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The relationships among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University

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THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, JOB

SATISFACTION, AND ACADEMIC SERVICE QUALITY AT AL-BAHA UNIVERSITY

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Maha Alghamdi

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Doug Leigh, Ph.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

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under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

To my husband and my children with love and gratitude.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude to God (Allah) for giving me the ability and strength to complete this work successfully. This achievement could not have been completed without the support and encouragement of people surrounding me. First, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my husband, who has been the greatest supporter to me, not only in this journey but in all my education achievements. I would like to thank him for his love, care, sacrifices, constant motivation, understanding, and valuable advices and guidelines that have brought this work to success. Special thanks to my children for all their encouragement, love, patience, and support through their nice and inspirational words.

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VITA

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between transformational leadership components (idealized influence [attributes], idealized influence [behaviors], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration), job satisfaction and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. The purposes of this study were to identify the extent to which, if at all, relationships exist between perceived levels of transformational leadership components, job satisfaction, and academic service quality among the faculty members, and to examine to what extent, if at all, are differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) of faculty members associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership components, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. To explore these relationships among the variables of the study, three surveys were employed: The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and the SERVPERF, in addition to a demographic questionnaire. A total of 336 responses were completed for the analysis to answering the two research questions and testing the 15 research hypotheses listed in chapter one. Correlational analyses were used to explore these relations. Pearson's product–moment correlation coefficient at significance level of $p < .01$. was employed to test the first research question hypotheses, and multivariate analysis of variance at significance level of $p < .05$ was employed to test the second research question hypotheses. The findings of the study indicated that positive relationships are found among the characteristics of transformational leadership components, job satisfaction and academic service quality as well as between job satisfaction and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. As for the demographic information's association to faculty members' perceptions, gender, current positions, and years spent in current positions do not differentiate faculty members' self-

perceived levels of transformational leadership, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. However, age was found to differentiate faculty members' perceived levels of individual consideration and job satisfaction. The findings from this study contribute to the field of leadership studies by providing empirical research on this topic in higher education.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Background of the Study

The propagation of human knowledge is important for development and constructive existence around the world. Academic institutions serve as a platform for knowledge distribution. As education emerged as an industry, the assessment of the services provided within this industry also received attention. Among the most important factors affecting academic service quality is job satisfaction of the teaching fraternity (Naser, Esmaeil, Masood, & Mahmood, 2013). Job satisfaction is a key driver of academic service quality, and the correlation between job satisfaction and academic service quality has received a lot of attention in recent years (Dauda, Maishanu, & Mawoli, 2013; Hallowell, Schlesinger, & Zornitsky, 1996). Quality of service and customer satisfaction should be concerns in any academic organization. Academic organizations, like other service organizations, have predetermined goals and objectives. One way to achieve an academic institution's goals is by providing high-quality service in teaching and performance. Making an institution's environment healthy, competitive, and enjoyable for all members enhances the service quality. A healthy work environment can make members of an organization feel more satisfied, which in turn can positively affect their performance and result in higher productivity. Employees tend to feel motivated and inspired if they have an adequate amount of authority, satisfaction, and freedom in discharging their daily duties (Muindi, 2011). Competitiveness among universities and other academic institutions can also be associated with the level of job satisfaction of their employees. Among the various factors influencing job satisfaction, the role of university leadership is important. Leadership can influence followers' satisfaction and consequently enhance the organization's performance. Northouse (2010) noted, "Leadership is the process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a

common goal" (p. 3), thus giving a clear picture of how leaders may be able to influence their followers to achieve the desired goals.

Researchers have studied the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction in various fields and have often demonstrated a positive relationship between both aspects. For example, Bateh and Heyliger (2014) conducted a study to examine the impact of the transformational, transactional, and passive leadership styles on faculty job satisfaction in the State University System of Florida. The researchers distributed two surveys to 567 full-time faculty members of the university. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to assess the perception of faculty members toward their leader's style of leadership and Spector's (1996) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was used to assess faculty members' level of job satisfaction at State University System of Florida. One hundred four questionnaires were completed. The findings of the survey revealed that approximately 76% of the respondents perceived transformational leadership as the most popular style of leadership in their respective leaders, 11.5% of the respondents were passive/avoidant in the conducted survey, and only 7.7% of the respondents perceived transactional style of leadership in their respective leaders. The results also showed a significant positive relationship between the transformational leadership style and the faculty's job satisfaction ($B = 4.109$, $SE = .968$, $p < .001$). Eighty-four percent of the respondents were satisfied with the transformational style of leadership, but 15.2% were not satisfied. The results also showed that the transactional leadership style could only satisfy 25% of respondents, and 75% of the respondents remained unsatisfied.

Transformational leadership is distinguished among the various styles of leadership by its five fundamental dimensions of focus: idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation

(Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995). Transformational leaders seek different techniques and strategies to motivate followers and boost their performance, such as inspiring them, sharing a vision with them, leading by example, and encouraging them to work in groups to achieve the desired goals. The most distinguished trait found in transformational leaders is their ability to create unity in organizations while offering a stable and clear vision to their followers. Transformational leaders work to obtain higher performance levels by employees and staff while offering opportunities for personal and professional growth.

Transformational leadership can satisfy the needs of employees who aspire to be motivated and empowered to a level at which they can achieve the goals of their institutions. Employing transformational leadership in higher education is crucial for implementing the necessary plans of a university. Researchers have discussed the relationship between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality (e.g., Omar & Hussein, 2013). However, the relationship between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality has received less attention. The current study attempted to advance previous research and to evaluate the impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and academic service quality and was conducted Al-Baha University, Saudi Arabia.

This introductory chapter includes a variety of subsections. The first subsection includes a discussion on education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The next subsection includes detailed information about Al-Baha University, where this study took place. The following subsections include the formal statement of the problem of the study, the nature of the study, the research questions, the research hypotheses, the theoretical framework and research model, the importance of the study, the definitions of terms used, the limitations, and the organization of the dissertation.

Education in Saudi Arabia. Formal education in Saudi Arabia includes three levels: elementary, intermediate, and secondary. Children enroll at the age of 6 and must receive 6 years of elementary level education, 3 years of intermediate level education, and 3 years of secondary level education, for a total of 12 compulsory years of education. The successful completion of high school education results in a high school diploma, which qualifies individuals to either join the job market or begin their higher education.

Higher education in Saudi Arabia plays a crucial role in the kingdom's development, and government spending on education has increased dramatically in recent years. The education sector received government funding of $28 billion in 2008, $33 billion in 2009, $37 billion in 2010, and $40 billion in 2011 (Ministry of Higher Education [MOHE], 2009). In 2012, $54 billion was allocated to the education sector, which was the highest amount ever allocated to the education sector in Saudi Arabia (Mohammed, 2013). In 2015, $58 billion was allocated to education and training, which was an increase of 3% from the previous financial year (Alturki & Khan, 2014).

Higher education in Saudi Arabia is accredited and managed by MOHE. MOHE was established in 1975 to promote the establishment of higher education institutions in the country and to raise the level of communication and coordination between universities and other ministries. MOHE also plays a key role in representing government through educational and cultural affairs around the world (MOHE, 2009). MOHE supervises 40 public and private universities and institutions that provide education to more than 1.5 million students. The majority of these universities and institutions offer bachelors, masters, and doctoral degrees' programs in almost all major faculties. Although considered part of higher education in Saudi Arabia, technical and vocational education is managed and accredited by the Technical and

Vocational Training Corporation, which manages 54 technical colleges across the country (MOHE, 2009).

Higher education in Saudi Arabia has changed in the past 10-15 years. The increasing number of people pursuing higher education is an important accomplishment of MOHE. In 2005, the King Abdullah Scholarship Program was launched to serve more than 140,000 students in 46 countries around the world, of which 25% are women (MOHE, 2009). The goal of such initiatives is to prepare highly educated and self-motivated generations for the country in order to build a society with a knowledge-based economy and to provide skillful human resources for the national and global labor market and in scientific research (Ministry of Higher Education, 2013).

Saudi Arabia has devoted a great deal of attention to the education of its women, as they have emerged not only at the local level in private and public universities across the kingdom, but also at the international level through King Abdullah Scholarship Program. One of the outcomes of the great attention the Kingdom has given to the higher education of its women is the establishment of Princess Noura bint Abdulrahman University in Riyadh. PNU is the largest comprehensive university that is specifically designed for women in the world, it is distinguished with its academic leadership and scientific research that contributes to building a knowledge economy with societal and international partnerships. In Riyadh alone, there are six colleges specifically for women; namely the College of Education for Liberal Arts Disciplines, the College of Education for Scientific Disciplines, the College of Education for the Development of Teachers, the College of Social Services, the College of Home Economics and the College of Fine Arts. In 2009, King Abdullah decided to give women a chance to be Ministry Education leaders. Dr. Noura al-Fayez was nominated for the Deputy Minister of Education Affairs for girls. Also, King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz in 2012 issued a decree that allowed Saudi women to

enter the Consultative Council (Majlis Ashura). As of 2014, females represented 58% of all Saudi university graduates and 41% of all higher education employees, including faculty members (Ministry of Deputyship for Planning and Information, 2014).

Al-Baha University. Al-Baha University is a recently established university in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The university was founded in 2006 in the city of Al-Baha. The vision of the university is to develop leaders by offering academic programs and specialized research related to the region's resources and the needs of national development through leadership, innovation, and partnership (Al-Baha University, 2006). The university's mission is to provide exceptional and comprehensive education that benefits university students and the community as a whole.

Prior to founding the University, the city of Al-Baha had a number of separate colleges that were eventually brought together to form the nucleus of the newly founded university. These colleges were: Teachers College, College of Education—Arts, College of Education—Science, Community College, and the College of Health Sciences. And as of today, Al-Baha University has 15 colleges: School of Medicine, Faculty of Pharmacy, Faculty of Engineering, College of Applied Medical Sciences, Faculty of Administrative & Financial Sciences, College of Arts & Sciences Mikhwah, College of Arts & Sciences Baljurshi, College of Education, Community College, Faculty of Arts & Humanities, College of Applied Students & Continuing Education, and College of Computer Sciences and Information Technology. In addition, the university has more than 30 undergraduate programs, four graduate programs, and postgraduate diploma programs as well. Al-Baha University had 1,432 men and women faculty, 805 male and female administrators, and 30,694 students enrolled at different levels in 2015. Leaders of Al-Baha University undertook an initiative by establishing academic cooperation agreements with many

international universities, including Ohio University, Florida Atlantic University, Uppsala University, and University of Connecticut, to offer postgraduate programs for teaching staff in the fields of education and public administration (Al-Baha University, 2006).

Statement of the Problem

Academic leaders must build and ensure the competitiveness of their educational institutions to survive in the education industry. Leaders in higher education face numerous challenges due to the competitive educational environment. The globalization of higher education adds additional pressure on the academic sector by demanding higher quality and accountability for the institutions to stay popular and competitive (McRoy & Gibbs, 2009). The increase in the service-marketing literature has been substantial, with service quality becoming a key issue (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000). Leadership, service quality and job satisfaction are important in the field of higher education (Grönroos, 1984; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Researchers have discussed the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (e.g., Omar & Hussein, 2013). However, a comprehensive assessment of possible relationships among transformational leadership, job satisfaction and service quality has received less attention. Customer service and service quality are becoming important aspects both in government and in private organizations. Therefore, the current study investigated the influence of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and academic service quality.

Due to an increasingly competitive and dynamic educational environment, university leaders are becoming more aware of the importance of modern concepts such as transformational leadership, faculty and staff satisfaction, and academic service quality. Hence, focusing on these aspects not only aims to enable university leaders to reengineer their organizations, but also may help them to plan and develop a system for constantly monitoring the quality of service and how

effectively they meet or exceed their expectations. Moreover, focusing on these aspects may help university leaders to cope with the challenges that are facing their organizations and to overcome these challenges to achieve competence, excellence, and effectiveness in performance (Al Khattab & Fraij, 2011). The research was necessary to determine the relationships among transformation leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality.

Meeting future competitive challenges can involve improving performance by applying a transformational leadership approach. Studying the perceptions of faculty members toward their university's leaders' leadership styles, their own level of job satisfaction, and academic service quality is important for the university leadership in order to take the necessary actions required for institutional improvement. Moreover, the outcome of the study may benefit Al-Baha University leaders by knowing the quality level of their leadership practices, the level of satisfaction of their faculty members, and the quality services they provide.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify the extent to which, if at all, a relationship exists among transformational leadership components (idealized influence [attributes], idealized influence [behaviors], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. Further, the study involved examining the extent to which, if at all, differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) were associated with the degrees of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality.

Nature of the Study

      This quantitative relational and comparative investigation was designed to identify the relationship between perceived transformational leadership components (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality among faculty members at Al-Baha university, as well as examining the extent to which, if at all, differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) were associated with the degrees of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality). Participants respond to four questionnaires. The MLQ (Bass, 1985) was used to measure transformational leadership dimensions as rated by the faculty members. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; D. J. Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) was used to measure faculty members' level of satisfaction. Service Quality (SERVPERF; Cronin & Taylor, 1992) was used to measure academic service quality from the faculty members' perspective. A demographic survey developed by the researcher related to age, gender, current job position, and years spent at current position was used to determine the representation of respondents to the known demographics of the larger population. Data from the survey was used to determine what differences, if any, exist between different demographics with regard to levels of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality.

Research Questions

      To meet the purposes of the study, the following research questions were formulated:

      Research question 1: To what extent, if at all, do relationships exist between self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual

consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality among faculty members at Al-Baha University?

Research question 2: To what extent, if at all, are differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality?

Research Hypotheses

Researchers have studied the relationship between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality in different fields, including manufacturing, military, education, and health. A detailed review of the related literature was provided in Chapter 2.

The literature reviewed identified numerous studies that led to the conclusion that a positive relationship exists between transformational leadership and staff job satisfaction in an organization (AbuAlRub & Alghamdi, 2012; Hussain, Abu Talib, & Shah, 2012, 2014; Chin, 2007; Harrison, 2011; Munir, Abdul Rahman, Malik, & Maamor, 2012; Nordin, 2013; Riaz & Haider, 2010; Shurbagi, 2014; Steers, 1982; Thamrin, 2012; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2004). Therefore, in light of the findings of previous research efforts, the following hypotheses have been formulated for this study to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership components (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) and faculty members' job satisfaction:

$H_0 1$: There is no relationship between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_a1:   A positive relationship exists between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_02:   There is no relationship between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_a2:   A positive relationship exists between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_03:   There is no relationship between inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_a3:   A positive relationship exists between inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_04:   There is no relationship between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_a4:   A positive relationship exists between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_05:   There is no relationship between individual consideration of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H_a5:   A positive relationship exists between individual consideration of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

Jabnoun and Al Rasasi (2005) also studied the association between transformational leadership style and service quality and found a positive correlation between service quality and transformational leadership components, concluding that service quality is significantly correlated with all transformational leadership components except charisma (idealized influence [attributed] and idealized influence [behavior]), with r ranging between .136 and .270, $p < .01$.

Hence, the following hypotheses have been formulated for this study to investigate the relationship between the transformational leadership components (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) and academic service quality:

$H_0 6$:   There is no relationship between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

$H_a 6$:   A positive relationship exists between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

$H_0 7$:   There is no relationship between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

$H_a 7$:   A positive relationship exists between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H$_0$8:   There is no relationship between inspirational motivations of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H$_a$8:   A positive relationship exists between inspirational motivations of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H$_0$9:   There is no relationship between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H$_a$9:   A positive relationship exists between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H$_0$10:   There is no relationship between individual considerations of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

H$_a$10:   A positive relationship exists between individual considerations of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

Naser et al. (2013) also studied the relationship between job satisfaction and service quality by conducting a descriptive and correlational study to investigate the relationship between internal service quality and the job satisfaction of the physical education faculty members at Islamic Azad University, Iran. In the study, the participants were 38 physical education faculty members. The study findings showed a significant, positive correlation

between internal service quality and job satisfaction ($r = .432$, $p < .001$). The findings also revealed a positive relationship between internal service quality in organizational level and job satisfaction at a significant level ($r = .627$, $p < .001$).

Dehaghani, Najafi, and Mahdavipur (2015) studied the relationship between service quality and job satisfaction in private banks located in Chaharmahal and Bakhtiari province in Isfahan, Iran. Participants included of employees and consumers of the bank. A significant relationship emerged between service quality and job satisfaction (standardized $B = 0.889$, $p < .001$), and between job satisfaction and customer satisfaction (standardized $B = 0.835$, $p < .001$). Hence, the following hypothesis has been formulated for this study to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and academic service quality:

$H_0 11$: There is no relationship between job satisfaction and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

$H_a 11$: A positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University.

Finally, the following hypotheses were created to investigate the relationship between respondents' demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position), self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration), job satisfaction and academic service quality.

$H_0 12$: The gender of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual

consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

H_a12: The gender of faculty members differentiates their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

H_013: The age of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

H_a13: The age of faculty members differentiates their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

H_014: The current position of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

H$_a$14:   The current position of faculty members differentiates their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

H$_0$15:   The number of years spent by faculty members in their current position does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

H$_a$15:   The number of years spent by faculty members in their current position differentiates their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

Theoretical Framework and Research Model

Several researchers revealed in previous studies that strong and positive relationships exist between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality (Bass, 1990; Jabnoun & Al Rasasi, 2005; Munir et al., 2012), while the relationships between service quality and customer satisfaction remain at the forefront of many research endeavors (Bloemer, De Ruyter, & Peeters, 1998; Brown & Swartz, 1989; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Lassar, Manolis, & Winsor, 2000). Spreng and Mackoy (1996) found that expectations have a positive effect on satisfaction and perceived service quality through perceived performance.

It is important for service providers, managers, and researchers to know whether an association exists between customer satisfaction and service quality. It is hoped that answers to the current study's research questions lead to two important conclusions: (a) whether their objective should be to satisfy their customers with an adequate performance and (b) whether to deliver the highest level of perceived service quality (Cronin & Taylor, 1992).

Transformational leadership is crucial for encouraging trust to instill confidence in followers toward change, improvements, and effectiveness (Barnett, McCorm, & Conners, 2001), especially in an educational environment. Leaders are believed to be in charge of paving the way for strategic changes in organizational culture (Clark, Hartline, & Jones, 2009). Clark et al. (2009) also noted that strategies include increasing employees' capabilities by allowing them to maintain a higher level of professionalism. Similarly, Jabnoun and Al Rasasi (2005) found that service quality has a positive relationship with all dimensions of transformational leadership; r ranged between 136 and 270, with significance at .01, except for charisma and tangibles that were not significant. Researchers of different studies have revealed that a positive relationship exists between transformational leadership, faculty members' job satisfaction, and academic service quality (Jabnoun & Al Rasasi, 2005; Munir et al., 2012).

Figure 1 shows the predicted relationships between the three variables under investigation: transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. The correlation between the three variables will provide for a more in-depth analysis of the nature of the relationship among the variables under investigation than what exists in prior research. Incorporating the demographic characteristics of the respondents into the research model will provide a better understanding of the association between transformational leadership, job

satisfaction, and academic service quality as differentiated by respondents' demographic

characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position).
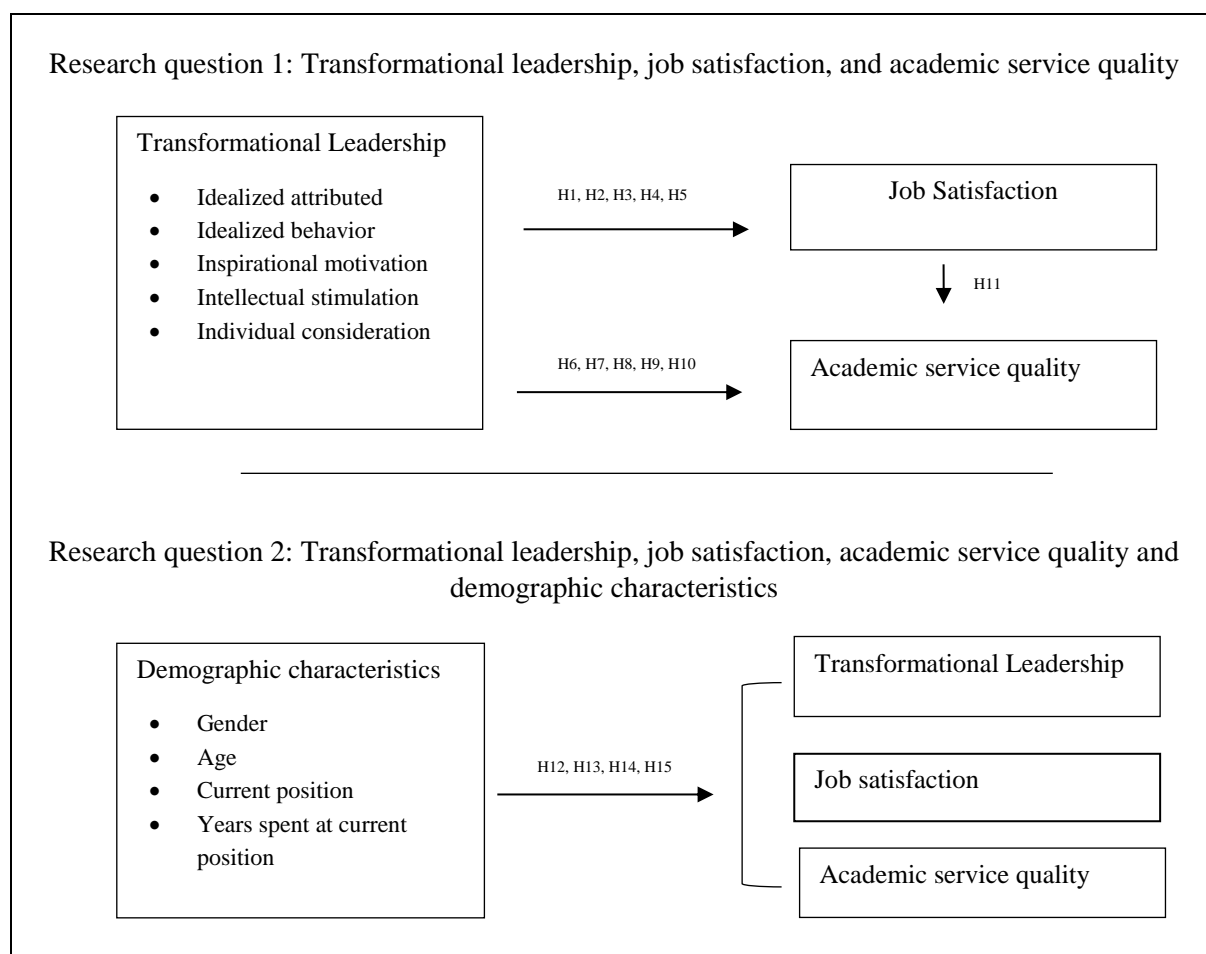
Figure 1. Variables within the current study.

Importance of the Study

       Understanding and modeling these relationships is an important contribution to the field

of educational leadership literature. The results of this study may be beneficial to academic

leaders at Al-Baha University, who might use them to guide decisions for improving the

academic service of their institutions, and to other academic leaders in higher education. The

results of this study may be valuable for understanding the possible factors for the sustainable

development of higher education. Academic leaders face numerous challenges, including

academic service quality. Academic leaders may cope better with current and future challenges by assessing the influences of transformational leadership and job satisfaction on academic service quality. The current study may further assist higher education leadership to readdress their relationship with faculty members.

Limitations

The study is constrained by several limitations. First, the study was limited to Al-Baha University. Second, the study's subjects were Al-Baha University's faculty members who work at the university full time and hold doctorate and master's degrees. Third, the data was collected only during the spring of 2016. Fourth, the study was a cross-sectional research design in which the data was taken at one point in time within the duration of the study. Also, this study was purely quantitative and used questionnaires and statistical evidence. Additionally, age was a confounding variable in this study, and the method of stratification was used to control it. Another limitation is that the study only focused on overall job satisfaction and academic service quality, without including their dimensions. Job satisfaction and service quality were collectively analyzed; their dimensions (intrinsic and extrinsic factors of job satisfaction, and tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy factors of service quality) were not individually analyzed in the research model. Lastly, low levels of evidence of construct validity were observed for the following scales of the MSQ: independence, activity, moral values, compensation, recognition, security, social status, working conditions, and social service.

Definitions of Terms

The following definitions and terms are used throughout this study:

Academic service quality. "The difference between what a student expects to receive and his/her perceptions of actual delivery" (O'Neill & Palmer, 2004, p. 42).

Assurance. The employee's knowledge and the capability of the firm and its employees to inspire trust and confidence (Baron & Harris, 2003; Christopher, Payne, & Ballantine, 1991; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000).

Empathy. Caring and giving individualized attentions to firms' customers (Baron & Harris, 2003; Christopher et al., 1991; Lassar et al., 2000; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000).

Idealized influence. Providing followers with confidence, vision, and setting high standards for emulation" (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Idealized influence (attributed). Attributions of followers based on perceptions they have about their leaders (Northouse, 2016).

Idealized influence (behavior). Followers' observations of their leaders' behaviors (Northouse, 2016).

Individualized consideration. Treating each follower as "an individual and providing coaching, mentoring and growth opportunities" (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999, p. 9).

Inspirational motivation. Challenging followers and getting them engaged in shared goals and values to complete (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Intellectual stimulation. "Incorporating an open architecture dynamic into processes of situation evaluation, vision formulation and patterns of implementation" (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999, p. 188).

Job satisfaction. "The pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 317).

Leadership. "A process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2010, p. 3).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X. A self-administered survey instrument questionnaire consisting of 45 items that measure different leadership styles (Avolio et al., 1995).

Reliability. Performing and delivering the promised service that is reliable and accurate with respect to service provision and problem resolution. Dependability and accuracy include performing the service right the first time and honoring promises over a period of time (Lassar et al., 2000).

Responsiveness. The readiness of employees to provide prompt service and assistance for their customers (Lassar et al., 2000).

Service quality. "A focused evaluation that reflects the customer's perception of specific dimensions of service: reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy, tangibles" (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003, p. 85).

Tangibility. The appearance of a firm's facilities and equipment from a physical standpoint. It also includes the appearance of the staff, additionally, the communication materials used to provide the service (Baron & Harris, 2003; Christopher et al., 1991; Lassar et al., 2000; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000).

Transactional leadership. "The process of leading that focuses on exchanging rewards and punishments for desired or undesired results of followers" (Northouse, 2010, p. 172).

Transformational leadership. "The process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower" (Northouse, 2010, p. 172).

Operational Definitions

Academic service quality. SERVPERF (Cronin & Taylor, 1992) was used to measure academic service quality from the perspective of the faculty members. The performance-only variables were measured using a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagrees* to 5 = *Strongly agrees*

Demographic characteristics. Four individual differences (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) were measured using a researcher-developed demographic questionnaire.

Job satisfaction. The intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction scales of job satisfaction were measured in the MSQ using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *very dissatisfied* to 5 = *very satisfied*.

Transformational leadership. The transformational leadership components, which are idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, were measured within the MLQ 5X-Short using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *frequently, if not always* (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Organization of Dissertation

The following description of chapters provides an overview for an interested reader to expect pertaining to division of this work. This chapter included a background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and nature of the study. This chapter also included the research questions, research hypotheses, theoretical framework, and research model. Chapter 1 concluded with the importance of the study, limitations of the study, definitions of terms, and organization of dissertation.

Chapter 2 includes a detailed description of leadership, transformational leadership, and theories of leadership. The chapter also includes a detailed description of job satisfaction and academic service quality. Chapter 2 further reviews the literature related to the intended study, including transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality.

Chapter 3 includes a discussion of the method and design selected for the study. This chapter further details the population and sampling procedures of the study. The chapter also includes an overview of the reliability of the instrumentation. Chapter 3 concludes with human subject protections, measures, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures for the study. Chapter 4 presents the results and findings from the research data collection and analysis, and Chapter 5 provides a comprehensive discussion of the results, implications, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter includes an extensive review of the existing literature related to the topics under study to gain detailed insight into previous efforts in the direction of assessing the relationship among the transformational leadership, job satisfaction and academic service quality. A comprehensive discussion of the subject matter is provided on leadership, job satisfaction, and service quality. The chapter starts with an introduction of basic literature related to the topic of leadership, including leadership styles and popular leadership theories. As the focus of this study is on transformational leadership, a thorough survey of previous studies on the transformational style of leadership is provided.

The chapter also includes insights into the existing literature related to job satisfaction, including a discussion on job satisfaction theories and related literature on job satisfaction. The chapter concludes with an exhaustive discussion on academic service quality, its relationship with customer satisfaction, and existing research related to service quality.

Leadership Definitions

Leadership has always been an essential and widely investigated topic in organizations. Thousands of empirical studies have been conducted during the past century on leadership and its various aspects (Bass, 2008). Northouse (2007) noted, "Leadership is a topic with universal appeal; in the popular press and academic research literature, much has been written about leadership" (p. 12). Kouzes and Posner (2007) indicated that leadership is a relationship between those who have the desire to lead and those who choose to follow.

Definitions of leadership vary, but they generally focus on leader capabilities, personality traits, influencing relationships, reasoning versus emotional orientation, group versus individual

orientation, and an appeal to self versus collective interests (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2011).

Northouse (2010) defined leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of

individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). Leadership has also been defined in terms of how

a leader changes the way followers think and act (Bass, 1960). Yukl (1998) defined leadership as

a process where in an individual member of a group or organization influences the

interpretation of events, the choice of objectives and strategies, the organization of work

activities, the motivation of people to achieve the objectives, the maintenance of

cooperative relationships, the development of skills and confidence by members and the

enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organization. (p.

5)

Furthermore, Kouzes and Posner (1995) defined leadership as the art of mobilizing others

to work hard for shared aspirations. This means leaders use different practices and approaches to

help their followers to move forward and make most of their capability.

The current work includes all the formal leadership definitions presented above. The

definitions provide a direction for understanding the relationship between leaders and followers.

These definitions also provide a basic framework for leaders to leverage optimally from their

followers in achieving certain objectives. The researcher has selected Northouse's (2010, p. 3)

definition of leadership as the most suitable definition for the current study because this

definition is broad and takes into consideration the vital components of leadership by stating the

crux of leadership's role.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is different from other leadership styles because of its

approach of providing a clear vision to staff and its commitment to building a strong relationship

between leaders and followers. Transformational leadership plays an important role in follower satisfaction and in turn helps organizational leaders to achieve organizational goals. Transformational leaders create extraordinary encouragement and motivation within their followers by involving employees in innovative idea building and problem solving. Transformational leadership is a popular style of leadership that has received a lot of attention from both academia and industry researchers since the early 1980s (Northouse, 2010).

Northouse (2010) defined transformational leadership as "a process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower" (p. 172), and Bass and Avolio (2004) described transformational leadership as

> a process of influencing in which leaders change their associate's awareness of what is important, and moves them to see themselves the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way, they are proactive, they seek to optimize individuals, groups, and organizational development and innovation. (p. 97)

Burns (1978) noted that transformational leadership is a process in which leaders and followers use a novel perspective to solve old problems. Robbins and Judge (2013) also presented the definition of transformational leaders as "the leaders who inspire followers to transcend their own self-interest and who are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers" (p. 417). Furthermore, Bass (1985) noted that a transformational leader stimulates followers to do more than what the leader expects them to do. Transformational leaders praise followers' desires and encourage followers to pursue their goals of achievement and self-development, as well as to promote both group and organizational development (Bass & Avolio, 1990a). Transformational leaders support their followers by looking at old problems with a new

perspective and use followers' creativity to deal with them. This style of leadership has important components, according to Bass (1990): (a) idealized influence (attributed and behavior), (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individual consideration.

Transformational leaders are passionate about leading to improve the performance of an organization. They influence their followers through proper communication and initiative based on their ability to inspire others. Bass (1985) contended that leaders can achieve a better transformational style of leadership by recognizing the value and importance of designated outcomes, putting the team and organization priorities first, and guiding followers to achieve higher levels of results. Transformational leadership is a popular style because the leaders can cope with organizational change and can recreate the existing procedures, in addition to building a strong relationship with everyone around them (Horner, 1997).

It has been almost 40 years since Burns published the seminal work introducing the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership in 1978. Bass (1999) noted that "whereas transformational leaders uplift the morale, motivation, and morals of their followers, transactional leaders cater to their follower's immediate self-interests" (p. 9). Bass (1985) extended the concept of transformational leadership by using the term transformational instead of transforming, and he explained the psychological mechanism that governs both transformational and transactional leadership. Bass also gave more attention to followers' needs than to leader's needs.

Transformational leadership did not replace transactional leadership but instead evolved over it. Bass (1998) noted, "Transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership" (p. 4). Transformational leadership adds to transactional leadership in the way

leaders behave with their followers, such as engaging them in true commitment and participating in the problem at hand (Bass, 1998). Transformational and transactional leadership theories are neither inconsistent nor incompatible. Leaders typically use both approaches, although transformational leadership is often more powerful and effective (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1985, 1998).

Burns (1978) noted that the leadership process can be either transformational or transactional. Transactional leadership is a style focused on the contingent reward of followers. Such leaders focus on enhancing followers' willingness to perform at expected levels by rewarding the acceptable performance of the followers and through clarifying role expectations when followers fail to meet performance standards (Bass, 1985). The relationship between leaders and followers is profit oriented, which makes an advantageous exchange a mutual benefit between both sides (Bass, 1990). Moreover, Bass (1985) noted, "Transactional leadership is contingent reinforcement, the leader and followers agree on what the follower needs to do to be rewarded or to avoid punishment" (p. 121). Transformational leaders encourage subordinates to do more than what the leaders originally expect by facilitating creative thinking, offering personal respect, and respecting the ideas and inspirations of the followers (Bass, 1985).

Burns (1978), Bass (1985), and Bass and Avolio (1990b) identified some differences between transformational leaders and transactional leaders. The major differences are that transactional leaders concentrate on the organization, group performance, and role of supervision. In contrast to transformational leaders, "transactional leaders do not individualize the needs of subordinates or focus on their personal development" (Northouse, 2010, p. 181). Transformational leaders influence their followers by setting goals, clarifying desired outcomes, providing feedback, and exchanging rewards for accomplishments, whereas transactional leaders

use the passive form of leadership "after standards have not been met or problems have arisen" (Northouse, 2010, p. 181). Transformational leaders focus on their followers' needs by providing them with confidence, courage, and inspiration and by placing more emphasis on followers' individual development. Furthermore, transformational leaders assess their followers' ability to fulfill current commitments, as well as envision the expansion of their future responsibilities. Transactional leaders expect followers to accomplish agreed-upon objectives but do not inspire them to assume greater responsibility (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders motivate followers to satisfy self-actualization needs and arouse latent needs rather than the lower needs in Maslow's (1954) needs hierarchy, whereas transactional leaders focus on fulfilling current follower needs. Transformational leaders empower the capacity of their followers whereas transactional leadership focuses on rewards or threats of withholding rewards (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Transformational leaders "are more satisfying to their followers and are more effective leaders" (Avolio & Bass, 1991, p. 11).

Nonleadership factor (laissez-faire) is another leadership style. According to Northouse (2010), "Non leadership Factor is a leadership style that falls at the far right side of the transactional-transformational leadership continuum" (p. 182). Leaders following the nonleadership factor style abdicate responsibility by not providing followers with important feedback and by delaying decisions, which negatively affect the organization (Northouse, 2010).

The components of transformational and transactional leadership have been identified in interviews, factor analyses, observations, descriptions of a follower's ideal leader, and using the MLQ Form 5X (Avolio & Bass, 2002). According to Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson (2003), "The distinctive components of transformational leadership are idealized influence (attributed

and behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration" (p. 208).

Idealized influence (attributed). Idealized influence (attributed) the leader shares risks with subordinates and is consistent in behavior upon their ethics, principles, and values are concerned. Avolio and Bass (2002) noted that leaders who have these traits enjoy respect, confidence, a sense of responsibility, growing optimism, and the praise of their followers. The relationship between leaders and subordinates is not based on formal institutional rules and regulations, rewards, or punishments; rather, it is based on personal understanding.

Idealized influence (behavior). Idealized influence (behavior) describes leaders' working style with their followers. It also refers to the followers' view about their leader's important traits, such as charisma, power, trust, and self-confidence. These leaders are admired by their followers and develop into role models for their followers. They emphasize a collective sense of mission and values and their actions reflect these values, beliefs, and values (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation is the extent to which a leader expresses a vision that is attractive and motivating to followers (Bass, 1985). Kouzes and Posner (2007) noted, "When visions are shared, they attract more people, sustain higher levels of motivation, and withstand more challenges than those who are singular" (p. 105). Avolio and Bass (1988) contended that leaders who adopt this style of behavior are willing to strengthen their followers' responses. Such leaders also have the ability to convey important ideas and vision to their followers. Leading by example is the main source of charisma and inspirational motivation. Transformational leaders set a good example for their followers, communicate openly and clearly, inspire them to work hard, and simplify the techniques or approaches to

pursue the organization's goals (Bass, 1999). Bass also added that transformational leaders direct followers to envision the future and lay out the expectations for followers to achieve.

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation is a leader's ability to keep followers involved in various tasks by solving problems and posing related queries (Northouse, 2010). Transformational leaders have the capability to stimulate followers' intellect by asking for ideas and preliminary solutions to problems based on their understandings, beliefs, and standards (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Furthermore, Bass (1998) noted, "Followers were encouraged to try new approaches, and their ideas should not be criticized because they differ from the leader's ideas" (p. 6).

Individualized considerations. Transformational leaders provide constant attention to individuals' needs for growth and achievement. They develop their followers' abilities while cautiously providing their followers the coaching and training necessary (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Individualized consideration is a behavior that involves delegating, empowering, supporting subordinates, and providing special consideration to each individual's needs and capabilities, rather than treating all followers in the same way (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders are always "trying to assist followers in becoming fully capable" (Northouse, 2010, p. 179).

Researchers have indicated transformational leadership is the most popular leadership style of recent times. The reason for the popularity of this style of leadership is the collective approach followed by transformational leaders within the organization. The widespread popularity and application have supported the candidature of transformational leadership as the topic of research and study for current work.

Theories of Leadership

Numerous scholarly studies have provided various theoretical approaches to clarify leadership complexities (Bass, 1990; Mumford, 2006; Rost, 1991). Since 1945, researchers have provided more than 60 different definitions of the term *leadership* (Fleishman et al., 1991). Theorists developed two perspectives of leadership. The first perspective puts the leader in a decisive position at the center of the group, where the leader holds a commanding role in representing the will of the group. The second perspective, the personality perspective, exhibits leadership as a combination of exclusive qualities and individual skills that both contribute and encourage each other to perform and achieve specific tasks and goals (Bass, 1990).

Trait theory. One of the first organized efforts to study leadership resulted in a leadership theory popularly known as trait theory. According to Northouse (2007), "The trait approach has its roots in leadership theory that suggested that certain people were born with special traits that made them great leaders" (p. 36). The trait approach has received considerable attention from different researchers to determine what specifically makes great leaders (Northouse, 2007). The basis of leadership research is the claim that great leaders enjoy special qualities and characteristics that separate them from followers (Northouse, 2007).

Trait theory concentrates on "capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status" (Bass, 2008, p. 30). Robbins and Judge (2013) asserted that trait theory focuses on personal qualities that differentiate leaders from nonleaders. Northouse (2007) indicated that individuals need to possess certain traits to become successful leaders, including "intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability" (p. 23). Similarly, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) considered integrity, honesty, cognitive ability, and self-confidence as qualities all

people have, both leaders and nonleaders, but believed that leaders possess higher significance of these qualities due to their important role in the decision-making process.

Behavioral theory. Behavioral theory is a model that highlights the performance and behavior of leaders (Northouse, 2010) and is a description of their actions, including the way they conduct themselves, the manner in which they approach their jobs, and the magnitude in which their actions can affect their subordinates. A leader's behavior is significant not only because it predicts leadership influences, but also because it can be used to determine leader's success. There are two core behavior styles: task behavior and relationship behavior (Northouse, 2007). Task behavior is concerned with structure, providing clear guidelines for subordinates, and supporting the achievement of tasks taken by the group. Relationship behavior, meanwhile, assists members in building a suitable environment for their work. Using these two approaches leads to important results, such as enhancing subordinates' performance, increased satisfaction toward job, and increased satisfaction toward organization.

Blake and Mouton (1964) believed that the organizational objectives that managers try to achieve are centered on workload, attention to policy, product development, sale volume, and process issues. Furthermore, providing employees with instructions and guidelines will encourage them to feel comfortable, motivated, and able to collaborate with others to achieve good results (Northouse, 2010).

One of the early leading studies on the behavioral approach of leaders was conducted at Ohio State University and focused on leaders' behaviors. In this study, subordinates were asked to questions to analyze how their leaders acted while leading their groups. The subordinates were also asked to identify "the number of times their leaders engaged in certain types of behaviors" (Northouse, 2010, p. 70). The original questionnaire consisted of 1,800 items about a wide

variety of managerial aspects. One hundred fifty questions were selected to form the Leader
Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Hundreds of researchers tested the LBDQ in
different fields, including education, military, and industrial setups (Northouse, 2010). A
shortened version of the LBDQ, The LBDQ-XII, was published by Stogdill in 1963 and became
the most widely used instrument in leadership research.

Northouse (2009) noted, "McGregor believed that managers need to understand their core
assumptions about human nature and assess how these assumptions relate to their managerial
practice" (p. 36). Moreover, McGregor wanted to know how managers perceive the motivation
of their subordinates toward their job satisfaction. McGregor (1960, 1966) devised two types of
organizational leadership theories named Theory X and Theory Y. The motive behind the two
theories was to help leaders better understand human behaviors and to help leaders deal with
their subordinates. McGregor's Theory X assumes that people dislike work, need to be directed
and controlled, and want security rather than responsibility. In contrast to Theory X, Theory Y
assumes that people are motivated and have the desire to seek responsibility (Northouse, 2009).
Based on these assumptions about human behavior, leaders can evaluate their actions, which will
help them make proper changes to improve their leadership styles.

Path-goal theory. Path-goal theory is another important theory in the field of leadership
research. This theory demonstrates how leaders motivate followers to get tasks completed
(Northouse, 2007). Based on studies by Evans (1970) and House (1971), the leader's main
responsibility, according to the path-goal theory, is to promote the development of subordinates
and to provide guidelines and recommendations based on the behavioral characteristics of the
followers. The path-goal theory's conviction is that this approach will ultimately fulfill the
desired goals and objectives. Furthermore, House (1996) contended that the path-goal theory

is the notion that individuals in positions of authority will be effective to the extent that they complement the environment in which their subordinates work by providing the necessary cognitive clarifications to ensure that subordinates expect that they can attain work goals and that they will experience intrinsic satisfaction and receive valid rewards as a result of work goal attainment. (p. 326)

According to Northouse (2010), path-goal theory highlights the relationship among leader's style, follower's characteristics, and the actual work. Path-goal theory indicates that the main responsibility of effective leadership is to focus on subordinates' needs and to leverage their abilities to achieve the organizational goals (Northouse, 2010).

The path-goal theory has several positive features (Northouse, 2010). First, it provides a theoretical framework that helps in understanding different leadership styles that affect a follower's job satisfaction. Moreover, it attempts to assimilate the principle of motivation with leadership theory. House and Mitchell (1974) noted that a leader's behavior might vary at times and range from being a directive leader, a supportive leader, a participative leader, and many times an achievement-oriented leader. According to directive leadership, leaders should provide their expectations to the subordinates. Directive leaders offer clear directions and formulate solid strategies. A directive leader's job is to help subordinates by providing them with recommendations and directions to achieve the desired goal. To make this approach work, "it is essential that they [leaders] determine where subordinates are on the developmental continuum and adapt their leadership style, so they directly match their style to that developmental level" (Northouse, 2010, p. 93). Supportive leadership describes leaders who are approachable, friendly, and caring. Supportive leaders also pay attention to building a pleasant and healthy work environment. Participative leadership characterizes leaders who share the vision of the

organization, consult with subordinates, ask for ideas and opinions, and take them into consideration. Achievement-oriented leadership characterizes leaders who challenge and encourage their subordinates to accomplish work at the highest possible level.

Situational theory. According to Northouse (1997), the situational theory of leadership requires a leader to focus on situations. The situational theory needs a special kind of leadership skill that fits according to the situation. Therefore, leaders following situational theory must determine how they dynamically adapt to improve their approach to fit in a new situation. The basic principle of the situational theory is based on providing the most suitable kind of leadership styles under different situation demands (Northouse, 1997).

Northouse (2010) noted that situational leadership is "composed of both directive and supportive style of leadership, and that each has to be applied appropriately according to the situation" (p. 89). Leaders must determine what works best for a particular situation and evaluate their followers' abilities and commitments to perform or accomplish their jobs. Based on the evaluation, leaders can choose the style of leadership suitable to achieve the desired results (Northouse, 2010).

Skills theory. Skills theory is a description of leadership skills that distinguishes leaders from followers. According to skills theory, followers lack some of the skills that make leaders effective and willing to help subordinates in any organization. Leadership skills, as defined by Northouse (2010), refer to "the ability to use one's knowledge and competencies to accomplish a set of goals or objectives" (p. 40). Moreover, Katz (1955) studied skills theory and concluded that leadership skill is "an ability which can be developed, not necessarily inborn, and which is manifested in performance, not merely potential" (pp. 33-34). Katz (1955) also outlined three categories of skills that leaders need to possess: technical skills, human skills, and conceptual

skills. Goleman (1998) also described three substantial domains of leadership skills: technical skills, cognitive abilities, and competencies.

Technical skills refer to "knowledge and proficiency in a specific type of work or activity" (Northouse, 2010, p. 40). Technical skills include competencies in some specific areas and the ability to use different tools and investigative methods that fit the situation and requirements (Katz, 1955). Human skills are the "knowledge and ability to work with people" (Northouse, 2010, p. 40). Conceptual skills represent the capability to play with ideas and concepts. Conceptual skills are important for leaders to create visions and to execute their strategic plans successfully. Northouse (2010) affirmed that technical skills and human skills are necessary in lower and middle-management levels, whereas conceptual skills are necessary at upper management levels. Moreover, human skills are essential for middle managers because they need to communicate with their subordinates in all directions throughout the organization to transport their messages clearly and in a timely manner.

Research Related to Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership has been repeatedly studied in industry, military, and education and has emerged as a popular leadership style (Bass, 1998; Northouse, 2010). Studying leadership is necessary because leaders have the ability to help transform both individuals and organizations into successful business entities. Avolio and Bass (2002) noted that transformational leaders act in special ways that allow them to serve as role models for their followers. Transformational leaders employ different ways to motivate and inspire their followers by providing reasons and challenges to achieve desired organizational results (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Transformational leaders focus their attention on each worker's needs and

support their individual growth and success. The leaders use their influence to create a healthy work culture that encourages followers to attain the highest level of potential.

Hussain et al. (2012) used a qualitative method to examine the influence of transformational leadership style on both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction in Iraqi higher education. Hussain et al. surveyed 280 academic staff members from 10 public universities using the MLQ and the MSQ tools for data collection. Hussain et al. found a strong correlation between transformational leadership and both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction dimensions.

Organizational commitment has an important place in organizational behavior studies. Mowday et al., (1982) noted that researchers focused on investigating organizational commitment as an important predictor of employees' behavior and intentions to stay in their job. Atmojo (2012) conducted a study to examine the influence of transformational leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee performance, and the influence of organizational commitment toward employee performance. Atmojo surveyed 146 middle managers. The findings revealed that transformational leadership considerably influenced employees' job satisfaction. They also concluded that organizational commitment and job satisfaction had a major influence on employee performance. Another study conducted on a sample of staff nurses working in a large hospital in Singapore by Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004) revealed a similar positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

Walumbwa et al. (2005) examined the relationship between transformational leadership and two work-related attitudes, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, by comparing Kenya and the United States. The participants were from Kenyan and U.S. banks. One hundred fifty-eight participants from Kenyan banks and 189 participants from U.S. banks participated in

the study. The findings showed that transformational leadership had a positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in both countries. The result showed that means of values for transformational leadership were higher in the United States than in Kenya. Walumbwa et al. also found no substantial difference in results for organizational commitment and work satisfaction for the countries.

Walumbwa et al. (2004) used a sample of bank employees from China and India, and the results showed that transformational leadership is positively connected to the collective efficacy of an organization. Geyer and Steyrer (1998) conducted similar studies in banks using a sample of Australian and Canadian community banking managers. The results showed that an important relationship existed between transformational leadership and employees' levels of performance and commitment.

In 2012, Thamrin analyzed the impact of transformational leadership and organizational commitment on employee performance and job satisfaction by surveying 105 employees of shipping companies in Jakarta, Indonesia. Structural equation modeling was used to examine the data. The findings of the study revealed that transformational leadership has a positive influence on organizational commitment and employee's performance. Whether organizational commitment had a positive influence on job satisfaction and employee performance was also analyzed. Thamrin's findings showed that transformational leadership had no influence on job satisfaction. The preceding discussion indicated the important role of transformational leadership on a subordinate's organizational commitment, which in turn increases employee's productivity.

Several researchers have also revealed a substantial influence between leadership style, organizational commitment, employee performance, and employee job satisfaction. Bushra, Usman, and Naveed (2011), Stander and Rothmann (2008), and Metwally, El-bishbishy, and

Nawar (2014) concluded that transformational leadership has a major influence on subordinates' level of satisfaction, performance, and commitment. Alamir (2010) examined the strength and importance of the links between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and organizational outcomes in private Syrian organizations. The sample consisted of 502 participants from six Syrian organizations. Instruments used to collect the data included demographic questionnaires: the MLQ (Bass, 1985) and the MSQ (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967). The findings indicated that transformational leadership style was a more popular leadership style than transactional leadership style among the six private organizations. The study also revealed that both transformational and transactional leadership had a positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the six private organizations. Moreover, the correlation and regression analysis of the data showed that both transformational and transactional leadership styles relate to satisfaction and organizational commitment. Transformational leadership emerged as a model that can be implemented to move forward in an organization where employees are unsatisfied with present working conditions. Adopting the transformational leadership style will increase organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, productivity, and enhanced performance from followers.

Ismail et al. (2009) conducted a study to measure the effect of transformational leadership characteristics (intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) and empowerment on service quality. One hundred ten questionnaires were collected from employees working in a city-based local authority in Sarawak, Malaysia. The researchers were particularly interested in seeing if empowerment mediates the effect of intellectual simulation and individualized consideration on employees' service quality. The stepwise regression analysis of the collected data showed that the relationship between empowerment and the two selected characteristics of

transformational leadership are significantly correlated with service quality (β = .63, *p* = .000). The findings confirmed that empowerment does act as a mediating variable in the leadership model designed over the two characteristics of transformational leadership (intellectual simulation and individual consideration) and service quality.

Sadeghi and Pihie (2013) examined the role of transformational leadership in enhancing lecturers' job satisfaction. The purpose of their study was to investigate the influence of transformational leadership style used by department heads on lecturers' job satisfaction in Malaysian research universities. The researchers surveyed 305 lecturers and used two standard questionnaires: the MLQ 5X developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) and the Wood Faculty Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Scale developed by Wood (1976). Sadeghi and Pihie found that the two components of transformational leadership that received the highest mean score and were used by most of the department heads were inspirational motivation and idealized influence. The findings also showed that transformational leadership had the greatest effect on improving the lecturer's job satisfaction compared to other leadership styles. Sadeghi and Pihie noted a need for more training programs to enhance the required knowledge and hence to enhance job satisfaction. Another recommendation was to improve administrative strategies and assess education polices to improve the levels of job satisfaction among lecturers. Similarly, Munir, Abdul Rahman, Malik, and Maamor (2012) found a significant and positive relationship between transformational leadership and academic staff job satisfaction with (*r* = .725, *p* < .00) on a sample consisted of 214 of UiTM university academic staff.

Chin (2007) investigated whether transformational leadership at schools affects teacher job satisfaction, school effectiveness as perceived by teachers, and student achievements in Taiwan and the United States. The findings revealed a significant relationship between

transformational leadership as defined by the MLQ and student achievement ($r = .487$, $p < .001$). The result also indicated that transformational leadership matters more in the United States than in Taiwan.

Harrison (2011) examined the transformational leadership style of leadership employed by instructors on students in two online graduate leadership programs at Gonzaga University in Spokane, Washington, and Regent University in Virginia Beach, Virginia. Harrison aimed to examine the correlation between students' perception of instructors' transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. The researchers also studied the relationship between leadership and its impact on student learning, student communication satisfaction, and students' perceptions of instructor reliability. Harrison used regression analysis to determine the relationships. The result revealed a positive correlation between number of courses taken previously from the instructor and transformational leadership ($r = .14$, $p < .05$). The analysis of the study revealed an instructor's transformational leadership style was a better predictor than the transactional leadership style of students' cognitive learning, students' affective learning, students' communication satisfaction, and students' perceptions of teacher credibility (Harrison, 2011).

Purvanova and Bono (2009) studied employees' performance and satisfaction in virtual organizations compared to nonvirtual organizations under the transformational style of leadership. The four components of transformational leadership, namely idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, were studied in detail. The results of the study indicated that under transformational leadership, employees are more satisfied and productive than employees whose leaders have other leadership styles.

Instructors who demonstrate transformational leadership can positively influence students' behavior, perception, and learning outcomes (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009). Gill et al. (2010) studied the impact of transformational leadership style employed by instructors on students' educational satisfaction and students' mental stress. The study was carried out at colleges and universities in British Columbia, Canada. Of the total sample of 800 students, only 204 students fully completed the survey. Gill et al. concluded from their findings, that students' educational satisfaction at both undergraduate and graduate levels was positively related to instructors' use of transformational leadership style. Additionally, the result found a negative relationship between transformational leadership and students' stress.

Riaz and Haider (2010) and Walumbwa et al. (2004) found positive influences of transformational leadership on a follower's organizational commitment, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and work outcomes. AbuAlRub and Alghamdi (2012) examined the influence of leadership styles of nurse managers on nurses in Saudi Arabia. The study was intended to measure nurses' job satisfaction and their intention to stay at work under various leadership styles. Three hundred eight nurses participated in the survey in which leadership style and job satisfaction were measured using standard measurements tools, the MLQ, and the JSS. The researchers found a positive correlation between transformational leadership style and nurses' job satisfaction ($r = .45$, $p < .001$). The relationship between transactional leadership style and job satisfaction was significantly weak ($r = .14$, $p < .01$). AbuAlRub and Alghamdi concluded that nurses in Saudi Arabia were moderately satisfied in their jobs. Moreover, nurses in Saudi Arabia whose leaders used the transformational leadership style were more satisfied with their jobs and therefore planned to remain in their job, unlike nurses who worked under transactional leaders. Similarly, in Jordan, AbuAlRub and Alghamdi (2012) surveyed 308 nurses to examine

the relationship between transformational leadership and nurses' job satisfaction, and they found that the intention to stay at work increased as a result of the increase in their job satisfaction.

Kudo et al. (2006) conducted a study in Japan to study the relationship between the intention to stay at the job and job satisfaction among Japanese nurses in small and medium-sized private hospitals. The participants for the study were 556 nurses. The results revealed an important correlation between overall job satisfaction and intention to stay at job. The results also showed that the older the nurses are, the more satisfied they could be.

Other researchers have conducted studies to discover the relationship between transformational leadership and nurses' job satisfaction (Chen, Beck, & Amos, 2005; Shieh, Mills, & Waltz, 2001; Wang, Chontawan, & Nantsupawat, 2011). These conclusions supported AbuAlRub, Omari, and Al-Zaru's (2009) and AbuAlRub and Alghamdi's (2012) studies that indicated nurses who enjoy a high level of job satisfaction showed greater intention to continue in their current work under transformational leadership.

Al-Tarawneh, Alhamadani, and Mohammad (2012) examined the impact of transformational leadership on marketing effectiveness in commercial banks in Jordan from employees' perspective. The MLQ was used to measure the transformational leadership dimensions. Al-Tarawneh et al. selected 423 workers to participate in the study to examine the influence of leadership on marketing effectiveness in Jordan banks as perceived by employees. The results showed a substantial level of influence of leadership on marketing effectiveness in commercial banks. In addition, the results showed that the intellectual stimulation factor had a much higher mean, followed by inspirational motivation, whereas individualized consideration had the lowest mean represented. That means the four dimensions of transformational leadership considerably increase the level of marketing effectiveness.

Several researchers have also shown a substantial influence of transformational leadership style on commitment, effectiveness, performance, and job satisfaction. Nordin (2013), Rukmani, Ramesh, and Jayakrishnan (2010), Erkutlu (2008), and Shurbagi (2014) noted that leadership style has an effective influence on commitment and job satisfaction. The researchers recommended the transformational leadership style to motivate, inspire, and encourage followers to remain satisfied and to work in collaboration toward achieving their organization's goal rather than their personal targets.

Talib, Shah, and Hussain (2014) studied the influence of transformational leadership dimensions on marketing innovation in Iraqi public universities to explore the effect of transformational leadership on marketing innovation in Iraqi public higher educational institutions. Talib et al. collected the data from 380 academic staff members at 10 public universities. The study results showed that the transformational leadership dimensions have an important impact on marketing innovation within the higher educational environment. Talib et al. noted that leaders are considered the key success to their organizations as they offer directions and encourage their employees to be motivated, creative, and innovative.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an integral part of the overall success of an effective organization. It reflects the employees' attitude toward their jobs and their organizations. According to Bernard (2012), "The term of job satisfaction was first defined by Hoppock (1935) as a combination of psychological, physical and environmental circumstances that causes a person to say, I am satisfied with my job" (p. 286).

The concept of job satisfaction has since been defined in many different ways. From the psychological perspective of its relationship with leadership style, the notion of job satisfaction

includes multidimensional responses to one's job (Judge & Klinger, 2003). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (p. 1300). Job satisfaction is also defined as the general and optimistic feeling of employees toward their jobs (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Vroom, 1964). Furthermore, Robbins and Judge (2013) described job satisfaction as a "positive feeling about a job, resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics" (p. 108). Spector (1997) also defined job satisfaction as the degree to which people like or dislike their jobs. Moreover, Cranny, Smith, and Stone (1992) defined job satisfaction as "an affective (that is, emotional) reaction to one's job, resulting from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (expected, deserved, and so on)" (p. 1). H. M. Weiss (2002) noted that job satisfaction is an attitude and indicated that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation, including effect (emotion), belief, and behavior towards one's job.

From an organizational management perspective, job satisfaction research has real applications for enhancing individual lives and organizational efficiency. Therefore, job satisfaction has been used as a technique to attract and maintain the best employees to stay with the organizations. Employers must create positive working environments and empower employees through trusted leadership, innovation, and productivity (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). According to Cranny et al. (1992), "Greater job satisfaction means better quality of life, better health, more job stability, and probably greater cooperativeness" (p. 45).

Different methods to measure job satisfaction are available in literature and practices. According to Mishra (2013), a Likert-type scale is a popular technique for collecting data regarding job satisfaction. Mishra also mentioned other less common techniques of collecting data regarding job satisfaction, such as yes/no questions, true/false questions, point systems,

checklists, and forced choice answers (Mishra, 2013). The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is a job satisfaction measurement developed by Smith et al. (1969) that includes five facets: pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself. Spector (1997) considered JDI as an important and popular job satisfaction assessment tool for researchers. Job satisfaction is also the most commonly investigated dependent variable in industrial organizational psychology (Staw, 1984). Vroom (1964) noted that the JDI is the most suitable measure of job satisfaction because of its popularity and extensive use. More than 12,400 published studies have used the JDI to measure job satisfaction (Spector, 1996). The JDI is a reasonable measure for researchers to examine employees' level of satisfaction (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002).

Other tools for evaluating job satisfaction based on questionnaires are MSQ, JSS, and the Faces Scale. The MSQ was designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with his or her job (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ consists of two forms: the long form and the short form. The long form includes up to 100 questions based on 20 subscales that aim to measure satisfaction with "ability, utilization, achievement, activity, advancement, authority, company policies and practices, compensation, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision-human relations, supervision-technical variety, and working conditions" (Fields, 2002, p. 7). The short form of the MSQ consists of 20 items and can be divided into two subscales for intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. For the current study, MSQ short form was used to measure faculty members' job satisfaction. The instrument consists of 20 items for respondents to rate their degree of job satisfaction. The MSQ is based upon Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) two-factor theory that included motivation (achievement, growth, recognition, advancement, responsibility, and work itself) and hygiene factors (supervision, pay, working conditions, coworkers, conditions, policies, job

security, status, and personal life). The MSQ is widely used in the literature and is a well-known instrument that has been stable and reasonable over time (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967).

The JSS is a 36-item questionnaire designed to measure job satisfaction based on nine factors of employment attitudes: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent coworkers, rewards, operating procedures, nature of the work, and communication (Spector, 1985). Each factor of job satisfaction has four items, and participants respond to these statements using a scale of six choices per item ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The main purpose of JSS is to encourage respondents to relate their personal area of job satisfaction with the distinguished facts of the job and to identify which of the nine factors has the greatest effect on their actual level of job satisfaction communication (Spector, 1985). The validity and reliability of a job satisfaction instrument must be evident if it is going to be used for academic research (Spector, 1985). Spector updated and reevaluated the JSS using the alpha coefficient to measure the consistency of the survey by studying a sample of 2,870 participants. The coefficient for all nine items ranged from .60 for coworker to .91 for overall satisfaction.

Researchers have conducted several studies on job satisfaction that have demonstrated similarities in their results. Some of the factors affecting job satisfaction are salary, achievement, fringe benefits, self-independence, communication, coworkers, recognition and promotion, work itself, and supervision (Kinicki et al., 2002; Malik, Nawab, Naeem, & Danish, 2010; Smith et al., 1969; Thomas, 1987).

The existing literature includes varied definitions of job satisfaction presented by various researchers in the past. The current work takes into consideration all the definitions of the term job satisfaction and validates the definition provided by Locke (1969, p. 317) as the most suitable definition of job satisfaction. The reason for this consideration was supported by the fact

that this definition is generic and facilitates both leaders and followers understanding the correct sense of job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Theories

It is important for employers to lead their employees in a way that helps them to be creative, productive, motivated, and satisfied in the workplace. Vroom (1964) noted that motivation is an internal energy based on individuals' needs to inspire themselves to accomplish the desired objectives. Researchers have developed numerous theories of job satisfaction, but the factor of motivation is viewed as the key driver of job satisfaction. Some of the theories that viewed job satisfaction from this perspective are Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, Adams's (1965) equity theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, reinforcement theories, and Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory will be discussed in the following section to clarify what makes people satisfied.

Both Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory can help to identify the reasons that motivate employees, foster their productivity, and help them enjoy higher job satisfaction levels. Both researchers agreed that for an organization to remain successful, leaders must take care of their employees and satisfy their needs. The following are in-depth descriptions of Herzberg's two-factor theory and Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory.

Herzberg's two-factor or motivator hygiene theory. Herzberg's two-factor theory is a well-known motivation theory and has been considered the most popular theory in a variety of studies. Herzberg's two-factor theory divides motivation and job satisfaction into two categories of factors: motivation factors (intrinsic) and hygiene factors (extrinsic). Herzberg et al. (1959) and Herzberg (1966) itemized the motivating (intrinsic) factors as recognition, achievement,

advancement, responsibility, growth, and the work itself. Although their absence will not necessarily be dissatisfying, they can increase the motivational level when present (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg et al., 1959). The hygiene factors (extrinsic) of job satisfaction consist of supervision, pay, working conditions, coworkers, policies and procedures, job security, status, and personal life (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg et al., 1959). The absence of these factors could cause dissatisfaction. Figure 2 illustrates Herzberg's hygiene factors and motivating factors.

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│                        Job Satisfaction                          │
│   ┌───────────────────────────┐   ┌───────────────────────────┐  │
│   │    Intrinsic Factors      │   │    Extrinsic Factors      │  │
│   │                           │   │                           │  │
│   │   ▪ Achievement           │   │   ▪ Supervision           │  │
│   │   ▪ Recognition           │   │   ▪ Pay                   │  │
│   │   ▪ Responsibility        │   │   ▪ Working Conditions    │  │
│   │   ▪ Advancement           │   │   ▪ Coworkers             │  │
│   │   ▪ Growth                │   │   ▪ Policies              │  │
│   │   ▪ Work Itself           │   │   ▪ Job Security          │  │
│   │                           │   │   ▪ Status                │  │
│   │                           │   │   ▪ Personal Life         │  │
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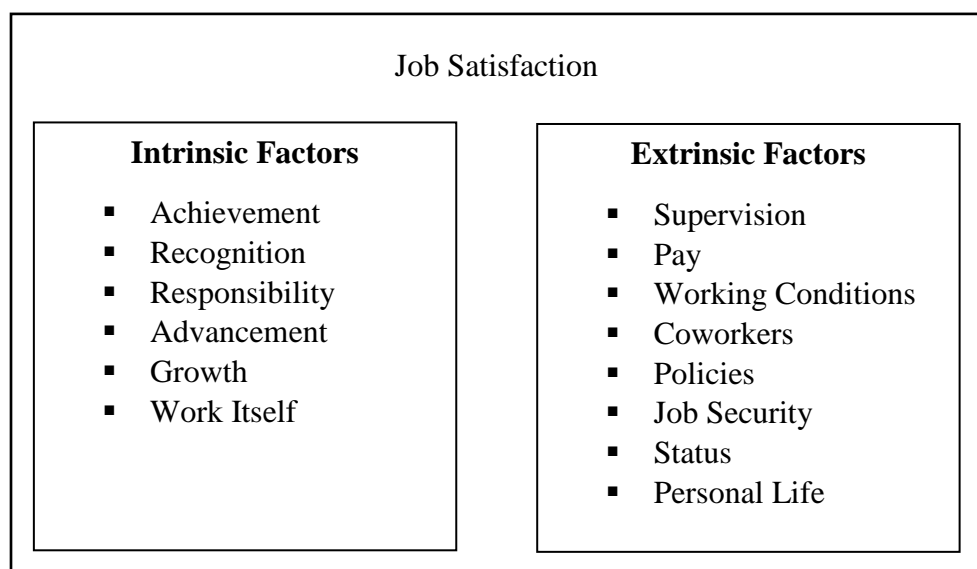
Figure 2. Herzberg's two-factor theory.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is one of the most well-known motivational theories (Robbins & Judge, 2013) and is still considered important for business organizations and for every organization that seeks to acquire success and excellence (Jerome, 2013). According to Maslow (1954), the hierarchy of needs consists of five basic levels categorized into two groups: deficiency needs and growth needs. Maslow (1943) noted that people are motivated to satisfy specific needs. When one need is satisfied, a person seeks to fulfill the next, meaning the next one becomes the dominant need to satisfy, and so on.

According to Robbins and Judge (2013), Maslow separated the five levels of needs into higher and lower orders. The five levels are discussed below in hierarchical order.

Physiological needs. Physiological needs are the basic needs for survival, such as food, water, and other biological needs. These physiological needs are considered the strongest needs that people work to satisfy.

Safety needs. After satisfying the physiological needs, individuals move up the hierarchy to satisfy their safety needs, such as security, stability, and protection from physical and emotional harm (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Maslow (1970) noted, "When the safety needs are gratified, the organism is released to seek for love, independence, respect, self-respect, etc." (p. 61).

Needs for love, affection, and belongingness. After the needs for safety and for physiological well-being are gratified, the focus moves to the next level of needs, which are social needs and involve a feeling of belongingness. These needs include acceptance, friendship, family, loving, and being loved. The absence of these elements may cause problems for individuals, as they feel lonely, develop social anxiety, and may become clinically depressed.

Needs for esteem. After satisfying the first three levels of needs, the needs for esteem become dominant. Maslow (1987) noted two versions of esteem needs: a lower one that includes the need for status, the need for respect from others, reputation recognition, prestige, and attention and a higher one that includes the need for self-respect, independence, strength, competence, self-confidence, mastery, and freedom. Fulfilling these needs will increase feelings of self-confidence and makes a person feel capable and able to do anything, whereas neglecting these needs will make a person feel inferior, weak, helpless, and worthless (Maslow, 1987).

Needs for self-actualization. When all the preceding needs are satisfied, then the needs for self-actualization may be triggered. Self-actualization "refers to a man's desire for self-fulfillment and his tendency to become actualized in what he is potentially able" (Maslow, 1970, p. 46). Some of the self-actualization needs include realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, and seeking personal growth and peak experiences (McLeod, 2007). Attaining this need may lead to transcendence, such as the experience of a strong relationship with others. Maslow (1971) contended that individuals who are satisfied meet all the elements of the hierarchy. Maslow (1971) also considered the level of self-actualization as the ultimate condition for gratification.

Maslow's (1943, 1954) needs theory expanded by three levels to become an eight-stage model. According to Maslow (1970), cognitive (knowledge and meaning) and aesthetic (appreciation and search for beauty) needs were added to the hierarchy levels, and Maslow (1970) added another transcendence beyond self-actualization (helping others to achieve self-actualization; McLeod, 2007).

Research Related to Job Satisfaction

Many researchers have discussed job satisfaction in different fields around the world. Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (p. 1300). Some researchers have contended job satisfaction is based on one's evaluation of his or her job experiences. Individuals are the most important components of any organization's success; therefore, providing an encouraging and enjoyable work environment for them is necessary. Researchers focus on identifying the factors that influence the job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of employees in different sectors and organizations, such as construction, public and private services, information technology, education, and health care.

Some researchers consider promotion and fringe benefits important factors that influence job satisfaction, whereas others believe that intrinsic and extrinsic factors such as job security, work conditions, achievement, and recognition have a greater influence on job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Thomas, 1987). Smith et al. (1969) identified five factors in the JDI that measure job satisfaction: pay, promotion and promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. These factors have been the focus of many studies, and researchers have divided them into various categories.

Castillo, Conklin, and Cano (1999) conducted a study on job satisfaction among Ohio agricultural education teachers. The purpose of the study was to investigate specific factors related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction between male and female teachers. These researchers also wanted to investigate the overall job satisfaction of male and female secondary agriculture teachers. Castillo et al. surveyed 293 agriculture teachers in Ohio, which included 81 females and 212 males. The researchers identified specific factors such as achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility, and the work itself as affecting teacher job satisfaction. They also explored job dissatisfaction factors: interpersonal relations, salary, policy, supervision, administration, and working conditions. All the job satisfaction factors except responsibility substantially related to the overall level of female agriculture teachers' job satisfaction. None of the job satisfaction factors were substantially related to the overall male agriculture teachers' job satisfaction. The findings indicated that female and male agriculture teachers in Ohio were slightly satisfied with their respective jobs.

Velnampy and Sivesan (2012) focused on identifying the factors that affect employee job satisfaction in the banking industry in Sri Lanka. One hundred twenty-six employees were surveyed, and 107 respondents completed the questionnaire. The questionnaire was suitable for

gathering the data for job satisfaction of employees in the banking sector consisted of 20 statements categorized into payments, achievements, and whether they were proud to work. The factors extracted from the analysis together accounted for 84.9% of the total variance. The results also confirmed that job satisfaction can be determined by 10 important variables: payment, whether or not they are happy to work, subordinate–supervisor relationship, direction of supervisor, achievement, promotion, appreciation, participation in decision making, whether or not they are proud to work, and enough job description.

Castillo and Cano (2004) studied factors to explore job satisfaction among faculty members using a sample of 172 faculty members in the Ohio State University. The authors found that the faculty members were generally satisfied with their job; however, female faculty members were less satisfied than male faculty members were. The results also showed that the work itself was the most motivating part and the working conditions were the least motivating. The findings also showed that factors such as recognition, relationships, and supervision defined the variability among faculty members' overall level of job satisfaction.

AL-Hinai (2013) carried out a study on identifying the factors that influence the job satisfaction of academic staff members in a public university in Oman. The survey was conducted in a college of science on 46 staff members of the university. The findings showed a positive relationship between job satisfaction; factors such as remuneration, development, and management support; and factors connected to students, colleagues, workload, and status.

Bin Edrak, Yin-Fah, Gharleghi, and Seng (2013) conducted a study in the Malaysian Amway Company's direct sales force to examine the effectiveness of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors in influencing job satisfaction. Two hundred participants were surveyed, of whom 105 were male and 95 were female. The study findings indicated that intrinsic motivation

leads to higher job satisfaction than extrinsic motivation does. Also, the study revealed that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are predictors for job satisfaction, and they both positively contributed to job satisfaction among a company's direct sales forces. Bin Edrak et al also found age was a factor that influences intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Researchers have also found age, gender, experience, and level of education to be important demographic factors that play a crucial role in job satisfaction. R. Lee and Wilbur (1985) investigated the relationship between gender and job satisfaction in the United States. They surveyed 1,707 employees who worked in county or state government, and their findings showed that overall job satisfaction of employees increased with an increase in age of employees and with an increase in job experience. Al-Saadi (1996) also found a positive relationship between an increase in age and general job satisfaction. Al-Saadi also found a positive relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and their length of experience in their job.

Gender differences and level of education are also important factors that play a role in employees' job satisfaction. Rast and Tourani (2012) conducted a study in the aviation industry in Iran to determine the level of employees' job satisfaction and to investigate the effect of gender on employee's job satisfaction. The data were collected using a survey with 315 employees. The findings showed no substantial differences between male and female employees' job satisfaction, and the employees were moderately satisfied with their job. Similarly, Manafi, Gheshmi, and Hojabri (2012) studied the impact of different job dimensions on job satisfaction and tendency to leave. The findings showed no major difference in the level of job satisfaction between both genders. The result also showed a major difference in the level of job satisfaction between years of employment of sales representatives and ages. Shekhar and Devi (2012) focused on job satisfaction when investigating gender-related differences and differences across

academic majors among college students. They surveyed 80 undergraduate college students, which included 40 males and 40 females between 18 and 23 years of age. The study results showed an important difference between the achievement motivation of male and female students and between the achievement motivations among science and arts stream students. The difference indicated the role of gender and academic majors in the achievement motivation of college students. Shekhar and Devi noted that the females in the study saw themselves as really achieving and having good attitudes toward school. In contrast, males in the study were more susceptible to underachieving and being less valued. Shekhar and Devi noted their findings supported existing research conducted by Martin (2004), who noted females scored higher than males in the area of achievement.

Gambrell, Rehfuss, Suarez, and Meyer (2011) conducted a similar study and examined the job satisfaction of counselors in several specialties and across educational levels. They surveyed 477 counselors with at least a master's degree who worked at least part time. The study indicated that doctoral level counselors were more satisfied with promotion opportunities than master's level counselors were.

Speers (2004) surveyed 200 full-time employees at Goodwill Industries of Greater Grand Rapids to identify the variables that affect employees' job satisfaction. Speers divided these variables into two groups: hard and soft variables. The hard variables were those that could be measured, such as salary, compensation, and benefits, whereas soft variables were less measurable, such as relationship and communication. The results showed that soft variables affect job satisfaction more than hard variables. Further, the results revealed that relationships with direct supervisors and coworkers were the most influencing factors for employees' job satisfaction. Of the 200 employees surveyed, only 32 participated. Although the results could not

be considered representative of the entire workforce at Goodwill Industries of Greater Grand Rapids, the findings indicated that 72% of the participants were satisfied and 18% were neutral. Therefore, the overall conclusion indicated that the majority of the employees were satisfied, and not a single employee was unsatisfied.

Faculty job satisfaction in higher educational institutions is essential because satisfied faculty members are motivated and committed, and their behavior toward students remains admissible. Nandan and Krishna (2013) identified factors that affect faculty job satisfaction in higher education, analyzed the relative influence of these factors, and suggested a policy initiative for the institutions to raise their staff's job satisfaction. They surveyed a sample of 549 staff and concluded that job satisfaction was higher among associate professors than among professors. They also concluded that job satisfaction is higher among faculty members with doctoral degrees than among faculty members without doctoral degrees. Additionally, the results indicated a higher level of job satisfaction among younger faculty than among older faculty.

Al-harbi (1994) conducted a study at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The purpose of the study was to investigate staff members' level of job satisfaction. Two hundred nine staff members were surveyed, and the study findings showed that the level of job satisfaction among staff members was low. The researchers also analyzed the relationship between job satisfaction and different variables such as nationality and years of experience. The results showed that the faculty members having Saudi Arabian nationality with higher qualifications and more work experience were less satisfied than other nationalities with the same qualifications and work experience.

Malik et al. (2010) studied the impact of job satisfaction on the organizational commitment of university teachers in the public sector in Pakistan. The findings of the study

revealed that factors such as quality of supervision, pay, and work itself positively influence the organizational commitment of faculty members. In the 2011 annual survey of the Higher Education Research Institute conducted at the University of California, Los Angeles, 23,824 full-time faculty members in 417 colleges and universities participated. The survey results showed the perceived importance of faculty members' job satisfaction, with the vast majority expressing their satisfaction with many aspects of their jobs. Eighty-six percent of the faculty members were satisfied with the autonomy and independence, 92% were satisfied with the freedom to determine course content, and 75% were satisfied with their overall job. The only aspect for which the majority was not quite satisfied was salary, as only 49% of the faculty members were satisfied with their salaries (Higher Education Research Institute, 1989).

Jamaludin, Hashim, and Mahmood (2014) conducted a study to discuss job satisfaction as a mediating factor on the relationship between transactional leadership style and the commitment to service quality among academic staff in public and private Malaysian universities. Jamaludin et al. employed a quantitative cross-sectional research technique by surveying 1,076 academic staff members in selected public and private universities in Malaysia. Of the 1,076 questionnaires, 387 were completed and used for analysis, for a response rate of 36%. The results on including job satisfaction as a mediating variable for the relationship between transactional leadership style and the commitment to service quality was significant ($\beta = 0.133$, $t = 2.818$; $p < .01$). However, the relationship between transactional leadership and commitment to service quality ($\beta = 0.446$, $t = 9.777$; $p < .001$) and the relationship between job satisfaction and commitment to service quality ($\beta = 0.551$, $t = 12.94$; $p < .001$) showed a higher significance. Furthermore, the equation for R-squared, upon the inclusion of the mediating effect, turned out to be .317 significantly higher than .124 in the first model where the

mediating effect was not included. These findings indicated that job satisfaction partially

mediated the relationship between perceived transactional leadership and commitment to

service quality among academic staff at the Malaysian universities.

Service Quality

Service quality refers to consumers' attitude toward the perceived overall superiority and

excellence of the provided service (Parasuraman et al., 1988). Perceived service quality, as

described by Grönroos (1984), is a global judgment by consumers regarding their expectations

for a certain service with respect to their perceptions of the actual service performance. Service

quality is a substantial strategic value used by organizational leaders to manage business

processes to ensure complete satisfaction of their customers and to help increase competitiveness

and effectiveness of the industry (Rahaman, Abdullah, & Rahman, 2011). Service quality is a

critical contributing factor to competitiveness; therefore, it is necessary for leaders of service

organizations to determine customers' needs and requirements to design the desired service to

meet these expectations.

Education is a service industry that transforms and develops society to build a nation

(Gandhi, 2014). It is important for leaders of higher educational institutions to monitor the

quality of services in all university departments to fulfill the desires and interests of both

employees and students (Basheer & Salih, 2012).

As higher education is a major opportunity for growth, providing high service quality in

teaching and performance is important to achieve an institution's goals. Although many

researchers have studied service quality in higher education and the quality of the provided

service from students' point of view, little focus has been given to the perspective of academic

and administrative staff (Khodayari & Khodayari, 2011). The current study evaluated the quality of the provided service at Al-Baha University through perceptions of faculty members.

According to Grönroos (1984), service quality has two dimensions: the technical quality of the service and the functional quality of the service. Technical quality refers to what the business offers and the customer receives, whereas functional quality refers to how the service is offered and received. Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1991) noted that corporate quality is a third dimension. Corporate quality involves the image of the company determining the service quality, which often leads to either keeping or severing ties between customers and service providers.

Service quality can help service agencies to distinguish themselves from other organizations and to maximize their chief advantages. Khodayari and Khodayari (2011) contended that service quality in the education sector is essential for attracting and retaining both students and faculty. The education sector does not involve any actual products. Rather, the provided services are perceived as the competitive demarcation between institutions in terms of their superiority in providing quality education.

The Definition of Service Quality

Researchers have provided different definitions of service quality. Parasuraman et al. (1985) defined service quality as the difference between customer expectations and the perception of service quality. R. Lewis and Booms (1983) defined service quality as a "measure of how well the service level delivered matches the customer's expectations" (p.100). The improvement in service quality in higher education depends on an institution's ability to provide a climate and culture conducive to improvement through its various decision-making systems and human resource actions (Mosadeghard, 2006). Additionally, Wisniewski (2001) defined service quality as a "concept that has aroused considerable interest and debate in the research

literature because of the difficulties in both defining it and measuring it with no overall consensus emerging on either" (p. 380). Grönroos (1990) described service as

> an activity or a series of activities of more or less intangible nature that typically, but not necessarily, take place in interactions between the customer and service employees and/or physical resources or goods and/or systems of the service provider, which are provided as solutions to customer problems. (p. 27)

According to Parasuraman et al. (1985), the concept of service quality must focus on three questions: (a) what service quality is, (b) what causes service quality problems, and (c) what service organizations can do to improve quality. Townsend (1986) defined quality in two views: quality in fact and quality in perception. Quality in fact is usually the supplier's point of view, whereas quality in perception is the customer's opinion. Quality in perception governs the type of perceptions that customers might have toward a certain service. As customers' expectations are set to change, they are ready to switch service providers if they are not satisfied or happy with the service provider (Arambewela & Hall, 2009). According to the majority of researchers, the term service quality may refer to various aspects of a service provided to a customer. O'Neill and Palmer (2004) created a definition that best describes the term service quality in light of academic institutions as "the difference between what a student expects to receive and his/her perceptions of actual delivery" (p. 42).

The Services Quality Dimensions

To understand and provide a satisfactory definition of services, the characteristics of the service must be considered. Parasuraman et al. (1988) proposed 10 dimensions of service quality analyzed with five fundamental gaps. The 10 dimensions include tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, competence, courtesy, credibility, security, access, communication, and

understanding the consumer. After defining service quality and determining the service quality

dimensions, Parasuraman et al. developed the SERVQUAL scale that measures customers'

perceptions of service quality. Later, the 10 dimensions were abbreviated into five dimensions:

tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy (Koni, Zainal, & Ibrahim, 2013);

see Table 1 for the five dimensions.

Table 1

Service Quality Dimensions

Dimensions	Definition	Items in scale
Reliability	The ability to perform the promised service dependable and accurately	4
Assurance	The knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence	5
Tangibles	The appearance of physical facilities equipment, personnel and communication materials	4
Empathy	The provision of caring, individualized attention to customers	5
Responsiveness	The willingness to help customers and to provide prompt service	4

The original SERVQUAL survey was designed to assess businesses in the service sector

and organizations (Parasuraman et al., 1988). The questionnaire consisted of 22 prompts, with

each posed twice, first regarding expectations and then regarding performance, for a total of 44

items, to provide a measure of the five dimensions of service quality: reliability, assurance,

responsiveness, empathy, and tangibles. For each statement, SERVQUAL respondents give their

opinion of the provided service on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1)

to *strongly agree* (7; Bolton & Drew, 1991a). The following are descriptions of the five

dimensions of service quality.

Reliability. Zeithaml et al. (2006) defined reliability as the ability to execute a promised

service dependably and accurately. Parasuraman et al. (1988) noted that reliability is the

foundation of service quality, which relies on helping and solving customers' service problems,

such as performing services correctly the first time, providing services at the promised time, and making the service free from any errors or mistakes. Zeithaml et al. claimed that reliability is an important factor in conventional services. Prasad and Jha (2013) contended that reliability refers to the accuracy and dependability with which a teaching service is provided.

Assurance. Assurance refers to "the employee's knowledge and courtesy and the service provider's ability to inspire trust and confidence" (Zeithaml et al., 2006, p. 119). Trust and confidence may be personified in the person connecting the customer to the company (Zeithaml et al., 2006). Therefore, creating strong relationships between management and employees in the organization is necessary and ultimately leads to gaining competitive advantages.

Tangibles. Tangibility refers to something that employees and customers can physically observed. Parasuraman et al. (1985), as well as Zeithaml and Bitner (2000), defined tangibility as the appearance of the physical services, equipment, employees' appearance, and written and communication materials. In the education sector, tangibility normally refers to the availability of resources such as technology, offices, and tutorial rooms (Gandhi, 2014). Customers derive their insight into service quality by comparing tangibility with the services delivered. Organizational leaders who want to stay successful use tangibles to enhance their image to provide continuity and service quality to those who need it. In contrast, companies who ignore the tangible dimension of service strategy may destroy an otherwise good strategy (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000).

Empathy. According to Zeithaml et al. (2006), empathy is the caring, individualized attention a firm provides to its customers. It is important to offer customers enough respect, and the company should try to keep customers satisfied. When clients' requirements are well understood and they receive error-free service, they build a relationship with the service

provider. Clients remain loyal to a company because of the value they receive from their service providers that encourages them to repurchase their service again. Oliver (1999) noted that loyalty leads to same-brand purchasing and is caused by a commitment to service quality by a particular service provider.

Responsiveness. Responsiveness refers to the readiness and ability to help customers and to provide prompt services (Zeithaml et al., 2006). This dimension reveals the way a company's employees deal with customers' requests, complaints, questions, and problems. Customers want employees to be helpful, polite, and experienced, to understand their needs and requirements, to respect them as individuals, and to provide them with clear and accurate information about the service (Culiberg & Rojšek, 2010). Organizational leaders need to look at responsiveness from the viewpoint of the customer to be successful and competitive (Zeithaml et al., 2006).

The Nature of Customers in Higher Education

Advancements in the education sector require not only better facilities but also sustainable development. To ensure the required development is sustainable, it is important for leaders of higher educational institutions to monitor the ability of services in all departments to fulfill the expectations and interests of both employees and students (Basheer & Salih, 2012). Service quality has received lots of attention in many publications pertaining to its importance to universities and highlighting the different strategies of measuring quality that university leaders could use in relation to students' satisfaction (Mark, 2013).

Service quality refers to both the service itself and the preparatory cornerstones that set up the service and make it ready to use, such as the production process applicable to the academic field with respect to the methodical steps necessary to create and put together well-regarded academic material and the time needed for the production process. Furthermore, service

quality refers to employees' behavior toward the customer's lead time and the delivery process. Because education is not similar to other services, lead time could apply to scheduling and registration. Service quality in the education sector is measured in a similar manner to service quality in other sectors, as illustrated in Table 2, with the only exception being the fact that the minimum expectations regarding the level of expertise in education is much higher than the expected level of expertise in other services. Students would like to be assured that the knowledge, technical experience, and intellectual skills of the professor who is instructing them matches or exceeds their expectations. The same can be said about empathy and responsiveness, as instructors are expected to be willing to understand students' needs and to handle their inquiries promptly.

Table 2

Higher Education Applications with Regard to Service Quality

Dimension	Application
Reliability	The ability to perform the promised service of supervising the given area of expertise
Assurance	The knowledge, technical experience, intellectual and interpersonal skills of the academic staff
Tangibles	The quality of academic facilities, the variety of learning resources, office space and tutorial rooms
Empathy	The provision of understanding student's needs, wants and requirements
Responsiveness	The willingness to deal with inquiries efficiently and the availability of academic staff

The biggest difference between education and other service sectors such as banking, manufacturing, and health care is that there seems to be a gray area in defining the word *customer* in education. No set of rules exists with respect to identifying who a university's customer is. Birnbaum (2000), Youssef, Libby, Al-Khafaji, and Sawyer (1998), and Kanji and Tambi (1999) noted that several groups can be considered customers in higher education and

thus separated customers into two groups: inside groups (academic faculty members and administrative staff) and outside groups (students, parents, society, government, and employers). Similarly, Kanji and Tambi classified higher education customers into internal and external. They described internal customers as those who work to satisfy the needs of the external customers, asserting that both faculty and students are the primary participants in the process of teaching and learning. Although many researchers have studied service quality in higher education from the student's point of view, few have focused on the perspectives of the academic and administrative staff (Khodayari & Khodayari, 2011).

The current study measured the quality of the service provided at Al-Baha University from the point of view of the faculty members. Leaders of nonprofit organizations are aware of the importance of providing high-quality service to maintain their customers' satisfaction because the profit is related to the amount of quality they provide. In higher education, the situation is slightly different because profit is not the primary objective, especially in Saudi Arabian public universities where no tuition fee is charged. As higher education is a free service in Saudi Arabia, it is important to study the perceptions of the faculty members. An understanding of faculty members' opinions is necessary for the university leaders to make much needed improvements. Faculty members also have better judgment regarding the current situation at the university. As faculty members deal with management and students on a daily basis, their opinions are vital to help the management to identify strengths and weaknesses and work toward improving the university's overall achievements.

The Service Quality Gap Model

Researchers have proposed a number of measures to determine customers' expectations, overall perceptions, and level of satisfaction. The SERVQUAL and the SERVPERF are two

popular measures that have been widely used (Carman, 1990; B. R. Lewis & Mitchell, 1990). Parasuraman et al. (1985) developed the SERVQUAL and noted that consumers' perceptions of quality are influenced by four gaps in organizations. Parasuraman et al. (1985, 1988, 1991) developed the model to evaluate the five dimensions of service quality. The model aims to compare expectations and perceptions and to evaluate the quality of the provided service based on the five dimensions of service quality: tangibles, assurance, reliability, responsiveness, and empathy (Parasuraman et al., 1988). The SERVQUAL instrument has been the predominant method used for measuring service quality to compare customers' expectations before an actual service is delivered (Rahaman et al., 2011). Although there have been numerous efforts directed toward studying service quality, there has been no general agreement on the measurement of the concept, but the majority of the literature has been based on the SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1985, 1988). The SERVQUAL has been widely used in various areas, such as banks, business, and educational institutions (Buttle, 1996).

Parasuraman et al. (1988) noted that leaders of different organizations could use the SERVQUAL to measure their consumers' perceptions of service quality. They also highlighted important information on service quality gaps because it will help organizational managers to identify the areas that need immediate improvement. Parasuraman et al. also noted that service quality is a consumer's behavior that reflects perceived overall superiority in the procedure and outcome of a service provided. The difference between customer expectations and customer perceptions of the service delivered is the customer gap (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000).

The SERVPERF is an abbreviated version of the SERVQUAL that consists only of the performance-based prompts of service quality. Cronin and Taylor (1992) questioned the conceptual basis of the SERVQUAL scale and found it to be confused with service satisfaction.

Consequently, they discarded the expectation component of the formula and called for using the performance component alone. The result was the SERVPERF scale. Eliminating the expectations component of the survey scale brought the total number of measured items from 44 down to 22 (Bolton & Drew, 1991a; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Therefore, the SERVPERF was used for this study to measure the faculty members' perception of service quality at Al-Baha University.

The Service Quality Gaps

Parasuraman et al. (1985) conducted a study that led to the development of the service quality gaps model. Parasuraman et al. defined service quality to be a function of the gap between customers' expectation of a service and their perceptions of the actual service received from the provider (customer gap). The SERVQUAL has been widely used in business schools and educational institutions (Rigotti & Pitt, 1992). The SERVQUAL applied to measure the service quality of the teaching process is somewhat changed to map the gaps defined in the traditional model. Therefore, the set of quality gaps changes to determine the overall service quality in the education sector (Prasad & Jha, 2013). Some of these changes included both faculty and students' expectations (customer expectations in the traditional model) and university authority-level perceptions of student expectations (management-level perception in the traditional model).

The central idea of this work is that the service provider should try to close the gap between what is expected and what is received to satisfy the customers and build a long-term relationship with them. This allows employees to know what is expected from them and leaves customers with an idea of the level of service they can expect to receive (Zeithaml & Bitner,

2000). The model indicates that this gap is influenced by four other gaps that need to be treated and closed.

Zeithaml and Bitner (2000) sorted the gaps model of service quality into two main aspects: the customer gap and the provider gap. Zeithaml and Bitner focused on customers' service expectations present at two different levels: desired service and adequate service. The desired level of service expectations is what the customer hopes to receive, which is a function of experience. The wished-for level is the higher one, while the adequate level is the lower one. As a result, if the service performance drops below satisfactory, the customer will be disappointed and dissatisfied, whereas if the service performance is outside the zone of tolerance at the top, the customer will be pleased, satisfied, and surprised (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000).

Parasuraman et al. (1985) pointed out that personal needs and preferences influence expectations. For example, a regular customer expects standard services, word-of-mouth communications like a friend or other customer's advice, and the experience, which means having a long-standing relationship and trust with the organization. The model assumes that any difference between the desired service and the service delivered may be caused by the following four gaps (provider gaps).

Gap 1: Not knowing what the customer expects. This gap is the discrepancy between the customer's expectations of service with the service provider's understanding of those expectations (Christopher et al., 1991). This gap may occur for a variety of reasons, such as when service providers misunderstand their customers' expectations, not being aware of market research, and poor communication between employees and managers. This poor communication may lead to incorrect or incomplete manager perceptions, especially when customer expectations are changing rapidly (Kasper, Helsidngen, & de Vaies, 1999). To fill this kind of gap, the service

provider must recognize that the customer's actual requirements and preferences are different from what have been perceived by the organization. This recognition and proper subsequent follow-up can be an important step toward providing better service quality.

Gap 2: Service quality specification. This gap is concerned the difference between the manager and the company's understanding of customer expectations and service quality standards. Service providers fail to perceive and translate their customer expectations into clear specifications for several reasons: (a) the company knows that customers have certain expectations but employees have the impression that meeting these expectations is not feasible, (b) fluctuation in market demand makes production difficult, (c) limited resources, and (d) management focuses more on cost and profit than on quality. According to Parasuraman et al. (1985), the gap between management perceptions of consumer expectation and the firm's service quality specifications will negatively affect customers' viewpoint toward service and may cause them to search for other providers. To close this gap, providers need to make the situation better for customers by matching customer expectations to offer service modernism and better service procedure designs.

Gap 3: Not delivering to service quality specifications. This gap is the discrepancy between service quality specifications and desired service delivery (Parasuraman et al., 1985). This is the service performance gap, which is the extent to which service providers do not perform at the level expected by management (Zeithaml et al., 1990). Standards must be supported by appropriate resources (people, system, and technology) and must be effective. That is, employees must be trained, motivated, and compensated based on their performance of those standards. In addition, the guidelines for service delivery do not guarantee high-quality service delivery or performance. Employees do not necessarily have a clear understanding of what

management expects from them, lack of teamwork, bad job design, inadequate resources for employees to perform their service, lack of skills needed to perform the task, and role ambiguity may prove lethal in widening these gaps (Zeithaml et al., 1990). Therefore, organizational leaders need to take care of their employees by motivating them and by providing them with the necessary training, tools, and equipment that enable them to provide the desired services for their customers.

Gap 4: Not matching performance to promises. This gap is concerned with the difference between the service delivered and what was communicated about the service. The gap occurs when promises do not match service delivery. Media such as advertising by an organization can affect customers' decision to buy a service (Parasuraman et al., 1985), which means communication at the media company creates higher expectations among those who need the service. Management must manage all communications and make sure not to make unattainable promises that lead to customer dissatisfaction and complaints (Parasuraman et al., 1985). In order for the management to meet these expectations, faculty members should have a clear understanding of the promises made by the university to deliver the service to the students.

Research Related to Service Quality

The differences and relationships between service quality and job satisfaction have been the focus of many studies due to their importance to both managers and researchers. Service providers need to identify their objective carefully and decide whether to focus on having satisfied clients or delivering the best possible level of service quality (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Cronin and Taylor (1992) conducted an empirical test of the relationship between service quality and client satisfaction across multiple industries and found that service quality leads to client satisfaction. In a similar study, Spreng and Mackoy (1996) found that client satisfaction can be

the result of service quality. According to Parasuraman et al. (1985, 1988), what generates controversy is the evaluation conducted with respect to quality and satisfaction, as it is possible to identify the difference between a transition-specific evaluation and an overall evaluation as a result of cumulative experience. The possible relationship between satisfaction and service remains a matter of debate.

Satisfaction can be seen as a client's evaluation of a service received. The importance of these evaluations comes from the impact that satisfaction has on a client's behavior. Organizations have to take the expectations of these clients seriously to create suitable ways to understand what must be delivered to keep the clients satisfied. Supporting what has already been mentioned, Jonsson and Zineldin (2003) noted that the ability of organizations to develop and enhance long-term relationships with their clients and satisfy their expectations should be central to a relationship management strategy. Cronin and Taylor (1992) conducted a study about reciprocity between service quality and customer satisfaction in many industries. They noted that justification was required to determine the true nature of the relationship between service quality and job satisfaction, because many marketing researchers may not completely agree in terms of the causal order of these constructs. Meanwhile, it was clearly established in their study that service quality usually leads to customer satisfaction (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). In a different study on a similar matter, Spreng and Mackoy (1996) found that customer satisfaction is a consequence of service quality. Goode et al. (1996) noted that satisfaction is a vital goal for bank marketers to achieve targets. Banks can achieve customer satisfaction through service quality. Similarly, Jamal and Naser (2002) contended that dimensions of service quality are causal antecedents of customer satisfaction, while Caruana (2002) noted that customer satisfaction acts as a mediator in the link between loyalty and service quality. Yavas, Benkenstein and Stuhldreier

(2004) indicated that service quality plays an important role in customer satisfaction and is linked to such behavioral outcomes as complaint, loyalty, and word of mouth.

Bloemer et al. (1998) conducted a study of customers in a major bank in the Netherlands and noted that customer satisfaction is the cause of service quality and customer satisfaction is a very important factor influencing customer loyalty. Jamal and Naser (2002) indicated that customer satisfaction is dependent on service quality. This logic is also supported by Caruana (2002), who noted customer satisfaction is the link between service quality and service loyalty. Yavas et al. (2004) reported that service quality is the most important factor of customers' satisfaction.

According to Parasuraman et al. (1985, 1988), the discussion on the relationship between service quality and satisfaction originates from the type of evaluation done in terms of quality, satisfaction, and the possibility of distinguishing between an overall evaluation of a cumulative experience and a transaction-specific evaluation. From the previous discussion, it can be clearly assessed that the relationship between service quality and satisfaction is debatable.

Customer satisfaction is a vital factor for every company's success. High customer satisfaction produces many benefits for a company. According to Bearden and Teel (1983) and Goode and Moutinho (1995), customer satisfaction is important to market a company, help to increase company profits, and increase customer loyalty, and as a result, loyal customers will give positive word-of-mouth recommendations to others. Moreover, Zeithaml et al. (1996) contended, when an organization loses its customers, new customers will only come as a result of using new techniques and advertisements to attract them and then replace the previous ones. Researchers also agree that replacing customers comes at a high cost. Zeithaml et al. also

asserted that long-term loyal customers are more likely to buy additional services and support from a company than are new short-term customers.

Nasseef (2014) conducted a study at King Abdul-Aziz University to measure the quality of educational services in the bachelor's business administration program at the university. One hundred sixty-four male and female undergraduate students from the business department participated in the study. Nasseef used the modified SERVQUAL instrument to collect the data from the sample. The instrument measured the original five elements and the informatics component added by Nasseef to measure the quality of higher education services provided in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The result of the study showed statistically important differences between the level of expectations of students and the level of their perception regarding the services provided at King Abdul-Aziz University. The students' expectation about the services provided by the university was higher than what they perceived. The results also showed substantial differences between the level of students' expectations for all services (tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, safety, empathy, and informatics) and the level of perception of the services provided by the university.

Chua (2004) conducted a study to evaluate the quality characteristics of higher education from various perspectives, namely faculty members, parents, employers, and students. Through the questionnaire, respondents provided their opinions on higher education quality and their suggestions for improvement. The SERVQUAL instrument was used to collect data from 35 students, 27 parents, 12 human resource managers, and 10 faculty members. The researchers classified the responses of the customers into input (selection of students, entry requirements), process (teaching and learning, content and delivery of courses, professor's knowledge), and output (academic performance, financially rewarding jobs). The results showed that the parents

indicated that quality should be 46.52% for both input and output. Faculty members believed the education system needed to focus on all three dimensions: input (36.02%), process (26.02%), and output (27.97%). Employers considered quality in terms of process (41.27%) and output (58.73%) only. The result also revealed that all dimensions were substantial, except reliability. Students, parents, and employers believed that they expected more than what had been provided, whereas faculty members were satisfied with all components except assurance and tangibles.

Dauda et al. (2013) conducted a study at the Abubakar Gmba Library of Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University to examine the influence of internal service quality on employees' job satisfaction among 31 employees. Two surveys were used to gather the data: the SERVPERF scale and Herzberg's job satisfaction scale. The results revealed that the internal service of the university did not substantially affect the job satisfaction of the library staff.

Presbury (2009) conducted a study to identify the main factors that customers value the most in evaluating the service quality of three-star, four-star, and five-star hotels in Sydney and to examine how well the staff of these luxurious hotels are delivering the required levels of satisfaction to their customers. The study was a mixed-method study that involved both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The qualitative approach involved exploring leisure and corporate customers' expectations and perceptions using interviews, observation, and participation. The quantitative approach consisted of a performance analysis and the SERVQUAL. Two hundred consumers were surveyed about their expectations and perceptions. The results showed that the most important attributes for customers were location (convenience and proximity to transport and attractions), price (inclusive packages, upgrades, value for money), facilities (cleanliness, comfort, large and bright rooms, and inviting public areas), and

employees (friendly and efficient). Empathy of staff in providing personal and attentive service was the most important dimension.

One study was conducted to evaluate employees' and managers' opinions on service quality in a five-star hotel in China and included the SERVQUAL instrument to measure employees' and managers' perceptions of service quality provided by front-line employees (Anonymous, 2012). Ninety-nine front-line employees and 32 supervisors and managers of a five-star hotel in Xian, China, participated in the study. The results showed that both managers and employees have the same level of satisfaction and expectations regarding the service quality provided by front-line employees. The results also found negative correlations between the respondents' work experience, level of education, and level of satisfaction with service quality. For the most part, managers had lower perception rates than their employees. Tangibility was the only dimension for which managers had higher perception rates.

The relationship between transformational leadership style and service quality dimensions was studied at Emirati hospitals by Jabnoun and Al Rasasi (2005). The populations of the study were the patients and employees of six major Emirati hospitals. Two questionnaires were used to collect the data, namely the SERVQUAL and MLQ. Seven hundred twenty questionnaires were distributed evenly among patients and employees. The study results showed a positive correlation between service quality dimensions, namely reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy, and tangibles (Zeithaml et al., 1990), and transformational leadership components, namely idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999), in addition to a positive relationship with the transactional dimension of contingent reward.

Chapter 3: Methods

Introduction

This chapter details the research approach selected for this research study. The chapter started with a discussion on the research design. The chapter also include details of the methods chosen for data collection. Further, the chapter provided information on the population and sampling procedures of the study. Chapter 3 also presented the measures used to ensure the protection of human subjects. This chapter concluded with a discussion on data collection and data analysis procedures for the study.

Research Design

A number of research design approaches need to be considered before undertaking a research study. The most popular methods available in research are qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative research is "a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables" (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). Creswell (2009) stated that the "quantitative method involves the process of collecting, analyzing, interpreting and writing the results of the study" (p. 4). Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research is a means for understanding the meaning and was termed as "individuals or groups ascribe to social or human problem" (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). Mixed method research involves using both quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell, 2009).

The aim of the current study was to investigate the possible relationship between the three variables (transformational leadership dimensions, job satisfaction, and academic service quality), as well as a comparison of differences in these variable as related to demographics. Quantitative research was the most suitable research method. A quantitative, nonexperimental,

cross-sectional research design was used to test the relational and comparative research hypotheses regarding faculty members at Al-Baha University.

This relational aspect of the study involved participants describing their opinions and attitudes about their leaders. Quantitative research methods encompass numerical data that can be measured to help answer research questions (Saunders et al., 2003). The quantitative approach was appropriate for testing the hypotheses to provide empirical evidence and to provide answers to the posed research questions through statistical analysis. The direction and magnitude of these relationships were tested. Demographic information of the participants was reviewed collectively, expressed numerically, and examined from a comparative quantitative perspective.

Four instruments used to gather and investigate the data, including a demographic questionnaire developed by the researcher, to address the participants' demographic information. To measure faculty's perception of the faculty members toward the transformational leadership style, both the English and the Arabic versions of the MLQ (Bass, 1985) was used. The English and Arabic versions of the MSQ (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967) was used to measure the satisfaction of the faculty members. The English and Arabic versions of the SERVPERF (Cronin & Taylor, 1992) was used to measure the perceptions of the faculty members regarding academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

Population and Sample Procedures

In the Spring of 2016, Al-Baha University had 1,432 male and female teaching members working in all colleges. Of those teaching members, 372 held bachelor's degrees, 273 held master's degrees, and 787 held doctoral degrees.-1060 of faculty members who hold master's and doctoral degrees, and whose positions are instructors, assistant professors, associate professors and professors were invited to participate in this study The remaining 372 were

therefore excluded from the sampling frame. The selection of only doctoral and master's degree holders, among other staff members, as participants was due to the likelihood that they would have a better understanding of academic aspects, particularly academic service quality. The current study involved a nonprobabilistic snowball sampling. To discern a small effect of .15 using a one-tailed test with an alpha of .05 and a power of .80 in Pearson's test, the required sample size is 273, as indicated by a priori power analysis using the G*Power program.

The current study may be motivating for those recruited, as the study involved the current being and welfare of the teaching staff at Al-Baha University. The study was endorsed by the current vice president of the university, who understands the potentially beneficial outcome of this research in upgrading the standard of service quality at the university. In the event of nonresponses from participants, affable reminders were going to be sent to each department to encourage the participants to complete the requested survey. Therefore, the response rate for this study was anticipated to be good.

Data Collection Procedure

An approval from Pepperdine University Graduate and Professional Schools' Institutional Review Board was obtained and the data was collected using four instruments, as outlined in the research design section: a questionnaire to address the participants' demographics, the MLQ (Bass, 1985), the MSQ (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967), and the SERVPERF (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). To ensure a higher rate of responses, a pen-and-paper administration of these four surveys were carried out and administered by the researcher at Al-Baha University during the spring term, arranged by the vice president for graduate studies and scientific research. Along with an informed consent form, 679 questionnaires were distributed to the faculty members at all colleges of Al-Baha University, a pen-and-paper questionnaire was

chosen to avoid any e-mails being directed to junk folders. The sampling was a nonprobabilistic snowball method. The use of snowball sampling was necessary to locate enough faculty members to participate in the study. The licenses to reproduce and distribute the MLQ and MSQ were purchased. The wording of some of the SERVPERF's questions was slightly customized to fit the context of the study. That is, the word "employee" was replaced with "staff/faculty member," and "company" was replaced with "university." The majority of the faculty members were native Arabic speakers, but both English and Arabic languages were used to satisfy the diversity at the university.

697 hundred questionnaire packets were divided based on the number of faculty members of each college. One week prior to distributing the surveys, the researcher posted announcements (see Appendix A) in each college to notify participants about the forthcoming study. Announcements were posted on billboards available at each department's building, as well as in departments meetings. In addition, the researcher was depending on snowball sampling, word of mouth, taking advantage of some of her personal connections with administrators, and friends to spread the word and let as many eligible faculty members as possible know about the study. The packets were handed to the deans of the colleges, and the deans distributed the packets to the faculty members with the assistance of the department heads. The participants took three days to complete the surveys. The completed surveys returned in the envelopes provided and placed inside a large box clearly marked "Completed Surveys and Signed Consent" available in the deans' offices, where they were collected by the researcher.

Human Subjects Protections

Permission was obtained from Al-Baha University to conduct the study and to survey faculty members (see Appendix B). Faculty members at Al-Baha University were invited to take

part in this study. Four questionnaires, namely the demographic information questionnaire developed by the researcher, the MLQ (Bass, 1985), the MSQ (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967), and the SERVPERF (Cronin & Taylor, 1992), were provided in hard-copy format to the faculty members. The faculty members also received informed consent forms that explained the purpose of the study and some key information regarding their participation, such as the time needed to complete the questionnaires, risks and benefits to participating, and the confidential treatment of the data collected (see Appendix C).

The informed consent form indicated the purpose of the current study along with other important details, including the voluntary nature of the study and the confidential treatment of participants' responses. Additionally, participants were able to refuse participation or withdraw from the study at any time. Although participants asked to provided demographic information, no other personally identifiable information was collected (e.g., their names or departments). The informed consent form also includes contact information for the researcher, including her address, mobile phone number, and e-mail address, and the form ends with a note thanking the respondents for their participation in the study. The data collection process took place during the spring term of 2016.

Participation in the study was voluntary, and participants have the right to withdraw from the study at any time. The data obtained for the study is confidential, and was analyzed and reported as group data to make sure that the findings do not disclose participants' identities. Raw data collected from participants is securely stored and kept in a locked file cabinet in the researcher's residence, and only the researcher have the right to use this data. The data will be kept for three years and then destroyed. The potential minimal risks of this study include boredom, discomfort, and minor fatigue. The estimated time needed to complete all surveys is

shown in Table 3; thus, participation is hoped to be neither prolonged nor tedious. The potential benefit of the study is societal, as the study may include a clearer understanding of the relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. No deception is involved in the study, and participants will not receive awards or any payment for their participation. The researcher has completed all required modules for the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) that are required for research involving human subjects.

Table 3

The Time Needed to Complete the Surveys

Questionnaire	Description	Approximate time needed
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	Measures transformational leadership behaviors	5 minutes
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)	Measures employee satisfaction with his/her job	5 minutes
Service Quality Questionnaire (SERVPERF)	Measures academic service quality	5 minutes
Demographic Questionnaire	Solicits participant information	1 minute

Licenses to reproduce and distribute both the English and the Arabic MLQ and MSQ were obtained from the developers (see Appendices D and E). No license is required for SERVPERF. However, the researcher contacted Drs. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, who confirmed that the instrument can be used with the understanding that all work is to be appropriately cited. The researcher manually administrated the questionnaires in hard-copy format. The survey packets containing the questionnaires, informed consent form, and an envelope in which to return the completed questionnaires were distributed to all colleges and were handed to the dean of each college to distribute to their faculty members. Completed questionnaires were collected after 3 days.

The study qualifies as exempt research, as specified in 45 C.F.R. 46.101 (b)(2). The exempt application form and study proposal was submitted to Pepperdine University's Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board to gain its approval prior to participant recruitment and data collection (see Appendix F).

Measures

Several instruments were used for this study, including a researcher-developed demographic questionnaire to collect the participants' demographic information. The MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995), English and Arabic versions, were used to measure transformational leadership style rated by the faculty members. The MSQ (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967), English and Arabic versions, were used to measure the faculty members' job satisfaction. The SERVPERF (Cronin & Taylor, 1992), English and Arabic versions, were used to measure academic service quality as perceived by faculty members.

A demographic questionnaire (see Appendix G) designed by the researcher was used to ascertain the degree to which respondents' gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position are representative of the known demographics of the larger population. Data from the survey were used to determine to what extent, if at all, are differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality?

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ 5X is a survey created by Avolio and Bass (2004). The faculty members used the MLQ (Short Form 5X-Rater) to rate their leaders. The instrument was purchased in both English and Arabic from Mind Garden, Inc., and

permission was obtained from the developers to reproduce and distribute the instrument. The instrument uses a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *frequently, if not always*. The MLQ 5X consists of 36 items in total, with 20 used to evaluate transformational leadership style, including idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Through 16 additional items, it also provides a measure of transactional leadership (four items each for contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception and four items for laissez-faire). This study only focused on transformational leadership and only its 20 items were analyzed. A new version developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) includes three additional scales, (a) extra effort, (b) effectiveness, and (c) satisfaction, to measure the leadership's outcomes, though these additional scales also not be analyzed within this study.

Bass (1985) first published the MLQ. Over the past two decades, it has undergone many revisions and validations (Avolio & Bass, 2004). It also continues to be "refined to strengthen its reliability and validity" (Northouse, 2010, p. 198). Researchers have used the MLQ extensively in various research programs around the world, such as doctoral dissertations and master's theses (Avolio et al., 1995). Moreover, the MLQ 5X has been translated into different languages, including Spanish, French, Arabic, Chinese, and Korean.

The MLQ has strong evidence of validity and reliability (Alsayed, Motaghi, & Osman, 2012), and it has been extensively used in thousands of studies, dissertations, and theses. Bass and Riggio (2006) noted, "The MLQ scales have demonstrated good to excellent internal consistency, with alpha coefficients above the .80 level for all MLQ scales" (p. 22). The validity of the MLQ has been examined by many researchers who have made accurate implications about

participants based on the assessment items (Creswell, 2009). The extensive set of several academic and practical settings and fields validated the structure and the reliability of the MLQ, testing each scale and yielding reliabilities ranging from .74 to .94. Reliabilities for the MLQ 5X-Short, however, ranged from .86 to .91 (Avolio & Bass, 2002). The instrument is highly popular for measuring transformational and transactional leadership, thus supporting the researcher's selection of MLQ in the study.

The MLQ 5X-Short form (rater), which contains five scales of 20 items (four items each for idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) were used in the current study. Items were grouped and scored in accordance with the guidelines given in the MLQ manual (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 2000). This involves comparing each subscale score to assess the leadership skills according to the corresponding percentile score given in the norm tables. For example, the individualized influence (attributed) scale's four items are 10, 18, 21, and 25. The results were based on the sum of each question divided by each section to make up the average. The average score of these four items is the leader's score in this particular scale, which can enable the researcher to interpret leaders' average scores according to the norm tables. The goal is not to label a leader as a transformational leader or a nontransformational leader. Instead, the goal is to describe leaders' scores according to the norms established from transformational leaders worldwide.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The MSQ Short-Form was developed by D. J. Weiss et al. (1967) to measure employees' satisfaction with their jobs. The MSQ Short-Form was purchased from the Vocational Psychology Research at the University of Minnesota. The MSQ Short-Form consists of 20 items in two scales: intrinsic and extrinsic scales. The

intrinsic scale is composed of 12 items and the extrinsic subscale is composed of eight items; all 20 items are used as a measure of general satisfaction. Respondents rate the degree of job satisfaction with several components of their job based on 1 being *very dissatisfied to* 5 being *very satisfied*. The weight for all 20 items is summed for a total general satisfaction score (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967). The reliability of the MSQ, according to D. J. Weiss et al., is reported to "vary across groups" (p. 14), but the scales generally have sufficient internal consistency reliabilities using Hoyt's (1941) method. Hoyt's reliability coefficient is calculated by subtracting the amount of variation in an average item score from the amount of variation associated with the error and then dividing this difference by the amount of variation in an average item score (Clark et al., 2009). This is the same method used to generalize Kuder-Richardson's approach to binary data that Cronbach (1951) popularized as the alpha coefficient.

Hoyt coefficients for the MSQ scales range from .97 to .59 on ability utilization, working conditions, and variety for buyers, respectively. The median Hoyt reliability coefficients ranged from .93 to .78 for advancements and for recognition and responsibility, respectively. Eighty-three percent of the 567 Hoyt reliability coefficients (27 groups with 21 scales each) reported in the MSQ manual were .80 or higher, and only 2.5% were lower than .70 (coworkers on three occasions, variety once, responsibility on four occasions, security once, and moral values on three occasions).

Construct validation studies of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire based on the theory of work adjustment showed evidence of construct validity for the ability utilization, advancement, and variety scales (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967). The remaining scales also yielded some evidence of construct validity but to a lesser extent. Some evidence of construct validity was observed on the authority, achievement, creativity, and responsibility scales.

Scoring the MSQ involves adding up the weights for the responses chosen from the items in every scale. Each item may be scored (weighted) on a range of 1 through 5, based on the following criteria: 1 = *very dissatisfied,* 2 = *dissatisfied,* 3 = *neither,* 4 = *satisfied,* 5 = *very satisfied.* Raw scores can be converted to percentile scores by using given tables of normative data shown in the manual for the MSQ (D. J. Weiss et al.., 1967). High satisfaction is represented by a percentile score of 74 or higher; moderate satisfaction is indicated by a percentile score of 26-74, and low satisfaction is indicated by a percentile score of 25 or lower (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967).

Performance-only Service Quality Questionnaire (SERVPERF). Parasuraman et al. (1988) proposed a 10-dimension service quality scale and developed the SERVQUAL. The 10 dimensions were later abbreviated into five: reliability, responsiveness, tangibility, assurance, and empathy (Koni et al., 2013). It measures customers' expectations and perceptions of service quality. The SERVQUAL, according to Zeithaml et al. (1990), is universal and can be applied in any organization to evaluate the quality of the provided services. It "is a concise multiple-item scale with good reliability and validity that retailers can use to better understand the service expectations and perceptions of consumers and, as a result improve service" (Parasuraman et al., 1988, p. 30). Moreover, the SERVQUAL provides a basic skeleton that researchers can further adapt and change to fit the characteristics of specific research needs of an organization (Parasuraman et al., 1988).

Although service quality can be measured by SERVQUAL, with expectations and perceptions taken into consideration, its subset, SERVPERF, has been demonstrated to have stronger psychometric properties (Jain & Gupta, 2004) and employs a performance-only method to measure customers' perception of the service quality provided using the five service quality

dimensions. The conceptual basis of the SERVQUAL scale was questioned by Cronin and Taylor (1992) and was found to be confused with service satisfaction. Consequently, they discarded the expectation component of the formula and called for the performance component alone to be used. The result was the SERVPERF scale.

This modified use of the questionnaire was meant to limit it to just the total, or average, perception score. The greater variance in the overall service quality that is measured using this 22-item scale epitomizes SERVPERF's slight superiority over SERVQUAL. Cronin and Taylor compared the SERVPERF to the SERVQUAL and concluded that the expectations element does not possess a high importance, as the performance scores alone account for more variation in service quality than performance minus expectations. Eliminating the expectations component of the survey scale brought the total number of measured items from 44 in the SERVQUAL to 22 in the SERVPERF (Bolton & Drew, 1991b; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Unlike the SERVQUAL, the SERVPERF does not distinguish service quality from customer satisfaction. SERVPERF, according to Cronin and Taylor (1994), "has greater construct validity based on the review of relevant literature and the fact that the SERVPERF measures also exhibit convergent and discriminated validity" (p. 129). Cronin and Taylor (1992) gathered data by conducting personal interviews in a medium-sized city in the southeastern United States and collecting 660 completed questionnaires from consumers. Questionnaires were gathered by two firms in four industries, banking, pest control, dry cleaning, and fast food, with sample sizes ranging from 175 to 189. The SERVPERF scale's reliability ranged between .884 and .964 (Cronin & Taylor, 1992).

For the current study, the SERVPERF was used to measure the perceptions of the faculty members at Al-Baha University toward service quality at the university. Accordingly, the criterion used to confirm the accuracy of translation is the experts' judgments, which are based

on their high qualification and experience in the field of translation from Arabic to English and vice versa.

The SERVPERF uses a Likert-type scale to check the participants' attitude for the levels of agreement expressed by the respondents. Thus, 1 = *strongly disagrees*, 2 = *disagrees*, 3 = *neutral*, 4 = *agrees*, and 5 = *strongly agrees*. The means for all responses will be computed for each statement and for the whole group of statements for each of the five scales. The attitude is assigned according to the Likert-type scale presented in Table 4. The range for each category equals 4/5 or 0.8 and is calculated based on the four distances between the five weights. This is known as a Likert-type scale of order 5 (Erdem, İlğan & Uçar, 2014; Dauda et al., 2013).

Table 4

Five-level Likert-type Scale for Attitude Interpretation

Value of mean	Attitude
From 1 to 1.79	Very dissatisfied/Strongly disagree
From 1.80 to 2.59	Dissatisfied/Disagree
From 2.60 to 3.39	Neither
From 3.40 to 4.19	Satisfied/Agree
From 4.20 to 5	Very satisfied/Strongly agree

Analytic Techniques

This study involves an attempt to explain the relationships among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality through investigating the association of these constructs on job satisfaction and service quality. IBM SPSS Statistics Version 22 software package was used as a data analysis tool for descriptive analysis to evaluate frequencies and percentages and to calculate weighted means and standard deviations. Reliability analyses was conducted on all instruments using Cronbach's alpha.

The reliability analysis supports studying the properties of measurement scales and the items in question. The reliability analysis procedure involves calculating a number of commonly

used measures of scale reliability and provides information about the relationships between individual items in the scale. Cronbach's alpha was used as the main method for measuring reliability. Coefficient alpha is measured on scale of 0 to 1. Although there is no definite value for evaluating the reliability of a measure, the closer the alpha is to 1.00, the greater the internal consistency of items is assumed in the instrument of data collection. Nunnally (1967) noted that a set of items with coefficient alpha greater than or equal to .70 is typically considered internally consistent. In an exploratory study, a value over .60 is often considered reasonable, and reliability over .50 is acceptable for a new instrument (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

The application of the descriptive statistical indicators such as frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations on sample data conducted, disaggregated by respondents' demographics variables (age, gender, current position, and years spent in current position). Inferential statistical analyses will also be conducted to test the research hypotheses.

Tests of the stated hypotheses H1-H5 will indicate whether a positive relationship exists between transformational leadership components and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University. Hypotheses H6-H10 will investigate the relationship between transformational leadership components and academic service quality among the faculty at Al-Baha University. Hypothesis 11 will investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and academic service quality among the faculty at Al-Baha University. Pearson's product–moment correlation coefficient was used to test the relationships between the continuous variables in these 11 hypotheses against a significance level of .01. For the correlation analysis, effect size index r^2 is calculated by the coefficient of determination, $r^2 = \frac{PV_S}{PV_E}$, where PV_S is the proportion of the dependent variable Y variance accounted for by that source (S) in the sample. PV_S is function of squared multiple correlations (R^2s). PV_E is the proportion of error (E) or residual

variance. r^2 with values of .10, .30 and .50 representing small, moderate and large effects, respectively.

Hypotheses H12-H15 investigated to what extent, if at all, are differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality? To test these four hypotheses, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used, with a significance level of .05.

For the analysis of variance (ANOVA), with $k \geq 2$, the effect size index is defined by Cohen's $= \frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma}$, where $\sigma_m = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k}(m_i-m)^2}{k}}$, m_i is the mean of each population, $i=1,2. k. f$ can take on values between zero, when the population means (m_i) are all equal (or the effects are all zero), and an indefinitely large number as σ_m increases relative to σ. It has already been suggested that values of f as large as .50 are not common in behavioral science. f with values of .10, .25 and .40 representing small, moderate and large effects, respectively. Cohen d, meanwhile, measures effect size by taking the difference of two means and dividing them by the standard deviation, with values of .20, .50 and .80 representing small, medium and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). Chapter 4 presented the analysis of the study's findings.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the analysis of the study's findings. The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to determine the extent to which, if at all, relationships existed between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality among faculty members at Al-Baha University. Further, the study involved examining to what extent, if at all, differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) were associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality. To explore the relationship among the variables of the study, the study included the MLQ, the MSQ, and the SERVPERF, as well as a demographic questionnaire to describe participants' characteristics. The researcher sought to add to the existing literature regarding this topic by answering the two research questions and testing the 15 research hypotheses listed in Chapter 1. This chapter includes the following sections: response rate to the survey, demographic characteristics of participants, data preparation, instrument reliability, analytic techniques, descriptive statistics of the study instruments, summary of outcome variables, relationship between transformation leadership, job satisfaction, and service quality, and concludes with the hypothesis tests.

Study Response Rate

To investigate the nature of the relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University, 697 questionnaires were distributed to faculty members in all colleges, with 388 returned. Of the 388 returned, 52 were

rejected because they were not completed, which left 336 responses suitable for the final analysis

and yielded a response rate of 48%. Table 5 displays the data regarding the questionnaires.

Table 5

Data Regarding Questionnaires

Distributed	Returned	Rejected	Usable
697	388	52	336 (48%)

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

This section includes a summary of the demographic characteristics of the participants, as

shown in Table 6. Of the 336 participants who completed the survey, 215 (64.0%) were male and

121 (36.0%) were female. The largest group of respondents was 36-45 years old ($n = 132$;

39.3%), followed by respondents who were 46-55 ($n = 91$; 27.1%), respondents who were 26-35

($n = 82$; 24.6%), and respondents who were 56-65 ($n = 31$; 9.2%). Concerning current position,

34 respondents (10.1%) were professors, 62 respondents (18.5%) were instructors, 82

respondents (24.4%) were associate professors, and 158 respondents (47.0%) were assistant

professors. With reference to years spent in the current position, 133 participants (39.6%) had

less than 3 years of working experience, which was the highest percentage. The percentage and

number of participants were fewer as years spent in current position increased, with 127

participants (37.8%) reporting 3 to 6 years in current position. Seventy-six participants (22.6%)

reported having 6 or more years of experience at the same position.

To prepare the data for analysis, the raw data of the returned questionnaires were

transformed into a form that could be easily manipulated statistically to help verify the research

hypotheses and meet the research objectives. Different coding systems were devised to

categorize the raw materials represented in the questionnaires in an accessible manner for later

analysis of the data. The first step involved obtaining the demographic information of the

questionnaire respondents: gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position. For

instance, 1 denoted male and 2 denoted female for gender. Age was entered as an ordinal

categorical variable for which 1 denoted age 26-35, 2 denoted age 36-45, 3 denoted age 46-55,

and 4 denoted age 56-65. Current position and years spent at current position were coded using

appropriate ordinal codes. The aim of having this information was to have a descriptive analysis

of the respondents investigated in this study so the data could be used to compare and contrast

the performance or attitudes of the study factors.

Table 6

Demographics

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	215	64.0
Female	121	36.0
Age		
26-35	82	24.4
36-45	132	39.3
46-55	91	27.1
56-65	31	9.2
Current position		
Professor	34	10.1
Associate professor	82	24.4
Assistant professor	158	47.0
Instructor	62	18.5
Years spent in current position		
Less than 3 years	133	39.6
3-6 years	127	37.8
More than 6 years	76	22.6
Total	336	100.0

Data Preparation

The questionnaires had a number of scales, and each one was reflected or constructed

through many statements. Each response was coded by a respondent's response from 1 to 5. For

example, the MLQ used the following numbers to reflect the participants' opinions: 1 = *not at*

all, 2 = *once in a while,* 3 = *sometimes,* 4 = *fairly often,* and 5 = *frequently if not always.*

Subscale were based on the sum of each question's items divided by each section to comprise the arithmetic mean score. Higher scores indicate greater representation in that particular leadership style. The norm data available in the MLQ manual was used to classify the participants' level of agreement for each statement as high, moderate or low in relation to average scores for leaders worldwide with respect to each subscale. That is, if average score of Idealized Influence-Attributed for a certain leader is 2.75, which correlates to the 30th percentile in the MLQ's norm table, then that leader would be regarded as more transformational than 30% of the leaders worldwide and less transformational than 70% of that normed group of leaders.

For the MSQ, the codes used to express these statements were based on weights that reflect opinions: 1 = *very dissatisfied*, 2 = *dissatisfied*, 3 = *neutral* (neither agree nor disagree), 4 = *satisfied*, and 5 = *very satisfied*. The Likert-type scale and the MSQ norm data were used to classify the respondents' attitudes for each statement and the average of each scale by dividing the sum of the items by the number of items. The SERVPERF's codes were used to express these statements based on weights that reflect opinions: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neutral* (neither agree nor disagree), 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*. The Likert-type scale was used to classify and reflect the attitudes. The researcher used the Statistical Package IBM – SPSS Version 22.0 to analyze the data statistically. Prior to the analysis, the data were cleaned, and the surveys that had missing information (*n* = 52) were eliminated from the analysis.

Instrument Reliability

The reliability of the instruments used in this study (MLQ, MSQ, and SERVPERF) had been established through previous studies, as noted in Chapter 3. Before testing the research hypotheses and answering research questions, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to assess

the reliability of the study instrument variables to determine the adequacy of their psychometric qualities, as shown in Table 7. According to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2005), instrument reliability shows the internal consistency of items and demonstrates a latent construct. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to calculate the internal consistency reliability of all the measures used in this study. Although there is no definite value for evaluating the reliability of a measure, the closer the alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of items in the instrument being assessed. Nunnally (1967) noted a set of items with coefficient alpha greater than or equal to .70 is internally consistent. In an exploratory study, a value over .60 is often reasonable, and in the early stage of research, reliability over .50 is acceptable for a new instrument (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Instrument reliability concerns the extent to which the instruments are consistently measuring what they are supposed to measure. The reliability analysis procedure involved calculating a number of commonly used measures of scale reliability and providing information about the relationships between individual items in the scale. The reliability of the MLQ has been established in different studies, with alpha reliability coefficients for the scale ranging from .81 to .94 (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985, 1998). Bass (1985) noted they calculated Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the transformational leadership components in the MLQ and the result obtained was .87. All exceed the threshold of .70 normally accepted as the threshold of claiming sufficient internal consistency reliability (Nunnally, 1978).

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for internal consistency reliability of the MLQ-5X Short Form, the MSQ Short Form, and the SERVPERF were evaluated. Table 7 includes a summary of the results. Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the data obtained from all instrument items were above .70, which exceeded the minimum level suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein

(1994). The minimum value for Cronbach's alpha as a measure for the reliability of all factors of

the questionnaire was .82, which is high enough to reflect a high degree of reliability. Based on

the Cronbach alpha values for the five dimensions of transformational leadership that ranging

from .82 to .89, with an overall of transformational leadership and its attributes Cronbach's alpha

coefficient of .95, it was concluded that the MLQ is a consistent measure of transformational

leadership and its attributes. This result is within Bass and Avolio's expected range. The overall

Cronbach's alpha coefficient for job satisfaction was .92. This result was supported by Hoyt's

reliability coefficient of .90, as reported in the MSQ manual (Weiss et al., 1967). The

measurement was deemed to possess good reliability. Finally, the overall Cronbach's alpha

coefficient for academic service quality was .96.

Table 7

Measures of Reliability

Factor	No. of statements	Cronbach's alpha
Idealized influence (attributed)	4	.87
Idealized influence (behavior)	4	.84
Inspirational motivation	4	.86
Intellectual stimulation	4	.89
Individualized consideration	4	.82
Transformational leadership	20	.95
Job satisfaction	20	.92
SERVPERF	22	.96

Analytic Techniques

For data analysis, the researcher used the software Statistical Package for Social Science

(SPSS) Version 22.0. The scores have correlated for all constructs of transformational leadership

components, job satisfaction, and academic service quality to identify their relationships. The

type of statistical techniques selected to analyze the data were based on the purpose of the study.

First, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed using reliability analysis to assess the

internal consistency of the measuring instruments: MLQ-5X Short Form, MSQ Short Form, and SERVPERF. Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages were computed according to the variables. The primary data analysis technique employed to test the hypotheses for Research Question 1 was Pearson's product–moment correlation coefficient at a significance level of .01. A significance level of .01 was chosen based on the researcher's confidence that the effect detected in the current sample truly exists at the population level. Having a significance level of .01 indicates a 1% conditional prior probability of rejecting a null hypothesis over random replications when it is actually true. The MANOVA was the primary data analysis technique employed to test the hypotheses for Research Question 2 with a significance level of .05.

Descriptive Statistics of the Study Instruments: MLQ, MSQ, and SERVPERF

Table 8 includes the means and standard deviations of each of the five dimensions of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality instruments. Respondents in the present study indicated that the leaders of Al-Baha University largely use transformational leadership to manage their work. The means of idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration were 3.91, 3.95, 3.92, 3.72, and 3.48, respectively, with the standard deviations being 0.91, 0.87, 0.86, 0.94, and 0.98, respectively. The result of the transformational leadership component indicated the opinion of university faculty members about their leaders' transformational leadership style, with a mean of 3.80 and a standard deviation of .78. Moreover, all dimensions of transformational leadership were rated with a mean value at or above 3.48, which falls between the "sometimes" and "fairly often" range, indicating that transformational leadership is displayed moderately by the university leaders. In the case of Al-Baha University

faculty members' perceptions of their leaders' practices, idealized influence-behavior was the leadership scale with the highest mean score among university leaders ($M = 3.95$), followed by inspirational motivation ($M = 3.92$), idealized influence-attributed ($M = 3.91$) and intellectual stimulation ($M = 3.72$). Individualized consideration ($M = 3.48$) was the least perceived leadership dimension. Based on the percentiles in the MLQ manual, the five mean scores mentioned above would translate to Al-Baha University's leaders being more transformational than roughly 40% of leaders worldwide in idealized influence (attributed and behavior), inspirational motivation and intellectual simulation, while being more transformational than a slightly fewer than 30% of leaders worldwide in individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 2000).Table 8 also indicates that the overall mean score of employees' job satisfaction among the faculty members was 3.64 ($SD = 0.70$), which indicated a high mean for job satisfaction. Raw scores can be converted to percentile scores by using given tables of normative data shown in the manual for the MSQ (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967). High satisfaction is represented by a percentile score of 74 or higher; moderate satisfaction is indicated by a percentile score of 26-74, and low satisfaction is indicated by a percentile score of 25 or lower (D. J. Weiss et al., 1967). The mean of academic service quality was 3.48 ($SD = 0.76$), which indicates that the employees were largely satisfied with the service provided by their university. Mean values that lie between 1.00 to 1.49, 1.50-2.39, 2.40-3.49, 3.50-4.49 and 4.50-5.00 indicate very poor, poor, moderate, high, and very high academic service quality, respectively (Dauda et al., 2013). Employees in the present study, then, can be said to view their university as possessing moderate service quality. Table 8 includes the descriptive statistics for each transformational leadership scale, overall job satisfaction, and overall academic service quality based on the 336 responses.

Table 8

Instruments' Scales

Scale	No. of items	*M*	*SD*
Transformational leadership	20	3.80	0.78
Idealized influence (attributed)	4	3.91	0.91
Idealized influence (behavior)	4	3.95	0.87
Inspirational motivation	4	3.92	0.86
Intellectual stimulation	4	3.72	0.94
Individualized consideration	4	3.48	0.98
Job satisfaction	20	3.64	0.70
Service quality	22	3.48	0.76

Summary of Outcome Variables

The MLQ is a multidimensional instrument developed to assess leadership on a 5-point Likert-type scale. For this study, the focus was on transformational leadership. Respondents were asked to answer 20 questions to rate their leaders using a 5-point Likert-type scale. For each of the 20 items, respondents had five options from which to choose. The choices were 1 = not at all, 2 = once in a while, 3 = sometimes, 4 = fairly often, and 5 = frequently, if not always. For example, to determine how participants rated their leaders' transformational style in idealized influence-attributed, the researcher calculated the mean value of the scores for the subscale's components (items 10, 18, 21, and 25) based on the 5-point Likert-type scale. A mean score of this subscale (3.91) indicates that participants believe that university leaders practice that behavior between "sometimes" and "fairly often" with their academic members. The items of each subscale were summed up and divided by 4 for their average. The scores were then compared to the score of each scale and to the corresponding percentile score given in the norm tables (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 2000). In this case, the mean score of 3.91 corresponds to roughly the 42nd percentile in the norm table, indicating that Al-Baha University's leaders are less transformational than 58% of leaders worldwide.

The MSQ was also used to measure the participants' level of satisfaction. Participants were asked to answer 20 questions and rate their degree of job satisfaction based on a 5-point Likert-type scale. For each of the 20 items, respondents were given five options from which to choose. The choices ranged between 1 and 5. Scores were determined by adding the weight for the responses chosen from the items in every scale. The raw scores were converted to percentile scores by using given tables of normative data shown in the manuals for the MSQ. Higher scores indicate higher levels of job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). High satisfaction is represented by a percentile score of 74 or higher; moderate satisfaction is indicated by a percentile score of 26-74, and low satisfaction is indicated by a percentile score of 25 or lower (Weiss et al., 1967).

Participants also answered 22 questions of the SERVPERF to measure academic service quality as perceived by faculty members based on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The score was summed then averaged, and the range for each category equaled 4/5 (or 0.8) and was calculated based on the four distances between the five weights (Erdem et al., 2014). The weighted means were used to reflect the respondents' attitudes toward each SERVPERF statement. Mean values that lie between 1.00 to 1.49, 1.50-2.39, 2.40-3.49, 3.50-4.49 and 4.50-5.00 indicate very poor, poor, moderate, high, and very high academic service quality, respectively (Dauda et al., 2013).

Leadership: Descriptive statistics. Table 9 summarizes the factor results for idealized influence (attributed) among responses to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire as a whole. Only 3.9% of the responses to the total set of questions claimed that the leaders do not possess any idealized influence (attributed) qualities. Approximately 7.0% of the responses revealed that the leaders show idealized influence (attributed) qualities "once in a while," whereas 20.3% of the responses revealed that leaders "sometimes" show idealized influence (attributed) qualities. The most popular attitudes were "fairly often" and "frequently," representing 31.8% and of

37.1% of the responses, respectively. The grand weighted mean was 3.91, indicating that the

leaders assessed moderately display idealized influence-attributed qualities with a 0.91 standard

deviation (i.e., the measure of how spread out the numbers are from the mean).

Table 9

Idealized Influence (Attributed) Results

Factor	Not at all (1)		Once in a while (2)		Sometimes (3)		Fairly often (4)		Frequently, if not always (5)		Mean	SD	Attitude
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*F*	%			
Idealized influence (attributed)	52	3.9	94	7.0	273	20.3	427	31.8	498	37.1	3.91	0.91	Fairly often

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Table 10 shows the factor results for idealized influence (behavior) among responses to

the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire as a whole. Only 2.5% of the responses indicated the

leaders did not have any idealized influence (behavior) qualities. About 8.4% of the responses

revealed that idealized influence (behavior) qualities occur once in a while, 18.8% reported

sometimes, 32.0% indicated fairly often, and 38.2% noted frequently, if not always. The grand

weighted mean was 3.95, which was between 3.4 and 4.2, indicating that the leaders assessed

moderately display idealized influence-behavior qualities, with a 0.87 standard deviation.

Table 10

Idealized Influence (Behavior) Results

Factor	Not at all (1)		Once in a while (2)		Sometimes (3)		Fairly often (4)		Frequently, if not always (5)		Mean	SD	Attitude
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%			
Idealized influence (behavior)	34	2.5	113	8.4	253	18.8	430	32.0	514	38.2	3.95	0.87	Fairly often

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Table 11 summarizes the factor results for inspirational motivation among responses to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire as a whole. Only 3.1% of the responses to the total set of questions indicated the leaders have no inspirational motivation qualities. About 6.8% of the responses revealed that those leaders show inspirational motivation qualities once in a while, and 17.8% of the responses indicated sometimes. In addition, 39.1% of the responses claimed that leaders show inspirational motivation qualities fairly often, whereas 33.1% of the responses noted they were displayed frequently. The grand weighted mean was 3.92, which was between 3.4 and 4.2, indicating that the leaders assessed moderately display inspirational motivation qualities with a 0.86 standard deviation.

Table 11

Inspirational Motivation Results

Factor	Not at all (1)		Once in a while (2)		Sometimes (3)		Fairly often (4)		Frequently, if not always (5)		Mean	SD	Attitude
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%			
Inspirational motivation	42	3.1	92	6.8	239	17.8	526	39.1	445	33.1	3.92	0.86	Fairly often

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Table 12 summarizes the factor results for intellectual stimulation among responses to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire as a whole. Only 4.5% of the respondents indicated there is no intellectual stimulation, 8.6% of the respondents reported that intellectual stimulation happens once in a while, 24.6% of the respondents noted that intellectual stimulation happens sometimes, 35.0% of the respondents (the highest percentage) reported that intellectual stimulation happens fairly often, and 27.2% indicated that intellectual stimulation happens frequently, if not always. The grand weighted mean was 3.72, which was between 3.4 and 4.2,

indicating that the leaders assessed moderately display intellectual stimulation qualities with a

standard deviation of 0.94.

Table 12

Intellectual Simulation Results

	Not at all (1)		Once in a while (2)		Sometimes (3)		Fairly often (4)		Frequently, if not always (5)				
Factor	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	Mean	SD	Attitude
Intellectual stimulation	61	4.5	115	8.6	331	24.6	471	35.0	366	27.2	3.72	0.94	Fairly often

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Table 13 summarizes the factor results for individualized consideration among responses

to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire as a whole. Only 8.4% of the respondents indicated

there is no individualized consideration, 13.2% of the respondents noted that individualized

consideration happens once in a while, about 24.0% of the respondents reported that

individualized consideration happens sometimes, 30.4% of the respondents (the highest

percentage) noted that individualized consideration happens fairly often, and 24.0% see that

individualized consideration happens frequently, if not always. The grand weighted mean was

3.45, which was between 3.4 and 4.2, indicating that the leaders assessed sometimes display

individualized consideration qualities, with a standard deviation of 0.98.

Table 13

Individualized Consideration Results

	Not at all (1)		Once in a while (2)		Sometimes (3)		Fairly often (4)		Frequently, if not always (5)				
Factor	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	Mean	SD	Attitude
Individualized consideration	113	8.4	177	13.2	323	24.0	409	30.4	322	24.0	3.48	0.98	Fairly often

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Job satisfaction: Descriptive statistics. Table 14 illustrates the descriptive statistics as a

whole for the participants' ratings for the 20-question MSQ based on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

The frequencies add to 6,660, which is 20 times the total number of respondents, as job

satisfaction has 20 factors. The results indicate that only 4.8% of the responses to the total set of

questions corresponded to a very dissatisfied rating category. Approximately 10% of the

responses corresponded to a dissatisfied category, and 24.4% of the responses had a neutral

score. The highest percentage of the responses (34.9%) had a satisfied rating category, and

25.8% of the total responses had a very satisfied rating. The grand weighted mean was 3.64,

which was between 3.4 and 4.2, reflecting a satisfied population, with a 0.70 standard deviation.

Table 14

Job Satisfaction Results

Factor	Very dissatisfied (1)		Dissatisfied (2)		Neutral (3)		Satisfied (4)		Very satisfied (5)		Mean	SD	Attitude
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Job satisfaction	325	4.8	674	10.0	1640	24.4	2345	34.9	1736	25.8	3.64	0.70	Satisfied

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Academic service quality: Descriptive statistics. Table 15 illustrates the descriptive

statistics as a whole for the participants' ratings for the 22-question SERVPERF based on the 5-

point Likert-type scale, in addition to the mean score and the standard deviation. The results

indicate that only 4.9% of the responses strongly disagreed with the set of statements relating to

the feelings of instructors and professors about the quality of the service offered in the university.

Approximately 13% of the responses disagreed with the statements, 34.8% agreed, and 17.8%

strongly agreed. Because all 22 statements are designed to be answered on an agree–disagree

basis to simplify the survey-taking process and to eliminate the double-negative dilemma, among

other reasons, a high mean score corresponds to a high perceived service quality and a low mean score corresponds to a low perceived service quality. In this case, the grand weighted mean was 3.48, which was between 3.4 and 4.2, reflecting a high service quality provided by the university, with a 0.76 standard deviation.

Table 15

Academic Service Quality Results

Factor	Strongly disagree (1)		Disagree (2)		Neutral (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly agree (4)		Mean	SD	Attitude
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%			
Academic service quality	361	4.9	958	13.0	2183	29.5	2571	34.8	1319	17.8	3.48	0.76	Agree

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Relationship between transformation leadership, job satisfaction, and service quality. Table 16 presents a summary of a set of descriptive statistics outlining the mean, 95% confidence interval of the mean, the standard deviation, the minimum and maximum overall score of each subscale measured in the surveys. Table 17 displays the normality and homogeneity test results using Shapiro-Wilk and Levene statistics. The Levene statistic was used to test the homogeneity of variance. Its *p* value was above .05, indicating that the homogeneity conditions were satisfied. The Shapiro-Wilk *p* value was statistically significant, though, suggesting that the variables were not normally distributed. But with large sample sizes even small deviations from normality are often statistically significant (Field, Miles, & Field, 2012), parametric tests are considered viable.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics, Transformation Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Service Quality

	Mean	95% confidence interval for mean		*SD*	Min	Max
		Lower bound	Upper bound			
Idealized influence attributed (IIA)	3.91	3.81	4.01	0.91	1	5
Idealized influence behavior (IIB)	3.95	3.86	4.04	0.87	1	5
Inspirational motivation (IM)	3.92	3.83	4.01	0.86	1	5
Intellectual stimulation (IS)	3.72	3.62	3.82	0.94	1	5
Individual consideration (IC)	3.48	3.38	3.59	0.98	1	5
Transformational leadership (TL)	3.80	3.71	3.88	0.78	1.15	4.95
Job satisfaction (JS)	3.64	3.57	3.71	0.70	1.69	4.92
Service quality (SQ)	3.48	3.4	3.56	0.76	1.41	4.91

Table 17

Normality and Homogeneity Test Results

	Shapiro-Wilk		Levene statistic	
	Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.
Idealized influence attributed (IIA)	0.924	< .001	0.690	.559
Idealized influence behavior (IIB)	0.925	< .001	0.504	.680
Inspirational motivation (IM)	0.917	< .001	1.261	.288
Intellectual stimulation (IS)	0.943	< .001	0.971	.407
Individual consideration (IC)	0.961	< .001	1.484	.219
Transformational leadership (TL)	0.953	< .001	0.289	.833
Job satisfaction (JS)	0.979	< .001	1.524	.208
Service quality (SQ)	0.983	< .001	0.796	.497

Table 18 shows the relationships among the five dimensions of transformational leadership style, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. Higher positive correlations were observed among transformational leadership dimensions. All correlations were statistically significant at the level of .01. The correlations among transformational leadership variables were significant and ranged between (r = .566 and r = .780). The relationships between all variables were highly positive and ranged between r =.477 and r = .780. The highest correlation value was between idealized influence (behavior) and inspirational motivation (r = .780). The lowest correlation value was between idealized influence (behavior) and service quality (r = .477).

Table 18

Correlation: Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Service Quality

Variables	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. Idealized influence (attributed)	1						
2. Idealized influence (behavior)	.753*	1					
3. Inspirational motivation	.699*	.780*	1				
4. Intellectual stimulation	.621*	.691*	.749*	1			
5. Individualized consideration	.597*	.574*	.566*	.695*	1		
6. Job satisfaction	.587*	.564*	.619*	.592*	.609*	1	
7. Service quality	.515*	.477*	.520*	.495*	.513*	.640*	1

*Significant at $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Null Hypothesis Significance Tests

The study involved answering the research questions and test the null hypotheses. The topic of the first research question was, "To what extent, if at all, relationships exist between self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation), job satisfaction, and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University?" The topic of the second research question was, "To what extent, if at all, are differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality?" A significance level (alpha) of .01 was used for all analyses concerning the first research question.

Pearson's product–moment correlation coefficient (*r*) was used to investigate the first research question. Also, the coefficient of determination R^2 was used to indicate the proportionate amount of variation in the response variable y explained by variable x in the linear

regression model. R^2, in this case, describes the proportion of the variance of the dependent variables, job satisfaction and service quality, explained by the independent variables, transformational leadership components. The larger the R-squared is, the more variability is explained by the linear regression model. The interpretation of the correlation coefficients was based on Cohen's (1988) set of descriptors: Conventional threshold values of the coefficient of correlation (R^2) were adopted as measures of small (.01), medium (.09) and large (.25) effect sizes following computation of Pearson's correlation coefficient (Cohen, 1988).

MANOVA was used to investigate the second research question and answer the four research hypotheses with a significance level of .05. In addition, f^2 values of .02, .15 and .35 were adopted as representative of small, moderate, and large effects in the MANOVA, respectively (Cohen, 1988). A significance level (alpha) of .05 was used for all analyses concerning the second research question.

Research question 1. "To what extent, if at all, do relationships exist between self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality among faculty members at Al-Baha University?" Ten hypotheses were developed to test these relationships using each of the five transformational leadership components as independent variables, with job satisfaction and service quality as dependent variables. The first five hypotheses examined the relationship between each of the five transformational leadership components and job satisfaction. Pearson's product–moment correlation coefficient (*r*) was used to investigate these relationships, as well as coefficient of determination R². Table 19 summarizes the correlation.

Table 19

Correlation: Transformational Leadership Components and Job Satisfaction

Variable	r	R^2	Effect size
Idealized influence (attributed)	.587*	.34	Large
Idealized influence (behavior)	.564*	.32	Large
Inspirational motivation	.619*	.38	Large
Intellectual stimulation	.592*	.35	Large
Individualized consideration	.609*	.37	Large

*Significant at the $p < .01$ level (two-tailed).

Null hypothesis 1. "There is no relationship between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 19 shows the result of correlations between the satisfaction score and each MLQ leadership style score. The results revealed a positive correlation ($r =.587$, $p < .01$), indicating a significant relationship exists between the idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding a positive relationship exists between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University. The coefficient of determination was $R^2 = .344$, indicating that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable job satisfaction explained by the independent variable idealized influence (attributed) is approximately 34.4%, according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors a moderate effect (see Figure 3).
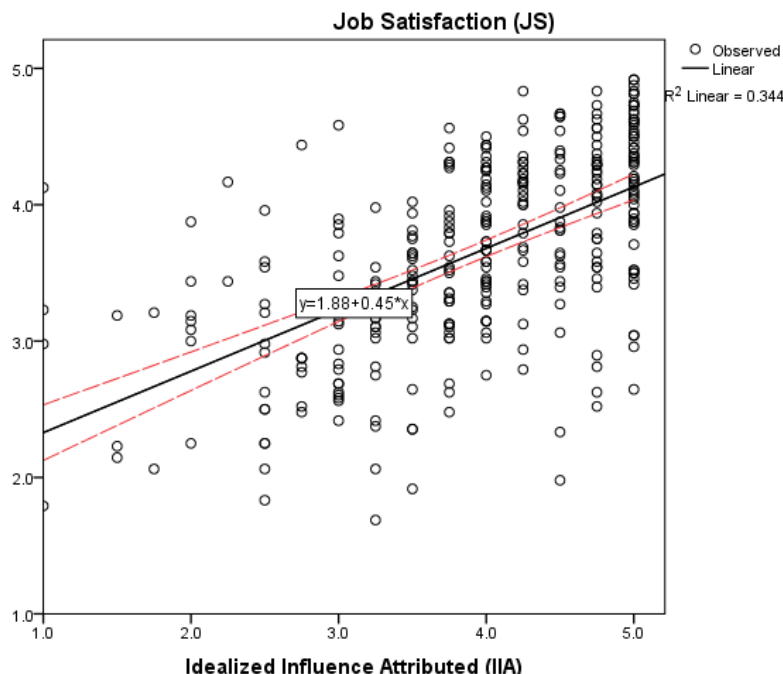
Figure 3. Idealized influence (attributed) and job satisfaction scatter diagram.

    Null hypothesis 2. "There is no relationship between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 19 presents the result of correlations between job satisfaction and each of the MLQ leadership style scores. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation ($r = .564$, $p <$ .01), which indicates that a statistically significant relationship exists between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination $R^2 = .318$, which indicates that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable job satisfaction that can be explained by the independent variable idealized influence (behavior) is approximately 31.8%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, this relationship has a large effect (see Figure 4).
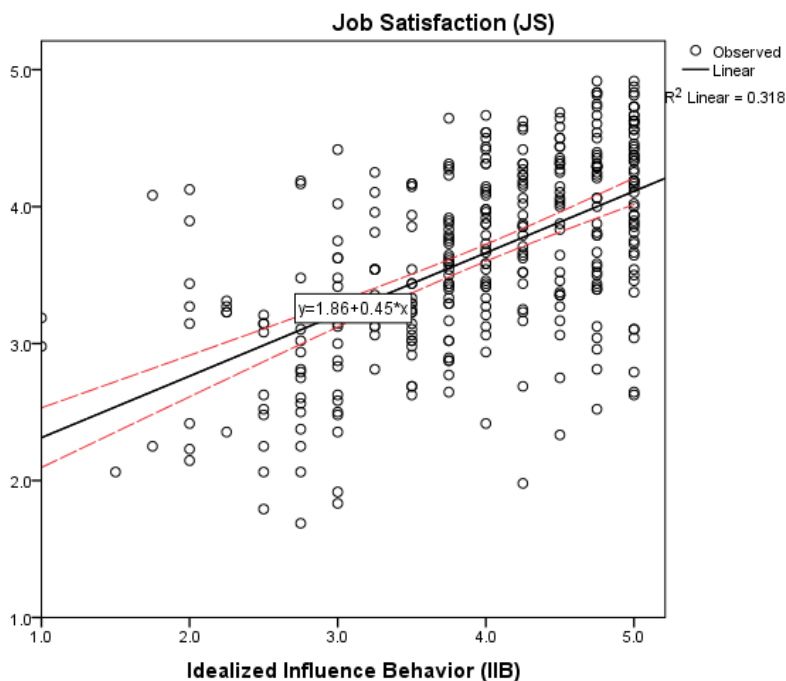
Figure 4. Idealized influence (behavior) and job satisfaction scatter diagram.

   Null hypothesis 3. "There is no relationship between inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 19 presents the result of correlations between the satisfaction score and each MLQ leadership style score. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation ($r = .619$, $p < .01$), which indicates that a statistically significant relationship exists between the inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "a positive relationship exists between inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination $R^2 = .383$, indicating that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable job satisfaction that can be explained by the independent variable motivation is approximately 38.3%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, this relationship has a large effect (see Figure 5).
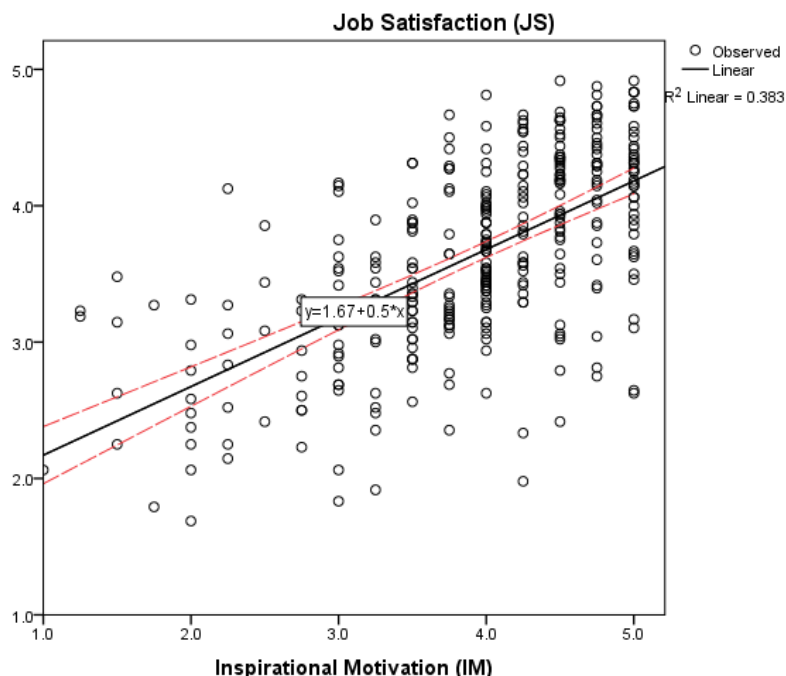
Figure 5. Inspirational motivation and job satisfaction scatter diagram.

Null hypothesis 4. "There is no relationship between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 19 presents the correlations between the satisfaction score and each of the MLQ leadership style scores. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation ($r =. 592$, $p < .01$), which indicates a significant relationship exists between the inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination $R^2 = .351$, which indicates that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable job satisfaction that can be explained by the independent variable stimulation is approximately 35.1%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, this correlation has a large effect (see Figure 6).
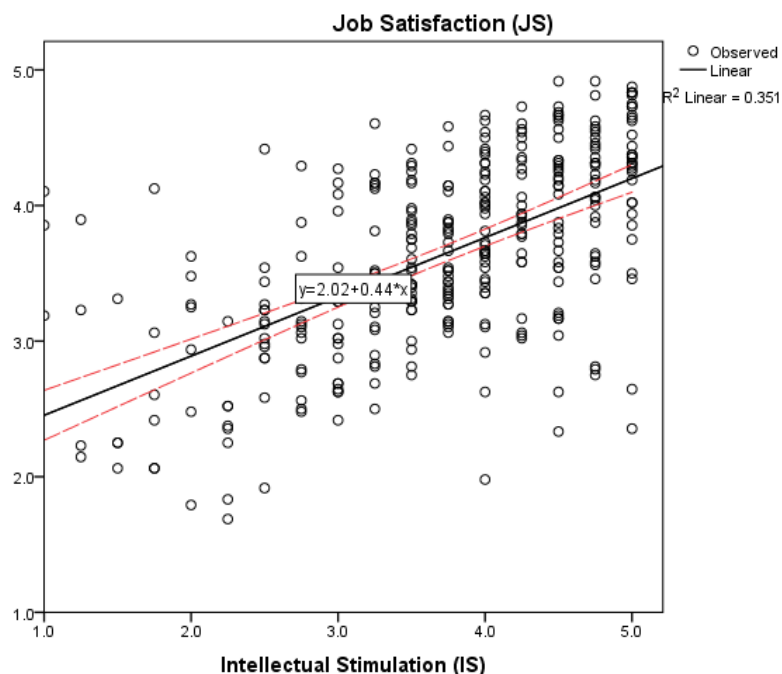
Figure 6. Intellectual stimulation and job satisfaction scatter diagram.

Null hypothesis 5. "There is no relationship between individualized consideration of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 19 shows the result of correlations between the satisfaction score and each of MLQ leadership style scores. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation ($r = .609$, $p < .01$), which indicates a significant relationship exists between the individualized consideration of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between individualized consideration of transformational leadership and job satisfaction among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination $R^2 = .371$, which indicates that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable job satisfaction that can be explained by the independent variable consideration is approximately 37.1%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, this correlation has a large effect (see Figure 7).

Figure 7. Individualized consideration and job satisfaction scatter diagram.

The other five hypotheses examined the relationship between each transformational

leadership component and academic service quality. Table 20 indicates the correlation between

these variables.

Table 20

Correlation: Transformation Leadership Components and Academic Service Quality

Variable	r	R^2	Effect size
Idealized influence (attributed)	.515*	.26	Large
Idealized influence (behavior)	.477*	.22	Moderate
Inspirational motivation	.520*	.27	Large
Intellectual stimulation	.495*	.29	Large
Individualized consideration	.513*	.26	Large

*Significant at the $p < .01$ level (two-tailed).

Null hypothesis 6. "There is no relationship between idealized influence (attributed) of

transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha

University." Table 20 displays the result of the correlations between the satisfaction score and

each of the MLQ leadership style scores. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation (r = .515, $p < .01$), which indicates a significant relationship exists between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and academic service quality. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination R^2 = .266, indicating that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable academic service quality that can be explained by the independent variable idealized influence (attributed) is approximately 26.6%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, a large effect (see Figure 8).
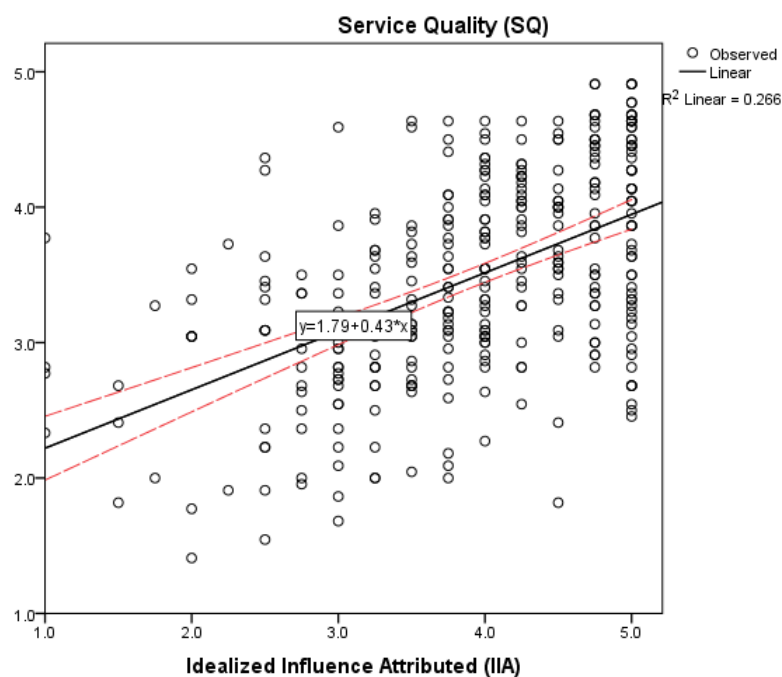
Figure 8. Idealized influence (attributed) and academic service quality scatter diagram.

Null hypothesis 7. "There is no relationship between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 20 presents the correlations between the satisfaction score with each MLQ

leadership style score. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation ($r = .477$, $p < .01$), which indicates that a statistically significant relationship exists between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and academic service quality. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination $R^2 = .227$, which indicates that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable academic service quality explained by the independent variable idealized influence (behavior) is approximately 22.7%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, a moderate effect (see Figure 9).
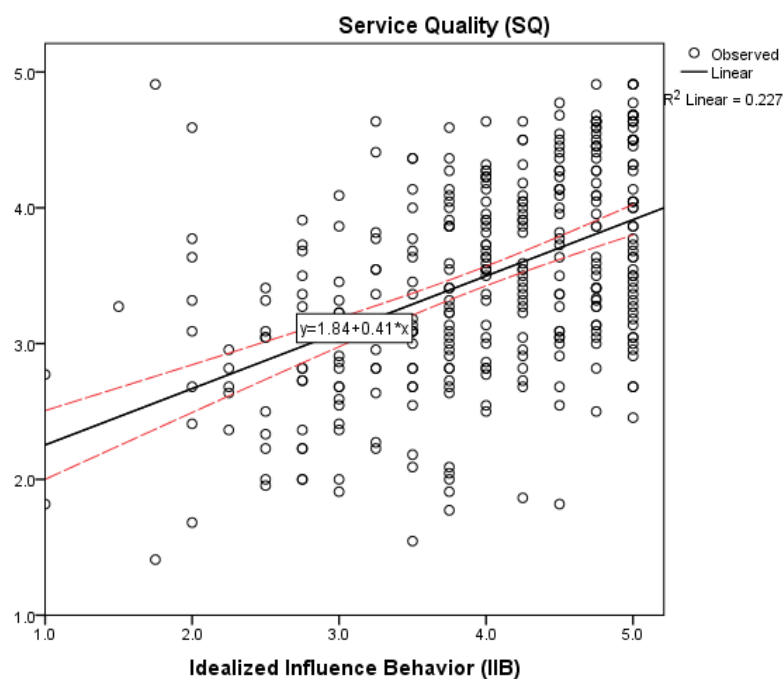
Figure 9. Idealized influence-behavior and academic service quality scatter diagram.

Null hypothesis 8. "There is no relationship between inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha

University." Table 20 presents the correlations between the service quality score and each of MLQ leadership style score. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation ($r = .520$, $p < .01$), which indicates that a statistically significant relationship exists between the inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and academic service quality. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination R^2 = .271, which indicates that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable academic service quality that can be explained by the independent variable inspirational motivation is approximately 27.1%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, a large effect (see Figure 10).
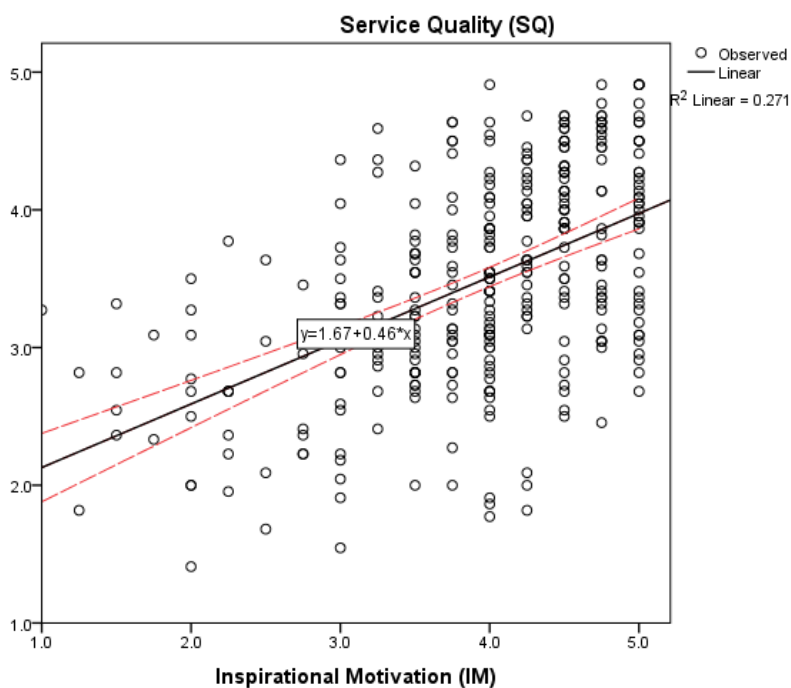
Figure 10. Inspirational motivation and academic service quality scatter diagram.

Null hypothesis 9. "There is no relationship between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 20 presents the correlations for the service quality score with each MLQ leadership style score. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation ($r =. 495$, $p < .01$), which indicates that a statistically significant relationship exists between the intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and academic service quality. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between inspirational motivations of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination R^2 = .245, which indicates that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable academic service quality that can be explained by the independent variable intellectual stimulation is approximately 24.5%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, a moderate effect (see Figure 11).
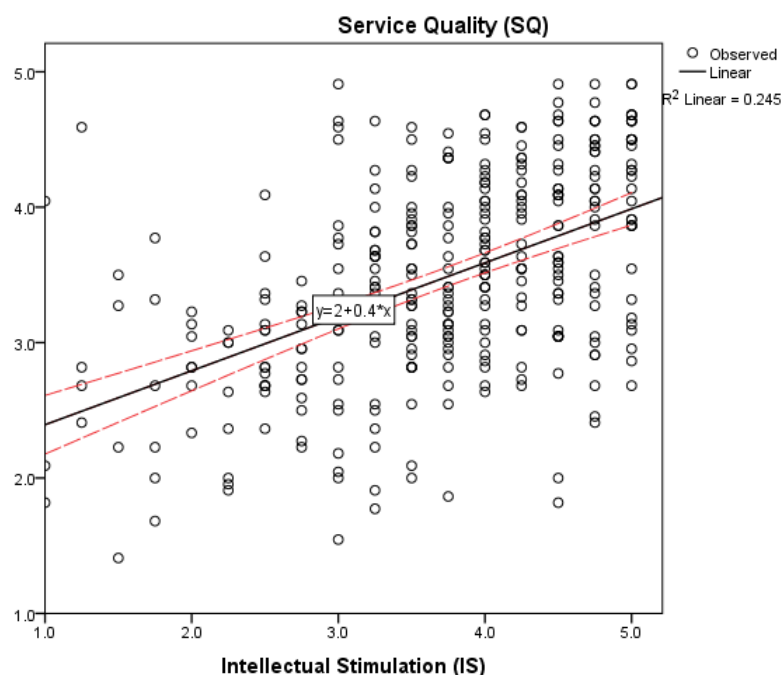
Figure 11. Intellectual simulation and academic service quality scatter diagram.

Null hypothesis 10. "There is no relationship between individualized consideration of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 20 presents the correlations for the service quality score with each MLQ leadership style score. The result revealed a significant positive correlation (r =.513, $p < .01$), which indicates a significant relationship exists between the individualized consideration of transformational leadership and academic service quality. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between inspirational motivations of transformational leadership and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination $R^2 = .263$, which indicates that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable academic service quality that can be explained by the independent variable consideration is approximately 26.3%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, a large effect (see Figure 12).

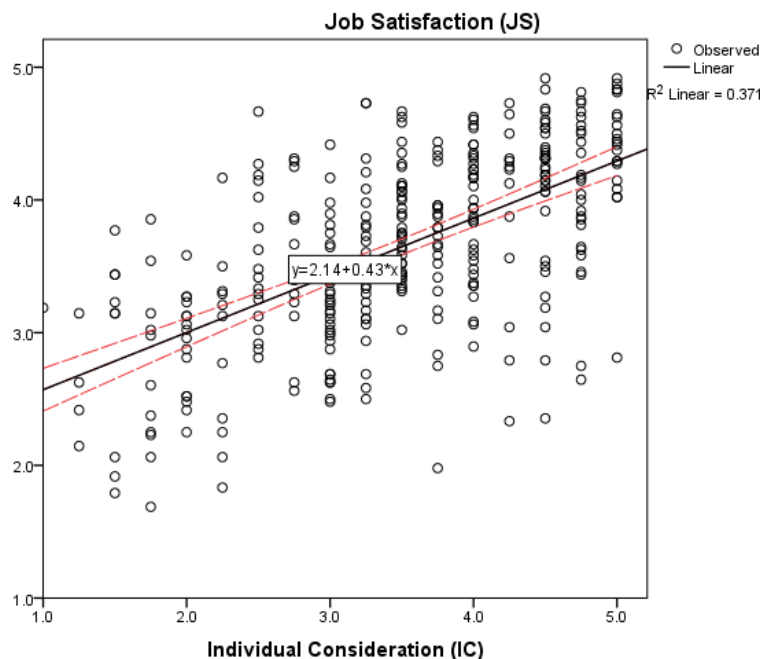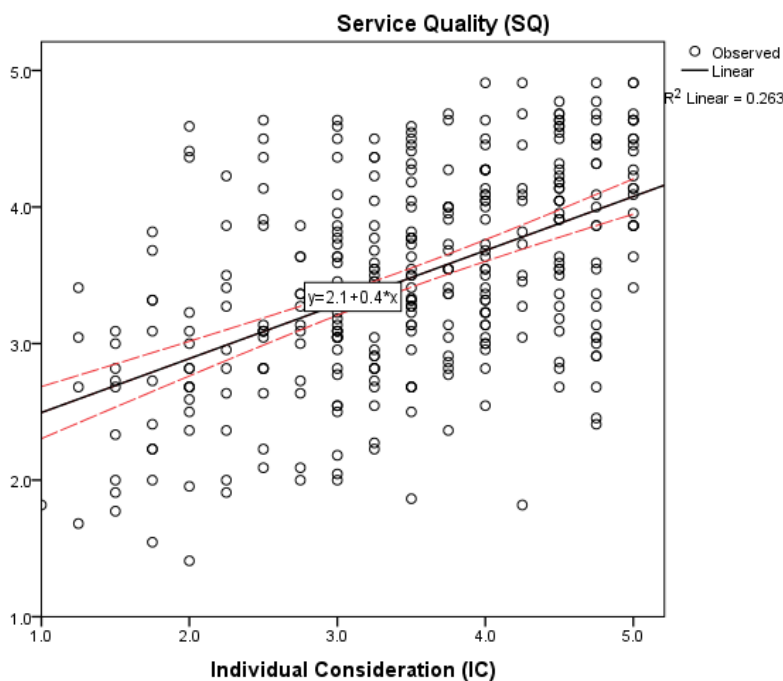*Figure 12.* Individualized consideration and academic service quality scatter diagram and 95% confidence intervals.

Null hypothesis 11. "There is no relationship between job satisfaction and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." Table 21 shows the result of correlations between job satisfaction and academic service quality. The result revealed a significant, positive correlation ($r = .640$, $p < .01$), which is a statistically significant relationship. The findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis, with the researcher concluding, "A positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University." The coefficient of determination $R^2 = .410$, which indicates that the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable academic service quality that can be explained by the independent variable job satisfaction is approximately 41.0%, and according to Cohen's (1988) descriptors, a large effect (see Figure 13).

Null hypothesis 12. "The gender of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University." MANOVA was used to compare two different groups, and the result in Appendix H shows that the gender of faculty members did not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. The findings indicated that there is sufficient evidence to accept the null hypothesis that the gender of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. Cohen's d – a measure for

effect size, defined as the difference between two means divided by a standard deviation for the

data was used as a measure of effect size ANOVA with values of .20, .50 and .80 representing

small, medium and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). The values in Appendix H show a

non-significant, small effect (d ranging between 0.000 and 0.006) of gender.

Table 21

Correlation: Job Satisfaction and Academic Service Quality

Variable	Job satisfaction	R^2	Effect size
Academic service quality	.640*	.41	Large

*Significant at the $p < .01$ level (two-tailed).
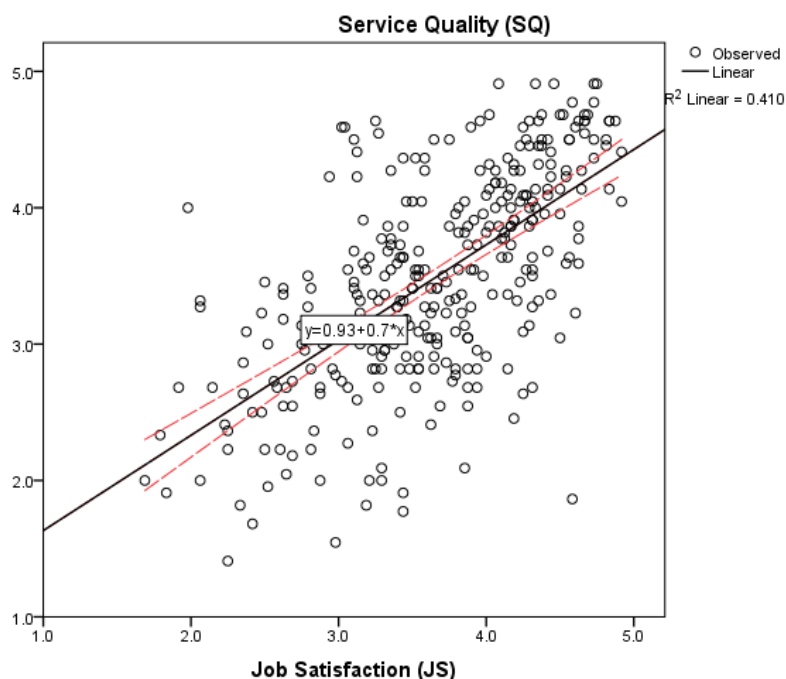
Figure 13. Job satisfaction and academic service quality scatter diagram and 95% confidence

intervals.

   Null hypothesis 13. "The age of faculty members does not differentiate their self-

perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized

influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized

consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University." The result

from the one-way MANOVA test (see Appendix I) shows that the age of faculty members did not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation) and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. Significant differences were found for individualized consideration and job satisfaction (p = .031 and .045, respectively). Therefore, the null hypothesis could not be rejected. However, age was a statistically significant predictor of individualized consideration and job satisfaction. The effect size measure applied to for analyses of variance (ANOVA) was Cohen's f – which is one of several effect size measures to use in the context of an F-test for ANOVA or multiple regression. Its amount of bias (overestimation of the effect size for the ANOVA) depends on the bias of its underlying measurement of variance explained – with values of .10, .25 and .40, representing small, medium and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). The values in Appendix I show a small, non-significant, effect for age, except for individualized consideration and job satisfaction. According to Cohen's descriptors, the effect (f) was small and ranged from 0.008 to 0.026.

Values in Appendix I indicates that both individualized consideration and job satisfaction were significant based on the age group (p = .031 and .045, respectively). The limited-slip differential LSD was used as a post hoc comparisons test for these two factors to determine which age levels differed. As shown in Table 22, age level 46-55 had the lowest mean value for individualized consideration and was significantly higher for two groups: 26-35 and 56-65.

Table 22

Age Group and Dependent Variable Individualized Consideration

Age Group 1	Mean	Age Group 2	Mean	p value	Difference
26-35	3.68	36-45	3.46	.01	26-35 > 36-45
46-55	3.27	56-65	3.69	.04	46-55 < 56-65

As shown in Table 23, age level 46-55 had the lowest mean value for job satisfaction and was significantly higher with two groups: 26-35 and 56-65. The difference was significant toward the last two age groups.

Table 23

Age Group and Dependent Variable Job Satisfaction

Age Group 1	Mean	Age Group 2	Mean	*p* value	Difference
26-35	3.77	36-45	3.63	.01	26-35 > 36-45
46-55	3.50	56-65	3.79	.04	46-55 < 56-65

Null hypothesis 14. "The current position of faculty members did not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University." The one-way MANOVA test was used, and the result in Appendix J shows that the academic position of faculty members did not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. Therefore, the findings indicated that there is sufficient evidence to fail to reject the null hypothesis that the current position of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. The effect size measure applied to for analyses of variance (ANOVA) was Cohen's *f*, with values of .10, .25 and .40 representing small, medium and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). The values in Appendix J show non-significance and small effect based on

current position. According to Cohen's descriptors, the effect size (*f*) was small, ranging from 0.006 to 0.021.

Null hypothesis 15. "The number of years spent by faculty members in their current position does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University." The one-way MANOVA test was used, and the result in Appendix K shows that the years of experience of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. The findings indicated that there is sufficient evidence to fail to reject the null hypothesis that the number of years spent by faculty members in their current position does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University. The effect size measure applied to for analyses of variance (ANOVA) was Cohen's *f*, with values of .10, .25 and .40 representing small, medium and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). The values in Appendix K were non-significant with years spent in current position having a small effect. According to Cohen's descriptors, the effect was small and ranged from <0.001 to 0.013.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

Researchers use the MANOVA technique to compare several groups and each group constitutes several variables. In MANOVA, the hypothesis of preliminary interest is that mean

vectors of several groups are equal. Cohen's f^2 was used as a measure of effect size for

multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), with values of .02, .15 and .35 representing small,

medium and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988).

Using gender as a grouping variable. The null hypothesis pertaining to the participants'

gender stated, "The gender of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels

of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior],

inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job

satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University." The p value of Bartlett's of

sphericity was less than .001, indicating MANOVA could be applied, and the p value of Wilks'

lambda was .029, indicating there is a significant difference between groups with regards the

effect of gender. However, when multiple comparison tests were performed to see which groups

differ, as shown in Table 24, the null hypothesis that "gender of faculty members does not

differentiate" their perceptions was not rejected, with no statistically significant differences

found (p = .419, .556, .169, .305, .707, .405, .199), respectively. According to Cohen's

descriptors (1988), the effects were small = .044, .032, .075, .056, .021, .046, .069, respectively.

Table 24

Descriptive and Estimation for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic

Service Quality Based on Respondents' Gender

Variable	Mean	Std. error	95% confidence interval		p	Effect size
			Lower bound	Upper bound		
Attributed						
Male	3.881	.062	3.760	4.003	.419	0.044
Female	3.965	.082	3.803	4.127		
Behavior						
Male	3.929	.060	3.812	4.046	.556	0.032
Female	3.988	.079	3.831	4.144		

(continued)

Variable	Mean	Std. error	95% confidence interval		p	Effect size
			Lower bound	Upper bound		
Motivation						
Male	3.874	.058	3.760	3.989	.169	0.075
Female	4.008	.078	3.855	4.161		
Stimulation						
Male	3.679	.064	3.552	3.806	.305	0.056
Female	3.789	.086	3.620	3.958		
Consideration						
Male	3.499	.067	3.367	3.631	.707	0.021
Female	3.457	.090	3.280	3.633		
Job satisfaction						
Male	3.616	.048	3.523	3.710	.405	0.046
Female	3.683	.063	3.558	3.807		
Service quality						
Male	3.437	.052	3.335	3.539	.199	0.069
Female	3.548	.069	3.412	3.684		

The null hypothesis pertaining to the participants' age stated, "The age of faculty members does not differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University." The p value of Bartlett's test of sphericity was .001, indicating MANOVA could be applied, and the p value of Wilks' lambda was .026, indicating there was a significant difference between groups with regards to the effect of age. The significance tests found significant differences among Individualized Consideration ($p = .031$) and Job Satisfaction (.045), as shown in Table 25. Post hoc tests were conducted (see Table 26) to determine which category differed from the others, for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic Service Quality found that idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and job satisfaction have statistically significant p values ranging from .01 to .05, with the differences being significant between the

age groups 26-35 and 56-65. According to Cohen's descriptors (1988), the effect size was small

= .012, .016, .008, .021, .026, .024, and.011. respectively

Table 25

Descriptive and Estimation for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic

Service Quality Based on Respondents' Age

Dependent variable	Age	Mean	Std. error	95% confidence interval		*p*	Effect size
				Lower bound	Upper bound		
Idealized influence attributed	26-35	3.823	.100	3.626	4.020	.256	0.012
	36-45	3.888	.079	3.733	4.043		
	46-55	3.926	.095	3.739	4.113		
	56-65	4.202	.163	3.882	4.522		
Idealized influence behavior	26-35	4.012	.096	3.823	4.201	.145	0.016
	36-45	3.902	.076	3.753	4.050		
	46-55	3.863	.091	3.683	4.042		
	56-65	4.250	.156	3.943	4.557		
Inspirational motivation	26-35	4.021	.095	3.835	4.207	.427	0.008
	36-45	3.875	.075	3.728	4.022		
	46-55	3.857	.090	3.680	4.034		
	56-65	4.056	.154	3.754	4.359		
Intellectual stimulation	26-35	3.863	.104	3.659	4.067	.069	0.021
	36-45	3.691	.082	3.531	3.852		
	46-55	3.547	.098	3.353	3.740		
	56-65	3.960	.169	3.628	4.291		
Individualized consideration	26-35	3.677	.108	3.465	3.889	.031	0.026
	36-45	3.464	.085	3.297	3.631		
	46-55	3.269	.102	3.068	3.470		
	56-65	3.685	.175	3.341	4.030		
Job satisfaction	26-35	3.766	.076	3.616	3.916	.045	0.024
	36-45	3.626	.060	3.507	3.744		
	46-55	3.497	.072	3.355	3.639		
	56-65	3.791	.124	3.547	4.035		
Service quality	26-35	3.499	.084	3.335	3.664	.319	0.011
	36-45	3.500	.066	3.370	3.630		
	46-55	3.368	.080	3.211	3.524		
	56-65	3.641	.136	3.373	3.909		

Table 26

Post Hoc Tests for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic Service

Quality Based on Respondents' Age

Age (I)	Age (II)	Mean difference toward	p
Attributed			
26-35	56-65	56-65	.04
Behavior			
36-45	56-65	56-65	.05
46-55	56-65	56-65	.03
Stimulation			
26-35	46-55	26-35	.03
46-55	56-65	56-65	.04
Consideration			
26-35	46-55	26-35	.01
46-55	56-65	56-65	.04
Job satisfaction			
26-35	46-55	26-35	.01
46-55	56-65	56-65	.04

Using current position as a grouping variable. The null hypothesis pertaining to the

participants' current position stated, "The current position of faculty members does not

differentiate their self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence

[attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and

individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University."

The *p* value of Bartlett's test of sphericity was less than .001, indicating MANOVA could be

applied, and the *p* value of Wilks' lambda was .027, indicating a significant difference existed

between groups with respect to the effect of current position. Significance tests failed to reject

the null hypothesis, with no significant differences found (*p* = .526, .049, .05, .029, .519, .505,

.and .592) respectively, as shown in Table 27. According to Cohen's descriptors (1988), the

effect was small = .007, .014, .021, .014, 007, .007, and .006, respectively. Table 28 shows the

post hoc tests, displaying a differene between professors and associte professors in the idealized

influene-behavior, between professors and assistant professors, as well as professors and

insutrctors in motivation, and between professors and assistant professors in stimulation. The

mean difference was toward the professors group in all those instances.

Table 27

Descriptive and Estimation for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic

Service Quality Based on Respondents' Positions

Dependent variable	Position	Mean	Std. error	95% confidence interval		p	Effect size
				Lower bound	Upper bound		
Idealized influence attributed	Professor	4.110	.156	3.804	4.417	.526	0.007
	Associate professor	3.924	.100	3.727	4.121		
	Assistant professor	3.896	.072	3.753	4.038		
	Instructor	3.827	.115	3.600	4.053		
Idealized influence behavior	Professor	4.250	.149	3.956	4.544	.049	0.014
	Associate professor	3.890	.096	3.701	4.079		
	Assistant professor	3.941	.069	3.805	4.078		
	Instructor	3.887	.111	3.670	4.105		
Inspirational motivation	Professor	4.221	.146	3.933	4.508	.05	0.021
	Associate professor	3.985	.094	3.800	4.170		
	Assistant professor	3.888	.068	3.754	4.021		
	Instructor	3.766	.108	3.553	3.979		
Intellectual stimulation	Professor	4.029	.162	3.712	4.347	.029	0.014
	Associate professor	3.741	.104	3.536	3.945		
	Assistant professor	3.669	.075	3.522	3.817		
	Instructor	3.645	.120	3.410	3.880		
Individualized consideration	Professor	3.625	.169	3.292	3.958	.519	0.007
	Associate professor	3.549	.109	3.335	3.763		
	Assistant professor	3.402	.078	3.248	3.556		
	Instructor	3.528	.125	3.282	3.774		
Job satisfaction	Professor	3.789	.120	3.554	4.024	.505	0.007
	Associate professor	3.574	.077	3.423	3.726		
	Assistant professor	3.634	.055	3.525	3.744		
	Instructor	3.661	.089	3.487	3.835		
Service quality	Professor	3.543	.131	3.286	3.799	.592	0.006
	Associate professor	3.385	.084	3.220	3.551		
	Assistant professor	3.517	.061	3.398	3.636		
	Instructor	3.460	.097	3.270	3.651		

Table 28

Post Hoc Tests for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic Service

Quality Based on Respondents' Positions

Variable	Position (II)	Position (II)	Mean difference toward	*p*
Behavior	Professor	Associate professor	Professor	.04
Motivation	Professor	Assistant professor	Professor	.04
		Instructor	Professor	.01
Stimulation	Professor	Assistant professor	Professor	.04

Using years in current position as a grouping variable. The null hypothesis pertaining

to the number of years spent by faculty members in their current positions stated, "The number

of years spent by faculty members in their current position does not differentiate their self-

perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized

influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized

consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University." The *p*

value of Bartlett's test of sphericity was less than .001, indicating MANOVA could be applied,

and the *p* value of Wilks' lambda was .027, indicating there was a significant difference between

groups with respect to the effect of years spent in current position. Significance tests failed to

reject the null hypothesis, with no significant differences found (*p* = .938, .619, .647, .947, .622,

.806 and .046), respectively, as shown in Table 29. According to Cohen's descriptors (1988), the

effect size was small = <.001, .003, .003, <.001, 003, .001, .013, respectively. The post hoc tests

in Table 30 shows a difference between the "less than 3 years" and "3-6 years," with the mean

difference being toward "less than 3 years."

To summarize, the first research question asked "To what extent, if at all, do relationships

exist between self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence

[attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and

individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality among faculty members at Al-Baha University?" The multivariate, multiple regression table (see Appendix L) was developed to get the estimated values for the coefficients, with the standard error, *p* values, 95% confidence interval for the coefficients and the effect size (partial eta squared). It can be seen that idealized influence-attributed, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration are the only significant and positive variables affecting both job satisfaction and service quality. The other variables (including the demographic variables) have no significant *p* values.

Table 29

Descriptive and Estimation for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic Service Quality Based on Respondents' Experience

Dependent variable	Years	Mean	Std. error	95% confidence interval		*p*	Effect size
				Lower bound	Upper bound		
Idealized influence attributed	Less than 3	3.912	.079	3.757	4.067	.938	< 0.001
	3-6	3.894	.081	3.735	4.052		
	More than 6	3.941	.104	3.736	4.146		
Idealized influence behavior	Less than 3	3.957	.076	3.808	4.106	.619	0.003
	3-6	3.900	.078	3.747	4.052		
	More than 6	4.023	.100	3.826	4.220		
Inspirational motivation	Less than 3	3.940	.074	3.794	4.086	.647	0.003
	3-6	3.870	.076	3.720	4.020		
	More than 6	3.980	.098	3.787	4.174		
Intellectual stimulation	Less than 3	3.726	.082	3.564	3.887	.947	< 0.001
	3-6	3.730	.084	3.565	3.896		
	More than 6	3.688	.109	3.474	3.901		
Individualized consideration	Less than 3	3.498	.086	3.330	3.666	.622	0.003
	3-6	3.423	.088	3.251	3.595		
	More than 6	3.559	.113	3.337	3.782		
Job satisfaction	Less than 3	3.656	.061	3.537	3.776	.806	0.001
	3-6	3.608	.062	3.487	3.730		
	More than 6	3.665	.080	3.508	3.822		
Service quality	Less than 3	3.562	.066	3.433	3.691	.046	0.013
	3-6	3.370	.067	3.238	3.502		
	More than 6	3.507	.087	3.336	3.678		

Table 30

Post Hoc Tests for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic Service

Quality Based on Respondents' Experience

Variable	Years (I)	Years (II)	Mean difference (I-J)	*p*
Service quality	Less than 3 years	3-6 years	Less than 3 years	.042

To summarize, the second research question asked "To what extent, if at all, are differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality?" The table in Appendix M was developed using MANOVA. It can be seen from the table that "age" difference affects only individual consideration while "position" difference affects only inspirational motivation. The other variables have no statistically significant *p* values. Additionally, the table in Appendix N reports the results of canonical correlation analysis. Of the two canonical dimensions (job satisfaction and service quality), job satisfaction (dimension 1) had a canonical correlation of .73, while service quality (dimension 2) had a correlation of .13. Both dimensions, combined, were found to be statistically significant (*p* value < .001). However, dimension 2 alone was not found to be statistically significant (*p* value = .705), indicating that dimension 1 alone is statistically significant.

Chapter 4 Summary

Chapter 4 included the findings of the data collection and analysis and of the hypotheses testing for the current study. This chapter revealed the results of each of the 15 null hypotheses. The outcomes of the study indicated that all factors of transformational leadership were significantly and positively correlated with faculty members' job satisfaction and academic

service quality, as measured by the MLQ, MSQ, and SERVPERF. Thus, the null hypotheses for Research questions 1 through 11 were rejected, which indicated a statistically significant relationship between each of the MLQ scales, job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

In addition, the results of the one-way MANOVA analysis showed no differences in the demographic characteristics and variables under investigation, except for individualized consideration and job satisfaction, as significant differences were found based on the age group. Thus, the null hypotheses for the second research question were accepted. Also, the multivariate multiple regression indicated that idealized influence-attributed, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration are the only significant and positive variables affecting both job satisfaction and service quality. Moreover, the MANOVA was used to find the canonical correlations, which found job satisfaction to be statistically significant at a correlation of .73. The age difference affected only individual consideration and job satisfaction, while position difference affected only inspirational motivation. The other variables had no significant p values.

The next chapter includes a detailed discussion on the research findings to synthesize and better understand the current study's findings within the context of the current literature regarding the relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality, in addition to research implications and recommendations for future research and research conclusions.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Implications, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purposes of this study were to identify the extent to which, if at all, relationships exist among perceived levels of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University. Further, the study involved examining the extent to which, if at all, differences exist in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality. Chapter 5 includes a summary of the findings, discussion of the result, implications, importance of the findings and utility of the results. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research, and the research conclusion.

Summary of the Findings

The results of the correlations for the five characteristics of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) were significantly correlated with job satisfaction and academic service quality. None of the resulting correlations related to the first research question possessed a negative correlation, and each null hypothesis was rejected, which indicated a statistically significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and academic service quality. The results revealed that the five independent variables of transformational leadership as measured by the MLQ also highly correlated with each other. The relationship between job satisfaction and academic service quality was also significantly correlated. These findings supported the hypothesis that transformational leaders have a positive influence on employees' satisfaction and academic service quality.

However, the study found no differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the degrees of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. The level of significance for accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis for research was set at $\alpha = .01$. The following discussion will include the findings of this study in more detail. Table 31 shows the result of all study hypotheses.

Table 31

Tests Results Summary

Hypothesis	Correlation variables	Null hypothesis
H1	Idealized influence (attributed) ⟶ Job satisfaction	Rejected
H2	Idealized influence (behavior) ⟶ Job satisfaction	Rejected
H3	Inspirational motivation ⟶ Job satisfaction	Rejected
H4	Intellectual stimulation ⟶ Job satisfaction	Rejected
H5	Individualized consideration ⟶ Job satisfaction	Rejected
H6	Idealized influence (attributed) ⟶ Academic service quality	Rejected
H7	Idealized influence (behavior) ⟶ Academic service quality	Rejected
H8	Inspirational motivation ⟶ Academic service quality	Rejected
H9	Intellectual stimulation ⟶ Academic service quality	Rejected
H10	Individualized consideration ⟶ Academic service quality	Rejected
H11	Job satisfaction ⟶ Academic service quality	Rejected
H12	Demographic differences ⟶ Gender	Accepted
H13	Demographic differences ⟶ Age	Accepted
H14	Demographic differences ⟶ Current position	Accepted
H15	Demographic differences ⟶ Number of years spent at the same position	Accepted

Discussion of the Results

The findings of the study indicated a positive and significant relationship existed among all transformational characteristics, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. The research findings were consistent with the majority of previous studies on the relationship among the three variables under investigation and indicated that the transformational leadership characteristics idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational

motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration highly correlated with job satisfaction and academic service quality (Jabnoun & Al Rasasi, 2005; Ibraheem, Hussein, & Ayat Mohammad, 2011; Tesfaw & Hofman, 2014). No difference in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) was associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality. The results also revealed that the five independent variables of transformational leadership as measured by the MLQ are related with each other in a statistically significant fashion. The result adds to the existing body of literature that encourages the use of transformational leadership in higher education. The following is a discussion of each research hypothesis.

Idealized influence (attributed) and job satisfaction. The topic of the first hypothesis was the relationship between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their leaders routinely exhibited idealized influence (attributed) by responding positively to Question 10 ("instills pride in me for being associated with him/her"; $M = 3.76$), Question 18 ("goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group"; $M = 3.78$), Question 21 ("acts in ways that builds my respect"; $M = 4.04$), and Question 25 ("displays a sense of power and confidence"; $M = 4.07$), with an overall mean score of 3.91 for idealized influence (attributed) on the MLQ. This score indicated the employees perceived their leaders as more transformational than nearly 42% of the leaders worldwide in idealized influence (attributed), according to the MLQ's norm tables. In addition, the relationship between idealized influence (attributed) and job satisfaction produced $r = .587$. The relationship was strongly positive, which indicates that faculty members who work with

leaders with high levels of idealized influence (attributed) in their transformational leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of job satisfaction. This finding was consistent with research by Ibraheem et al. (2011), Tesfaw and Hofman (2014), Atmojo (2012), Riaz and Haider (2010), and Munir et al. (2012), who concluded the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction was positive and significant.

Idealized influence (behavior) and job satisfaction. The topic of the second hypothesis was the relationship between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their leaders routinely exhibited idealized behavior by responding positively to Question 6 ("talks about their most important values and beliefs"; $M = 3.98$), Question 14 ("specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose"; $M = 4.07$), Question 23 ("considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions"; $M = 3.82$), and Question 34 ("emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission"; $M = 3.95$), with an overall mean score of 3.95 for idealized influence (behavior) on the MLQ. This score indicated that the employees perceived their leaders were more transformational than 43% of the leaders worldwide in idealized influence (behavior). In addition, the relationship between idealized influence (behavior) and job satisfaction produced $r = .564$. The relationship was strongly positive, which meant the faculty members who work with leaders with high levels of idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership behavior tended to have a higher level of job satisfaction. This finding was consistent with research conducted by Ibraheem et al. (2011), Tesfaw and Hofman (2014), Atmojo (2012), Riaz and Haider (2010), and Munir et al. (2012), who concluded the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction was positive and significant.

Inspirational motivation and job satisfaction. The topic of the third hypothesis was the relationship between inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their leaders routinely exhibited inspirational motivation by responding positively to Question 9 ("talks optimistically about the future"; $M = 3.98$), Question 13 ("talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished"; $M = 4.14$), Question 26 ("articulates a compelling vision of the future"; $M = 3.71$), and Question 36 ("expresses confidence that goals will be achieved"; $M = 3.87$), with an overall mean score of 3.92 for inspirational motivation on the MLQ. This score indicated that the employees perceived their leader as more transformational than 42% of leaders worldwide in inspirational motivation. In addition, the relationship between inspirational motivation and job satisfaction produced $r = .619$. The relationship was strongly positive, which indicated that the faculty members who work with leaders with high levels of inspirational motivation of transformational leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of job satisfaction. This finding was consistent with research by Ibraheem et al. (2011), Tesfaw and Hofman (2014), Atmojo (2012), Riaz and Haider (2010), and Munir et al. (2012), who concluded the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction was positive and significant.

Intellectual stimulation and job satisfaction. The topic of the fourth hypothesis was the relationship between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their leaders routinely exhibited intellectual stimulation by responding positively to Question 2 ("reexamines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate"; $M = 3.74$), Question 8 ("seeks differing perspectives when solving problems"; $M = 3.76$), Question 30 ("gets me to look at problems from many different angles"; $M = 3.68$), and Question 32 ("suggests new ways of looking at how to complete

assignments"; $M = 3.71$), with an overall mean of 3.72 for intellectual stimulation on the MLQ. The score indicated that the employees perceived their leaders as more transformational than approximately 45% of the leaders worldwide in intellectual stimulation. In addition, the relationship between intellectual stimulation and job satisfaction produced $r = .592$. The relationship was strongly positive, which indicates that the faculty members who work with leaders with high levels of intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of job satisfaction. This finding was consistent with research conducted by Ibraheem et al. (2011), Tesfaw and Hofman (2014), Atmojo (2012), Riaz and Haider (2010), and Munir et al. (2012), who concluded the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction was positive and significant.

Individualized consideration and job satisfaction. The topic of the fifth hypothesis was the relationship between individualized consideration of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their leaders routinely exhibited individualized consideration by responding positively to Question 15 ("spends time teaching and coaching"; $M = 3.66$), Question 19 ("treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group"; $M = 3.41$), Question 29 ("considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others"; $M = 3.44$), and Question 31 ("helps me to develop my strengths"; $M = 3.42$), with an overall mean score of 3.48 for individualized consideration on the MLQ. This score indicated the employees perceived their leaders as less transformational than nearly 70% of the leaders worldwide in individualized consideration. The relationship between individualized consideration and job satisfaction produced $r = .609$. The relationship was significantly positive, which meant the faculty members who work with leaders with high levels of individualized consideration of transformational leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of job

satisfaction. This finding was consistent with research by Ibraheem et al. (2011), Tesfaw and

Hofman (2014), Atmojo (2012), Riaz and Haider (2010), and Munir et al. (2012), who concluded

the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction was positive and

significant.

Idealized influence (attributed) and academic service quality. The topic of the sixth

hypothesis was the relationship between idealized influence (attributed) of transformational

leadership and academic service quality. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their

leaders routinely exhibited idealized influence (attributed) by responding positively to Question

10 ("instills pride in me for being associated with him/her"), Question 18 ("goes beyond self-

interest for the good of the group"), Question 21 ("acts in ways that builds my respect"), and

Question 25 ("displays a sense of power and confidence"), with a mean score of 3.92 for

idealized influence (attributed) on the MLQ. The relationship between idealized influence

(attributed) and service quality produced $r = .515$. This score indicated that the faculty members

who work with leaders with high levels of idealized influence (attributed) of transformational

leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of perception of academic service quality. This

finding was consistent with research by Jabnoun and Al Rasasi (2005), who concluded that the

relationship between transformational leadership and academic service quality was positive and

significant.

Idealized influence (behavior) and academic service quality. The topic of the seventh

hypothesis was the relationship between idealized influence (behavior) of transformational

leadership and academic service quality. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their

leaders routinely exhibited idealized behavior by responding positively to Question 6 ("talks

about their most important values and beliefs"), Question 14 ("specifies the importance of having

a strong sense of purpose"), Question 23 ("considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions") and Question 34 ("emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission"), with a mean score of 3.96 for idealized influence (behavior) on the MLQ. In addition, the relationship between idealized influence (behavior) and academic service quality produced r = .477. The score indicated that the faculty members who work with leaders with high levels of idealized influence (behavior) of transformational leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of perception of academic service quality. This finding is consistent with research by Jabnoun and Al Rasasi (2005), who concluded that the relationship between transformational leadership and academic service quality was positive and significant.

Inspirational motivation and academic service quality. The topic of the eighth hypothesis was the relationship between inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and academic service quality. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their leaders routinely exhibited inspirational motivation by responding positively to Question 9 ("talks optimistically about the future"), Question 13 ("talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished"), Question 26 ("articulates a compelling vision of the future"), and Question 36 ("expresses confidence that goals will be achieved"), with a mean score of 3.92 for inspirational motivation on the MLQ. In addition, the relationship between inspirational motivation and academic service quality produced r = .520. The score indicated that the faculty members who work with leaders with high levels of inspirational motivation of transformational leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of perception of academic service quality. This finding is consistent with research by Jabnoun and Al Rasasi (2005), who concluded that the relationship between transformational leadership and academic service quality was positive and significant.

Intellectual simulation and academic service quality. The topic of the ninth hypothesis was the relationship between intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their leaders routinely exhibited intellectual stimulation by responding positively to Question 2 ("reexamines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate"), Question 8 ("seeks differing perspectives when solving problems"), Question 30 ("gets me to look at problems from many different angles"), and Question 32 ("suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments"), with a mean score of 3.75 for intellectual stimulation on the MLQ. The relationship between intellectual stimulation and academic service quality produced $r = .495$. The score indicated that the faculty members who work with leaders with high levels of intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of perception of academic service quality. This finding was consistent with research by Jabnoun and Al Rasasi (2005), who concluded the relationship between transformational leadership and academic service quality was positive and significant.

Individualized consideration and academic service quality. The topic of the 10th hypothesis was the relationship between individualized consideration of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Participants at Al-Baha University responded that their leaders routinely exhibited individualized consideration by responding positively to Question 15 ("spends time teaching and coaching"), Question 19 ("treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group"), Question 29 ("considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others"), and Question 31 ("helps me to develop my strengths"), with a mean score of 3.48 for individualized consideration on the MLQ. The relationship between individualized consideration and academic service quality produced $r = .513$. The score indicated

that the faculty members who work with leaders with high levels of individualized consideration of transformational leadership behavior tend to have a higher level of perception of academic service quality. This finding was consistent with research by Jabnoun and Al Rasasi (2005), who concluded that the relationship between transformational leadership and academic service quality was positive and significant.

Job satisfaction and academic service quality. The topic of the 11th hypothesis was the relationship between job satisfaction and academic service quality. The finding indicates a significant, positive relationship between job satisfaction and academic service quality of $r = .640, p < .01$. This finding indicates a very strong relationship between job satisfaction and service quality. Hence, leaders at Al-Baha University need to provide all the means that make their faculty members satisfied about their job, because faculty members who have higher levels of job satisfaction will have higher levels of academic service quality. This finding was consistent with research carried out by Naser et al. (2013) and Dehaghani et al. (2015), who concluded the relationship between job satisfaction and academic service quality was positive and significant.

Discussion of Findings

Research question 1. The first research question was as follows: To what extent, if at all, do relationships exist between self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality among faculty members at Al-Baha University? From the previous results and discussion, the researcher concluded that the relationships among transformational leadership's components job satisfaction, and academic service quality were highly positive, which indicated that the faculty

members who work for transformational leaders had higher levels of job satisfaction as well as higher perceptions of academic service quality. Therefore, H1-H10 were fully supported. Moreover, the correlation results revealed that job satisfaction was significantly and positively correlated with academic service quality ($r = .640$). Therefore, H11 was also supported, as a positive relationship existed between the two variables.

This finding indicated that the more frequently university leaders practice the transformational leadership style, the greater the level of satisfaction and commitment by university faculty members. The adoption of the transformational leadership style by university leaders might increase faculty members' satisfaction, which might lead to higher service quality and increased productivity and efficiency. These results provided support for researchers who emphasized the importance of transformational leadership as the foremost practice in private and public sectors, including educational entities (Bass, 1985, 1998; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2013; Talib et al., 2014).

Research question 2. The second research question was as follows: To what extent, if at all, are differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality? A one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the hypotheses that concerned gender, age, current position, and number of years spent by faculty members in their current position. The findings of all hypotheses indicated that there was sufficient evidence to accept the null hypotheses and reject the alternative hypotheses with age group, both individualized consideration and job satisfaction were significant, with $p < .031$ and .045, respectively. The post

hoc test indicated that the difference was significant toward the age groups 26-35 and 56-65. While the overall mean of individualized consideration was 3.48, age group 46-55 had the lowest mean value with 3.27 and age group 56-65 had the highest mean value with 3.69. And while the overall mean of job satisfaction was 3.64, age group 46-55 had the lowest mean value with 3.50 and age group 56-65 had the highest mean value with 3.79.

Implications

This study has implications and impacts in three major areas: theoretical contribution, sturdiness of research methodology, and practical contribution. The theoretical contribution of this study's findings included the addition of important information regarding the perceived values that positively support the research aims that investigate the relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. The inclusion of perceived values in the analysis increased the effect of transformational leadership style on faculty members' job satisfaction and academic service quality.

As for the sturdiness of research methodology, the methodology was based on the existed literature of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. The instruments used in this study had strong reliability and permitted the use of both Arabic and English languages (to allow native and English speakers to participate), as well as the use of pen and paper questionnaires in a hard-copy setting. The study's findings help to fill the gap in the literature on the relationship between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. Participants were asked to rate their leader's style, their (participants') satisfaction, and the university service quality. The leader's behavior with followers can be reflecting in followers' satisfaction, which in turn is associated with their perceptions of service quality.

The practical contribution of the study includes important theoretical contributions that extend the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality literature. This study's findings should contribute to a better understanding of conditions under which transformational leadership behavior was more effective toward employees' job satisfaction and academic service quality. In addition, this study contributes to the understanding of how transformational leadership perceptions may facilitate positive employee outcomes in the higher education sector. This study concluded that if the university leaders adopt transformational leadership behaviors, higher satisfaction and commitment levels from their employees may be possible. The highest satisfaction among age groups was found in the 26-35 and 56-65 groups, which indicated that the university may benefit from determining what leads other groups to be less satisfied.

This finding was also valuable because it indicated that transformational leadership was a crucial factor in enhancing job satisfaction as well as academic service quality in the university setting. Researchers have found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and the amount of effort followers are willing to use to achieve their work (Bass, 1998). Working with a leader who applies the transformational leadership style will motivate followers and encourage them to put more effort into being successful in their work and achieving the goals of their organizations. Further, the findings of this study seem to support Bass's (1985) model that indicated transformational leadership is predictive for both individual and group performance and commitment.

Importance of the Findings

The findings of this study can be used as a guideline by the university leadership to upgrade the effectiveness of leadership style in the university, which may help top management

leaders design effective strategies to enhance the transformational leadership of university leaders, which is a key determinant of achieving high performance. The primary contribution and implication of this study for both researchers and managers is the value of transformational leadership. The findings from this study may contribute to the current research literature and to existing knowledge in the education sector generally and among leaders in particular through an investigation into the relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. Given the lack of research on the relationships among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality, this study may contribute to the body of scholarly knowledge on leadership styles, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. This research is the first known research of its kind conducted at Al-Baha University. The result of this study may help leaders in higher education institutions in general and leaders at Al-Baha University in particular to plan and manage the strategies that may lead them to achieve their university targets and increase their success. Based on the findings of this study, it is worth noting that transformational leadership affects job satisfaction and academic service quality, which makes it very important for university policy makers to take this into consideration in order to meet their organizational goals.

Utility of Results

The study found that the mean score of the leaders' idealized influence behavior was perceived to be displayed the most by university leaders ($M = 3.95$), followed by inspirational motivation ($M = 3.92$) and idealized influence attributed ($M = 3.91$). Intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration had the lowest means ($M = 3.72, 3.48$), respectively, which suggested that university leaders need to pay more attention to these two dimensions with the lowest means.

Intellectual stimulation is a leader's ability to keep followers involved in various tasks by problem solving and posing related queries. According to Bass (1998), "Followers are encouraged to try new approaches, and their ideas should not be criticized because they differ from the leader's ideas" (p. 6). Transformational leaders have the capability to stimulate followers' intellectual ability by asking for ideas and preliminary solutions to problems based on their understandings, beliefs, and standards (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Therefore, in order for the university leaders to improve their followers' perception of their intellectual stimulation practices, they should positively support their faculty members by allowing them to adopt new methods of problem solving, giving them the confidence they need to brainstorm, and empowering them to achieve their tasks most efficiently. Doing so may enable the establishment of a transformational mind-set throughout each department that can enhance both individual and group productivity.

Individualized consideration is a leader's ability to provide constant attention to individuals' needs for growth and achievement. According to Bass (1985), individualized consideration is a behavior that involves delegating, empowering, and supporting subordinates and providing special consideration to each individual's needs and capabilities, rather than treating all followers the same way. Al-Baha University leaders should improve their followers' perception of their leaders' individualized consideration practices by developing their followers' abilities while cautiously providing their followers the necessary coaching and training that can help elevate their performance. The university leaders should understand that individualized consideration is a paradigm that involves a set of personal traits that require the leaders to be very close with faculty members so they can provide a unique level of consideration to each individual's needs, wants, and capabilities.

With regard to service quality at Al-Baha University, employees see their institutional service quality as moderate, which indicates that the university leaders should pay more attention to the requirements and demands of their employees so they can improve the group's overall performance and ultimately improve the overall academic service quality. Specifically, leaders might use reciprocal communications and interactions to increase their followers' effectiveness, efficiency, and job satisfaction.

Recommendations for Future Research

The aim of this study was to explore the relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and service quality among the faculty members at Al-Baha University and to examine if differences exist in demographic characteristics (gender, age, current position, and years spent at current position) associated with the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership characteristics, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. This study aimed to enhance the understanding of the importance of transformational leadership behavior and its relationship to employee satisfaction and academic service quality. The recommendations for further research are as follows.

The findings of the study indicated that individualized consideration and job satisfaction were dependent on age group. Therefore, researchers may need to investigate why these age groups are different for those two categories. Similar research could be conducted to compare private and public universities to see how their transformational leadership practices affect their followers' job satisfaction and their perceptions of academic service quality.

The findings indicate that females reported higher assessments of all dependent variables except the individualized consideration of their leaders, for which males had a higher score. Thus, a future study can be conducted as a comparison between the leadership styles of males

and females to see how faculty members perceive their leader's style and how their practices affect both genders' job satisfaction and their perception of service quality.

Moreover, this study was purely quantitative and used questionnaires and statistical evidence; therefore, future research should use more experimental approaches and add qualitative measures by using focus groups and observations to allow for more insightful inputs. Also, the study only focused on overall job satisfaction and academic service quality, without including their dimensions. Job satisfaction and service quality were collectively analyzed; their dimensions (job satisfaction [intrinsic and extrinsic] and service quality [tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy]) were not individually analyzed in the research model. Therefore, it is suggested that future research includes the subconstructs of job satisfaction and academic service quality to evaluate the possible relationship between the study variables and these subconstructs.

A key recommendation for future research is to conduct similar studies with larger sample sizes to investigate these relationships. If the findings of the new research continue to show a significant relationship between these three variables, then there will be more evidence to support and solidify the conclusion of an existent relationship between the three variables, which means the evidence would be solid enough to generalize the same conclusion to other universities around the kingdom.

Conclusion

Pearson's product–moment correlation coefficient was used to investigate the relationships between the transformational leadership factors (idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behavior], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality. Descriptive

statistics were reported, followed by means, standard deviations, reliability analyses, correlations, and hypotheses testing. The outcomes of the current study were that all factors of transformational leadership have a strong correlation with faculty members' job satisfaction and academic service quality, as measured by the MLQ, MSQ, and SERVPERF. The findings indicated that a significant relationship existed among transformational leadership dimensions with each other, and the findings of the study were consistent with previous research. The findings showed no differences in the demographic characteristics (gender, age [except individualized consideration and job satisfaction were found to be significant], current position, and years spent at current position) and variables under investigation. In addition, the multivariate, multiple regression indicates that idealized influence (attributed), inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration are the only significant and positive variables affecting both job satisfaction and service quality. The age difference affected only individual consideration, while position difference affected only inspirational motivation. The other variables had no significant p values. Future research in the area of leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality in higher education is recommended to conduct similar studies with larger samples and to include an added emphasis to the effect of demographic differences.

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APPENDIX A

Announcement letter

Dear faculty members,

My name is Maha Alghamdi, I am a doctoral student in Organizational Leadership at Pepperdine University's Graduate School of Education and Psychology. I am writing to invite you to participate in my research study about "The relationships among transformational leadership, job satisfaction and academic service quality among faculty members at Al-Baha University" under the supervision of Dr. Doug Leigh.

Participation in the study is voluntary and anonymity will be maintained. There is no anticipated risk from participating in this study. The potential benefits of your participation include providing valued data to the study, therefore it is anticipated that this study will provide further understanding of the relationship between transformational leadership, job satisfaction and academic service quality.

By next week, you will receive a packet that contains the study questionnaires, the information sheet that explains the study nature and an empty envelope to return your answered questionnaire in. The approximate duration for completing the surveys is about 17 minutes.

Your time and effort participating in this study will be greatly appreciated.

If you have any questions, please contact me via:
Email:
Phone:

Thank you,
Maha Alghamdi

APPENDIX B

Permission from Al-Baha University to Conduct the Study

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
AL-BAHA UNIVERSITY

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعـة الباحـة

Permission to conduct the research

March 16, 2015

Maha Alghamdi

Regarding the study entitled: The relationships among transformational leadership, job satisfaction and academic service quality at Al-Baha University.

Maha Alghamdi, a doctoral student in Organizational Leadership at Pepperdine University's Graduate School of Education and Psychology, has the permission of Al-Baha University to conduct research at our university for her study, "The relationships among transformational leadership, job satisfaction and academic service quality at Al-Baha University."

All gathered information will be done in a confidential and appropriate manner and we will provide her the needed support.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact us.

Sincerely,

Vice President for Graduate Studies

and Scientific Research

Prof. Saeed Saleh Al-Rogaib

جامعة الباحة
رقم المعاملة:-٣٦٠١٤١٧٧
نوع المعاملة:
التاريخ:١٤٣٦.٠٥.٢٥
المرفقات:.

الرقم : .... التاريخ : .... المشـفوعات : ....

تليفون: ٧٢٧٤١١١ – ٧ – ٠٠٩٦٦ فاكس: ٧٢٤٧٢٧٢ – ٧ – ٠٠٩٦٦ الباحة: ص.ب (١٩٨٨)
Tel.: 00966 7 7274111 fax: 00966 7 7247272 Al-Baha P.O.Box (1998)

APPENDIX C

Informed Consent Letter

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

INFORMATION/FACTS SHEET FOR EXEMPT RESEARCH

THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, JOB
SATISFACTION AND ACADEMIC SERVICE QUALITY AT AL-BAHA UNIVERSITY.

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Maha Alghamdi, a doctoral
candidate in Organizational Leadership at Pepperdine University's Graduate School of Education
and Psychology, under the supervision of Dr. Doug Leigh, because you are a full-time academic
member at al-Baha University. Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information
below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to
participate. Please take as much time as you need to read this document.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to identify the extent to which, if at all, a relationship exists among
transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. Further, the study will
involve examining the extent to which, if at all, differences in demographic characteristics (gender,
age, current position, and years spent at current position) are associated with the degrees of
transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality.

PARTICIPANT INVOLVEMENT

If you agree to voluntarily to take part in this study, you will receive a packet that includes, along
with this informed consent, four questionnaires that you will be asked to complete and an
envelope to turn in your completed questionnaires. You do not have to answer any questions you
don't want to. The packet will be collected after three days. The study is comprised of four
questionnaires, as detailed in the table below.

Questionnaire	Description	Approximate time needed
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	Measures transformational leadership behaviors	**5** minutes
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)	Measures employee satisfaction with his/her job	**5** minutes
Service Quality Questionnaire (SERVPERF)	Measures academic service quality	**5** minutes
Demographic Questionnaire	Solicits participant information	1 minute

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION

The alternative to participation in the study is not participating or completing only the items which you feel comfortable. Participating in this study will not affect your relationship with your employer penalized for your decision not to participate.

CONFIDENTIALITY

I will keep your records for this study confidential as far as permitted by law. Pepperdine's University's Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research subjects. The data will be stored on a password protected file in the principal investigator's personal computer. All data will be securely stored such that only the investigator will have access to it. There will be no identifiable information obtained in connection with this study. Your name, address or other identifiable information will not be collected. The data will be stored for three years and then destroyed.

INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have any questions regarding participation in this research, please contact me at ███████████████████████████████████ If you have any questions regarding the researcher or the study, you may contact my faculty supervisor, Dr. Doug Leigh ███████████████████

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

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

Sincerely,
Maha Alghamdi

APPENDIX D

Permission to Use Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form

For use by Maha Alghamdi only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on April 28, 2015

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her thesis or dissertation research:

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

APPENDIX E

Permission to Use MSQ Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Twin Cities Campus

Department of Psychology
College of Liberal Arts

N218 Elliott Hall
75 East River Road
Minneapolis, MN 55455
Office: 612-625-2818
Fax: 612-626-2079
www.psych.umn.edu

July 14, 2015

Dear Maha Alghamdi,

We are pleased to grant you permission to use the **Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)**. We acknowledge receipt of payment for 795 **MSQ Short Forms in English or Arabic versions.**

Please note that each copy that you make must include the following copyright statement:

Copyright **1977**, Vocational Psychology Research , University of Minnesota. Reproduced by permission.

We would appreciate receiving a copy of any publications that result from your use of the **MSQ Short Form in English or Arabic**. We attempt to maintain an archive and bibliography of research related to Vocational Psychology Research instruments, and we would value your contribution to our collection.

If you have any questions, or if we can be of any additional assistance, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Sincerely,

Vocational Psychology Research

APPENDIX F

IRB Approval

PEPPERDINE

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: January 20, 2016

Protocol Investigator Name: Maha Alghamdi

Protocol #: 15-08-028

Project Title: THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, JOB SATISFACTION AND ACADEMIC SERVICE QUALITY AT AL-BAHA UNIVERSITY

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Maha Alghamdi:

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

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

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

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

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chairperson

APPENDIX G

Demographic Questionnaire

Please indicate your response for each item.

1			
الجنس	**Gender**		
ذكر	□	Male	
أنثى	□	Female	
2			
العُمر	**Age**		
□	26-35		
□	36-45		
□	46-55		
□	56-65		
3			
الوظيفة الحاليّة	**Current Position**		
أستاذ	□	Professor	
أستاذ مشارك	□	Associate Professor	
أستاذ مساعد	□	Assistant Professor	
محاضر	□	Instructor	
4			
سنوات البقاء في الوظيفة الحاليّة	**Years spent at current position**		
أقل من 3 سنوات	□	Less than 3 years	
3-6 سنوات	□	3-6 years	
أكثر من 6 سنوات	□	More than 6 years	

APPENDIX H

Difference in Perceived Levels of Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Service

Quality with Respect to Respondents' Gender

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	Intercept	3.965	.082	48.064	< 0.001	.874
	[Gender=1]	-.083	.103	-.810	.419	.002
	[Gender=2]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	Intercept	3.988	.079	50.192	< 0.001	.883
	[Gender=1]	-.059	.099	-.589	.556	.001
	[Gender=2]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	Intercept	4.008	.078	51.548	< 0.001	.888
	[Gender=1]	-.134	.097	-1.377	.169	.006
	[Gender=2]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	Intercept	3.789	.086	44.157	< 0.001	.854
	[Gender=1]	-.110	.107	-1.027	.305	.003
	[Gender=2]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Individual Consideration (IC)	Intercept	3.457	.090	38.567	< 0.001	.817
	[Gender=1]	.042	.112	.377	.707	< 0.001
	[Gender=2]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Job Satisfaction (JS)	Intercept	3.683	.063	58.159	< 0.001	.910
	[Gender=1]	-.066	.079	-.834	.405	.002
	[Gender=2]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Service Quality (SQ)	Intercept	3.548	.069	51.424	< 0.001	.888
	[Gender=1]	-.111	.086	-1.286	.199	.005
	[Gender=2]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Sig.	Effect size (d)
Gender	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	0.540	1	0.540	0.655	0.419	NS	0.002
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	0.265	1	0.265	0.347	0.556	NS	0.001
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	1.387	1	1.387	1.896	0.169	NS	0.006
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	0.940	1	0.940	1.055	0.305	NS	0.003
	Individual Consideration (IC)	0.138	1	0.138	0.142	0.707	NS	< 0.001
	Job Satisfaction (JS)	0.338	1	0.338	0.696	0.405	NS	0.002
	Service Quality (SQ)	0.953	1	0.953	1.654	0.199	NS	0.005

APPENDIX I

Difference in Perceived Levels of Transformation Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Service

Quality with Respect to Respondents' Age

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Intercept	4.202	.163	25.835	< 0.001	.668
	[Age=1]	-.378	.191	-1.982	.048	.012
	[Age=2]	-.313	.181	-1.734	.084	.009
Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	[Age=3]	-.276	.188	-1.465	.144	.006
	[Age=4]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	Intercept	4.250	.156	27.202	< 0.001	.690
	[Age=1]	-.238	.183	-1.297	.196	.005
	[Age=2]	-.348	.174	-2.007	.046	.012
	[Age=3]	-.387	.181	-2.141	.033	.014
	[Age=4]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	Intercept	4.056	.154	26.362	< 0.001	.677
	[Age=1]	-.035	.181	-.194	.846	< 0.001
	[Age=2]	-.181	.171	-1.061	.289	.003
	[Age=3]	-.199	.178	-1.119	.264	.004
	[Age=4]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	Intercept	3.960	.169	23.498	< 0.001	.625
	[Age=1]	-.097	.198	-.490	.625	.001
	[Age=2]	-.268	.187	-1.433	.153	.006
	[Age=3]	-.413	.195	-2.117	.035	.013
	[Age=4]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Individual Consideration (IC)	Intercept	3.685	.175	21.025	< 0.001	.571
	[Age=1]	-.009	.206	-.042	.966	< 0.001
	[Age=2]	-.221	.195	-1.137	.256	.004
	[Age=3]	-.416	.203	-2.051	.041	.013
	[Age=4]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Job Satisfaction (JS)	Intercept	3.791	.124	30.551	< 0.001	.738
	[Age=1]	-.025	.146	-.173	.863	< 0.001
	[Age=2]	-.165	.138	-1.199	.231	.004
	[Age=3]	-.294	.144	-2.046	.042	.012
	[Age=4]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Service Quality (SQ)	Intercept	3.641	.136	26.707	< 0.001	.682
	[Age=1]	-.142	.160	-.886	.376	.002
	[Age=2]	-.141	.152	-.932	.352	.003
	[Age=3]	-.273	.158	-1.732	.084	.009
	[Age=4]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	p value	Sig.	Effect size	Partial Eta Squared
Age	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	3.339	3	1.113	1.357	0.256	NS	0.012
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	4.112	3	1.371	1.811	0.145	NS	0.016
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	2.044	3	0.681	0.928	0.427	NS	0.008
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	6.294	3	2.098	2.383	0.069	NS	0.021
	Individual Consideration (IC)	8.558	3	2.853	2.995	0.031	Sig	0.026
	Job Satisfaction (JS)	3.891	3	1.297	2.717	0.045	Sig	0.024
	Service Quality (SQ)	2.033	3	0.678	1.176	0.319	NS	0.011

APPENDIX J

Difference in Perceived Levels of Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic

Service Quality with Respect to Respondents' Current Position

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Intercept	3.827	.115	33.184	< 0.001	.768
	[Position=1]	.284	.194	1.464	.144	.006
	[Position=2]	.097	.153	.636	.525	.001
	[Position=3]	.069	.136	.507	.613	.001
Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	[Position=4]	0[a]	.	.	.	.
Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	Intercept	3.887	.111	35.149	< 0.001	.788
	[Position=1]	.363	.186	1.953	.052	.011
	[Position=2]	.003	.147	.021	.983	< 0.001
	[Position=3]	.054	.130	.417	.677	.001
	[Position=4]	0[a]	.	.	.	.
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	Intercept	3.766	.108	34.828	< 0.001	.785
	[Position=1]	.454	.182	2.501	.013	.018
	[Position=2]	.219	.143	1.526	.128	.007
	[Position=3]	.122	.128	.952	.342	.003
	[Position=4]	0[a]	.	.	.	.
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	Intercept	3.645	.120	30.474	< 0.001	.737
	[Position=1]	.384	.201	1.912	.057	.011
	[Position=2]	.096	.159	.604	.546	.001
	[Position=3]	.024	.141	.171	.864	< 0.001
	[Position=4]	0[a]	.	.	.	.
Individual Consideration (IC)	Intercept	3.528	.125	28.184	< 0.001	.705
	[Position=1]	.097	.210	.460	.646	.001
	[Position=2]	.021	.166	.124	.901	< 0.001
	[Position=3]	-.126	.148	-.855	.393	.002
	[Position=4]	0[a]	.	.	.	.
Job Satisfaction (JS)	Intercept	3.661	.089	41.366	< 0.001	.838
	[Position=1]	.128	.149	.858	.391	.002
	[Position=2]	-.087	.117	-.740	.460	.002
	[Position=3]	-.026	.104	-.253	.800	< 0.001
	[Position=4]	0[a]	.	.	.	.
Service Quality (SQ)	Intercept	3.460	.097	35.807	< 0.001	.794
	[Position=1]	.082	.162	.507	.612	.001
	[Position=2]	-.075	.128	-.585	.559	.001
	[Position=3]	.057	.114	.497	.620	.001
	[Position=4]	0[a]	.	.	.	.

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Sig.	Effect size (f)
Position	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	1.843	3	0.614	0.745	0.526	NS	0.007
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	3.610	3	1.203	1.587	0.192	NS	0.014
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	5.047	3	1.682	2.320	0.075	NS	0.021
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	4.043	3	1.348	1.519	0.209	NS	0.014
	Individual Consideration (IC)	2.206	3	0.735	0.757	0.519	NS	0.007
	Job Satisfaction (JS)	1.138	3	0.379	0.781	0.505	NS	0.007
	Service Quality (SQ)	1.105	3	0.368	0.636	0.592	NS	0.006

APPENDIX K

Difference in Perceived Levels of Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic

Service Quality with Respect to Years Spent at Current Positions

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	Intercept	3.941	.104	37.774	< 0.001	.811
	[Years=1]	-.029	.131	-.223	.824	< 0.001
	[Years=2]	-.047	.132	-.357	.721	< 0.001
	[Years=3]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	Intercept	4.023	.100	40.109	< 0.001	.829
	[Years=1]	-.066	.126	-.527	.599	.001
	[Years=2]	-.123	.127	-.973	.331	.003
	[Years=3]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	Intercept	3.980	.098	40.446	< 0.001	.831
	[Years=1]	-.040	.123	-.328	.743	< 0.001
	[Years=2]	-.110	.124	-.886	.376	.002
	[Years=3]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	Intercept	3.688	.109	33.957	< 0.001	.776
	[Years=1]	.038	.136	.280	.780	< 0.001
	[Years=2]	.043	.137	.312	.755	< 0.001
	[Years=3]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Individual Consideration (IC)	Intercept	3.559	.113	31.463	< 0.001	.748
	[Years=1]	-.061	.142	-.431	.667	.001
	[Years=2]	-.136	.143	-.951	.342	.003
	[Years=3]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Job Satisfaction (JS)	Intercept	3.665	.080	45.787	< 0.001	.863
	[Years=1]	-.009	.100	-.085	.932	< 0.001
	[Years=2]	-.057	.101	-.559	.576	.001
	[Years=3]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.
Service Quality (SQ)	Intercept	3.507	.087	40.381	< 0.001	.830
	[Years=1]	.055	.109	.509	.611	.001
	[Years=2]	-.137	.110	-1.244	.214	.005
	[Years=3]	0ᵃ	.	.	.	.

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Sig.	Effect size
Years	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	0.105	2	0.053	0.064	0.938	NS	< 0.001
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	0.734	2	0.367	0.480	0.619	NS	0.003
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	0.643	2	0.321	0.437	0.647	NS	0.003
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	0.097	2	0.049	0.054	0.947	NS	< 0.001
	Individual Consideration (IC)	0.925	2	0.463	0.476	0.622	NS	0.003
	Job Satisfaction (JS)	0.210	2	0.105	0.216	0.806	NS	0.001
	Service Quality (SQ)	2.482	2	1.241	2.165	0.116	NS	0.013

APPENDIX L

Multivariate Multiple Regression for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and

Academic Service Quality

Dependent Variable		B	Std. Error	t	p	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta Squared
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Job Satisfaction (JS)	Intercept	-0.138	1.811	-0.076	0.939	-3.705	3.428	< 0.001
	IIA	0.165	0.055	2.998	0.003	0.057	0.274	**0.033**
	IIB	-0.018	0.064	-0.276	0.783	-0.144	0.108	< 0.001
	IM	0.231	0.065	3.572	< 0.001	0.104	0.359	**0.047**
	IS	0.046	0.054	0.848	0.397	-0.061	0.152	0.003
	IC	0.193	0.044	4.419	< 0.001	0.107	0.279	**0.070**
	[Gender=1]	0.333	1.588	0.210	0.834	-2.793	3.459	< 0.001
	[Age=1]	1.398	1.759	0.795	0.427	-2.065	4.861	0.002
	[Age=2]	1.840	1.868	0.985	0.326	-1.838	5.517	0.004
	[Age=3]	0.856	0.831	1.031	0.304	-0.780	2.492	0.004
	[Position=1]	1.952	1.840	1.061	0.290	-1.670	5.574	0.004
	[Position=2]	1.619	1.994	0.812	0.418	-2.308	5.545	0.003
	[Position=3]	1.375	1.823	0.754	0.451	-2.214	4.965	0.002
	[Years=1]	0.601	1.571	0.383	0.702	-2.493	3.695	0.001
	[Years=2]	1.410	1.221	1.155	0.249	-0.994	3.813	0.005
Service Quality (SQ)	Intercept	1.546	2.268	0.682	0.496	-2.919	6.011	0.002
	IIA	0.167	0.069	2.414	0.016	0.031	0.302	**0.022**
	IIB	-0.037	0.080	-0.465	0.643	-0.195	0.121	0.001
	IM	0.172	0.081	2.120	0.035	0.012	0.331	**0.017**
	IS	0.074	0.068	1.089	0.277	-0.060	0.207	0.005
	IC	0.197	0.055	3.606	< 0.001	0.090	0.305	**0.047**
	[Gender=1]	0.415	1.988	0.209	0.835	-3.499	4.329	< 0.001
	[Age=1]	0.211	2.202	0.096	0.924	-4.126	4.547	< 0.001
	[Age=2]	0.307	2.338	0.131	0.896	-4.298	4.911	< 0.001
	[Age=3]	-0.173	1.040	-0.166	0.868	-2.221	1.875	< 0.001
	[Position=1]	0.514	2.303	0.223	0.823	-4.021	5.050	< 0.001
	[Position=2]	-0.051	2.496	-0.020	0.984	-4.967	4.865	< 0.001
	[Position=3]	-0.054	2.282	-0.024	0.981	-4.548	4.440	< 0.001
	[Years=1]	-0.336	1.967	-0.171	0.865	-4.209	3.538	< 0.001
	[Years=2]	-1.130	1.528	-0.739	0.460	-4.140	1.880	0.002

APPENDIX M

MANOVA Results for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Academic Service

Quality

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Intercept	Job Satisfaction (JS)	1283.529	1	1283.529	2630.210	< 0.001
	Service Quality (SQ)	1146.529	1	1146.529	1942.570	< 0.001
	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	1577.292	1	1577.292	1796.468	< 0.001
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	1582.819	1	1582.819	1988.197	< 0.001
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	1494.663	1	1494.663	1918.752	< 0.001
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	1381.580	1	1381.580	1511.320	< 0.001
	Individual Consideration (IC)	1206.650	1	1206.650	1220.610	< 0.001
Gender	Job Satisfaction (JS)	0.362	1	0.362	0.741	0.390
	Service Quality (SQ)	1.314	1	1.314	2.227	0.137
	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	1.695	1	1.695	1.931	0.166
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	0.882	1	0.882	1.108	0.294
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	0.797	1	0.797	1.023	0.313
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	1.699	1	1.699	1.859	0.174
	Individual Consideration (IC)	0.002	1	0.002	0.002	0.964
Age	Job Satisfaction (JS)	1.604	3	0.535	1.096	0.351
	Service Quality (SQ)	1.835	3	0.612	1.037	0.377
	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	3.501	3	1.167	1.329	0.265
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	3.192	3	1.064	1.336	0.263
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	3.112	3	1.037	1.332	0.264
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	6.507	3	2.169	2.373	0.071
	Individual Consideration (IC)	9.473	3	3.158	3.194	0.024
Position	Job Satisfaction (JS)	0.193	3	0.064	0.132	0.941
	Service Quality (SQ)	0.410	3	0.137	0.232	0.874
	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	3.184	3	1.061	1.209	0.307
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	3.906	3	1.302	1.635	0.182
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	7.317	3	2.439	3.131	0.026
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	5.069	3	1.690	1.848	0.139
	Individual Consideration (IC)	1.709	3	0.570	0.576	0.631
Years	Job Satisfaction (JS)	0.040	2	0.020	0.041	0.960
	Service Quality (SQ)	1.612	2	0.806	1.365	0.257
	Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)	1.016	2	0.508	0.579	0.561
	Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB)	0.720	2	0.360	0.452	0.637
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	0.480	2	0.240	0.308	0.735
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	1.143	2	0.572	0.625	0.536
	Individual Consideration (IC)	0.704	2	0.352	0.356	0.701

APPENDIX N

The Canonical Correlation results for Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and

Academic Service Quality

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* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * A n a l y s i s   o f   V a r i a n c e -- Design   1 * * * * * * * * * * * *
* *

 EFFECT .. WITHIN CELLS Regression
 Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 2, M = 3 , N = 161 1/2)

 Test Name              Value        Approx. F      Hypoth. DF        Error DF         Sig. of F

 Pillais                .55498       13.91157          18.00           652.00             .000
 Hotellings            1.18339       21.30105          18.00           648.00             .000
 Wilks                  .45393       17.48689          18.00           650.00             .000
 Roys                   .53844
 Note.. F statistic for WILKS' Lambda is exact.
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
- - - - - -
 Eigenvalues and Canonical Correlations

 Root No.       Eigenvalue          Pct.       Cum. Pct.       Canon Cor.       Sq. Cor

       1          1.16658        98.57925       98.57925          .73379          .53844
       2           .01681         1.42075      100.00000          .12859          .01654
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
-
 Dimension Reduction Analysis

 Roots              Wilks L.              F       Hypoth. DF       Error DF        Sig. of F

 1 TO 2              .45393        17.48689          18.00          650.00            .000
 2 TO 2              .98346          .68513           8.00          326.00            .705
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
-
 Raw canonical coefficients for COVARIATES
          Function No.

 COVARIATE               1              2

 IIA                 .29433         .25976
 IIB                -.02016        -.18238
 IM                  .46655         .00007
 IS                  .09543        -.15243
 IC                  .43135         .07915
 Gender              .07721         .88249
 Age                -.00650         .96418
 Position            .09492         .54408
 Years              -.03627        -.86305
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

 Standardized canonical coefficients for COVARIATES
          CAN. VAR.

 COVARIATE               1              2

 IIA                 .26694         .23559
 IIB                -.01760        -.15923
 IM                  .39959         .00006
 IS                  .09009        -.14390
 IC                  .42472         .07794
 Gender              .03712         .42426
 Age                -.00597         .88462
 Position            .08313         .47651
 Years              -.02798        -.66574
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
```