220	1.9470	.5341	.283	.889
LFL	<20	1	2.5000	.		
	20-25	63	1.3294	.7538		
	26-30	89	1.3904	.7101		
	31-40	64	1.3906	.7465		
	41-50	3	.5833	.3819		
	Total	220	1.3670	.7350	1.542	.191

According to the results of Table 17, significant differences existed among age groups with respect to job satisfaction of work on present job (F=5.549, P<. 05), co-workers (F=5.020, P<. 05), and job in general (JIG) (F=11.728, P<. 05). If significant differences existed, Scheffe post hoc analysis was performed to determine which groups were significantly different in job satisfaction. Table 18 represents that the results of Scheffe post hoc analysis on job satisfaction of work on present job, co-workers, and job in general (JIG). As Scheffe post hoc analysis shows, significant differences existed in the job satisfaction of work on present job with regard to the groups of 26-30 and 31-40 groups. The mean scores demonstrate, the 26-30 group's satisfaction in work on present job and job in general (JIG) was higher than 20-25 and 31-40 groups. Also, the means reveal that employees who in the age 41-50 had higher satisfaction in coworker than employees who in the age 20-25, 26-30 and 31-40 groups.

Table 17

One Way ANOVA on Job Satisfaction by Age

		N	Mean	SD	F	P
Work	<20	1	42.0000	.		
	20-25	63	28.0159	4.2102		
	26-30	89	29.4944	4.2936		
	31-40	64	27.5313	3.7963		
	41-50	3	25.3333	1.5275		
	Total	220	28.5000	4.2785	5.549	.000
Supervision	<20	1	27.0000	.		
	20-25	63	21.2540	5.0831		
	26-30	89	22.4944	6.2270		
	31-40	64	20.9531	4.5996		
	41-50	3	19.3333	2.3094		
	Total	220	21.6682	5.4508	1.260	.287
Coworkers	<20	1	9.0000	.		
	20-25	63	30.2540	5.7022		
	26-30	89	31.3258	4.6534		
	31-40	64	30.2031	5.7877		
	41-50	3	34.0000	3.4641		
	Total	220	30.6273	5.4986	5.020	.001
JIG	<20	1	6.0000	.		
	20-25	63	26.4127	3.6351		
	26-30	89	26.7416	2.8023		
	31-40	64	26.4688	2.6843		
	41-50	3	25.3333	1.5275		
	Total	220	26.4545	3.3094	11.728	.000
Pay	<20	1	24.0000	.		
	20-25	63	33.2063	8.2661		
	26-30	89	34.3820	8.7484		
	31-40	64	35.1250	8.4843		
	41-50	3	40.0000	5.2915		
	Total	220	34.2909	8.5168	1.116	.350
Promotions	<20	1	18.0000	.		
	20-25	63	18.3492	8.9048		
	26-30	89	20.8090	10.6161		
	31-40	64	18.9375	9.3195		
	41-50	3	26.0000	9.1652		
	Total	220	19.6182	9.7587	1.003	.407

Table 18

Scheffe Post Hoc on Job Satisfaction of Supervision by Age

	(I) AGE	(J) AGE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Work	20-25	26-30	-1.4785	.6769	.193	-3.3858	.4288
		31-40	.4846	.7296	.931	-1.5713	2.5406
		41-50	2.6825	2.4294	.749	-4.1630	9.5281
	26-30	20-25	1.4785	.6769	.193	-.4288	3.3858
		31-40	1.9631*	.6738	.039	6.455E-02	3.8617
		41-50	4.1610	2.4132	.398	-2.6389	10.9610
	31-40	20-25	-.4846	.7296	.931	-2.5406	1.5713
		26-30	-1.9631*	.6738	.039	-3.8617	-6.4555E-02
		41-50	2.1979	2.4286	.845	-4.6452	9.0410
	41-50	20-25	-2.6825	2.4294	.749	-9.5281	4.1630
		26-30	-4.1610	2.4132	.398	-10.9610	2.6389
		31-40	-2.1979	2.4286	.845	-9.0410	4.6452
Coworkers	20-25	26-30	-1.0719	.8738	.682	-3.5341	1.3904
		31-40	5.084E-02	.9419	1.000	-2.6032	2.7049
		41-50	-3.7460	3.1362	.700	-12.5832	5.0911
	26-30	20-25	1.0719	.8738	.682	-1.3904	3.5341
		31-40	1.1227	.8698	.645	-1.3282	3.5737
		41-50	-2.6742	3.1153	.864	-11.4525	6.1041
	31-40	20-25	-5.0843E-02	.9419	1.000	-2.7049	2.6032
		26-30	-1.1227	.8698	.645	-3.5737	1.3282
		41-50	-3.7969	3.1351	.690	-12.6309	5.0372
	41-50	20-25	3.7460	3.1362	.700	-5.0911	12.5832
		26-30	2.6742	3.1153	.864	-6.1041	11.4525
		31-40	3.7969	3.1351	.690	-5.0372	12.6309
JIG	20-25	26-30	-.3289	.4983	.933	-1.7328	1.0751
		31-40	-5.6052E-02	.5371	1.000	-1.5694	1.4573
		41-50	1.0794	1.7883	.947	-3.9596	6.1183
	26-30	20-25	.3289	.4983	.933	-1.0751	1.7328
		31-40	.2728	.4960	.959	-1.1247	1.6704
		41-50	1.4082	1.7764	.890	-3.5972	6.4136
	31-40	20-25	5.605E-02	.5371	1.000	-1.4573	1.5694
		26-30	-.2728	.4960	.959	-1.6704	1.1247
		41-50	1.1354	1.7877	.939	-3.9018	6.1726
	41-50	20-25	-1.0794	1.7883	.947	-6.1183	3.9596
		26-30	-1.4082	1.7764	.890	-6.4136	3.5972
		31-40	-1.1354	1.7877	.939	-6.1726	3.9018

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

In Table 19, the results of one-way ANOVA on leadership styles by education background indicate the P-value was greater than the .05. In this test, there was no significant differences existing among different educational background groups.

Table 19

One Way ANOVA on Leadership Styles by Education Background

		Number	Mean	SD	F	P
TF	high school	105	2.0467	.6854		
	college	98	1.9607	.6587		
	university	16	2.0281	.6335		
	graduate	1	1.2500	.		
	Total	220	2.0034	.6687	.707	.549
TA	high school	105	1.9698	.5470		
	college	98	1.9099	.5325		
	university	16	2.0677	.4433		
	graduate	1	1.2500	.		
	Total	220	1.9470	.5341	1.063	.366
LAISSEZ	high school	105	1.2881	.7727		
	college	98	1.4439	.6947		
	university	16	1.4219	.7344		
	graduate	1	1.2500	.		
	Total	220	1.3670	.7350	.797	.497

As the results shows in the Table 20, there were significantly differences among different educational background groups with respect to job satisfaction of work (F= 3.177, P<. 05) and job in general (JIG) (F=4.592, P<. 05). There is only one person with the graduate background, therefore the Sheffe post hoc test could not test the only one amount in the group. As Sheffe post hoc analysis shows in Table 21, significant differences existed in the job satisfaction of work with regard to the groups of high school and university. Also, the significant differences existed in the job satisfaction of job in general (JIG) regard to the groups of high school and university, college and

university. The mean scores reveal that employees with university backgrounds had higher satisfactions in work than did employees with high school and college backgrounds. And, resulting mean scores indicate that employees with college degree reported higher satisfaction in job in general than the employees with high school and university background.

Table 20

One Way ANOVA on Job Satisfaction by Education Background

		N	Mean	SD	F	P
Work	high school	105	27.7905	3.5374		
	college	98	28.9490	4.5074		
	university	16	30.6875	6.1505		
	graduate	1	24.0000	.		
	Total	220	28.5000	4.2785	3.177	.025
Supervision	high school	105	21.5048	5.0785		
	college	98	22.2449	5.8470		
	university	16	19.5000	5.0067		
	graduate	1	17.0000	.		
	Total	220	21.6682	5.4508	1.496	.217
Coworker	high school	105	30.8095	5.4209		
	college	98	30.8673	5.2497		
	university	16	28.0625	7.1877		
	graduate	1	29.0000	.		
	Total	220	30.6273	5.4986	1.295	.277
JIG	high school	105	26.4667	3.0511		
	college	98	26.9082	2.8433		
	university	16	23.8125	5.7876		
	graduate	1	23.0000	.		
	Total	220	26.4545	3.3094	4.592	.004
Pay	high school	105	34.7810	8.4193		
	college	98	33.9388	8.7742		
	university	16	33.0000	8.0333		
	graduate	1	38.0000	.		
	Total	220	34.2909	8.5168	.354	.786
Promotions	high school	105	20.2095	9.2359		
	college	98	19.2245	10.6088		
	university	16	18.6250	7.9236		
	graduate	1	12.0000	.		
	Total	220	19.6182	9.7587	.437	.727

Table 21

Scheffe Post Hoc on Job Satisfaction of Work and JIG by Education Background

Independent Variable	(I) SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Work	high school	college	-1.1585	.5922	.150	-2.6181	.3011
		university	-2.8970*	1.1315	.040	-5.6860	-.1081
	college	high school	1.1585	.5922	.150	-.3011	2.6181
		university	-1.7385	1.1368	.313	-4.5406	1.0636
	university	high school	2.8970*	1.1315	.040	.1081	5.6860
		college	1.7385	1.1368	.313	-1.0636	4.5406
JIG	high school	college	-.4415	.4538	.624	-1.5600	.6770
		university	2.6542*	.8671	.010	.5170	4.7914
	college	high school	.4415	.4538	.624	-.6770	1.5600
		university	3.0957*	.8712	.002	.9484	5.2429
	university	high school	-2.6542*	.8671	.010	-4.7914	-.5170
		college	-3.0957*	.8712	.002	-5.2429	-.9484

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As shown in Table 22, there were no significant differences existed in the one way ANOVA on leadership styles by years of employees' professional experience. The results of these analyses reveal that there were no significant relationships existed among perceived leadership styles relative to gender, age, educational background, and years of professional experience. Consequently, there were no differences in the relationship among managers' leadership style relative to employees' gender, age, educational background and years of experience at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan.

Table 22

One Way ANOVA on Leadership Styles by Years of Professional Experience

		Number	Mean	SD	F	P
TFL	<1	56	2.1786	.6710		
	1-3	90	1.9628	.6342		
	4-5	32	1.9531	.6399		
	6-10	38	1.8868	.7449		
	11-15	4	1.9750	.7455		
	Total	220	2.0034	.6687	1.389	.239
TSL	<1	56	2.0521	.4563		
	1-3	90	1.9148	.5383		
	4-5	32	2.0130	.5076		
	6-10	38	1.8465	.6159		
	11-15	4	1.6250	.7217		
	Total	220	1.9470	.5341	1.458	.216
LFL	<1	56	1.3259	.7861		
	1-3	90	1.3306	.7285		
	4-5	32	1.4297	.5897		
	6-10	38	1.5066	.7937		
	11-15	4	.9375	.6250		
	Total	220	1.3670	.7350	.839	.502

The results of one-way ANOVA presented in Table 23 indicate there was no significant differences existed among years of professional experience with the job satisfaction. On the basis of the findings on the above analyses, significant differences exist in some individual factors of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) relative to age and educational background. Therefore, there are differences in the relationship among employee job satisfaction levels relative to employee age and educational background at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan.

Table 23

One Way ANOVA on Job Satisfaction by Years of Professional Experience

		N	Mean	SD	F	P
Work	<1	56	27.7679	4.1032		
	1-3	90	28.8444	4.5983		
	4-5	32	28.7813	4.5418		
	6-10	38	28.6842	3.6399		
	11-15	4	27.0000	2.4495		
	Total	220	28.5000	4.2785	.727	.574
Supervision	<1	56	21.2500	4.6642		
	1-3	90	22.0889	5.9202		
	4-5	32	21.9063	6.1663		
	6-10	38	21.3684	4.9942		
	11-15	4	19.0000	3.1623		
	Total	220	21.6682	5.4508	.495	.739
Coworker	<1	56	29.3571	6.5794		
	1-3	90	31.2444	4.5477		
	4-5	32	30.1563	6.7063		
	6-10	38	31.4211	4.7740		
	11-15	4	30.7500	1.5000		
	Total	220	30.6273	5.4986	1.295	.273
JIG	<1	56	26.4107	4.5995		
	1-3	90	26.2778	2.8086		
	4-5	32	26.1875	2.3201		
	6-10	38	27.1579	2.9457		
	11-15	4	26.5000	2.6458		
	Total	220	26.4545	3.3094	.543	.704
Pay	<1	56	33.1786	7.8326		
	1-3	90	33.5333	8.7103		
	4-5	32	35.9375	8.3548		
	6-10	38	36.1579	8.9971		
	11-15	4	36.0000	9.0921		
	Total	220	34.2909	8.5168	1.217	.304
Promotions	<1	56	19.8929	9.3453		
	1-3	90	19.1556	9.6266		
	4-5	32	19.1875	10.4956		
	6-10	38	21.1579	10.4041		
	11-15	4	15.0000	7.7460		
	Total	220	19.6182	9.7587	.533	.712

Summary

Results from the Pearson correlation coefficient between leadership styles and Employee's job satisfaction showed that overall perceived leadership style emerged as the significant predictor of the employees' job satisfaction. The finding found there was a relationship between different dimension of the leadership's style and different dimensions of the employees' job satisfaction. Transformational and transactional leadership style significantly and positively predicted job satisfaction. And, transformational leadership style has the highest statistically significant positive relationship with employees' opportunities for promotion. On the other hand, transactional leadership style has the highest statistically significant positive relationship with employees' pay. Thus, there is a relationship between the managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfactions in the retail department stores in Taiwan.

Chapter V Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This chapter summarizes and draws conclusions of the three research questions stated in Chapter I. Furthermore, recommendations for future research are provided.

Summary

The purpose of this study is to describe and examine the relationship of employees' perceptions of the leadership style of managers on the job satisfaction of employees at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. Specifically, this research will indicate whether a transformational or transactional leadership style has a positive relationship with employees' job satisfaction.

For purposes of this study, the three research questions were stated as follows:

1. What is the current managers' leadership style at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

2. What is the relationship between the managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfactions at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan?

3. Are there differences in the relationship among managers' leadership style and employee job satisfaction levels based up on the employees' gender, age, educational background and years of experience?

This research used three sets of questionnaires as the instrument for obtaining the data to accomplish the purpose of this study which including the Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X), the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and the demographic instrument.

The significant findings of the results in this study are summarized as follows:

1. The results indicated that most managers' self-rated as transformation leadership style

(mean=2.62, within the range of 0 to 4) at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. On the other hand, from the employees' perceptions of leadership styles at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan, transformational leadership style (mean=2.00) and transactional leadership style (mean=1.94) were more prominent.

2. The overall job satisfaction of employees at fashion retail department stores was a mean score of 26, which could be considered at a medium degree (with a range from 0 to 54). Because the mean score was not well below the middle scale value of 27, employees were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the overall job satisfaction. The highest degree of job satisfaction by employees in these fashion retail department stores was presented by pay (mean=34.29), and the lowest degree of job satisfaction was the opportunities for promotion (mean=19.62).

Also, there was a statistically significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and transactional leadership (r=.809). The statistically significant positive relationship was also found between the transformational leadership and employee's pay (r=.188), and opportunities for promotion (r=.214). The transactional leadership has statistically significant positive relationship with employees' pay (r=.199) and opportunities for promotion (r=.172).

Both the transformational leadership and transactional leadership behaviors (MLQ-5X employee rater form) had a significant positive correlation with the managers in the fashion retail department stores.

Both transformational and transactional leadership have statistically significant negative relationship with the employees' job satisfaction of supervision of r =-1.98 and r =-1.55.

3. The significant findings from the results of the differences in perceived leadership styles and job satisfaction regarding different variables relative to employees' background characteristics (gender, age, educational background and years of experiences) are:

    a. No significant differences were found between the employees' perceptions of leader's leadership style and employees' gender, age, educational background and years of experience.

    b. Significant differences exist among some individual factors of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) relative to age and educational background. The JDI contains six categories: work on present job, present pay, opportunities for promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the job in general (JIG). A number of studies have shown that significant relationship existed between educational background and job satisfaction although a few others have shown less significance (Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Mottaz, 1984; Rogers, 1991). This study also found that significant differences existed among different educational background groups with respect to job in general (JIG). And, significant differences existed among age groups with respect to job satisfaction of work, coworkers, and job in general (JIG).

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the research questions, the summarized conclusions indicated that the transformational and transactional leadership style has a positive relationship with employee job satisfaction at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. The findings suggest several implications for the leaders of fashion retail department

stores in Taiwan.

Survey results demonstrated that employees' perceiving the leader's leadership style as transformational and transactional significantly and positively predicted employee's job satisfaction in pay and the opportunities for promotion. As a result of this study, leaders of fashion retail department stores in Taiwan should be aware that the transformational and transactional leadership style are said to be the most desired style among all the perceived leadership styles for these employees in Taiwan.

According to Bass (1985), transformational models express follower behavior in terms of influencing subordinates' motives, values and beliefs. Transformational leaders enhance employee self-confidence by expressing high expectations for employees, by showing confidence in employees, and by treating each employee differently in terms of individual needs and capabilities. On the other hand, transactional leader provides followers with resources and rewards in exchange for motivation, productivity, and effective task accomplishment (Nahavandi, 2000). The leadership role of managers has become an increasingly critical element in the successful implementation of the retail department store. A major part of the managers' job is managing and motivating staff to increase sales and improve efficiency (Turner, 2002). Accordingly, the fashion retail department stores' leaders should understand that transformational and transactional leaders will motivate staff.

A number of studies have shown that a leader's leadership style can predict the employee's level of job satisfaction (Aiken, Smith, & Lollare, 1972; Gilmore, Beehr, & Richter, 1979; Packard, 1994; Putti & Tong, 1992; Stout, 1984; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993) and were consistent with the findings in this study. Bass (1985) stated that

transformational leaders transform subordinates who are then able to perform at levels far beyond what might have normally been expected. Moreover, transformational leadership style was positively correlated with employee perceptions of leader effectiveness. Transactional leadership was also positively correlated with these outcomes. However, in general, transactional relationships were lower than those found for transformational leadership which contributed to the prediction of subordinate outcomes (Hater & Bass, 1988). Results in this study also found that transformational leadership and outcomes were highly, positively related; transactional leadership and the outcomes less so.

Judging from the cited literature, the findings for the transformational leadership style were consistent with the findings of this research. The previous findings for transactional leadership style and outcomes indicated that they were lower than transformational leadership style but still positively correlated with these outcomes. The results of this present research indicated transformational leadership style and transactional leadership style all contributed to the prediction of levels of job satisfaction.

The findings revealed that fashion retail department store employee overall job satisfaction was at the medium level, however, the employees were dissatisfied with their supervision and the opportunities for promotion. Hence, the managers need to be proactive and employee-centered (i.e., praising good performance, taking personal interest in employees, providing feedback and listening to subordinates' opinions), hence the greater the levels of employee satisfaction with managers (Ash, 1954; Vroom, 1964). Furthermore, the greater the manager's perceived competence on the job, the greater the levels of satisfaction with supervision. In addition, it may be important for the fashion retail department stores' leaders to know the importance of promotions. The employees

were not happy with the company's promotion policy and the administration of that policy. The ratio of female employees to male employees is sixteen to one. However, the ratio of female managers to male managers is three to two. The comparison of the female employees to the female managers has decreased drastically. The fashion retail department store should increase the frequency of promotions for more female employees to have more opportunities to be promoted to manager.

Recommendations for Future Research

The study of leadership and the employees' job satisfaction continues to be a rich field for research. This research examined several aspects of the field, but is also raised many more questions. These questions provide a number of interesting research opportunities. Some of these opportunities for future research are presented below.

First, organizational culture and leadership provide the value structure to facilitate organizational change. Organizational resistance to change includes structural inertia, limited focus of change, group inertia, threat to expertise, threat to established power relationships and threat to established resource allocations (Robbins, 2001). This study did not fully address the differences of relationships between leader's leadership styles and job satisfaction in the different social, cultural, and organizational. Therefore, the primary recommendation is to replicate this study with employees of different cultures and ethnicity with a view to gathering a more heterogeneous sample. It would help determine whether differences exist between native Taiwanese employees and multinational employees. Consequently, the fashion retail department store's leaders will recognize more about the relationships between perceived leadership styles and employee job satisfaction.

Secondly, there are many variables influencing and predicting the level of job satisfaction, it is recommended that further research explore other intervening variables such as work schedules, personality traits, organizational commitment, turnover intention and work motivation to determine the relationships relative to the level of job satisfaction.

Third, there are many variables that influence and help predict to increase sales and improve efficiency. But this study focuses on the relationship between the leader's leadership style and employees' job satisfaction. Therefore, it is recommended that further research should explore the intervening variables such as leader's leadership style and employees job satisfaction to determine the relationships relative to the many factors that can influence sales and efficiency at enterprises.

Finally, what is the role of organizational culture in identifying the relationship between the leader's leadership style and employees' job satisfaction? This research hints at the impact of culture with such items as integrity, urgency, and the lack of team associated items, but the relationship of organizational culture to the identification of the current leaders leadership styles need to be explored. This research suggests that the role of organizational culture is another path that leadership research must examine. Would there also be the same leadership styles in a different organizational culture in the fashion retail department store?

The above recommendations for future research could aid in finding answers to other questions of how leadership in fashion department stores become successful in today's global environment. Many leadership scholars and practitioners (Bass 1985, 1990b; Bennis & Nanus 1985; Conger & Kanungo 1988a) have proposed that today's

organizations need leadership that inspires followers and enables them to enact revolutionary change. Transformational leadership theory proposes that leaders use behaviors that are more complex than initiation of structure and consideration. Transformational leadership also suggests that the majority of leadership theories focus on the exchange and transaction between leaders and their followers (Nahavandi, 2000).

In this research, the researcher found that both transformational leadership and transactional leadership behavior had a significant positive correlation. Transformational leadership affects the organization's mission and goals, and transaction leadership is immediately effective for employee's needs. Thus, an effective leader would need to combine both leadership behaviors. All of these factors are needed to motivate employees when the fashion retail department stores face new challenges concerning increased global competition.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

(Form 5X) (MLQ-5X), English Version

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)
Leader Form (5x-Short)

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

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

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

Use the following rating scale:

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

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

Continued =>

-2-

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

16. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved 0 1 2 3 4

17. I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it." 0 1 2 3 4

18. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group 0 1 2 3 4

19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group 0 1 2 3 4

20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action 0 1 2 3 4

21. I act in ways that build others' respect for me 0 1 2 3 4

22. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures 0 1 2 3 4

23. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions 0 1 2 3 4

24. I keep track of all mistakes 0 1 2 3 4

25. I display a sense of power and confidence 0 1 2 3 4

26. I articulate a compelling vision of the future 0 1 2 3 4

27. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards 0 1 2 3 4

28. I avoid making decisions 0 1 2 3 4

29. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others 0 1 2 3 4

30. I get others to look at problems from many different angles 0 1 2 3 4

31. I help others to develop their strengths 0 1 2 3 4

32. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments 0 1 2 3 4

33. I delay responding to urgent questions 0 1 2 3 4

34. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission 0 1 2 3 4

35. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations 0 1 2 3 4

36. I express confidence that goals will be achieved 0 1 2 3 4

37. I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs 0 1 2 3 4

38. I use methods of leadership that are satisfying 0 1 2 3 4

39. I get others to do more than they expected to do 0 1 2 3 4

40. I am effective in representing others to higher authority 0 1 2 3 4

41. I work with others in a satisfactory way 0 1 2 3 4

42. I heighten others' desire to succeed 0 1 2 3 4

43. I am effective in meeting organizational requirements 0 1 2 3 4

44. I increase others' willingness to try harder 0 1 2 3 4

45. I lead a group that is effective 0 1 2 3 4

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)
Rater Form (5x-Short)

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

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

IMPORTANT (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

___ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
___ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ I do not wish my organizational level to be known.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

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

THE PERSON I AM RATING. . .

1.	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2.	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6.	Talks about their most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7.	Is absent when needed	0	1	2	3	4
8.	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9.	Talks optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
10.	Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her	0	1	2	3	4
11.	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12.	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13.	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
14.	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
15.	Spends time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4

-4-

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

16. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved 0 1 2 3 4

17. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it." 0 1 2 3 4

18. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group 0 1 2 3 4

19. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group 0 1 2 3 4

20. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action 0 1 2 3 4

21. Acts in ways that builds my respect 0 1 2 3 4

22. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures 0 1 2 3 4

23. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions 0 1 2 3 4

24. Keeps track of all mistakes 0 1 2 3 4

25. Displays a sense of power and confidence 0 1 2 3 4

26. Articulates a compelling vision of the future 0 1 2 3 4

27. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards 0 1 2 3 4

28. Avoids making decisions 0 1 2 3 4

29. Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others 0 1 2 3 4

30. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles 0 1 2 3 4

31. Helps me to develop my strengths 0 1 2 3 4

32. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments 0 1 2 3 4

33. Delays responding to urgent questions 0 1 2 3 4

34. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission 0 1 2 3 4

35. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations 0 1 2 3 4

36. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved 0 1 2 3 4

37. Is effective in meeting my job-related needs 0 1 2 3 4

38. Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying 0 1 2 3 4

39. Gets me to do more than I expected to do 0 1 2 3 4

40. Is effective in representing me to higher authority 0 1 2 3 4

41. Works with me in a satisfactory way 0 1 2 3 4

42. Heightens my desire to succeed 0 1 2 3 4

43. Is effective in meeting organizational requirements 0 1 2 3 4

44. Increases my willingness to try harder 0 1 2 3 4

45. Leads a group that is effective 0 1 2 3 4

Appendix B

Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

Instrument, English Version

People on Your Present Job

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y   for "Yes" if it describes the people with whom you work
N   for "No" if it does not describe them
?   for "?" if you cannot decide

· ·

___ Stimulating
___ Boring
___ Slow
___ Helpful
___ Stupid
___ Responsible
___ Fast
___ Intelligent
___ Easy to make enemies
___ Talk too much
___ Smart
___ Lazy
___ Unpleasant
___ Gossipy
___ Active
___ Narrow interests
___ Loyal
___ Stubborn

Job in General

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y   for "Yes" if it describes your job
N   for "No" if it does not describe it
?   for "?" if you cannot decide

· ·

___ Pleasant
___ Bad
___ Ideal
___ Waste of time
___ Good
___ Undesirable
___ Worthwhile
___ Worse than most
___ Acceptable
___ Superior
___ Better than most
___ Disagreeable
___ Makes me content
___ Inadequate
___ Excellent
___ Rotten
___ Enjoyable
___ Poor

The Job Descriptive Index
© Bowling Green State University 1975, 1985, 1997

The Job In General Scale
© Bowling Green State University 1982, 1985
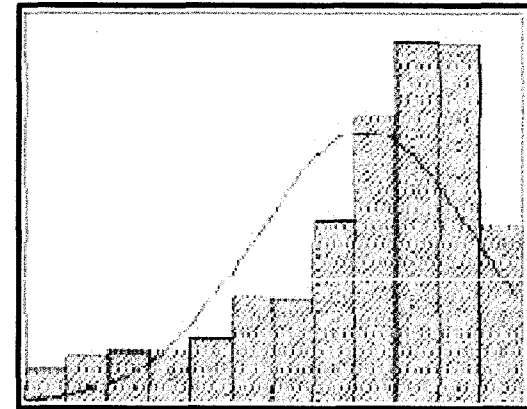
THE
JOB DESCRIPTIVE
INDEX

including

The Job in General Scale

(1997 Revision)

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Work on Present Job

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y   for "Yes" if it describes your work
N   for "No" if it does not describe it
?   for "?" if you cannot decide

. . . .

___ Fascinating
___ Routine
___ Satisfying
___ Boring
___ Good
___ Gives sense of accomplishment
___ Respected
___ Uncomfortable
___ Pleasant
___ Useful
___ Challenging
___ Simple
___ Repetitive
___ Creative
___ Dull
___ Uninteresting
___ Can see results
___ Uses my abilities

Pay

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y   for "Yes" if it describes your pay
N   for "No" if it does not describe it
?   for "?" if you cannot decide

. . . .

___ Income adequate for normal expenses
___ Fair
___ Barely live on income
___ Bad
___ Income provides luxuries
___ Less than I deserve
___ Well paid
___ Insecure
___ Underpaid

Opportunities for Promotion

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y   for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion
N   for "No" if it does not describe them
?   for "?" if you cannot decide

. . . .

___ Good opportunities for promotion
___ Opportunities somewhat limited
___ Promotion on ability
___ Dead-end job
___ Good chance for promotion
___ Unfair promotion policy
___ Infrequent promotions
___ Regular promotions
___ Fairly good chance for promotion

Supervision

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y   for "Yes" if it describes the supervision you get on the job
N   for "No" if it does not describe it
?   for "?" if you cannot decide

. . . .

___ Ask my advice
___ Hard to please
___ Impolite
___ Praises good work
___ Tactful
___ Influential
___ Up-to-date
___ Doesn't supervise enough
___ Has favorites
___ Tells me where I stand
___ Annoying
___ Stubborn
___ Knows job well
___ Bad
___ Intelligent
___ Poor planner
___ Around when needed
___ Lazy

Appendix C: Demographic Data Survey Instrument, English Version

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

(Please check ∨ on the □. The following information will be confidential.)

1. Gender: □ Male   □ Female

2. Age: □ below 20   □ 20-25   □ 26-30

          □ 31-40   □ 41-50   □ over 51

3. Educational Background: □ Higher than Graduate

                             □ Graduate   □ University   □ College

                             □ Senior High School

                             □ Did not Complete Senior High Organization

4. Year of Professional Experience: □ Less Than 1 year □ Between 1-3 years

                                     □ Between 6-10 years   □ Between 11-15 years

                                     □ More Than 16 years

Appendix D: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X), Chinese Version

第 I部份:多元領導問卷 (MLQ-5X) (領導者自評)

本問卷為領導者對自我評估領導模式的問卷,請依自我評估方式回答下列問題。此部份共有 45 個題目,請依您對各題描述句出現頻率,勾選 (√) 適當的位置。本問卷描述句中的 "他人"是指您所負責單位的部屬。包括百貨公司中的員工、及其它專櫃的同仁。

➢ 問卷量表描述句出現頻率代號:

未曾有過 = 0	一次或少次 = 1	有時 = 2	經常 = 3	頻繁地、總是 = 4

(請依自我評估領導方式回答下列問題) (請勾選 √ 適當的位置)	未曾有過	一次或少次	有時	經常	頻繁地、總是
1. 我提供協助以換取部屬的努力工作.................................	○	○	○	○	○
2. 我反覆檢查各種假想的關鍵性問題,看其是否適當.............	○	○	○	○	○
3. 在問題惡化前,我沒有進行干涉.................................	○	○	○	○	○
4. 我把注意焦點放在違法、錯誤、例外和偏差上.................	○	○	○	○	○
5. 當重要問題出現時,我避免介入.................................	○	○	○	○	○
6. 我談論我最重要的信念與價值觀.................................	○	○	○	○	○
7. 當需要我時,我總是不在場.................................	○	○	○	○	○
8. 當解決問題時,我會尋求不同的想法與觀點.................	○	○	○	○	○
9. 我樂觀地談論未來..	○	○	○	○	○
10. 我向別人灌輸與我合作的驕傲與自豪.........................	○	○	○	○	○
11. 我明確的討論部屬的職責與完成工作的目標.................	○	○	○	○	○
12. 我在事情惡化前,採取行動與措施............................	○	○	○	○	○
13. 我熱衷於談論需要完成的工作.................................	○	○	○	○	○
14. 我強調具有明確目的的重要性.................................	○	○	○	○	○
15. 我花費時間對部屬進行傳授與訓練............................	○	○	○	○	○
16. 我清楚的表示當達成工作目標時,所能得到的獎賞............	○	○	○	○	○

17.	我展現出我相信 ”問題沒有違背時，不需整頓”	○	○	○	○	○
18.	我重視團體利益多於個人利益	○	○	○	○	○
19.	我對待部屬就像朋友一樣，而不是只當他們是團體中的一員	○	○	○	○	○
20.	當問題持續時，我才採取解決行動	○	○	○	○	○
21.	我的一舉一動都令人尊敬	○	○	○	○	○
22.	我的注意力全部集中在處理錯誤、抱怨與失誤上	○	○	○	○	○
23.	我考慮決策時可能產生的倫理道德問題	○	○	○	○	○
24.	我會對錯誤追根究底	○	○	○	○	○
25.	我展現權力與自信心	○	○	○	○	○
26.	我清楚地表示組織未來的展望與遠景	○	○	○	○	○
27.	我將注意力放在避免失敗上，以達到預期的目標	○	○	○	○	○
28.	我避免作決策	○	○	○	○	○
29.	我考量每個人的不同需求、能力、與抱負	○	○	○	○	○
30.	我接受別人以不同角度的看法看待問題	○	○	○	○	○
31.	我協助別人發揮他們的潛能	○	○	○	○	○
32.	我提供新方法建議部屬如何完成工作任務	○	○	○	○	○
33.	我延後反應處理重要問題	○	○	○	○	○
34.	我強調共同使命感的重要性	○	○	○	○	○
35.	我對部屬達到預期工作時，表示滿意	○	○	○	○	○
36.	我展現對完成目標的自信心	○	○	○	○	○
37.	我能有效的滿足部屬的工作相關需求	○	○	○	○	○
38.	我使用令人滿意的領導方法	○	○	○	○	○
39.	我讓部屬做超出他們所預期的工作	○	○	○	○	○
40.	我有效的扮演高權威的角色	○	○	○	○	○
41.	我用令人滿意的方式與人合作	○	○	○	○	○
42.	我提昇部屬對成功的渴望	○	○	○	○	○
43.	我能有效的滿足組織需求	○	○	○	○	○
44.	我增加部屬對嘗試困難的意志力	○	○	○	○	○
45.	我領導一個有效的組織	○	○	○	○	○

第II部份: 多元領導問卷 (MLQ-5X) (部屬他評)

本問卷爲部屬對其領導者領導模式的他評問卷，請您對您的部門領導者依下列問題評估他(她)的領導模式。。

此部份共有45個題目，請依您對您所共事的領導者在描述句的出現頻率上，勾選 (√) 適當的位置。本問卷描述句中的 ”他(她)”是指百貨公司中的經理。

➤ 問卷量表描述句出現頻率代號:

未曾有過 = 0	一次或少次 = 1	有時 = 2	經常 = 3	頻繁地、總是 = 4

(評估對象爲百貨公司中的主管，請依您對他的領導方式回答下列問題) (請勾選 √ 適當的位置)	未曾有過	一次或少次	有時	經常	頻繁地、總是
1. 他(她)提供協助以換取我的努力工作	○	○	○	○	○
2. 他(她)反覆檢查各種假想的關鍵性問題，看其是否適當	○	○	○	○	○
3. 他(她)在問題惡化前，沒有進行干涉	○	○	○	○	○
4. 他(她)把注意焦點放在違法、錯誤、例外和偏差上	○	○	○	○	○
5. 當重要問題出現時，他(她)都避免介入	○	○	○	○	○
6. 他(她)談論他(她)最重要的信念與價值觀	○	○	○	○	○
7. 當需要他(她)時，他(她)總是不在場	○	○	○	○	○
8. 當解決問題時，他(她)會尋求不同的想法與觀點	○	○	○	○	○
9. 他(她)樂觀地談論未來	○	○	○	○	○
10. 他(她)向別人灌輸與他(她)合作的驕傲與自豪	○	○	○	○	○
11. 他(她)明確的討論部屬的職責與完成工作的目標	○	○	○	○	○
12. 他(她)在事情惡化前，採取行動與措施	○	○	○	○	○
13. 他(她)熱衷於談論需要完成的工作	○	○	○	○	○
14. 他(她)強調具有明確目的的重要性	○	○	○	○	○
15. 他(她)花費時間對部屬進行傳授與訓練	○	○	○	○	○
16. 他(她)清楚的表示當達成工作目標時，所能得到的獎賞	○	○	○	○	○
17. 他(她)展現出他(她)相信 ”問題沒有違背時，不需整頓”	○	○	○	○	○

18.	他(她)重視團體利益多於個人利益..	○	○	○	○	○
19.	他(她)對待部屬就像朋友一樣，而不是只當我們是團體中的一員..........	○	○	○	○	○
20.	當問題持續時，他(她)才採取解決行動..	○	○	○	○	○
21.	他(她)的一舉一動都令人尊敬..	○	○	○	○	○
22.	他(她)的注意力全部集中在處理錯誤、抱怨與失誤上........................	○	○	○	○	○
23.	他(她)考慮決策時可能產生的倫理道德問題..................................	○	○	○	○	○
24.	他(她)會對錯誤追根究底..	○	○	○	○	○
25.	他(她)展現權力與自信心..	○	○	○	○	○
26.	他(她)清楚地表示組織未來的展望與遠景....................................	○	○	○	○	○
27.	他(她)將注意力放在避免失敗上，以達到預期的目標........................	○	○	○	○	○
28.	他(她)避免作決策..	○	○	○	○	○
29.	他(她)考量每個人的不同需求、能力、與抱負...............................	○	○	○	○	○
30.	他(她)接受別人以不同角度的看法看待問題..................................	○	○	○	○	○
31.	他(她)協助別人發揮他們的潛能..	○	○	○	○	○
32.	他(她)提供新方法與建議給我們，如何完成工作任務........................	○	○	○	○	○
33.	他(她)延後反應處理重要問題..	○	○	○	○	○
34.	他(她)強調共同使命感的重要性..	○	○	○	○	○
35.	他(她)對部屬達到預期工作時，表示滿意....................................	○	○	○	○	○
36.	他(她)展現對完成目標的自信心..	○	○	○	○	○
37.	他(她)能有效的滿足我們的工作相關需求....................................	○	○	○	○	○
38.	他(她)使用令人滿意的領導方法..	○	○	○	○	○
39.	他(她)讓我們做超出我們所預期的工作..	○	○	○	○	○
40.	他(她)有效的扮演高權威的角色..	○	○	○	○	○
41.	他(她)用令人滿意的方式與人合作...	○	○	○	○	○
42.	他(她)提昇部屬對成功的渴望..	○	○	○	○	○
43.	他(她)能有效的滿足組織需求..	○	○	○	○	○
44.	他(她)增加我們對嘗試困難的意志力..	○	○	○	○	○
45.	他(她)領導一個有效的組織..	○	○	○	○	○

Appendix E: Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Instrument, Chinese Version

工 作 描 述 指 標

想一想您目前的工作。大部分時間的情形如何？請於各字詞旁的空格內填入：

<u>Y</u> 表示"是"假如它是正確的描述

<u>N</u> 表示"否"假如它不是正確的描述

<u>?</u> 假如您無法決定

目前的工作：

_____吸引人的

_____一成不變的

_____令人滿意的

_____令人厭煩的

_____良好的

_____有創意的

_____受尊重的

_____環境熱而不舒適的

_____令人愉快的

_____有用的

_____令人疲倦的

_____有益身心健康的

_____具有挑戰性的

_____需走動或站著去做的

_____令人有挫折感的

_____簡單的

_____永遠做不完的

_____令人有成就感的

目前的薪水：

_____收入足夠平常的支出

_____福利分配令人滿意的

_____收入勉強夠生活

_____不好的

_____收入可供奢華的生活

_____無保障的

_____少於我應得的

_____薪給非常優厚的

_____薪給太薄的

升遷機會：

_____有良好的升遷機會

_____機會略受限制

_____依據能力升遷

_____沒有前途的工作

_____有良好的升遷機運

_____不工平的升遷政策

_____不常有升遷

_____定期升遷

_____有相當好的升遷機運

上司的督導：

_____會徵詢我的意見

_____難以取悅

_____沒有禮貌的

_____會讚美良好的工作

_____圓滑的

_____具有影響力的

_____趕得上時代的

_____督導不力的

_____性情暴躁的

_____會告訴我做得如何

_____煩人的

_____頑固的

_____對工作內行

_____不好的

_____聰明的

_____讓我自主處理工作

_____當需要時隨時給予指導

_____懶惰的

您的工作同仁：

_____有激勵性的

_____令人厭煩的

_____遲鈍的

_____有野心的

_____愚笨的

_____有責任感的

_____迅速的

_____聰明的

_____容易樹敵

_____說話過多

_____伶俐的

_____懶惰的

_____令人不愉快的

_____不尊重隱私

_____積極的

_____興趣狹隘

_____忠誠的

_____難以相處

工作總體：

_____愉快的

_____不好的

_____理想的

_____浪費時間的

_____良好的

_____惹人厭的

_____值得做的

_____比大部份工作更差的

_____可接受的

_____令人想離職的

_____比大部份工作更好的

_____不合意的

_____令我滿足的

_____不適當的

_____優良的

_____劣等的

_____有樂趣的

_____卑微的

Appendix F: Demographic Data Survey Instrument, Chinese Version

您的基本資料 (請勾選 √)

最後, 請填寫您的基本資料, 您的資料專為本研究使用, 絕不對外公開,

敬請安心填寫。您填寫的資料越詳細, 越有助於本研究之分析。

1. 您的性別 ：　　　　□男　　　□女

2. 您的年齡 ：　　　　□20 歲以下　　□20-25 歲　　□26-30 歲

　　　　　　　　　　　　□31-40 歲　　　□41-50 歲　　□51 歲以上

3. 您的最高學歷 ：　　□高中職　　　□專職(二專,三專,五專)

　　　　　　　　　　　　□大學　　　　□研究所以上

4. 您在此公司所服務的年資 ：　□不滿一年　　□1-3 年　　□4-5 年

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　□6-10 年　　　□11-15 年　□16 年以上

Appendix G: Informed Consent Form, English Version

<u>INFORMED CONSENT FORM</u>

SUBJECT CONSENT FOR RESEARCH STUDY: The relationship between leaders' leadership styles and employee job satisfaction at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan.

As a doctoral student at the University of the Incarnate Word, I am very appreciative your consideration to participate in this study conducted by Lin-Chin Lin. The purpose of this study is to describe and examine the relationship of employees' perceptions of leadership style of managers on the job satisfaction of employees at fashion retail department stores in Taiwan. Specially, this research will determine whether a transformational or transactional leadership style has a positive relationship with employees' job satisfaction. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may withdraw your participation at any time without penalty.

There are no potential risks for you to participate in this research. You will contribute to the body of knowledge concerning leadership and job satisfaction. All of the documents in the study will be confidential; you cannot be identified.

I believe the research findings will be valuable to your company as it provides the understandings to managers for enhancing employees' job satisfactions and moreover to increasing productivity for your company. If you have any questions regarding to the study, you can contact me by e-mail linchin_l@yahoo.com or by phone at 1-210-386-8157/011-886-6-282-2739.

The UIW committee that reviews research on human subjects, the Institutional Review Board, will answer any questions about your rights as a research subject (1-210-829-2757---Dean of Graduate Studies and Research).

YOUR SIGNATURE INDICATES THAT YOU CONSENT TO TAKE PART IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY AND THAT YOU HAVE READ AND UNDERSTAND THE INFORMATION GIVEN ABOVE AND EXPLAINED TO YOU.

Signature of Subject	Date	Time

Phone Number	E-Mail Address

Appendix H: Informed Consent Form, Chinese Version

受試者須知與同意書

敬愛的受試參與者您好:

　　後學 林伶瑾 現在是美國德州 *University of the Incarnate Word* 的研究生,主修組織領導.目前正進行博士論文的相關研究.研究的目的在於了解台灣百貨公司經理的領導風格與員工對於工作的滿意度之間的可能關係.

　　如果您願意參與這項研究,請您在受試者須知與同意書上簽名,並於完成您的問卷後,一起寄回給研究者.這項問卷研究大約需要十分鐘左右.

　　您將是自願參與本研究,不受外力因素所引響,任何您的資料或所填寫的資訊,除提供研究者作為學術研究外,均受匿名與保密,不作其他用途之用.您也可以隨時取消參與本研究,而不會對您的職務與工作有任何影響.如果您有任何受試者權利上的問題,本校的 Institutional Review Board 將回答您受試者的相關權利問題,聯絡電話如下,研究所所長 1-210-829-2757(美國);或者您也可以直接與我連絡,聯絡方式如下:

researcher19@hotmail.com / 1-210-386-8157 (U.S.) / 06-282-2739 (Taiwan)

您以了解上述說明,並且願意在受試者權利保護下簽名參與本研究之問卷調查

_____　　_____/_____
　　　　受試者簽名　　　　　　　　　　　日期　　　　　　　時間

_____　　_____
　　　　聯絡電話　　　　　　　　　　　　電子郵件信箱(E-mail)

Appendix I: Cover Letter, English Version

Dear Sir:

My name is Lin-Chin Lin; I am a doctoral student in education with a concentration

in organizational leadership. You are being asked to take part in a research study. The

purpose of this study is to describe and examine the relationship of employees'

perceptions of the leadership style of managers on the job satisfaction of employees at

fashion retail department stores in Taiwan.

Your participation in this research is extremely important. Please complete the

enclosed questionnaires, this questionnaires are very short and will necessitate less than

ten minutes of your time.

Your response will be confidential. Your response will be used to assist the

researcher for statistical analysis to complete this research. After finish your

questionnaires, please return your responses in the enclosed self-addressed and stamped

envelope as soon as possible. By returning the questionnaires, you will be consenting to

use of your information in this study.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation, your assistance is very much

appreciated. If you have any concerns or questions regarding this correspondence, please

do not feel hesitate to contact me. You can contact me by e-mail at

researcher19@hotmail.com or by phone at 1-210-386-8157 (U.S.) / 011-886-6-282-2739

(Taiwan).

Sincerely,

Lin-Chin Lin

Appendix J: Cover Letter, Chinese Version

意見調查表

親愛的女士,先生:

　　您好!我是美國德州聖道大學領導統御博士班的研究生，這是一份博士論文所需的問卷。目的是在探討百貨公司的領導行為以及工作滿意之間的關係，希望藉由您的參與和協助，使本研究更具有實用性與學術價值。

　　本研究採匿名方式，你所提供的資料，僅供整體分析之用，絕不對外單獨發表。煩請放心，據實的作答。若您希望有一份研究結果，請在卷末註明即可。您的合作，是本研究成功的關鍵。敬請詳細填寫，盡速投遞。您的協助將對我有莫大的幫助。謝謝您在百忙之中對本研究的支持，僅此衷心的表示感謝，

並祝福您

工作順心，萬事如意！

美國德州聖道大學領導統御博士班

指導教授　　　南西　羅賓斯博士

研究生　　　　林伶瑾　　　敬上

Appendix K

Permission of Using

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

(Form 5X)(MLQ-5X)

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Web Permission Set

Leader Form, Rater Form, and Scoring Key for MLQ Form (5x-Short)

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by
Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio

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Appendix L: Permission of Using Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

Date: Fri, 27 Feb 2004 10:43:57 -0500
  To: "linchin lin" <linchin_l@yahoo.com>
From: "Ian S. Little" <jdi_ra@bgnet.bgsu.edu>
Subject: JDI non-commercial agreement received (was Re: Fwd: FW: Re: traditional chinese language)

Dear Linda,

Your non-commercial data sharing agreement has been received. This email grants you copyright permission to reproduce and use the JDI with up to 300 people. As per the non-commercial agreement, if your data is not sent back to the JDI Research Group, we have the right to charge you full-price.

The english version of the JDI is attached along with your manual. Your password for the manual is '█████' with no caps or quotes. As for the traditional Chinese version, we only have traditional chinese in the 1985 version of the JDI, and then only in a paper copy. This leaves us with two options: 1) I can fax you the traditional chinese version of the 1985 JDI, or 2) you may translate the english version of the 1997 JDI. If you choose to translate I will need you to return an electronic copy of your translation to me with your data. Please let me know how you would like to proceed.

Thanks for using the JDI,
Ian Little

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