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The relationship between leadership, organizational culture and job satisfaction : the empirical evidence from retail banking industry in Wales

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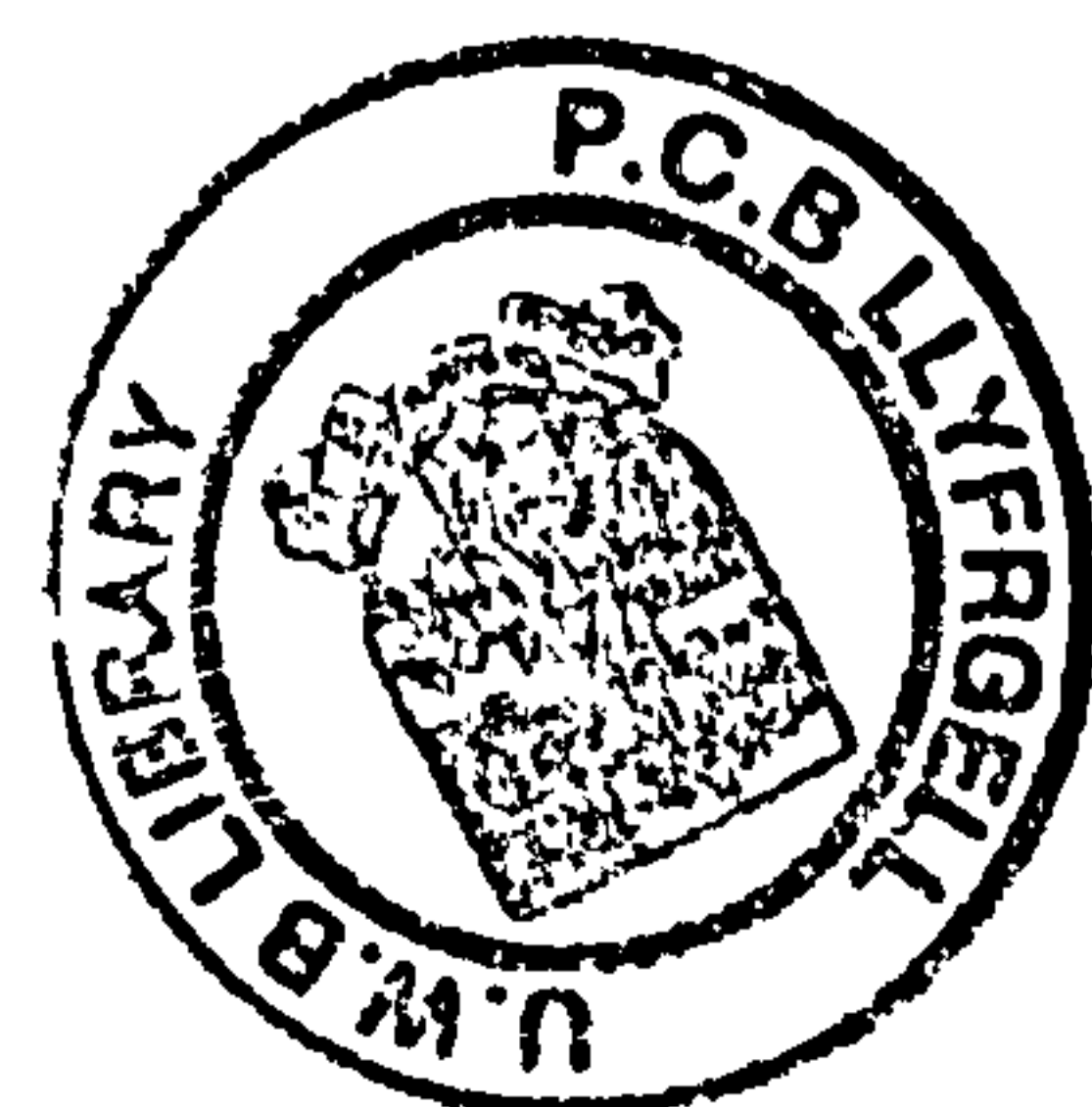
**The Relationship between Leadership, Organizational culture and
Job satisfaction: the Empirical Evidence from Retail Banking
Industry in Wales**

BY

SERENE DALATI

A Thesis submitted to the Bangor University in fulfilment of the requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

May 2008



DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my mother who sacrificed and gave me the best of her life to see me the best person in the world.

I dedicate this work to my father who had only one wish and that is to see me successful and at the top of knowledge.

I dedicate this work to all people who seek freedom of thought, leadership and excellence in everything they seek.

I dedicate this work to our one Universal Human Family.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

It is the final curtain when the writer is in the final stages of writing and producing a work that has taken years of discipline, dedication, thought and hard work, there are thoughts to be explained and feelings of gratitude. The author is dead. At this stage it is the death of the author and the birth of the academic work. However before the work is to be set free, I would like to express my feelings of gratitude and gratefulness to all the people who stood and supported me to make this research work a reality.

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Serene Dalati

ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationship between managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction in organisations. The first section of the study examines three leadership behaviours which are visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours. The second section of the study examines four dimensions of organisational culture. These dimensions are task vs. people oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system cultures, tight vs. loose control system cultures and individual vs. collective cultures. This research benefits from the combination of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. The sample of the study is selected from six commercial banks that provide retail banking services in Wales. The unit of analysis for this research is bank branch managers. The first proposition of the study examines the relation between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership and task vs. people oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system cultures, tight vs. loose control system cultures and individual vs. collective cultures. The correlation analysis between managerial leadership behaviours and organisational culture dimensions shows strong and significant relation in certain organisational aspects and negative relationship in other aspects. The correlation analysis between organisational culture and job satisfaction shows strong positive significance in certain dimensions like the correlation between individual vs. collective cultures and job satisfaction dimensions.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATION

WCP	World Class Performance
RPM	Resonance Performance Model
SBDO	Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire
LBDQ	Leadership Behaviour Development Questionnaire
ACL	Action Centred Leadership
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
LISREL VII	Structural Equation Modelling
IBM	International Business Machine Corporation
EI	Emotional Intelligence
UK	United Kingdom
MBBG	Major British Banking Group
BBA	British Bankers Association
ATM	Automated Teller Machine
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness
ERP	Enterprise Resource Planning

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Peter Dorfman describes leadership as an “enigma- a puzzle within a puzzle. It has I know it when I see it feel yet there is no single comprehensive definition that encompasses all divergent views about leadership” (House et al p. 51). Clawson (1999) describes leadership as an act of engagement. Kouzes and Posner (1995) define leadership as a “performing art-collection of practices and behaviours-not a position”. Leadership can be defined in different dimensions and areas. The context and situational factor of leadership is very important in the sense that there is a relationship between the leader’s personality and the situation. According to Feidler (1967) there is a need to match the leader motivational structure i.e. the goals to which they give the highest priority with the degree to which the situation gives the leader control and influence over the results of their decisions. Leadership in teams is one of the aspects this research study will focus on. Some researchers argue that leadership is needed in all aspects of life. Leadership in a sport activity such as football or basketball team is extremely crucial to the success of the team. Leadership is also crucial in a cinematic or theatrical production and also critical to the director or the producer of the work. A film producer definitely needs leadership qualities, skills and techniques in managing a team of individuals with different tasks.

Leadership is also quite important in military studies. Weeks (2007) points out that recent global events have urged the needs for disaster planning by leaders in all types of organisations which includes both civilian and military organisations. According to Weeks (2007) examples of crisis situations include natural disasters as the Asian Tsunami and Hurricanes Katrina and Rita or the Mann-Gulch fire which occurred in 1949 and the French heat wave crisis (Lagadec, 2004).

Organisational culture is the second dimension of this study. According to Tsui (2006) organisational culture as a subject of a formal study that has captured the interest of researchers. According to Tsui (2006) one approach to organisational culture is a phenomenological approach that focuses on understanding the concept and definition of culture; the second approach focuses on the consequences of organisational culture.

Job satisfaction is the third dimension of this study. According to Graham (1998) job satisfaction is defined as “an effective response by individuals resulting from an appraisal of their work roles in the job that they presently hold” (p.197). According to Kilmann et al (1985) corporate culture is defined as “the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms” (p.5). Deal (1986) defined organisational culture as “the human invention that creates solidarity and meaning and inspires commitment and productivity” (p. 301).

The aim of this research study is to investigate the relationship between leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction. Chapter one presents a brief introduction of the research study. In chapter one, the research background is presented which includes the three main dimensions of the study. These dimensions are managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction. The objectives, rationale of the study and the methodology are also introduced in chapter one. The structure of the thesis is outlined and a brief conclusion is drawn at the end of the chapter. Chapter two presents an overview of the prior literature in the field of leadership, culture and job satisfaction. Chapter three presents the conceptual framework of the research study. In the conceptual framework a brief illustration of the banking industry in the UK is presented. Retail banking, numbers, types of banks in the UK and development in branches number are also briefly discussed. In chapter three the sample of the study, the research objectives and the research questions are presented. In chapter three the propositions of the study are presented and the variables of the theoretical model are discussed. Chapter four discusses the proposed methodology of the research study and overview of the research methods applied in management studies. Theories of deductive and inductive studies are discussed as well as the sample of the study, the data source collected and the questionnaire construction and the measurement scale. In chapter four the fieldwork of the study, the data analysis and the distribution of the data and reliability are discussed for the purpose of determining the data analysis plan. Chapter five discusses the data analysis plan and the research methods employed in the research study. These methods include Bivariate correlation analysis and simple regression analysis. In chapter six the findings and results of the

study are presented and illustrated. The findings of the correlation analysis between managerial leadership and organisational culture, managerial leadership and job satisfaction and organisational culture and job satisfaction are presented and discussed.

1.2 Research Background

The following research study investigates three dimensions of organisational behaviours. The first dimension studies the nature of managerial leadership and focuses particularly on three dimensions of leadership behaviours. These dimensions involve the study of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and will be thoroughly studied in this research study. The second dimension studies the various aspects of organisational culture which will be thoroughly explained further in the research study. The final dimension studies the nature of job satisfaction and explores several indicators of satisfaction at work. The next sections will provide a brief overview of the three sections.

1.3 Managerial Leadership Behaviours

Bass (1990) outlines the different dimensions of leadership and the types of institutions it is found in. Bass (1990) defines leadership according to the following classifications and aspects:

Leadership as a focus of group process

Leadership as personality and its effects

Leadership as the art of inducing compliance

Leadership as the exercise of influence

Leadership as an actor behaviour

Leadership as a form of persuasion

Leadership as a power relationship

Leadership as an instrument of goal achievement

Leadership as an emerging effect of interaction

Leadership as a differentiated role

Leadership as the initiation of structure

Leadership as a combination of elements

According to Bass (1990) leadership is a combination of the above mentioned classifications and dimensions, and it is futile to search for the one and only valid and applicable definition of leadership at any time, any place and under any circumstances. Leadership depends on the methodological and substantive aspects in which one is interested in.

1.3.1 Approaches to Leadership

Adair (1973) describes the traditional approach of leadership which was closer to the term coordinator or facilitator, but neither of the abovementioned terms would express fully the scope and variety of skills and activities that the leader has; and it is strongly argued that leadership is about something more than coordinating, directing, or managing. The three approaches can be outlined as the qualities approach, the situational approach and the group approach.

1.3.1.1 Qualities approach

According to Adair (1973) the quality approach is defined as a traditional and “age-old” approach to leadership in the sense that it lists the qualities and characteristics of an effective leader. The key questions in this approach are what the characteristics are of an effective leader and what makes a leader so. According to Adair (1973) the focus in this respect is on the personal and individual qualities of the leader. The general agreement though is that leaders have certain extraordinary qualities that would recognise them from others, such as charisma, intelligence, the sense of responsibility, the ethical courage, honesty and reliability. There is an argument though in this context as far as the trait approach is regarded and that is the lack of agreement about what characteristics should leaders have (Adair 1973). In other words, with the trait approach there is a need for a valid criterion under which the leader’s characteristics will be measured in a sense that it emphasises the ethical side of leadership.

1.3.1.2 Situational Approach

The situational approach urges that leadership is associated with certain situations and circumstances that dominate this situation. Without this situation the leader is no more capable of doing their role. The situational approach stresses on the self evident importance of the leader in one certain aspect; also situation and context, whereas this leader can be adapted to one kind of group or situation and who could not be visualised as the same leader in a different context, situation or a set of circumstances (Adair 1973). In other words, the situational approach stresses on the importance of the situation that would contribute to the making of the leader, rather than focusing on the human and psychological aspects, qualities and traits of this leader.

1.3.1.3 Group Approach

The group approach points out that leadership is viewed as a spiritual and psychological process which is shared by all members of the group. Again the stress in this context is not on the leader who is only a part of the leadership experience, rather on the group. Whatever happened to be providing an effective impact in this leadership experience at a given time is the leader for the moment. The formal appointed leader is only needed as a necessary back up net if the group failed to direct itself (Adair 1973). The task is extremely important here in this context. If the task is in any way unclear to the group members, it could endanger the whole process of this group.

1. 4 Organisational Culture Dimensions

Hofstede (1989, 2001) outlines six organisational culture dimensions in a research conducted among different business units within one country. These organisational dimensions are outlined as follows:

- 1- **Task vs. people oriented cultures:** where in task oriented cultures the focus is on job performance only not taking into consideration anything further than that. In people oriented cultures there is focus on the welfare of employees.
- 2- **Process vs. result oriented cultures:** where in process oriented cultures the domination is on the technical and bureaucratic routines. In result oriented cultures the focus is on the organisational outcomes.
- 3- **Professional vs. parochial cultures:** wherein professional cultures employees identify with their profession regardless any other factors like their private life and regarded job competence as the only criterion they were hired for; in parochial cultures employees regarded factors other than their abilities and skills to perform the job such as their family background.
- 4- **Open vs. closed system cultures:** wherein open communication system cultures the emphasis would be on creating a friendly and opened environment for employees and knowledge sharing; in closed communication system cultures employees are closed and secretive about their work and it would be difficult for new employees to join and fit in the culture of the organisation.
- 5- **Tight vs. loose control cultures:** wherein in tight cultures the focus is on formality and punctuality within the organisation; in loose cultures there is no

stress on tighter rules as the previous factors mentioned and employees can make jokes or not pay attention to dress code or punctuality.

- 6- Pragmatic vs. normative cultures: wherein pragmatic cultures the emphasis is on meeting targets and customer needs in the sense that results were more important than correct procedures. In normative cultures the emphasis was on correctly following organisational procedure which is more important than results.

1. 4.1 Schein and Organizational Culture

Schein (1983) argues that organizational culture depends on a definable organization in the sense of a number of people interacting with each other to accomplish a certain goal within this environment. The founder of the organization creates this group and by force of his or her personality shapes the group's culture. Organizational culture is the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation. The founder of an organization starts with a theory of how to succeed. This founder has a cultural model based on the experience in the culture in which they grew up. According to Schein (1989) organizational culture reflects the complex interaction between the assumptions of theories that founders bring initially to the group and what the group learns from its own experience.

1.5 Job Satisfaction Dimensions

Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) conducted a model of “World Class Performers” and their interest was in discovering how people find meaning in their performances and the risk they choose to perform at a high level. According to Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) resonance is explored in the WCP as an experience the performer goes through, which is seamless interaction between what they want to feel and that is the internal side of the experience and the environment around them. Resonance is about moving towards a harmonious experience between one’s inner world and his or her surroundings.

According to Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) the “Resonance Performance Model” has four main components: dream, preparation, obstacles, and revisit the dream. The dream is a first component of the RPM and it represents the feelings that individuals seek when they engage in a particular activity. It is defined as an internal feeling that motivates people to continue performing certain activities. Preparation is the second component of the RPM and it involves the activities in which the performer engages to make the dream happen. Preparation is emphasised in the interviews conducted by Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) where participants stressed the preparation stage and described it with pride and joy. It was part of the participants’ creation and expression of their dream. The third component in the RPM is the obstacles phases where the performer encounters problems that stand in the way of achieving the dream. These obstacles could be either external such as rejection, losses, or internal such as fear, self doubt and anxiety. The fourth and the final component of the RPM is revisiting

the dream stage. This stage involves reflection and time to connect the performer with his or her desired feelings to revisit the dream. According to Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) dreams are more important than goals because dreams are lived and experienced everyday and are keys to performance excellence and meaningful living.

According to Locke (1969) job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are complex emotional reactions to the job in the sense that the individual most basic emotions are those of pleasure and displeasure, or joy and suffering. According to Locke (1969) job satisfaction is the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's job values. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is the function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what they perceive it as offering and entailing.

1. 6 Research Objectives

The aim of this research is to study and investigate three behavioural dimensions of leadership. In this research, three leadership behaviours will be introduced: visionary, communicative, and team-oriented leadership behaviours. The aim is to measure leadership behaviours in terms of the relationship to organisational culture and job satisfaction. A leadership model will be introduced, posing the organisational culture and the leadership behaviours as the independent variables, and job satisfaction as the dependent variable. The leadership model will be explained thoroughly in chapter 3 which is the conceptual framework. The first question in this study would be to

investigate the relationship between managerial leadership behaviours and organisational culture. The aim of the study is to investigate the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and four dimensions of organisational culture. These dimensions are task vs. people oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system cultures, tight vs. loose control cultures and individual vs. collective cultures. The second question in this study would be to investigate the relationship between managerial leadership and job satisfaction. The aim of the study is to investigate the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. The third question in this study would be to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. The aim of the study is to investigate the relationship between task vs. people cultures, open vs. closed communication system, tight vs. loose cultures and collective vs. individual cultures and job satisfaction.

1.7 Rationale of the Study

This research study explores the relationship between three organisational dimensions in behavioural and organisational studies. These dimensions are managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction at work. The first dimension in this research study is to investigate three managerial leadership behaviours in organisations. These dimensions of managerial leadership are visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and will be investigated in selected organisations from the banking industry.

The first objective in this research study is to explore the impact of leadership dimensions on the manager in the business organisation. The sample of the study is selected from the banking industry in Wales in the UK. The objective is to study the impact and application of three managerial leadership behaviours in the banking industry organisations in midlevel management. This research study explores the importance and significance of these managerial leadership behaviours in the application of the organisational context where a branch manager or a mid level manager would possess these skills in managing people and teams in their department and work. Studying the application of these leadership behaviours in work is important. The second motive behind this research study is to explore the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours, organisational culture and job satisfaction. This research study explores the relationship between the three dimensions of organisational behaviours. This research study explores the impact of leadership on organisational values and cultures of organisations. Schein (1983) stresses that the founder of the organisation brings their own values and ideologies to the organisation and creates influence shaping the culture of the organisation. The third motive behind this research study is providing a research work that would take into consideration the area of leadership and organisational behaviour, organisational culture and job satisfaction in the banking industry. The prior literature in the field of managerial leadership shows that there is a lack of research in leadership and organisational and managerial behaviours in the banking industry. This research study investigates specific leadership behaviours that are suitable and applicable in the banking sector. This research study investigates the

application of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours of branch managers in the banking sector.

1.8 Methodology

The research study aims at investigating the relationship between managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction. The first step in designing the methodology of this research study is by developing a theoretical model of managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction. The model was designed on basis of the prior literature and the research investigated in the areas of leadership, culture and job satisfaction. The methodology of the research study was designed by conducting a questionnaire survey with branch managers. The questionnaire was designed in three sections. The first section was developed to measure managers' perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours. The second section was designed to measure managers' perception of the organisational cultures in the selected organisations of the study. The third section was designed to measure the managers' level of job satisfaction at work. The sample of the study was selected from the Banking industry and organisations in Wales in the United Kingdom. The data collection involves distributing a questionnaire to a total sample of 740 branches selected from the banking organisations. The data analysis involves measuring the correlation between managerial leadership and organisational culture, managerial leadership and job satisfaction, and organisational culture and job satisfaction.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

The research background consisted of the research three main areas of study. The first area of study is managerial leadership which consists of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours. The second area is organisational culture and the third area of the study is job satisfaction. In the introduction of the objectives of the study are presented as well as the rationale of the study. The methodology of the research and the structure of the thesis are also presented. Finally a concluding section is presented at the end of the chapter.

The thesis is structured in the following design. The first chapter is the introduction which includes the research background, the research objectives, the research questions, the rationale of the study, the methodology applied in the study and the structure of the thesis. The second chapter is the literature review. The literature review examines the prior research in the fields of the study and the related areas of research. The third chapter is the conceptual framework. The conceptual framework includes the theoretical leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction model. The conceptual framework also includes the research questions and hypotheses and dependent and independent variables. The fourth chapter is the methodology chapter. In the methodology chapter an overview of the research methodology in management is presented, the employed sample of the study is also presented, the data sources of the study and the data collection method. The fifth chapter is data analysis. In the data analysis chapter descriptive data analysis is conducted and presented with the purpose of deciding a parametrical or non parametrical data analysis strategy to be employed.

The sixth chapter is the discussion and findings. In the discussion and findings chapter the hypotheses are discussed and the results are reported. The seventh and the final chapter is the conclusion. In the conclusion the major findings of the study are reported and the research contribution and the policy implication of the research is presented and conclusion of the research study is presented. The next chapter of the research study will be introducing and the literature review and the theoretical background in various dimensions in managerial leadership, organisational culture and satisfaction at work. These areas of managerial leadership involve a brief comparison between leadership and management, presentation of various theories of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership, the presentation of theories of organisational culture and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide a review of the literature to managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction in organisations. The second section of the literature review chapter draws a distinction between leadership and management where a differentiation between of the two terms is drawn. The third section investigates the various theories of visionary leadership. The fourth section investigates the various concepts of transformational and transactional leadership where as section five discusses the theories of charismatic leadership. The sixth section is dedicated to communicative leadership and theories of managerial communication. The seventh section investigates the concepts of team oriented leadership and collective identity. The eighth, ninth and tenth sections investigate the various approaches of behavioural approaches to leadership and the contingency models of leadership. The eleventh section reviews the theories of organisational culture and the twelfth section investigates the concepts of job satisfaction. Section thirteen provides criticism and analysis on the literature review and studies examined in this chapter. Finally the chapter summary concludes with an overview of the literature.

2.2 Leadership and Management

According to Heller (2002) a distinction between management and leadership is argued in the sense that managing people effectively requires having both management and leadership skills. The challenge lies in applying both types of skills suitably in a given situation to deliver a successful result. According to Heller (2002) management deals with the complexities of organizational life as problem solving, planning, and controlling. Leadership fundamentally deals with the personal behaviour and styles. It is concerned with motivating emotions and seeking to develop a vision among the members of the team and inspiring them to make this vision a reality. According to Heller (2002) leadership and management may demand different skills but they are not exclusive and could be interlinked. An effective manager will need to combine both skills. However, there would always be an interrelation between the management style and the management task. That is to say, managing a group of scientists conducting research is different from managing a group of administrators processing forms. This is due to the difference in task and the situation and the environment whereas this group or team is operating. The kinds of people are different as well as the task. There is a distinction between several theories of management styles. Heller (2002) classifies two major styles of management. First is the directional style, where the manager directs people of what they should do. It is argued that this style is most appropriate in times of crisis, or when dealing with difficult employees. Second is the democratic style as the manager actively engages the group or team in decision making and seeks their agreement and cooperation. This style is more effective particularly with work groups where a process of organisational change is implemented.

Kotter (1990) differentiates between the two terms stating that since most people in leadership positions are called managers in our world today, the suggestion in this context is that leadership and management are not the same thing. In Table 2.1, Kotter draws a classification between both leadership and management in the organisational context.

Table 2.1 Difference between Management and Leadership

Management	Leadership
Planning and budgeting – establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results, and then allocating the resources necessary to make that happen	Establishing direction- developing a vision of the future, often the distant future, and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision
Organising and staffing – establishing some structure for accomplishing requirements, staffing that structure within individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people and creating methods or systems to monitor	Aligning people – communicating the direction by words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies and accept their validity
Implementation	
Controlling and problem solving – monitoring results vs. plan in some details, identifying deviations and then planning and organizing to solve these problems	Motivating and inspiring energizing people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change by satisfying very basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs
Produce a degree of predictability and order and has the potential of consistency Producing key results expected by various stakeholders (e.g., For customers, always being on time; for stockholders, being on budget)	Produces change, often to a dramatic degree and has the potential of producing extremely useful change (e.g. new products that customers want, new approaches to labour relations that help make a firm more competitive)

Source: Kotter (1990)

According to Kotter (1990) management and leadership are similar in certain aspects in the sense that they both involve deciding what needs to be done, establishing people's network and relationships that can achieve the plan making sure that those people will get the job done. On the other hand, there are also differences between the two terms. The planning and budgeting process of management focuses on time frames from the range of few months to the few years. Leadership focuses on longer time frames visualising the broad picture and strategies of calculated risk and people's values. Similarly, organising and staffing, focuses on specialisation getting the right employee/trainee in the right job. Leadership, on the other hand, focuses on getting the whole group in the right direction. The process of controlling and problem solving focuses on suppression and control, where as motivating and inspiring focus on empowering and energizing people

According to Kotter (1990) the leadership process helps bringing new challenging situations under control, but leadership can not keep operation on time and on budget. On the other hand management alone cannot initiate an effective change. Leadership and management are both significant and needed in the organisation and any combination other than both strong management and strong leadership has the potential for producing unsatisfactory results. Strong management without leadership, results with bureaucracy and order for order's sake, strong leadership without management may on the other hand, result chaos and change for change's sake.

Northouse (2001) outlines the different classification systems developed to define the dimensions of leadership. One dimension is to view leadership as the focus of group process, where he suggests that from this perspective, the leader would be seen at the

centre of the group change and activity and embodies the will of this group. Other dimensions, he adds, focuses on personality perspective and individual characteristics. Other dimension defines leadership as an act of behaviours i.e. the approach and the way the leader does to lead change in the group. Northouse (2001) also points out that leadership is the power relationship that exists between leaders and followers in the sense that leaders have power and exercise it to effect change in others. This approach also includes leaders as agents of change through vision setting, role modelling, and individualised attention. The sum of these approaches can be outlined as the basis for a definition of leadership. Firstly, leadership is a process, secondly it involves influence; thirdly it occurs within a group context, and finally it is achieving a certain goal. Northouse (2001) defines leadership as a process where an individual leader influences a group of individuals to achieve a common purpose.

The next section presents the various theories of visionary leadership and comparison between transactional and transformational leadership, charismatic leadership in organisations and how this is related to the study in general.

2.3 Visionary leadership

The aim of this section is to discuss the nature of vision in the philosophical and organizational senses. According to Kouzes and Posner (1995) in the organizational and managerial sense the term vision has been studied by several key authors especially in the late 20th century, who stressed the importance for organizations who are competing in a global business environment, the importance of having an idealized image of the future and vision of the organization. Bennis and Nanus (1985)

point that vision communicates a view of a potential and credible attractive future for the organization, a condition that is better in some aspects than what now exists and that it may be “as vague as a dream or as precise as a goal or mission statement” (p. 89). Tichy and Devanna (1986) describe vision as a conceptual framework or blueprint or a plan for what the organisation will look like in the future.

Conger and Kanungo (1998) defined vision as a set of idealized future goals established by the leader that represents a perspective shared by followers. Kouzes and Posner (1997) define vision as “an ideal and unique image of the future” (p. 95). House (1999) defines vision as the values shared by both leaders and followers, and it is about a better future and followers have the right in it and it embraces ideology of the leader. Quigley (1993) defined vision in three contexts and that is values, missions and goals. Boal and Bryson (1988) see vision as an image of the future that articulates the values, purpose and identity of followers.

Kouzes and Posner (1995) outlined five fundamental practices of exemplary leadership. First is the leader’s ability to challenge the process, second is inspiring a shared vision, third is enabling others to act, fourth is modelling the way and fifth is encouraging the heart. According to Kouzes and Posner (1995) challenging the process may be by developing a new product, a cutting-edge service or a start-up of a new plant or business. Any challenge, by definition, requires a process of change which goes through success stories about extraordinary leaders who all challenged the process by not keeping things the same. Challenging the process is also by taking risks and learning from the accompanying mistakes. Successful and extraordinary leaders also had visions and dreams of what could be. The vision is a force that

invests the future. Leaders inspire a shared vision and have a desire to make something happen, to change the way things are and to generate something that no one else has ever created before. Leaders also enable others to act in the sense that they enlist the support and assistance of all those who must make the project work as well as promoting cooperative goals. Leaders strengthen people by giving power away, providing choice, developing competence, assigning critical tasks and offering visible support. Leaders also model the way for others by setting examples and building communication through these examples, and standing for their beliefs and values. Leaders also encourage the heart of their followers to carry on by firstly recognizing individual contribution to the success of every project and celebrating team work and accomplishment regularly. According to Kouzes and Posner (1995) leadership is *the* “art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for a shared aspiration” p. (30). Kouzes and Posner (1995) report that not everyone they interviewed used the term vision in describing leadership practices, and that some refer to it as purpose, mission, legacy, dream, goal, calling, or personal agenda. However no matter what the term was, the objective was the same and that is leaders want to do something significant and accomplish something no one else has yet achieved. Vision derives from a word literally meaning see and the capacity to be forward looking and foresighted. Vision suggests future orientation. Vision is an image and a picture of what could be and the strategic intent of an organization. Vision connotes a standard of excellence, an ideal and a choice of values. Vision also has the quality of uniqueness.

Kouzes and Posner (1995) report on a CEO who is interviewed in their study whose vision for his company was a principle of total quality people, total quality control and quality leadership. The vision this chief executive officer reported in this study was that customer service was as important as the physical quality of the product, and improving the service will improve profit. According to Kouzes and Posner (1995) vision is a highly attractive opportunity for the organization, a dream and a force that invests in the future. Kouzes and Posner (1995), outline five fundamental practices as the findings of their research, after conducting case study analysis, focus groups, and survey reviews in the context of the organisations their research focused on. They started their research in the early 1980s by surveying several thousand business and government executives, with the aim of answering the fundamental open-ended question: “What values do you look for and admire in your superiors?” In responding to the abovementioned question, managers identified more than 225 different traits. These items were reduced to fifteen categories in consequence of further analysis. Through a series of quantitative studies, they reached further insight into the leadership actions that influence people’s assessments of credibility.

Strange and Mumford (2002) investigate the nature of vision and address questions with respect to two styles of visionary leadership: these styles were charismatic and ideological leadership. The theory of vision formation proposed suggests that vision based leadership may be associated with stylistic differences. On the one hand, in vision formation leaders could emphasize personal values, standards to be maintained, on the other hand, leaders who place greater emphasis on these consideration in vision formation might be referred to as ideological leaders. Strange and Mumford (2002) distinguish five mechanisms of vision used to influence followers. First the potential

future of the term vision specifies direction, purpose and uniqueness of the venture. Second is vision provides organizing action around an evocative and involving set of future goals providing a mechanism motivating followers. Third, vision could provide a sense of identity and meaning. Fourth, the common framework for action provided by vision allows people to coordinate and integrate their activities. Fifth, with institutionalization of the prescriptive beliefs embedded in a vision, vision could serve as a basis for development of organisational norms and structure.

Strange and Mumford (2005) argue that the development of a model of vision formation must begin with a definition of what is meant by the term vision. According to Conger (1999) vision is defined as a future goal state. Strange and Mumford (2005) point out that vision is an image of the future that articulates the values, purposes and identity of followers. Zaccaro and Banks (2004) argue that to enhance competitive advantage, managers and leaders need to promote greater strategic flexibility in their organizations. Strategic flexibility argues Zaccaro and Banks (2004) depends on several factors, two of which include the ability to manage change and the ability of managers to develop an organizational vision that is effectively translated into a strategic plan. According to Senge (1990) effective visions are called positive visions and are those that emphasize change, aspiration for growth; ineffective visions emphasized continuing the status quo even under environments that are changing. According to Zaccaro and Banks (2004) effective visions are those that offer an image of a changing organization.

According to Karami (2006) a clear vision defines the rules for acting incrementally and opportunistically and that the success depends greatly on creating a vision because organisations need understanding of where it is going and what it is achieving. According to Karami (2006) it is important to distinguish the term vision from mission as the two terms have two different concepts. Whereas a mission statement describes where the organisation is now, a vision statement describes what the organisation would like to become. According to Kakabadse et al (2005) if vision is the projected image of the products, services and the organization a business leader wishes to achieve, then vision as one of the business senses is less about actual sight than it is foresight. Kakabadse et al (2005) argues that successful visionary leadership not only crafts the end future goal and how to get there but also the reasons for doing so and what that means not only to the company and its profits but also to the teams and the individuals who make up those teams.

Kakabadse et al (2005) identifies four steps backwards and four steps forwards that would play role in organizations effective visioning. The factors which impair organizations from achieving effective visioning are organizational chaos which is resulting from divisions in the ranks which gives rise to a divided company, paradoxical empowerment where the different agendas of the empowered ranks conflict and cause confusion; in fighting which turns the corporate energy negatively and short-term orientation which is a result of survivalist internal environment. According to Kakabadse et al (2005) four steps towards effective visioning are first personal conviction for the cause, commitment of the senior team, fast feedback and establishing a visioning culture.

According to Lissack and Roos (2001) vision as a management phenomenon touches upon issues of leadership, motivation, empowerment cognitive complexity and self transforming organizations. Lissack and Roos (2001) argue that vision should engage with goal setting, team orientation and futuristic orientation. It may define a pathway to success for the future of the firm or it may illustrate the goals a firm has established.

2.4 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

According to Ergeneli et al (2007) it has been discussed that there is a difference between transactional leaders who try to suit the existing needs of the followers by focusing attention on the exchanges between the leader and the follower and the transformational leaders who attempt to raise the need of followers and promote dramatic changes of individuals, groups or organizations.

According to Bass (1997) transformational leadership is universally effective across cultures. That is why global managers need universally valid leadership theories that could transcend cultures. Transformational leaders build a connection with their followers that elevates both followers and leaders through four dimensions of transformational leadership. The first dimension is idealized influence, second is inspirational motivation, and third is intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Maslim-Wicks 2007, Bass 1985).

According to Bass (1998) there is a distinction between authentic and pseudo-transformational leaders in the sense that pseudo-transformational leaders utilize transformational methods but they lack the moral authority of authentic transformational leadership. Authentic transformational leaders advance progress through a common good and they achieve this aim through morally defensible means. According to Bass (1998) authentic transformational leaders pay attention to the needs and interests of their followers by paying attention and concern for others and encouraging their followers to transcend their own self interest in the pursuit of this common goal. Pseudo-transformational leaders may have public interest in mind or they may be serving self-interested goals. According to Berson et al (2001) the distinction between transactional and transformational leadership is very essential in terms of articulating future direction for the organisation. According to Berson et al (2001) where as managers use transactional influence by setting specific targets and goals, transformational leaders influence to excite followers to work towards long term ideals and strategic objectives. According to Yammarino et al (1993) a differentiation between transactional and transformational leadership is argued. A transaction or exchange process is the basis of a commonly employed paradigm for the study of leadership. Transactional leadership can be characterized as contingent reinforcement where the leader recognizes the subordinates' needs and desires and then clarifies how these needs and desires will be met in exchange of enactment of subordinates' work role. In contrast, transformational leadership is seen when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their subordinates to the purpose and mission of the group and when they move their subordinates to the purpose and mission of the group. According to Yammarino et al (1993) transformational leaders are more charismatic and inspiring in the eyes of their subordinates. Charismatic leaders have

influence and inspire loyalty to the organization. According to Bass and Avolio (1993) among the most important behaviours of transformational leaders are the communications of vision and the focus on goal attainment by building subordinate self confidence.

2.5 Charismatic Leadership in Organizations

In a study of *Charismatic Leadership in Organizations*, Conger and Kanungo (1998) build a model of charismatic leadership as an attribution and acknowledgement based on followers' perceptions of their leader's behaviour and argue that charisma is an attribution made by the followers who see this individual fulfilling this role of leadership, not only as a task oriented or social oriented leader, but also as a charismatic leader demonstrating or possessing charismatic qualities. In this study, charisma is considered as an additional leadership dimension and being distinguished from task, social and participative oriented leadership behaviours. Conger and Kanungo (1998) developed a model of charismatic leadership in organizations. The model focuses on three stages as charismatic leaders engage in the process that involves moving organizational members from an existing present situation towards a future one. In the first stage, the leader role is to evaluate and assess the situation. The leader studies the environment and sees any potential or existing problems or obstacles, and assesses the resources available to them and must also consider the preferences, abilities and the level of satisfaction of the followers or group members. Making assessment of the environmental factors and identifying the problems or weaknesses will establish ground and lead to the second stage of the model which is the introduction of the future goals or the vision.

Conger and Kanungo (1998) define vision as the idealized goal the leader aims that the organization achieves in the future. By introducing an idealized goal to the followers, the vision becomes a source of challenge and motivating force for change of the status quo and their followers' attitude towards the proposed vision. The articulation of vision is also very crucial at this stage. The use of rhetoric, verbal and non-verbal behaviour and persistence to articulate the vision is extremely important. The third stage is about the demonstration of the vision or the task and how these goals can be accomplished. Achieving the vision will be demonstrated through building trust through personal example and risk taking. To achieve the vision the charismatic leader must demonstrate concern for the followers' needs rather than their own ones, and show dedication and commitment to the followers. According to Conger and Kanungo (1998) a charismatic leader must engage in extraordinary acts that are perceived by followers as engaging in great personal risk, cost and energy. Also charismatic leaders are perceived to be knowledgeable and experts in their areas of influence. Conger-Kanungo (1998) model was tested empirically through six different empirical studies that were conducted to measure the theoretical context and framework of charismatic leadership and test a number of hypotheses. The first study by Conger and Kanungo (1998) examined a number of hypotheses studying the relationship between charismatic leadership and the first part of the theoretical framework: the leader's sensitivity to the environment. The Questionnaires applied in the first study were developed by Bass (1985) which measured transformational leadership and the other behavioural attributes were derived from the Conger-Kanungo theoretical model and the questionnaire. The total number of employees belonging to organizations who participated in the study was 121. They were asked to think of a familiar manager in their organization with leadership skills, and to assess

this person against the items presented in the questionnaire and to indicate on a 6-point scale to what degree each item is characteristic of this manager. The results of the study showed that the Conger–Kanungo(1998) theoretical model of charismatic leadership can be studied as a dimension of leadership. The other five studies measured other hypotheses related to the theoretical model of charismatic leadership.

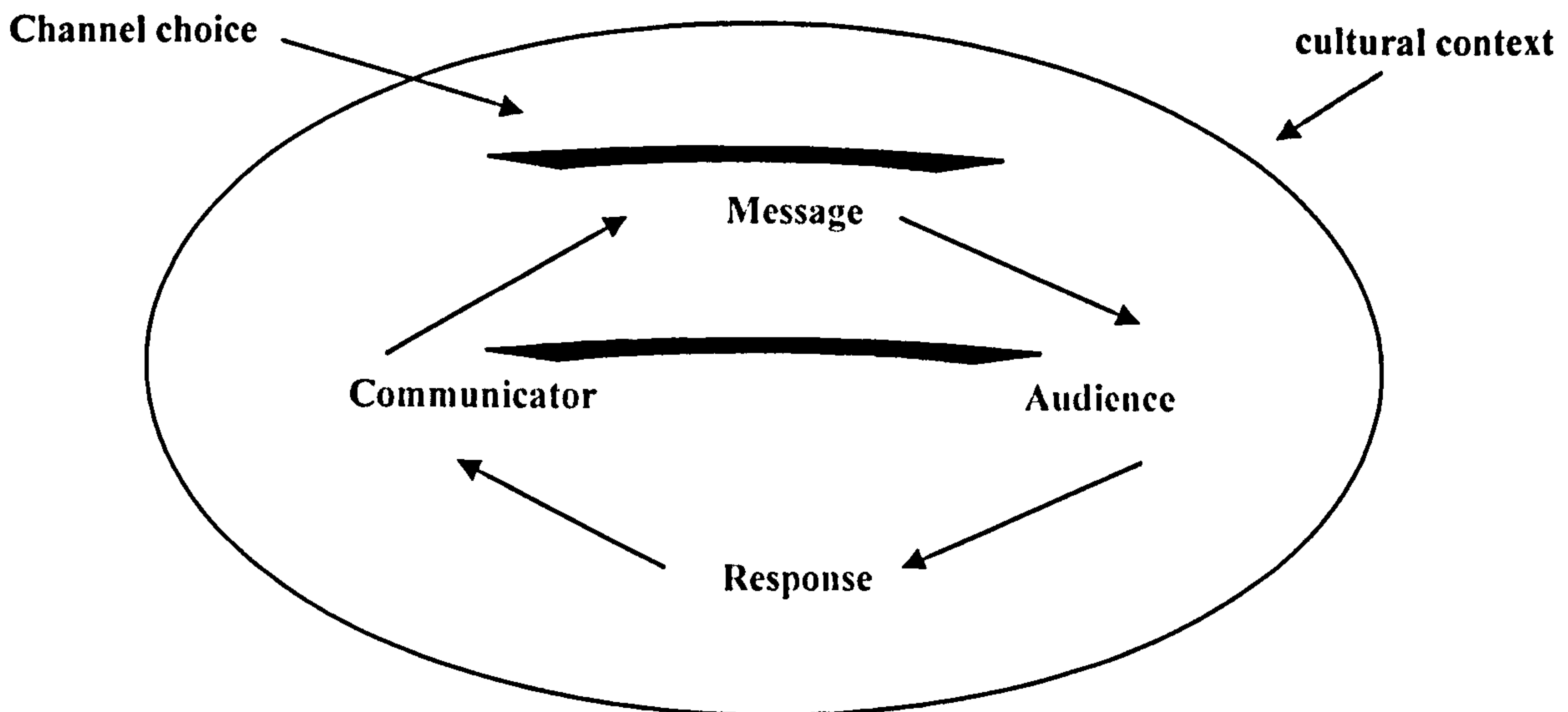
Nur (1998) argues that charisma is originally a religious concept that was introduced by Max Weber in (1947) and “was borrowed by sociology in the 1950s, found its way into political sciences a decade later. In the 1980s, the term was imported into organizational leadership theories. Nur’s (1998) argument is that most of the studies about charismatic leadership were heavily drawn from Weber’s concept of charismatic leadership. Originally charisma which is a Greek word meaning the “gift of Grace”, can be traced to the bible. According to Weber (1947) the term charisma refers to a trait of an individual personality, by which this person is distinguished by other individuals and endowed with supernatural and exceptional qualities that are driven from divine origins. Weber attributed charisma to prophets, saviours and war heroes who possessed a belief shared by their followers. Nur (1998) argues that charismatic leadership in the organizational context is not legitimate or feasible term, as originally it is derived from a divine source that cannot be applied in political and organizational situations. Charisma illustrates its motivational power from the followers’ adoption of the transcendental mission of the leader and their belief in the divine source of this transcendence. As the term is applied in an organizational and secular context, as House and Shamir (1993), Conger and Kanungo (1998) and others did, the term loses its deep meaning and could be defined as any other term except charismatic.

The second leadership dimension in this research study examines the concept of managerial communication and what are the elements that play role in effective communication in organisations. There is a strong relationship between vision and communication. According to Kelly (2000) the content of vision and the process of communicating the vision to organisational members play a role in building a shared context (p.95). The next section investigates and introduces the concept of managerial communication as an organisational leadership behaviour that will be examined in this study.

2.6 Communicative Leadership

In the “Guide to Managerial Communication” Munter (2000) states that business communication is different from other sorts of communication and that is why the communicator needs to pay attention to the response that this communicator desires. Munter(2000) argues that the leader or the communicator is only successful if their message leads to the desired response (p. 3). Munter (2000) stresses the importance of five variables in terms of business communication. These variables are communicator strategy, audience strategy, message strategy, channel choice strategy and cultural context strategy.

Figure 2. 1 Managerial model of communication



Source: Munter (2000 p. 4)

The communicator's objectives are very important because they will be more efficient and no longer a waste time writing or presenting material unless they have a clear reason for doing so. The communicator will be more effective because formulating the objectives precisely will help them communicate more clearly. The communicator style is also important. Communication, like leadership is not only one style and one style only, rather the communicator should use the appropriate style to fit the situation. Munter (2000) distinguishes between the tell style, where the communicator is informing and explaining to the audience, and the sell style where the communicator is persuading or advocating. The communicator wants the audience to do something different. In the consult and join style the communicator wants to learn from the audience. The consult style is collaborative like conducting a questionnaire; where as the joint style is like a brain storming session. Finally the communicator credibility is very important in building a link with the audience. Munter (2000) distinguishes between initial credibility and acquired credibility. The first refers to the audience perception of the communicator before they begin to communicate, and

before they read or hear what the communicator has. Acquired credibility is the audience perception of the communicator after the communication has taken place. According to Munter (2000) communication is not a straight line from a communicator to an audience; rather there are five factors that play role in the shaping of the business communication experience. The brief focus in this context was on the communicator, because the emphasise is on the leader as communicator, although the research shows that leadership is not only the qualities the leader has, rather the tools, skills and the channel they work under. Communication according to Munter (2000) is a combination of five variables and they include communicator, audience, message, communication channel and cultural context. For example, if a British manager is communicating a message in Japan, they have to take into consideration the cultural context, other wise the communication process is in danger. Communication is the art of persuasion, objectives, style and credibility. It is not simply a direct message from communicator to audience. According to Munter (2000) in the audience variable the following questions are posed: who are these audiences, how can the communicator find about them and motivate them. Communication and motivation are related. Communication is also the art of creating a strong relationship between the communicator and receiver. This kind of approach to studying communication is beyond sending and receiving a message. Communication in this context is related to building common understanding between the leader and the team members. In this context there is a strong relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours.

In *Leading Change*, Kotter (1996), emphasizes the importance of developing vision and strategy and answers the question why vision is essential in organisations and what is the nature of vision. What is also extremely important is communicating this vision. In this context Kotter (1996) is studying transformational vision, a vision that is leading towards change. Kotter (1996) emphasises that effective vision requires clarity and simplicity of the message and that communication seems to work best when it is so direct and so simple and it has a sort of elegance (p. 89). Kotter (1996) stresses seven key elements in effective communication of vision. First is simplicity and clarity of the message, second is using metaphor and example, third is using many different forums, fourth is repetition that is repeating ideas, fifth is leadership by example that is communicating through behaviour, sixth is explanation of seeming inconsistency, and seventh is give and take, which is two ways of communication in the sense that the leader listens and be listened to.

Clawson (1999) proposes a general model or approach to influence. The model proposed presents that leaders can have an effective influence on other people if they have: a clear purpose, are able to communicate that purpose clearly and inspirationally, can garner the support of others by showing them how that purpose benefits them, if they can manage reciprocal exchange with others and if they can manage progress toward the purpose. Clawson emphasizes the importance of clarity of purpose and that a leader with an ill defined purpose will be unable to inspire superior efforts. There is also stress on communication, and language being the primary medium through which leaders communicate and influence others. Clawson (1999) proposes four principles that are related to effective communication. The first principle is clarity of communication, and in describing the task. The second principle

is respect, in the sense that effective communication is respectful and implying to followers what values they have and what kind of remarkable contribution they can offer. The third principle is that effective leadership communication is stimulating, and provocative and would cause listener to pay attention, listen and think of the message. The emphasis here is on how the message is delivered. The fourth principle of effective communication is congruency that is walking the talk and leading by example. Clawson (1999) stresses that effective communication is by modelling the way, and performing the task that is required. Communicating by setting examples to others is the last principle of effective communication. According to the definitions and studies reviewed earlier, communication is not only concerned with delivering a message from a communicator or a leader communicating a vision or a task, and a follower listening and receiving a message; rather communication is also related to influence, persuasion, clarity and simplicity of message.

According to Kelly (2000) organizational communication is defined as “the process by which information is exchanged and understood by two or more people, usually with the intent to motivate or influence behaviour” (p.92). Kelly (2000) argues that the basic elements of communication are information source, encoder, message, channel, information receiver, decoder, and noise.

The third leadership behaviour in this research study examines the concept of team leadership, teamwork and team collective identity in the organisational context. There is a strong relationship between managerial communication and team leadership. Burke et al (2006) investigates the relationship between specific team leadership behaviours and team learning and team performance outcomes. These leadership

behaviours employed in the study include transformational, transactional, initiating structure, initiating consideration and boundary spanning. According to Burke et al (2006) boundary spanning involves politically oriented communication that increases the resources available to the team and networking communication which expands the variety of information available to the team (p. 292). Zaccaro et al (2001) stresses the importance of team collective behaviour indicating that the causes of team failure may exist not because of members' inability to perform rather in the failure of the team to coordinate their individual contribution to collective success. The next section investigates the concept of team leadership and team collective identity which will be examined in this study.

2.7 Team Oriented Leadership

The aim of this section is to review the theory and research related to studies on team leadership, the nature of teamwork and other related areas. It is extremely critical at this stage to distinguish between two concepts in terms of the relation to teams and team leadership. The aim of this section is to draw a line and distinguish between the concept of team leadership as a phenomenon in business organizations, and the concept of team-oriented leadership behavior. The first is looking at the phenomenon of team leadership as whole comprehensive experience which involves studying and defining the various elements that contribute to the making team leadership. These elements can be defined as the team members, team leader, the task this team is working on, and the organization this team is working in (Adair 1973, Fiedler 1967, Clawson 1999). Team oriented leadership behavior is defined as a dimension of leadership that emphasizes effective teambuilding and accomplishment of common

goals or tasks among team members (House et al 2004). A definition of the team was provided by Salas, Dickinson, Converse and Tannenbaum (1992). They defined the team as a “distinguishable set of two or more people who interact, dynamically, interdependently and adaptively toward a common and valued goal/objective /mission who have been assigned specific roles of functions to perform, and who have a limited life span of membership. According to Day et al (2004) a team is composed of some number of relatively independent individuals who each have their own needs, goals and expected outcomes that motivate their behavior.

In a theoretical study on team leadership Kogler (2001) developed model of team leadership which provides specific actions the leader can perform to improve team effectiveness. The proposed model illustrates the leader mediation decisions made when making a decision to intervene to improve team functioning. The model illustrates the leader’s mediation decisions in terms of the type of intervention (monitoring or taking action), the level of intervention (internal or external) and the function of intervention. The first decision is whether monitoring or action taking is the most appropriate in the situation. If an action is to be taken, the leader needs to determine the level of intervention process. The third decision for the team leader is to determine the most appropriate functions performed in the intervention.

Kogler (2001) model of team leadership provides a set of team leadership functions which can be classified as internal and external team leadership functions. The internal team leadership focuses on task orientation such as clarifying goals and initiating structure and relational functions such as coaching team members,

collaboration, managing conflict and satisfying needs. The external team leadership functions focuses on the environmental context. According to Kogler (2001) team leadership functions are categorised into three functions. The first is internal task leadership functions which are classified as goal and task in the sense of clarifying, gaining agreement, structure where the focus is on planning, organizing and clarifying roles, facilitating decision making by informing, controlling, coordinating, mediating and issue focusing, training team members in task skills and maintaining standards of excellence by asserting team and individual performance and confronting inadequate performance. The second is internal relational leadership functions which are categorised as coaching team members in interpersonal skills, collaborating, managing conflict and power issues, building commitment by innovating, sharing the vision and socializing, satisfying individual needs of team members, modelling ethical and principled practices. The third is external environmental leadership functions which are categorised as networking and forming alliances in environment, advocating and representing team to environment, negotiating upwards to secure necessary resources, support and recognition for the team members, safe guarding the team members from environmental distractions, assessing environmental indicators of team effectiveness through surveying, evaluating and performance indicators and sharing relevant environmental information with the team. According to Kogler (2001) team performance can be demonstrated by organizational and financial performance. The second aspect of team effectiveness is team development which focuses on the maintenance and the health of the team. The meaning of team development in this context is that individual team members can satisfy their needs by being a part of this team and can effectively work together.

Bolman and Deal (1992) propose eight dimensions towards effective teamwork on the basis of a case study of “Eagle Group” a small group of Data General Engineers in the 1970s in the USA and outline eight characteristics and tenets from the study of “Eagle Group” that made this team successful and phenomenal. The first rule focuses on the importance of being or becoming a team member: where the emphasis is on the importance of becoming a member in a team with extremely high standards and a mission which is almost impossible, and the chances to be accepted in the team are minimal, yet signing up for this job is very important and the team member attitude was: I am going to do this job and I am going to give it my heart and soul. The second is that diversity in the team is a competitive advantage: where the emphasis is on diversity and differences between team members. In the case of the “Eagle Group” each member had a different personality, talent, behavior and style. Although there was tension among these individuals and subcultures, yet diversity in this context was considered as a source of strength to the team. The third tenet focuses on modelling the way for the team by example rather than command: where the emphasis is that the team leader communicated with the team members by modelling the way rather than giving command and emphasizing rules. The leader models the way and communicates the message through action not rules and command. The leader is a source of inspiration and direction. Fourth is that team special language fosters Cohesion and commitment: meaning that every team develops its own words, phrases, and symbols. This reflects the culture of the team and the organization. Having a shared language bonds the team together, sets the group from outsiders and reinforces unique values and beliefs. Fifth is the importance of stories in reinforcing team identity. The emphasis here is that stories provided real life examples to guide everyday behaviour. Stories of persistence disrespect and creativity created an

atmosphere to encourage others to go beyond themselves and add new experience to the team. Sixth is the importance of Humour and play in reducing tension: Effective teams balance seriousness with play and humour. Playful manner and joking are very important sources of invention and team spirit. Humour releases tension and resolves issues that may be caused by routine and becomes part of team identity, and a source of relaxation, stimulation and spiritual rebirth. Seventh is the importance of celebration to reinforce values: the emphasis here is on celebration to provide opportunities for reinforcing values, revitalizing spirit and bonding individuals into a team. According to Bolman and Deal (1992) Eagle Group held periodic ceremonies to lift the moral and provide individual recognition and establish common purpose and direction. Finally the importance of informal cultural players in the team: the focus in this context is on the contribution a team member could play a spiritual and a cultural role within the team. The leader of the team could play this role of the priest or the pastor who takes care of spiritual needs of the team. The existence of such a personality is strength to the team.

Salas et al (2005) study five dimensions that play an important role in the success of teamwork. In their study of interdependent teams they study areas in team work: These dimensions can be outlined as: mutual performance monitoring which is the first dimension in the proposed dimensions in teamwork. It is defined as the team member's ability to monitor other fellow teams while carrying out their work to make sure that they are running their job correctly and that the procedure is correct. This awareness requires a shared understanding of the task, shared mental models and team equipment roles and requirement (Cannon-Bowers et al 1993). Second is backup behaviour which is the supportive actions that team members provide to each other.

Mutual performance gives an opportunity for backup behavior between team members, who will be monitoring their own performance as well as other team members. This technique is important for team members to detect any mistakes or deficiencies or overload and offer assistance and back up support (Salas et al 2005, Day et al 2004, Kakabadse and Kakabadse 2005). Third, is adaptability which refers to the ability to recognize differences of actions and performance of team members and readjust actions. Adaptability enables teams to allocate resources; self correct and redistribute workload taking into consideration organizational and environmental factors. Fourth is team leadership which is extremely important to the teamwork process (Salas et al 2005). Effective team leaders maintain shared understanding to build the team and encourage teamwork, and create a climate to encourage mutual team performance monitoring. The final dimension of teamwork is the orientation of the team towards the individual or the collective. Team and collective orientation is the coordination and orchestration of individual efforts and individual identities to achieve an interdependent collective performance to achieve the task. Team performance will be improved by the ability to bring together team members and develop a shared social team identity (Salas et al 2005).

Tolle (1988) in Management team building discusses the process of team building in terms of the relations to team development, and team training in organizations by combining three meanings and definitions of team, building and teamwork. According to Tolle (1988) the team is defined as a number of persons connected together in a work or activity. Building is defined as developing according to a systematic plan, by a definite process on a particular base. Teamwork is defined as work done by a group

of people each contributing and doing a part but all subordinating personal prominence to the whole task and process.

Tolle (1988) distinguishes four elements in this approach, which are crucial to the success and performance of the organization and team. The first element is mission of the organisation. A mission statement should consist of conciseness, should be semantically clear, with a sense of purpose explaining what the organization does, what it stands for and its major activities. Further to that mission statements can be developed by feedback and participation of the team members and managers and staff in the organization. The second element is organizational goals: the desired aims to be achieved. Goals must be visible, concise and relevant to their mission. Goals are ideal conditions to be achieved at an unidentified future time, and they clear to all organizations' members. The third element is objectives. These are activities that must be accomplished to make progress towards the goals. Objectives are more of a tactical nature and subject to frequent revision, adjustment and change. The fourth element is the responsibilities of team members: the responsibility of certain individuals for specific actions and tasks, and it is considered as one of the most troublesome issues of modern complex organizations. Establishing a sense of clarity of responsibilities is very important to minimize personality conflict and improve effective performance.

Zaccaro (2001) discussed team leadership and team member's coordination to integrate their individual actions to achieve collective success explaining that the causes of team failure are not necessarily caused by individual inability to achieve the task but also in the team collective failure to coordinate and harmonize their

individual contribution. Zaccaro (2001) develops a theoretical a model arguing that there is a relationship between leadership processes and team effectiveness in terms of four sets of team processes: cognitive, motivational, affective and coordination. The research on team leadership focuses on the impact of the team leader and the leadership quality on team effectiveness and performance. Leadership is a process that can support and align the team members to achieve the task. According to Zaccaro (2001) effective teams are able to maintain a high level of collective performance. In order for teams to keep these high standards of performance, there is a need to develop a procedure and a model to coordinate and manage individual and collective performance and adaptability. Zaccaro (2001) focuses on four processes that are related with team effectiveness. These processes are team cognitive process, team motivational process, team affective process, team coordination process. Team cognitive process studies or focuses on the relationship between team coordination and effectiveness and the cognitive theories and models. The purpose of these theories is to understand how the team works. Cannon-Bowers et al (1993) have argued that effective team coordination and performance depend on the emergence of what they define as accurate “shared mental models”. Theses mental models help team members to predict each others actions and reduce the amount of communication during teamwork and process. The result is better coordination and more efficiency, effectiveness and collective responses to immediate task requirements.

According to Zaccaro (2001) mental models have been defined as “mechanisms where humans are able to generate descriptions of system purpose and form, explanations of system functioning and observed system states and prediction of future system states” Mental models organize information about systems, the

environment of work, and the response patterns required. These mental models are developed by individual team members improve understanding of the team purpose and task and the connection and linkages between characteristic and team collective action (p.459). Shared mental models are defined as the common understanding established through experience among team members concerning usual collective behavior during team action (Cannon-Bowers et al 1990, 1993, Kleinman and Serfaty, 1989; Levine and Moreland 1990).

Leadership is a process that shifts the definition of the self from the "I" perspective into the "We" attitude. There is a shift from the set of autonomous individual identities to one collective team identity. In this new context the team members will think of themselves in collective terms and collective team goals. The next section investigates several behavioural and contingency models of managerial leadership such as the Ohio Studies model which investigated the relation between initiating structure and consideration (Stogdill and Coons 1957), and contingency models such the path goal theory of leadership effectiveness (House 1971, House and Mitchell 1974). In addition to behavioural aspects of leadership the contingency models of leadership effectiveness take into consideration organisational factors such as the relationship between the leader's behaviours and organisational and environmental factors as organising, briefing, planning, team maintenance and relevant organisational situational factors that are related to leadership in organisations.

2. 8 Behavioural Approaches of Leadership

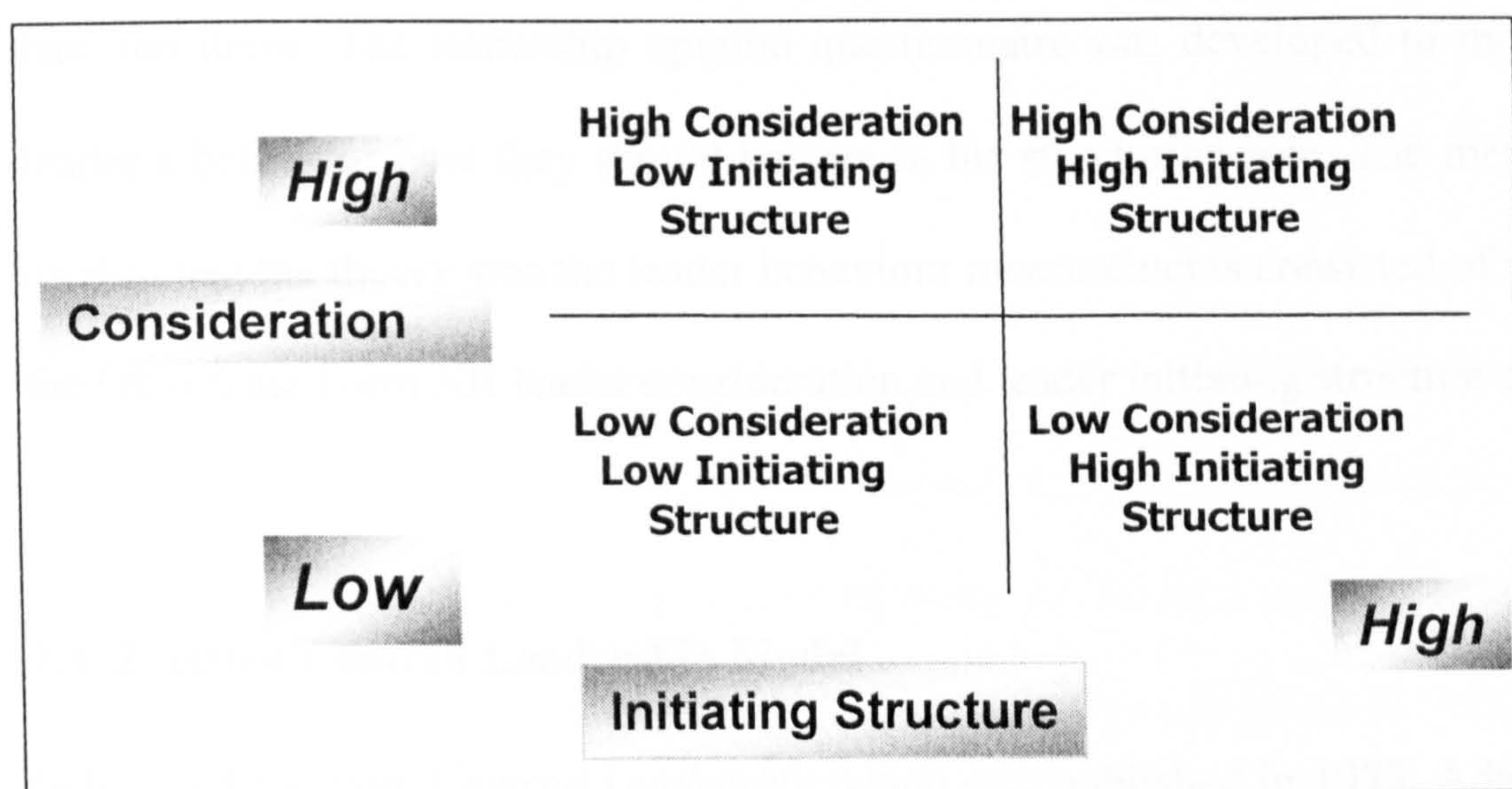
Situational approaches as opposed to behavioural approaches took into consideration that leadership is also related to certain different situations. Where as the behavioural approach focuses on what sort of behaviour leaders should have, situational and contingency approaches stressed the importance of the situation. The leader's behaviour is contingent, i.e. it is related and dependent on the situation. Some situations require directive leadership behaviour; where as other situations might require supportive or participative leadership behaviour.

2.8.1 Ohio State Studies

The behavioural approach of leadership was another strategy in studying leadership after the early studies of leadership which were concerned with the trait, quality and personality of leaders. Where as the trait approach presume that leaders are born not made and that they have certain qualities which characterise them from others even in their genes; the behavioural approach emphasises the style or the behaviour the leader should have to lead effectively. A group of researches at the Ohio State University worked on identifying a group of leadership behaviours that leaders should have (See Figure 2.2). They developed a questionnaire that enabled them to measure these behaviours of different leaders and study other factors like group performance and satisfaction with work. Two major leadership behaviour were developed by psychology researchers initiating structure and initiating consideration are two significant behaviours that were developed by the Ohio State researchers, and studied extensively by other leadership and organizational behaviour researchers (House 1971, House and Mitchell's 1974).Initiating structure is the degree in which the leader

initiate psychological structure such as assigning specific tasks, identifying certain procedures to be followed, clarifying expectations, scheduling, organizing and planning work, and how this leader defines his /her role and the subordinates roles in terms of achieving organizational goals. Initiating consideration is the degree the leader start and builds trust and create a supportive, friendly and caring atmosphere with subordinates and looking out for the personal welfare of the group (House 1971).

Figure 2.2 Initiating structure and consideration



Source: Stogdill & Coons (1957)

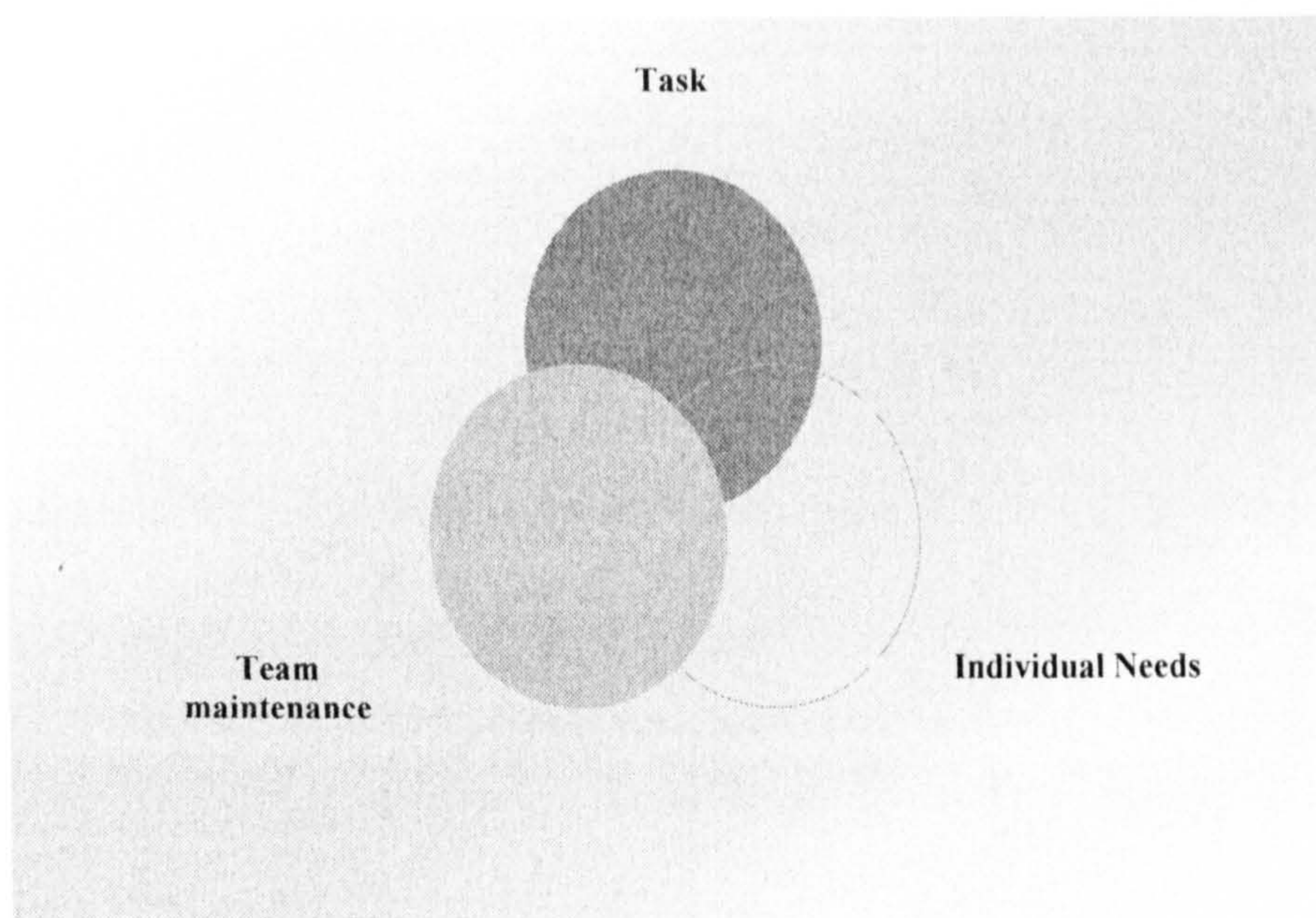
Structure and consideration are two independent behaviours according to the Ohio researchers (Stogdill and Coons 1957) leaders could be high on both, low on both and high at one and low at another. As illustrated in figure 2.2 the leader could be high on both, emphasis task issues and still achieve high level of subordinate satisfaction. Initiating structure was measured by: The supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Stogdill and Coons 1957) consisting of twenty items which inquire of subordinates about their leader actual structuring behaviour. The SBDO is intended to reflect the extent the leader defines the relationship between themselves and their

subordinates, defines interactions between among group members and establishes ways to get the job done.

The early Leader behaviour Description questionnaire (LBDQ) contains fifteen items which ask subordinates to describe their actual structuring behaviour of their leader. Structure here in this questionnaire refers to the leader behaviour in describing relationships between him and his subordinates and in establishing well defined patterns of communication and ways to get the job done, where as the revised LBDQ has ten items. The leadership opinion questionnaire was developed to measure the leader's beliefs of how they should behave in his structuring role. The methodology used to test the theory was the leader behaviour measurements consisted of pioneer to the Ohio State Form XII leader consideration and leader initiating structure scales.

2.8. 2 Action Centred Leadership Model

In his study *Action-Centred Leadership* which was published in 1973, Adair outlines a general concept of leadership (Figure 2.3). In his book, he outlines three areas of need to the experience of leadership. The first two areas are interconnected to the group. First is the need to achieve the common task; second is the need to be maintained as a cohesive social unity, which he names as the "team maintenance need". The third area is about the individual needs of group members (Adair 1973). The third area is interconnected with individual needs of the team members. Physiological needs which are the most basic, safety needs, social needs of being accepted and the sense of social belonging, esteem which are self respect, recognition and status and self actualization:

Figure: 2.3 Interactions of Needs ACL Model

Source: Adair (1973)

The major point Adair stressed in the ACL model is that these three areas are interconnected together and have strong impact on each other, either positively or negatively. For example, if there is a problem in the task and the group fails in performing its task, this will consequently have negative impact on the individuals in the group and raise the sense of dissatisfaction. If there is a problem in the group and a lack of unity and coordination between group members, the performance of the group will be affected and as well as the task and the individual needs. So if the individual who is not satisfied with the work environment will not achieve peak performance and contribution to the common task and mission of this group. The significance of this model is the three interrelated areas /circles emphasise the essential unity of the leadership experience. The leader needs to operate the heart of these three circles as they will be presented.

The value of this model is that it offers a straight forward framework for the manager to look at their leadership skills and qualities in the group. It also argues that the leadership experience is achieved by focusing in a unidirectional approach that is focusing on the characters and qualities of the leader, rather Adair sees leadership as the interaction and cooperation by the three elements: the social unity of the team, the individual need of each of the members and finally the task.

2.8.3 The Diamond in the Rough Model of Leadership

The Diamond in the Rough Model was developed in 1999 by James G. Clawson the professor of leadership at Darden Graduate School of Business, University of Virginia. He introduces the Diamond and the Rough leadership model by posing the following question: “Why do we need yet another model of leadership?” in which he explains afterwards that since we live in a rapidly changing world we need leaders at every level of society (Clawson 1999). Clawson stresses the importance of making of leaders at many levels and narrows down his focus on leadership in an organisational context. The Diamond model starts with a key concept. The concept is that in essence leadership is about leading strategic change. In other words, in order for the leadership experience to be an effective one and with a meaning it has to have a direction and a means and approach to achieve this goal (Clawson 1999).

Leadership without strategy is aimless, and leadership without the ability to manage change is powerless. To address leadership, we must address the question of strategic thinking and of managing change. In essence, leadership is really about leading strategic change. The first question that the leader or leader –to- be needs to answer is

“leadership for what?” That is the strategic question. Once the answer is developed, the next question is “how to get there?” This question usually involves two domains: others, that is the potential follower and the organisation or the setting in which the leader and the followers work.

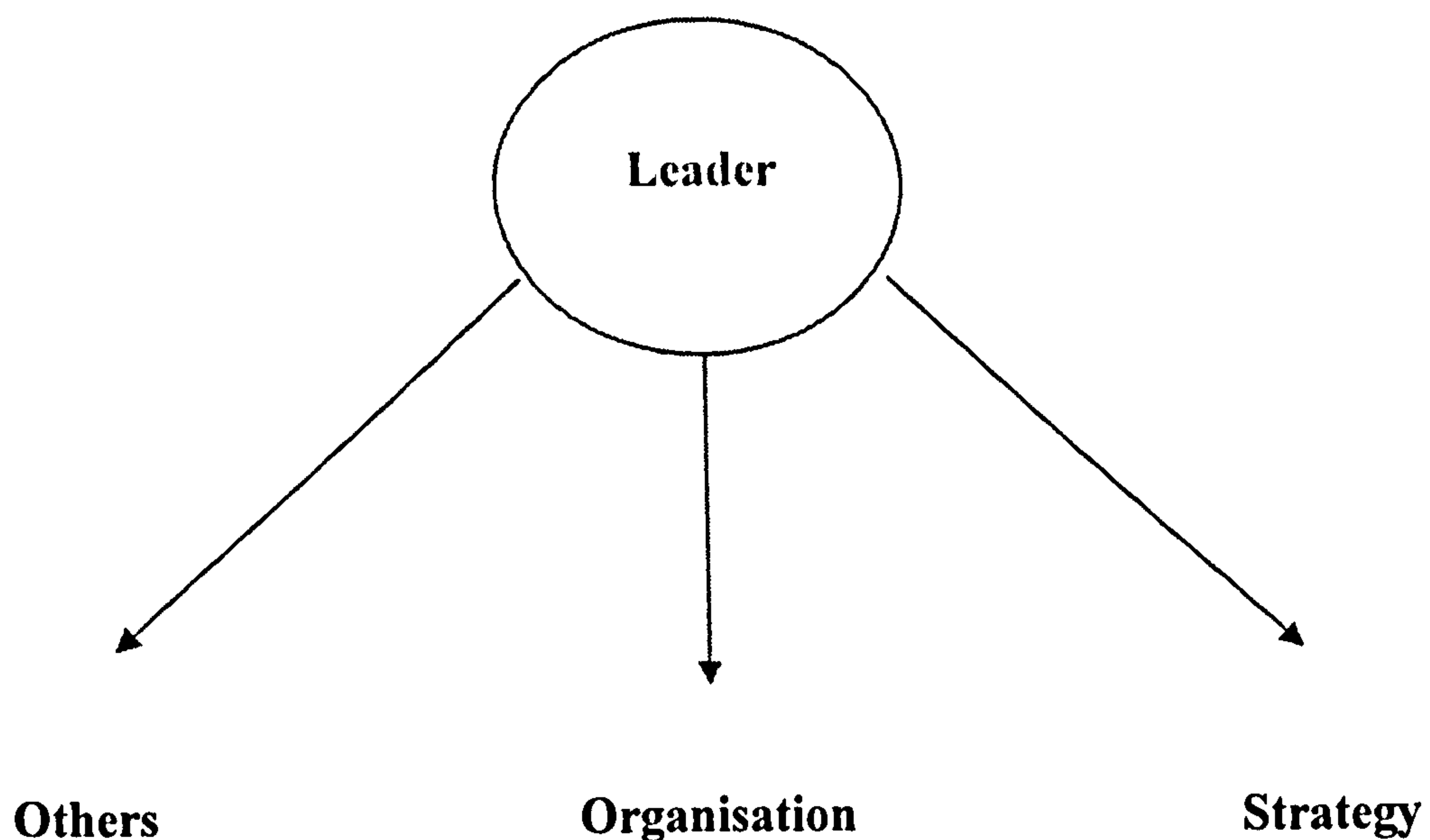
Analysing this approach to leadership, by definition, requires illustration of the elements of leadership. According to the above-mentioned definition, the leadership experience is a comprehensive one where by all elements must interact and work together. These elements are the individual leader: the initiator of change, followers: the people in the organisation, the purpose and the task this organisation is standing for; and finally the organization itself. The leader, urges Clawson, must address all these elements to answer the questions of “What” and “How” and by addressing these three directions of attention, Clawson provides the basis for the Diamond and the Rough model of leadership.

2.8.4 Key Directions of Leadership

The elements of leadership according to the Diamond in the Rough model (Figure 2.5) are outlined as: the individual, leader and the characteristics and qualities this leader has, the leader’s task and vision for the organisation and how it should follow this vision, the followers that work in the organisation and finally the context i.e. the organisation itself where all of these elements meet and interact. It is extremely important at this stage to see how these four elements interact together. The outcome of this interrelationship within these elements is what leadership is all about. In other words, leadership, stresses Clawson (1999) is much more about the qualities of the

leader; it is about the strategy and vision initiated by this leader; it is also about the leader/follower relationship and finally about the organisation in which the leader interacts with others to achieve the common task.

Figure 2.4 Three Key Leadership Directions of Attention Source: Clawson (1999)



2.8.5 A Diamond in the Rough

The naming of this model as the Diamond in the Rough model of leadership is driven from the resemblance and likeness of a Diamond. The four elements i.e. the Leader, the followers, the task, and the organisation could be similar to the shape of a diamond as shown in figure 2.5 Understanding these directions is the first the step towards effective leadership.

Figure 2.5 The Diamond Model of Leadership /Source: Clawson (1999)

Source: Clawson (1999)

The first element is the individual leader: the person, who has the abilities and skills, values, education and style to develop the vision, gather commitment and monitor and evaluate the progress towards this vision. In this area, the focus will be on the leader and what characteristics that really makes him /her so. Intelligence, the capability of having a vision, charisma, communication skills, honesty and courage are all qualities that leaders should have or acquire. The second element is the task, the strategy of “What should we do? What is our mission and task? How are we going to achieve it?” It is the set of tasks that confront the organisation. The individual leader views these

tasks, of what this organisation should be working on and sets the plan for the organisation tasks. The leader's ability to read and assess what the internal and external factors that play a role in the making of the organisation is critical to address at the aim of knowing what this organisation could do and should do. The leader's view and vision of what can be done and what should be done shapes this agenda for the organisation. The third element in the model is the followers. Leadership, by definition, requires followership. How can we influence, set examples, strengthen, recognise contribution, communicate with, enlist others and open communication channels with the people and above all how to lead them towards change? All these are critical questions to the individual leader to address. The fourth element is the organisation itself where all these elements interact. In order for an effective leadership experience and outcome to be happening, the individual leader should be persistently working with questions if the organisational context is favourable to the task or mission of this organisation. How can we lead the organisation towards change? How can we design and redesign it? The Diamond in the rough Model of leadership is the outcome of the interaction of these four elements together. According to Clawson (1999) an effective leadership experience in an organisational context should always take into consideration the interaction of these four key leadership elements.

2.9 Contingency Model of Leader Effectiveness

In his *Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*, Fiedler (1967) studies the leadership practices in the group context throwing the light on the nature of the group and focusing on the relationship between the leader and the group and the task. More over, he identifies various types of task groups within an organisational context, where he points out that 55% of their samples of 250 group studies were laboratory experiments, where as 30 % are field experiments and less than 5 % dealt with natural groups in a field setting and about 10 % were unclassified, which he concludes that the data collected from small groups are derived from a highly selected and unrepresentative samples which are not found in real world. Consequently, Fiedler focuses in his research on task groups, and that these groups are found in real life and practically as subunits of larger organisations that brought them into being. The organisation is a very significant aspect of the environment within which the group operates. According to Fiedler (1967) leadership is studied in a group context as a subunit in an organisation, where the degree of the group interaction and coordination of their work to achieve and complete the common task.

2.10 House Path – Goal theory

House's Path goal theory of leadership effectiveness (1971, 1974) is a contingency theory that was developed in an attempt to an empirical investigation of the effects of leader task orientation and leader person orientation on subordinates satisfaction and motivation. The measures used were the Ohio State leader initiating structure and consideration (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). House Path goal theory (1974) was simulated by House's (1971) research on measuring and assessing the relationship

between leader's initiating structure and initiating consideration and follower perception of path goal relationships. Evans (1970) found support for a positive relationship between leader's behaviours and followers' path goal perception in one organisation but not in another. The Path Goal theory studies the relationship between appointed leaders /supervisors and subordinates in their day to day work. It studies how supervisors/leaders affect the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates. In the Path goal theory House and Mitchell (1974) identify four leadership behaviours. The first leadership behaviour is directive leader behaviour and that is being directive and providing psychological structure, organising, letting subordinates know what is required and what are they expected to do. The paper says that directive leadership behaviour is asserted to reduce the role of ambiguity of the subordinates and increase satisfaction with work and supervision. The second is supportive leadership behaviour which is demonstrated by showing concern to the well being and needs of the subordinates; creating a friendly and psychologically supportive work environment. Supportive leadership behaviour was asserted to increase subordinate's satisfaction with work, confidence and performance and to decrease stress with work. The third is participative leadership behaviour which is exemplified by encouraging subordinates to participate in the decision making process, consulting with subordinates and taking their opinion while making decisions. It is asserted to increase equivalence between subordinates goals and organisation goals; to increase subordinate autonomy and ability to carry out their intentions and so it will increase performance; to increase the amount of pressure for organisational performance by increasing the subordinates' involvement and by increasing social pressure. The fourth is task-oriented leadership behaviour which is exemplified by encouraging performance excellence, setting challenging goals, and emphasising excellence in performance. Achievement oriented

leadership behaviour is asserted to cause subordinates to strive for higher standards of performance and to have more confidence in their ability to meet challenging goals.

Dorfman et al (1997) finds partial elements of universality in his study of leadership in Western and Asian countries in which he and associates study leadership in USA, Taiwan, South Korea, Japan and Mexico. Dorfman combines two leadership models, House Path-goal theory of leadership effectiveness (1971, 1974) and Yukl's multiple linkage model (1994). The new synergetic model is developed with national culture leadership behaviours as independent variables. According to the model developed by Dorfman et al (1997) the leadership behavior will affect subordinates satisfaction with work, satisfaction with supervision and role of ambiguity. These three mediators are the result of the leadership behavior which will causally affect subordinates' motivation, organizational commitment and job performance. The theoretical model proposes the leadership process as a set of leader behaviours will impact the followers' job satisfaction and role ambiguity as mediators in the model. Organizational commitment and job performance are outcome variables in the model.

The leadership behaviours implemented in this study are directive, supportive, charismatic, participative, contingency reward and contingency punishment behaviours. Dorfman et al (1997) tested the model in five nations in a cross cultural context research, by conducting field studies in each of the five countries. The model was applied and tested separately in each country with five different hypotheses taking into consideration the cultural aspect and nature of each country. For example, in the USA the hypothesis was that supportive, contingent reward, contingent punishment, participative and charismatic leadership will positively affect the

mediators and outcome measures; directive leadership will have no significant effects. The research sample consisted of 1598 managers of large national and multi national companies, which were matched closely in terms of technological sophistication, organizational tasks and goals and structure. Biographical data about the respondents were also collected: age, gender, country of citizenship, religion, education, position and functional department and years of work of experience were assessed as well. Interviews were conducted at the aim of studying the management practices and styles the organizations in five nations in the study.

Questionnaires were administered in two ways. One way was by completing the questionnaire during normal hours in small groups and 10 to 20 people in rooms provided by the company. The researcher described the project and assured respondents anonymity and confidentiality and remained with them to answer the questions. The other way which was conducted in Japan and South Korea, was that the researcher contacted the respondents first and then mailed or gave them a sealed packet which enclosed the questionnaire.

The leadership hypothesis in this study was divided into five hypotheses in five countries. As has been said before, each country was studied separately in terms of national and organizational culture. The model was applied to test the impact and interaction between the national culture and leadership behaviours in these five nations. Analyzing the data in this study went through three stages. First they used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test if the measurement properties of leadership variables were similar for all nations/counties. Second they used structural equation modelling (LISRELVII) to test the leadership model in this study for each country

separately. At this stage Dorfman et al (1997) quotes that they were able to “test the general adequacy of the proposed leadership model for each specific country, and in turn examine the importance of specific leadership behaviours as they impact followers’ satisfaction, commitment and job performance”. This stage allowed the author and associates to study the impact of leadership within each country. In the third part of the statistical analysis in this study, structural equation modelling (LISREL VII) was employed and it analyzed the equivalence of path coefficient among the constructs for all five 5 counties (p. 249). The findings of the study showed cultural universality three leadership behaviours: supportive, contingent reward and charismatic leadership, and cultural specificity for the other three leadership behaviours: directive, participative and contingent punishment.

The next section examines the literature investigating several factors of organisational culture such as the studies conducted by Hofstede (1994, 1989, and 2001) and House et al (2004). The aim of the literature review is to provide a common ground to investigate the interrelationship between leadership and organisational culture and how these two dimensions are interrelated and affect each other. One of the objectives of this study is to investigate this relationship between several managerial leadership behaviours and organisational culture variables that will be illustrated thoroughly in this research study.

2.11 Organizational Culture

The aim of this section is to provide an overview of the concept of culture in both the national and the organizational terms, bearing in mind that ultimately the aim of this thesis is study the managerial leadership in terms of the relation to organizational culture. However the concept of leadership is strongly related to social culture. What could be defined as an effective leadership behavior in Japan or China or Mexico, would not necessarily work in the US or UK or Europe. Dorfman et al (1997) relate this to the influence of culture, and proves through empirical evidence that what is defined as directive leadership behavior worked positively in Mexico, where as it did not in the US. The universal is related to the core of the human identity and human psyche, where as the specific is the related to culture specificity. In the earlier stages in the introduction, there was a question posed and that is the universal and the external factors that play role in shaping and changing this core.

Hofstede (1989) defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another”. Culture is a mental software which affects the way we make sense, think, feel and perceive the world. This definition which reoccurs in the author’s articles applies both to national and corporate cultures (p. 391). Hofstede (2001) has been involved in two major programs focusing and studying national and organizational cultures. The first research studied the differences in national cultures, where as the second studied organizational cultures. The result showed that national cultures differ from each other more in values rather than practices, where as different organizations vary more at the practices level than the values. According to Hofstede (1989) national culture is programmed in us first from the day we are born, and that is how our values are

formulated. Organizational culture is acquired last, when the individual joins the organization at a later age.

2.11. 1 Organizational Culture Variables

According to Hofstede (1989) business culture differences are rooted in the occupational and organizational components of culture. They dwell and exist in people's practices rather than in their values. The research shows that among different business units in the same countries showed six independent dimensions by which the variety of cultural practices could be described: Process oriented vs. result oriented cultures where the former is dominated by technical and bureaucratic routine, the latter by a common concern for outcomes. This dimension was associated with the degree of homogeneity of the unit's culture. In result oriented units, all perceived their practices in the same way approximately, where as in process oriented units, there were differences in perception among different levels of the unit. Homogeneity in a culture is considered as a measure of the culture's strength. Hofstede (1989) concludes that strong cultures are more result oriented than weak cultures. Task oriented vs. employee oriented units. In job or task oriented cultures the focus is on the employee's performance regardless any other personal aspects. Employee oriented culture assume a broader responsibility for their member's well being and their private lives. Professional vs. parochial oriented units where in professional cultures members of the organisations are highly educated and considered their private lives their own concern and felt that the organisation hired them on bases of the job competence. In parochial cultures members of the organisation felt that the organisation norms covered their own behaviour and that their social and family

background into consideration as well as the work. Open vs. closed units. In open communication system cultures members considered the organisation and its members open to new comers and that it is easy to fit in the organisation. In closed communication system cultures members of the organisation are described as closed and secretive about their work even among insiders. Tight vs. loose control cultures where in tight control cultures members of the organisation described their work as environment as cost-conscious and meeting time should be kept punctually and the dress code must be also strict. In loose control cultures members of the organisation felt there is no stress on cost and meeting time was kept approximately. Normative vs. pragmatic cultures where as in normative cultures the emphasis is on following organisational procedure where as in pragmatic cultures the emphasis is on results. In pragmatic cultures the major emphasis is on meeting customers' needs and results were more important than correct procedure.

2.11.2 Culture and Leadership

House et al (2004) have been engaged in an outstanding massive program between 1994 and 2004 which was looking at the relationship between social and organizational cultures and leadership in organizations. House et al (2004) reports the result of a ten years research program which explores the relationship and the effects of social and organizational culture on leadership, orgnisational effectiveness, economic competitiveness of societies and the human condition of the members of the societies studied. House et al (2004) consists of three stages. The first stage was to develop the research instruments and is reported in the eighth chapter. The second stage was concerned with the assessment of nine independent core aspects of social

and organisational culture dimensions. The second stage was also concerned with ranking and classifying 62 cultures according to their social dimensions. The first question that was addressed in House et al (2004) was differentiating different aspects of social and organisational cultures. These cultural attributes were defined as culture dimensions and serve as culture independent variables. According to House et al (2004) the nine independent culture variables were outlined and defined as follows:

- 1- Uncertainty avoidance
- 2- Power distance
- 3- Collectivism I, Institutional collectivism
- 4- Collectivism II, In-group collectivism
- 5- Gender Egalitarianism
- 6- Performance orientation
- 7- Humane orientation
- 8- Assertiveness
- 9- Future orientation

These nine culture dimensions are studied on both social and organizational level serve as the independent variable of the study of the Globe. House et al (2004) explores the relationship between social and organisational culture on leadership, organisational effectiveness and economic effectiveness of societies. The GLOBE research program is a multi-cultural and multi-method project indented to specific questions related to leadership behaviours and organisational practices. These questions are related to leadership behaviours that are universally accepted across cultures. Other questions are related to leadership behaviours and organisational practices that are specific to certain cultures. The independent variables included the

social culture dimensions are: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in group collectivism, performance orientation and humane orientation. The dependent variables included leadership dimensions: charismatic leadership, team oriented leadership, participative leadership, humane-oriented leadership, autonomous leadership and self protective leadership.

According to House et al (2004) employees in individualistic cultures would presume that they are hired because of their unique skills and abilities rather than their relationships and social background. In comparison employees in collective cultures would consider themselves as interdependent to the organization. The interaction between the employees self identity and the organization would be so strong that the organization would be part of members self identity. According to House et al (2004) the findings of organisational collectivism dimensions that both institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism practices tend to be valued more than they are practiced. The mean of the collectivism values are consistently higher than the means for collectivism practices and this result is constant across the three industries. The results of the study also show that team-oriented leadership was positively correlated with institutional collectivism values and in-group collectivism practices and values. The results of the study shows that in cultures in which participants of the study value collective goals and value family pride and interdependence are more likely to approve team-oriented leadership behaviours.

According to Robert and Watsi (2002) the concept of individualism and collectivism which is originally studied as apposite ends of a uni-dimensional continuum, could be studied as independent dimensions in the sense that both terms exist in the social

context. Robert and Watsi (2002) argue that the concept of individualism and collectivism which are originally studied on a social level could also be studied on an organisational level. Robert and Watsi (2002) study employees perception of organisational culture and HR practices in the organisations studied. Hogan and Kaiser (2005) points out that effective leadership results in individuals that are willing to set aside their personal agendas in order to tackle tasks that move the agenda involving both inter-personal and task competencies and that leadership will be perceived as being positively related to organizational culture that promote employee satisfaction with their co-workers and tasks. According to Schein (1986) culture is ultimately about the control of behaviour and therefore controlling the process is concerned with setting norms of behaviours, values and beliefs the leader introduces to the organisation and the subordinates. Yang (2007) investigates the relationship between knowledge management and organisational culture which promotes collaboration, supportiveness and openness between members in the organisation. According to (Nonaka, 1991; Rowley 2000) KM could be defined as a process of collecting and identifying useful information, enabling employees regain organisational knowledge, exploiting and usefully applying knowledge and disseminating it through the whole organisation (p.531). According to Bartol and Srivastava (2002) Knowledge sharing is defined as the action in which employees diffuse relevant information to others across the organisation. According to Inkpen (2000) unless individual knowledge is shared throughout an organisation, the knowledge will have a limited impact on organisational effect. Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) investigate the relation between organizational culture, leadership effectiveness and personal effectiveness. The results of this study show that the relationship across samples is stronger between organizational culture and leadership

effectiveness than between organizational culture and personal effectiveness. Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) argue that individual perception of what the organisation is like reflects individual cognitive frameworks, the attribution they make for events and the relationships they see in events that occur around them. Social cognition focuses on how people make sense of other people and themselves and others. Dorfman et al (1997) combines two prior models of leadership which are House (1971) and Yukl multiple linkage model (1994) and produces a new synergetic model of leadership. The model proposes leadership as a set of causal leadership behaviour variables that influence the followers' job satisfaction and role of ambiguity. The outcome variables in this model are organizational commitment and job performance. Dorfman et al (1997) investigate the relationship between six leadership behaviours and the followers' satisfaction and the role of ambiguity. What is interesting at this stage to mention is that national culture is introduced in this model as a causal variable affecting both leadership, the intermediate variables and the outcome variables. The model is tested in five countries to study the cross cultural variation and measure the commonalties and differences across cultures. The results of the study show that out of the six leadership behaviours tested in the model, three behaviours (supportive, contingent reward and charismatic) showed universal positive impact in all five cultures, and three behaviours (participative, directive, and contingent punishment) had positive impact in only two cultures.

Jones (1998) investigates the relationship between gender in organisational cultures in investment banking and its effect on recruitment process in investment banking organisations in London. Jones (1998) argues that recruitment is very important in determining how gender relations in these banking organisations is produced and

how it affects the work gender relations continue to exist to the disadvantage of women and the determination of their career development. Jones (1998) investigates two aspects of recruitment processes in gender culture of investment banking. These aspects are the pre-organisational gender culture aspects new recruits bring with them when they join the organisation and the gendered nature of the selection process. The methodology that was implemented in this research was qualitative in depth interviews and semi-structured but open topic guides. The topics that were investigated in Jones (1998) study included family background, school life, university life, personal attitude, values, the banking recruitment process and experience. Jones (1998) results of the study is that recruitment tends to attract and favour people who fit in the existing gender culture of investment banking organisations signifying that new recruits who bring with them compatible pre-organisational gender culture in terms of values, attitude and behaviour. Jones (1998) points out that the organisational culture of gender in investment banking is not a certain process signifying that women continue to rise and grow in within the ranks of these organisations and that the demand for investment banking industry which continues to restructure towards a client- based interactive work also put changing requirement on the gender culture of the work place. Jones (1998) indicates to the possibility of new recruits' resistance to the existing gender culture recognising new norms and values of gender relationships in the work place.

The next section examines several theories investigating the causes of satisfaction at work. One of the objectives of this research study is to examine the relationship between managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction. The next

section will be illustrating various theories of the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction.

2.12 Job Satisfaction

Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) presents a model of resonance performance model which has four main dimensions: dream, preparation, obstacles and revisit the dream. The dream represents the feelings that individuals seek when they engage in a particular activity. It is an internal feeling that motivates people to continue performing this particular activity. The dream is a central reason why people continually engage in their chosen activity. According to Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) the dream will only exist if two factors exist and that is freedom and responsibility. The exercise of freedom and acceptance of the responsibility drive the process of resonance. According to Locke and Latham (1985) a goal is a specific quantitative and external to the person. It is an aim and aspiration which is usually in the future and it gives the individual a target to measure the improvement of their performance. However Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) distinguish between dreams and goals. In the RPM dreams motivate goals and are lived and experienced every day and are keys to performance excellence. The first stage of the model is the dream. The dream represents the feelings that individuals seek when they engage in certain activity. It is an internal feeling that individual seek when they engage in a particular activity. The second stage in the RPM is preparation and this involves that the individual engages in to achieve the dream. Preparation is emphasized by participants of the study of Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) as an important element in terms of dedicating the time and energy to this activity. The third stage in the RPM is obstacles

which are the blockages that might stand in the way of the resonance process. These obstacles are defined as either external such as rejection or losses; or internal as fear, self doubt or anxiety. Newburg and Kimmiecik (2002) note that when individuals are faced with obstacles they go back to the preparation stage and try to work harder. The problem with this phase is that the individual or the performer will be going back and forth between obstacles and preparation and in this process they will be cut from their dream and they realize that they are no longer experiencing any of the feelings they would like to have. The fourth stage is defined as re-visiting the dream. This stage is important points out Newburg and Kimmieck (2002) because it allows people to reenergize themselves and before setting new goals or modifying those they initially established to engage in meaningful preparation.

Sy et al (2006) examined the relationship between employees' emotional intelligence, their managers' emotional intelligence, employees' job satisfaction and job performance. According to Sy et al (2006) employees with high emotional intelligence are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction because of their capability of appraising and regulating their emotions than employees with low emotional intelligence. According to Cooper and Sawaf (1997) employees with high emotional intelligence are capable of understanding the causes of stress and develop strategies to deal with the negative consequences of stress. Sy et al (2006) also points out that the higher the manager's emotional intelligence is the higher employees job satisfaction will be taking into consideration that employees with high levels of emotional intelligence need less intervention from their managers because they already have high levels of emotional intelligence and therefore employees with less emotional intelligence should benefit more from the influence of their managers in

this respect. The results of the study show that correlation analysis between employees' emotional intelligence and job performance. The results also show more positive correlation between employees EI and job satisfaction between employees with low emotional intelligence than those with high emotional intelligence.

Isaiah and Obeng (2000) investigate the relationship between top management leadership, employee empowerment, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction in organizations that have adopted total quality management. Empowering employees cannot be achieved without active top management involvement as empowerment involves power and role sharing. Isaiah and Obeng (2000) investigate the relation between top management leadership and commitment to total quality principles of participative management role and employee empowerment. The study also investigates the relation between employee empowerment and job satisfaction and customer satisfaction. The results of the study show positive and significant correlation between top leadership and employee empowerment. The results also show positive correlation between employee empowerment and job satisfaction. The study also shows positive and significant relation between customer satisfaction and top management leadership, and between customer satisfaction and employee empowerment.

Welbourne et al (2006) investigated the relationship between attribution style and job satisfaction among a sample of 190 nurses employed with a veteran affairs medical centre stressing those workers with more positive attribution styles will experience greater job satisfaction. The relationship between attribution styles and job satisfaction is mediated by the use of coping styles. The results of the study show positive correlation between coping strategies and job satisfaction.

Lok (2003) examined the effects of organisational culture and leadership styles on job satisfaction and organisational commitment in samples from Hong Kong and Australian managers. The study investigated the influence of consideration leadership style on organisational commitment and job satisfaction in both Australian and Hong Kong managers. The hypothesis predicted that the effect of consideration leadership style will have more positive impact on Australian managers than Hong Kong ones.

Lok (2003) also investigated the impact of initiating structure leadership style on organisational commitment and job satisfaction. The hypothesis predicted that the effect of initiating structure leadership style will have more positive impact on Hong Kong managers than Australian managers. Lok (2003) also investigated the years in organization on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The hypothesis predicted that the effect of years in organization is more positively correlated in Hong Kong than the Australian sample. Age was also predicted to be positively correlated with job satisfaction. The hypothesis predicted a stronger correlation in the Hong Kong than the Australian sample. The sample consisted of 337 participants, 219 managers from Hong Kong representing a response rate of 63%, and 118 from Australia representing a response rate of 51 %. The correlation analysis of the study shows strong significance between commitment and job satisfaction ($r= 0.70$). Correlation ranging from 0.50 to 0.66 can be seen with commitment and job satisfaction for the innovative and supportive culture factors. The comparison of Hong Kong and the Australian samples shows significant differences between the two samples. The results of this study showed the Australian managers scored highly on the innovative and supportive culture measures, and on job satisfaction and

organisational commitment. According to Lok (2003) there is a strong positive link between empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) investigated the relationship between organisational culture and individual values and job satisfaction, employees' intention to quit and willingness to recommend their organization as a good place to work. A correlation analysis between all the variables shows that in specific variables the -0.62 correlation is a positive association. The correlation between the perceived and preferred culture factors range from 0.18 to 0.63. The dependent variables are moderately inter-correlated ranging from - 0.67 to 82. The correlation analysis indicates a relation between employee satisfaction, intention to quit and willingness to recommend to the organization. Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) investigates how organisational culture, individual values and the match between the two variables contribute to the illustration of the variance in job satisfaction, intention to quit, and willingness to recommend the organization in the sample from hospitality organizations.

2.13 Criticism and Analysis

The aim of this section is to examine the literature and produce an analysis and critique of the prior literature investigated in this chapter. The first subsection provides an analysis and assessment of the studies which investigated managerial leadership theories; the second subsection examines the studies of organisational cultures and the third subsection investigates the studies which explored job satisfaction theories at work.

2.13.1 Criticism on Managerial leadership Theories

The first area in this research study examines the various theories of managerial and organisational leadership in organisations. The literature review provided in this chapter by all means does not cover all the studies which investigated the subject of leadership effectiveness and organisational behaviours, rather it presents the major theories that were developed in the field and various recent studies. The first dimension of managerial leadership that was investigated in the research study is visionary leadership.

Kouzes and Posner (1995) is one of the significant studies that explored the theory of leadership in organisations in scrutinising five fundamental practices of leadership including challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, modelling the way and encouraging team members. The methodology that was implemented in this research study included surveying several thousand business and government executives and administered a questionnaire to over than 20,000 respondents on four continents. The methodology also included case studies on specific examples of respected leaders and in-depth interviews with participants and asked them to comment as constituents on behaviours and actions they believed exemplified quality leadership. The study included data collection from sources in North America, Mexico, Western Europe, Asia and Australia. Kouzes and Posner (1995) study combined an effective qualitative analysis of the five practices that were developed and providing real case study examples of the leaders who were interviewed and who provided examples of their perception of exemplary leadership in organisations. Kouzes and Posner (1995) is a classic study and a powerful reference on managerial and exemplary practices of leadership in organisations. The study however does not provide a detailed

quantitative explanation of the data analysis. Kouzes and Posner (1995) is an effective study which provides an excellent reference for researchers, managers, individuals in leadership positions who have the intention to develop their leadership skills and abilities.

The path goal theory of leadership effectiveness developed by House (1971) was built to study the relationship between leader's initiating structure and consideration and its effects on subordinates motivation and satisfaction. House (1974) was developed to measure the relationship between four leadership behaviours and its effects on subordinates' role of ambiguity, motivation, satisfaction with work and performance. The first leadership behaviours is the directive leadership behaviour which encourages the leader's providing psychological structure and guidance for subordinates of the task scheduling and coordinating, clarifying policies and objectives. The second leadership behaviour is the supportive leadership behaviour which focuses on the satisfaction of subordinates needs and preferences showing concern for their welfare and creating a friendly and supportive environment at work. The third leadership behaviour is participative leadership behaviour which is directed towards the encouragement of subordinate influence in decision making and their ability to carry out their intentions to achieve greater effort and performance. The fourth leadership behaviour is the achievement oriented leadership behaviour which is directed towards encouraging performance excellence and task attainment. House (1974) predicts that directive, participative, supportive and task oriented leadership behaviours will affect subordinates' levels of satisfaction at work, performance levels and level of role ambiguity. House (1971, 1974) path goal theory of leadership effectiveness is another significant contingency theory that has explored the relationship between the leader's

behavioural traits and its impact on subordinates attitudes and behaviours. The methodology of the research study included a sample of 199 office employees of a heavy equipment manufacturing company. The scales that were used are the leader initiating structure scale taken from the Ohio State Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Stogdill 1965a). The results of the study indicated support of all hypotheses of the research study. House (1971, 1974) is considered as a major study in leadership contingency theories and a model that has introduced to further research which followed the same of similar pattern of research.

Dorfman (1997) model of leadership across cultures followed House (1971) combining two contingency models of leadership which are House (1971) and Yukl (1994) to produce a contingency leadership model that considered leadership and national culture as an independent variables affecting mediator and outcome variables. Mediator variables are the subordinate satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with work and subordinates role of ambiguity. The outcome variables are organisational commitment and job performance. Dorfman (1997) combined two contingency models and produced a model of leadership across Western and Asian countries which measured midlevel managers' perceptions of six leadership behaviours. Dorfman (1997) model of leadership in Western and Asian countries measured the differences and commonalties in leadership behaviours across five nations assessing managers' perception of six leadership behaviours. These leadership behaviours are directive, participative, supportive, charismatic, contingency reward and contingency punishment behaviours. The sample of the study consisted of 1598 midlevel managers from national and multinational organisations selected from the

financial, food and telecommunication industries in five countries. These countries are Japan, South Korea, Mexico, Taiwan and USA. The strength of the study is in designing a contingency model of leadership, national culture and job performance that was applied in five different nations that represented different cultures. The results of the study show variation in respondents' perception and answers. In Japan supportive leadership increased satisfaction with supervision and satisfaction at work; contingent reward behaviour increased satisfaction with supervision and organisational commitment, whereas participative and directive leadership had no effect on participants. Also charismatic leadership did not significantly increase subordinates role of ambiguity. In the USA contingent reward behaviour increased organisational commitment and satisfaction with work satisfaction with supervision, where as contingent punishment behaviour role of ambiguity; supportive leadership behaviour increase satisfaction with supervision and decrease role ambiguity; charismatic leadership increased satisfaction with work. Directive leadership behaviour as was predicted had no impact, participative leadership behaviour also had no impact on respondents which was contrary to predictions.

Dorfman (1997) is a powerful model that measured six leadership behaviours and their impact on satisfaction with work, satisfaction with supervision, role ambiguity, organisational commitment and job performance across five nations. The strength of Dorfman (1997) model is in the combination of two contingency models that measured the relationship between leadership, job satisfaction, role of ambiguity organisational commitment and job performance measuring the universality and specificity of the leadership behaviours across cultures. Dorfman (1997) is a sophisticated model that has three variable measures. These measures are the

predictors which are the independent variables, the mediators and the outcomes which are the dependent variables. It could be argued that Dorfman (1997) is a complicated model consisting of three variables set where the first stage of the model investigates the effect of six leadership behaviours on subordinates satisfaction with work, satisfaction with supervision and the role of ambiguity, where as the second stage measures the link between job satisfaction and job performance and organisational commitment. The study results show that job performance data for USA and Mexico was available and in South Korea self reports of the employees' job rating were obtained whereas data on job performance were not available in Taiwan and Japan. One of difficulties in conducting a cross cultural research is the difficulty in obtaining internal data on employees' job performance. It could be argued that a simpler approach investigating a direct relationship between managerial leadership behaviours and job satisfaction is a practical study which may be achievable in terms as far as the data collection is concerned.

Munter (2000) developed a model of managerial communication which studies four dimensions of business communication. These dimensions are the communicator, the message, the audience, the response and the model clarifies the importance of communication channel choice and the cultural background of the communication. Munter (2000) clarifies variation of styles of communication as the tell style, sell style and consult style. The strength of Munter (2000) model lies in the combination of various factors that shape effective managerial communication. However the study does not provide empirical evidence i.e. the study provides a theoretical model only. It could be argued that designing a questionnaire and selecting a sample of study to

measure the model and the communication variables is a good prospect for further research.

Kogler (2001) developed a model of team leadership which provides a set of functions that can be classified as internal and external team leadership functions. Internal leadership functions focuses on task orientation clarifying goals and initiating structure and inter relational functions which focuses on coaching team members and their interpersonal skills, collaborating, managing conflict, and power issues. The third element is environmental leadership functions which focus on networking, forming alliances and safeguarding team members from environmental distractions that could impair team task. Kogler (2001) is a theoretical model of team oriented leadership that provides interesting conceptual framework of the mechanism of team leadership and teamwork in organisations. Kogler (2001) does not provide empirical evidence that would involve measuring the model and selecting a sample of study and developing a methodology to test the model.

2.13.2 Criticism on Organisational Culture Theories

Hofstede (1989) developed a conceptual model that examines national and organisational culture differences across 72 countries in twenty languages that was based on two research programs. The first research program investigated differences in national cultures studying one organisation in sixty-four different countries. The second research program studied differences in organisational cultures. The results of the first research show that national cultures differ at the value level more than practices level. The second research showed that different organisations within the

same country differ at the practices level more than values level (p.391). The data that was collected in the research programs were in a large multinational corporation which is IBM. The study identified five dimensions of national culture. These dimensions are power distance, individualism vs. Collectivism, masculinity vs. Femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long term vs. Short term orientation. The study identified dimensions of organisational culture which are task oriented vs. Job oriented cultures, process vs. result oriented cultures, professional vs. parochial cultures, open vs. closed communication system cultures, tight vs. loose control cultures and pragmatic vs. normative cultures. The study is considered a major reference in organisational and cross-cultural research studies which was the foundation for further research in national and organisational culture dimensions across cultures.

House et al (2004) was involved in a major research program which investigated the relationship and the effect of social culture on leadership, organisational effectiveness, economic competitiveness of societies and the human condition of members of the societies studied. House et al (2004) reports the results of 10 year research program on global leadership and organisational behaviour effectiveness. The sample of the study included 17,000 managers from 951 organizations functioning in 62 societies around the world. House et al (2004) study developed a set of independent variables which are uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation and Humane orientation. The dependent variables of the study consisted of leadership dimensions derived from culturally endorsed implicit leadership theory. These dependent variables are charismatic leadership, team-oriented leadership,

participative leadership, and Humane-oriented leadership, autonomous leadership and self protective leadership. The sample of the study was selected from the financial, food and telecommunication industries. House et al (2004) is a significant study and is considered a major reference in cross cultural research studies on leadership and organisational effectiveness and social and organisational cultures.

2.13.3 Criticism on Job Satisfaction Theories

Csikszentmihalyi (1993, 2002) developed a classic work on satisfaction at work and in life in general and how to reach the best experiences and peak pleasure in any activity and outlined eight dimensions of flow an individual would experience which would be characterised as clarity of objectives and immediate feedback and self awareness of how good performance is; individual personal skills are up to the challenge or the task; concentration on the task and sense of potential control; transcendence of ego and sense of growth and becoming a part of greater entity, unification of action and awareness and changed sense of time. Csikszentmihalyi (1993, 2002) is considered as a classic work and a reference for research studies on satisfaction at work. Csikszentmihalyi (1993) dimensions of flow will be adapted and employed as a measurement scale to assess job satisfaction variables employed in this research study.

Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) developed a model to measure and assess peak performance of human activities which is named as resonance performance model. The model consists of four components which are the dream, preparation, obstacles and revisiting the dream. The first stage starts when the performer has an objective, a

wish, and aspiration and a vision that would motivate the individual performer to achieve this dream or objective, whether this dream is achieving a sport championship or producing a book or writing a song, the dream lies in the future. The second stage is preparation for the dream or goal accomplishment. This stage involves the individual activities which could be physical, emotional, mental activities and strategies. The third stage involves any obstacles that could block the performer or impair the task accomplishment. Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) report that at this stage the performer goes back to the preparation phase and work harder and goes to continue dealing and solving these issues or obstacles. The fourth stage is when the individual revisit the dream and engages in activities to stimulate their feeling and get their motivation back to accomplish the task or dream. Such activities may be resting, or taking a break, listening to music and reflecting on their strategies and performance to get back to task accomplishment. Newburg and Kimiecik (2002) provides an effective model of performance and satisfaction with work. The methodology allied in this research is by conducting interviews with various individuals from different areas as world record holders, world record athletes, international jazz musicians, American recognised thoracic surgeons and chief executive officers of remarkable fast growing business. It could be argued that measuring the RPM on sample from the business industry would be an attractive research study in the sense that designing a questionnaire based on the theoretical model and testing the model in particular industry such as banking sector would be a good study for further research.

2.13.4 Combination of three Dimensions of Study

The aim of this research study is to investigate the relationship between three major areas in managerial leadership, organisational effectiveness and job satisfaction research. The first area investigates theories of visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership theories. The literature review chapter examined major theories of vision in organisations such as Kouzes (1995), Conger and Kanungo (1998), Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Strange, Mumford (2002, 2005) and other studies. Theories of business communication in organisation were also reviewed such as Munter(2000) Kotter (1996) and other studies. The literature review also examined the literature on team leadership and team work such as Zaccaro (2001), House et al (2004) and other research studies. The second area investigates various dimensions of organisational culture and examines the work of Hofstede (1989, 2001, and 1994) and House et al (2004) and other research studies. The third area investigates the various dimensions of job satisfaction and examines the literature on individual employee satisfaction at work and peak performance.

The conceptual framework which will be studied thoroughly in chapter three provides a combination of aspects of leadership, organisational behaviour and job satisfaction. The conceptual framework combines three dimensions of leadership behaviours, four dimensions of organisational culture and thirteen aspects of job satisfaction at work based on the literature review of the studies in these areas. The sample of the study is chosen from the retail banking industry in Wales in the UK which involved studying six banking organisations which provides retail banking services. The aim of this research study is to examine the theoretical framework which is developed to study the relationship between managerial leadership, organisational culture practices and

job satisfaction at work in the selected organisation from the banking industry in Wales in the UK.

2. 14 Chapter summery

In conclusion this chapter investigated the prior literature and various theories of managerial leadership, concepts of organizational culture and job satisfaction. The second section investigated the difference between management and leadership. The third section explored the various concepts of visionary leadership and the nature of vision in the organisational context. Section four explored the difference between transactional and transformational leadership and section five presented different concepts of charismatic leadership and the nature of charisma. Section six investigated the concept of communicative leadership Team oriented leadership is reviewed in the seventh section and section eight investigated approaches of behavioural leadership and contingency theories of leadership. Section nine is concerned with Fiedler contingency model of leadership effectiveness and section ten investigated the path goal theory of leadership effectiveness. Section eleven provides an overview of the concept of organizational culture and the differences between national and organizational cultures. Section twelve provides theories on job satisfaction and theories on flow and resonance. Section thirteen provides a critical analysis of the major studies that illustrated relevance in terms of the theoretical contingency models and the sample industry. Finally section fourteen presents a chapter summary. The next chapter will be the conceptual framework which will providing a brief explanation on the banking industry in the UK, present the research

questions and Hypotheses. The conceptual framework chapter examines the research variables and proposes the conceptual framework of the research study.

CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to synthesis the literature and to develop the conceptual framework of the research. The chapter starts with general discussion on banking sector and developing the sample frame. Then the research objectives and research questions will be revisited. Then the research variables will be identified. In this regard the details of the research variables including leadership behaviour organisational culture and the concept of satisfaction at work will be discussed. In the next section the conceptual framework of the research is presented. Finally the chapter ends with a chapter summary.

3.2 Banking Industry in the UK

The banking sector has been subject to many external and internal forces in many countries, particularly in the UK, since the 1980s (Nellis, 1998). Technology, in particular the Internet, is a key driver of internal changes. Internal change has been greatly amplified by the same factors such as internet, leadership and organizational structure and innovation. The internal changes are causing major delivery changes. The synergies of these forces will bring about a major transformation of the banking sector. This section investigates briefly the definition and nature of retail banks in the UK and the financial services offered by these financial organisations. The total number and types of banks is also reported in this section as well as trends and

developments of branches in the UK. Finally this section reports the sample of the study.

3.2.1 Retail Banking

Retail or personal banking is concerned with providing financial services to consumers which is small-scale in nature. In comparison to retail banks, large banks offer a broad range of personal banking services which include payment services such as providing current accounts with cheque facilities, debit and credit facilities, credit transfer and standing orders. Retail banks also offer other services as saving accounts, providing loans and mortgages, insurance and pensions. Personal and retail bank services can be offered by the following types of banks:

Commercial banks

Saving banks

Co-operative banks

Building societies

Credit unions

Finance House

3.2.2 Numbers and Types of Banks in the UK

Casu et al (2006) reports that the number of UK banks is relatively small compared with the other European countries. The total number of authorised banks had fallen from around 600 in 1985 to 346 by the end of February 2005 (see Table 3.1). The decline in the total number of UK Banks is attributable to foreign banks which had UK operations.

Table 3.1 Number of banks in the United Kingdom

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Number of authorised institutions of which:	481	478	466	468	449	420	409	385	380	356	346
UK incorporated	224	220	212	214	202	190	188	184	185	174	171
European authorised institutions	102	103	105	105	109	103	97	89	92	89	87
Incorporated Outside the European Economic Area	155	155	149	149	138	127	124	112	103	93	88
<hr/>											
MBBG members and their Banking Sector subsidiaries (Included above) (a)	37	40	41	44	43	41	42	41	42	35	32
BBA Member banks (included above) (a)	307	306	311	337	327	302	295	265	244	236	218

Source: Casu et al (2005, p 321)

During the second half of the 1990s, a decline in the number of non-European banks was offset by the increase of the presence of European institutions. The investment banking industry is dominated by major US and European banks including Goldman Sachs, Morgan Stanley, Merrill Lynch, Lehman brothers, Deutsche Bank, UBS and Credit Suisse. In addition to that, the main UK banks have investment banking subsidiaries.

The retail banks in the UK are thoroughly shown in Table 3.1 which illustrates the number of banks and subsidiaries of the main retail banks in the UK. These banks are also known as the Major British Banking Groups (MBBG). These banks dominate the Sterling dominated banking business in the UK. The MBBG includes Abby National,

Alliance& Leister, Barclays, Bradford & Bingley, HBOS, HSBC Bank, Lloyds TSB, Northern Rock and The Royal Bank of Scotland which owns NatWest. The MBBG and the building societies are the major players in the retail banking market.

3.2.3 Development in Branches Number

Over the last two decades the UK banks and building societies have engaged in a significant reorganisation. This is associated with a decline by the branch number that has occurred in the 1980s. Casu et al (2006) reports that there was a significant decline in the number of branches of UK retail banks while the introduction of ATMs at the branch and in remote locations grew significantly since 1985. The reason for this shift from the branches to the other means of financial service delivery relates mainly to the UK retail financial organisation desire to improve operating efficiency; and in addition to that customers demands to access banking services outside the traditional process through the branch. Now, with the introduction of internet banking customers can access their accounts and banking services anytime and anywhere there are internet services not necessarily during work hours. The decline in branches number and the restructuring of the system led to the decline in banks and building societies employment in the UK.

3.2.4 The Sample of the Study

The sample of the study was selected from retail banks operating in Wales-United Kingdom. The banks selected in this study are from the retail banking industry and are

mainly High street retail banks and are commercial banks and provide personal or retail services such as current and saving accounts, debit and credit facilities, cheque facilities, as well as offer personal loans, mortgages and insurance. The total number of branches which are investigated and examined in this study is 740 branches located around Wales-UK. For confidentiality reasons the real identity and names of the banks will not be illustrated and the organisations will be given code names. The branches of this study are High Street retail banks and are illustrated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Number of Branches selected in the research study

Coded Names of banks and number of their branches operating in Wales	
1-AN Bank	54 Branches
2- BS Bank	157 Branches
3- HX Bank	43 Branches
4- HC Bank	197 Branches
5- LB Bank	146 Branches
6- NW Bank	143 Branches

3.3 Research Objectives

The first objective of the research study is to explore the relationship between managerial leadership styles and organizational culture in banking industry in the UK. In this regard, the research is exploring the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and four dimensions of organizational cultures: task oriented vs. people oriented cultures, result vs. process oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system cultures and organisational collective vs. individual cultures in banking industry. The second objective is to explore the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and the degree of the individual satisfaction at work in organisations. The third objective of this research is to explore the relationship between organisational culture dimensions namely: task oriented vs. people oriented cultures, process vs. result oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system cultures and individual vs. collective cultures and satisfaction at work in organisations.

3.4 The Research Questions

The research questions explore the relationship between three major research areas and explore the following questions:

1-Is there a significant relationship between managerial leadership behaviours and organisational culture?

2-Is there a significant relationship between managerial leadership and job satisfaction?

3-Is there a significant relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction?

3.5 Research Hypotheses

The details of the objectives of the study and research questions of this study are linked to research propositions and relevant hypotheses stated. These are:

Proposition 1

There is a relationship between managerial leadership behaviours and organisational cultures.

H1: There is a positive correlation between managers' perception of visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership behaviours and task oriented cultures.

H2: There is a positive correlation between managers' perception of visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership behaviours and open vs. closed communication system cultures.

H3: There is a positive correlation between managers' perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and collective–individual cultures.

H4: There is positive correlation between managers' perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and process vs. result oriented cultures.

Proposition 2

There is a relationship between managerial leadership behaviours and satisfaction at work.

H5: There is a positive correlation between managers' perception of visionary leadership and their satisfaction at work.

H6: There is a positive correlation between managers' perception of communicative leadership and their satisfaction at work.

H7: There is a positive correlation between managers' perception of team-oriented leadership and their satisfaction at work.

Proposition 3

There is a significant relationship between organisational culture and satisfaction at work.

H8: In task vs. people oriented cultures managers will be negatively satisfied with work.

H9: In open vs. closed communication system cultures managers will be positively satisfied with work.

H10: In individual vs. collective cultures managers will be negatively satisfied with work.

3.6 The Research Variables

This research study investigates the relationship between three main organizational factors. The first set of variables consists of the leadership variables. The second is the organisational culture variables and the third is the organisational culture variables. The details of the research variables and measurements can be seen in Appendix 3.1.

3.6.1 The Leadership Behaviour Variables

The independent variables of this study are the leadership behaviour variables which are culturally applicable and globally endorsed. The aim of this research is to test and measure the effectiveness of the theoretical leadership behaviours model in one culture and one sample will be studied. The leadership variables are visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership attributes/behaviours. These leadership behaviours are briefly defined as follows:

3.6.1.1 Visionary Leadership Behaviour

The visionary leadership behaviour dimension is a largely defined attribute. It reflects the leader's ability to inspire, motivate and establish a clear image of the task and what could be done better in the future. Visionary leadership is the leader's ability to establish a future orientation and set goals to the organisation/department this leader /manager is responsible for. The visionary leader establishes purpose, direction and uniqueness of the goal, or mission or task they want to accomplish. The visionary leader has a clear agenda of what they want to achieve and how they are going to

accomplish it. The visionary leader also has the ability to motivate people or the followers to commit to this vision. The visionary leader has the ability of organising action around an evocative and involving set of future goals providing a mechanism for motivating followers. The visionary leader has the ability to provide a sense of identity and meaning, and the ability to create a common framework for action provided and the ability to coordinate and integrate their activities. The visionary leadership variables are 16 questions measuring managers' perception of visionary leadership behaviours. These questions are driven from (Conger and Kanungo, 1998, Kouzes and Posner, 1995, Strange and Mumford 2002). Table 3.3 illustrates some sample items of the visionary leadership behaviour.

Table 3.3 Sample items of the visionary leadership questions

- 1- Has the ability to idealise future goals for team members.
- 2- Has the ability to foresee and identify obstacles in the organisation that may impair the achievement of goals.
- 3- Is creative and original about achieving organisational goals
- 4- Engages in activities involving great effort and energy.
- 5 – Is willing to take risk for the sake of achieving organisational goals.
- 6- Has the ability to change team members' attitude to advocate a proposed vision.
- 7- Has the ability to interpret and use the knowledge of the industry trends.
- 8- Has the ability to set future oriented tasks and goals.
- 9- Has the ability to influence people to commit to the team goals.

- 10- Focuses on performance and sets high standards of excellence.
- 11- Reviews his /her performance and action plan regularly.
- 12- Speaks in an authoritarian manner that cannot be questioned.
- 13 –Provides a sense of challenge and a motivating force to implement change.
- 14 – Has an image of being Knowledgeable.
- 15- Has a vision of future for the organisation.

3.6.1.2 Communicative Leadership Behaviour

The communicative leadership behaviour is a newly defined dimension in leadership, this research is presenting. This dimension reflects the leader's ability to convey the message effectively and the ability of being persuasive, clear, open and influential. Communicative leadership is the leader ability of being clear about his objectives and his message, and also clear about his style and advocating. It is also the leader's ability to build a link between him and the audiences. Credibility is very important in building this link between him and the audience. Communication is the art of persuasion, objectives, style and credibility. The communicative leader also takes into consideration the cultural context he is in. The communicative leader is culturally aware of the audience cultural background. The communicative leadership behaviour reflect the ability to express simplicity and clarity of the message using metaphor and example using many different forums and repetition, that is repeating the ideas. This dimension also reflects the leader's communication by example that is communicating through behaviour, and explanation of seeming inconsistency. Communicative leadership reflects two ways of communication in the sense that the leader listens and

be listened to. This leadership behaviour reflects clarity of message, clarity of language which is a medium. The effective leader uses respectful and stimulating language which catches the attention of the listener and makes him/her think of the message. The communicative leadership behaviours are developed from (Kotter 1996, Clawson 1999, Munter 2000) and include eleven questions which are illustrated in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Sample Questions of the communicative leadership variables

- 1- Has the ability to establish a common ground of understanding with the team members
- 2- Uses simple, clear language in his conversation
- 3- Has good comprehension and takes time to listen carefully to what people are saying
- 4- Acts as a role- model for team members
- 5- Has the awareness of team members' cultural background and values
- 6- Is capable of advocating and networking
- 7- Has the ability to sell his/her ideas in a persuasive manner
- 8- Keeps all channels open and informs the team about decisions made in order to gain their support
- 9 –Usually does not explain the rationale and justification behind the orders given
- 10- Usually does not explain the rationale and justification behind the orders given
- 11- Has the ability to communicate effectively and clearly with team members.

3.6.1.3 Team-oriented Leadership Behaviour

Team-oriented leadership behaviour is a dimension that reflects the leader's ability and knowledge of teambuilding, establishing a common purpose for the team members and a social collective identity of the team. This leadership behaviour reflects leader's ability to clarify the task, structure and gaining agreement for the team. It also reflects the leader's ability to increase the standards of excellence in the performance side of the team, as well as focusing on external environmental team leadership functions such as networking, advocating and representing the team to environment. The team-oriented leadership behaviour includes nine subscales. Some example questions of the team oriented leadership behaviours are illustrated in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Sample of the team- oriented leadership variables

- 1- Has the ability to communicate effectively and clearly with team members
- 2- Is not clear about his plan and organisational goals
- 3- Works towards one collective team identity
- 4- Maintains standards of excellence in performance
- 5- Focuses on the personal welfare of employees
- 6- Makes sure that his/ her attitude is clear to the team
- 7- Is aware of gender differences and treats team members with egalitarian approach

This leadership behaviour also reflects the ability of the leader to select the right team members creating diversity and strength between team members. Also it reflects the ability of the leader to maintain excellent communication and language between him and team members through modelling the way. The leader is a source of inspiration and direction. This dimension of leadership also stresses the leader's ability to recognise the followers' efforts and contribution. The leader's team-oriented behaviour stresses the collective orientation and coordination and orchestration of individual efforts and individual identities to achieve an interdependent collective performance to achieve the task. This dimension reflects the ability to bring together team members and develop a shared social team identity. The leader plays a crucial role here in this context to build a social and collective identity of the team and change the definition of the identity of the individual I to the collective we, the outcome is a one collective team identity.

3.6.2 The Organisational Culture Variables

The second question addresses the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction at work. Hofstede (1989, 2001) defines six independent organisational culture practices, three of which will be used in this research as organisational culture variables.

3.6.2.1 Task vs. Employee Oriented Cultures

The origin of this variable is derived from Hofstede (1989) dimensions of business cultural practices. In task oriented cultures the focus and focal attention is on the employee's job performance only and nothing more. Employee oriented cultures pay attention and concentrate on the employee's well being and personality. In task oriented cultures members of the organisation expressed pressure to meeting targets and getting the mission accomplished. In employee oriented cultures members of the organisation felt that their personal lives and problems were taken into account and that the organisation took responsibility for their welfare (See Table 3.6).

Table 3.6 sample of the questions of the task Vs Employee oriented cultures

- 1- In these organisations there is little concern for employees' welfare
- 2- In these organisations there is high pressure to meet targets and accomplish the task
- 3- In these organisations crucial decisions are made at the top
- 4- In these organisations there is stress on employees' responsibilities and task structure
- 5- In these organisations competition between employees is very strong
- 6- In these organisations there is little concern for employees' private life
- 7 –In these organisations employees have a good working relationship with their line managers
- 8- In these organisations the majority of employees prefer to stay with the company until they retire
- 9- In these organisations teamwork and community spirit is very high among employees

10- In these organisations employees have time for their personal and family life

11- In these organisations important decisions are made by teams and committees

3.6.2.2 Open vs. Closed communication system cultures

This organisational culture variable is also originated from Hofstede (2001) variables of business cultural dimensions. Open versus closed communication system cultures describe the degree of communication and cooperation between organisational members. In open communication system cultures, members of the organisation considered the culture as opened to newcomers and outsiders and that anyone could fit in the organisation. In closed communication system organisations the members of the organisation were described as closed and secretive about their work even among insiders and that new employees required long time to fit in the organisation (see Table 3.7).

Table 3.7 Sample of the questions of the Open vs. Closed Communication system cultures

1- In these organisations people co-operate with each other and work openly

2- In these organisations employees share information and communicate effectively

3- In these organisations members are open to newcomers

4- In these organisations communication between employees is not effective

5- In these organisations people are closed and secretive about their work

3.6.2.3 Individual vs. Collective Cultures

The concept of individualism and collectivism is discussed and studied in both social and organisational levels (Hofstede 1989, 2001, Triandis 1995, House et al 2004). Institutional collectiveness is the degree which organisational practices encourages and reward collective action and distribution resources (House et al 2004). In collective organisational cultures members of the organisation view themselves as highly interdependent with the organisation to the extent that the organisation becomes part of the member's self identity. Table 3.8 illustrates some sample of the questions of the individual versus collectivist culture. In individualistic cultures members of the organisation assume that they are hired because of their skills and would expect the organisation to offer them something they need and would be leaving the organisation for another one if their needs are provided better in another organisation (House et al 2004).

Table 3.8 Sample of the questions of the Individual vs. collective cultures

- 1- In these organisations employees see themselves as interdependent to their teams
- 2- In these organisations employees are more focused on their obligation and duties to the organisation than their attitude to the job
- 3- In these organisations the emphasis is on employees shared objectives, interchangeable interests and commonalities
- 4- In these organisations there is emphasis on employees' unique qualities and differences
- 5- In these organisations men are more competitive than women

6- In these organisations conflict resolution is achieved through effective communication, problem solving and negotiation

7- In these organisations awards and public appraisal are encouraged for excellent performance.

3.6.2.4 Process vs. Result Cultures

This variable is also originated from House et al (2004) and Hofstede (1989, 2001) where the concept of masculinity and femininity is studied in both social and organisational sense. This variable presents the concept and degree of masculinity and femininity in organisations and the degree an organisation minimize gender role differences and promote gender equality (See Table 3.9).

Table 3.9 Sample of the questions of the process vs. result cultures

- 1- In these organisations each day brings a new different challenge
- 2- In these organisations meeting results is more important than processes
- 3- In these organisations there is strong emphasis on meeting customer needs
- 4- In these organisations employees avoid taking risks and spend little effort in their jobs
- 5- In these organisations employees enjoy unfamiliar situations and tasks

3.6.3 The Job Satisfaction Variables

The job satisfaction variable exemplifies a set of dimensions or factors that would indicate the individual degree of satisfaction at work. These dimensions are originated from the prior literature that was discussed and reported in this chapter. The scales of measurement of job satisfaction in this research study is developed on basis of the studies of flow Csikszentmihalyi (2002), Clawson (1999), Clawson and Newburg (1997) and Locke (1967).

3.6.3.1 The Studies of Flow and Satisfaction at work

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (2002) in his classic work *Flow: the Classic work on how to achieve Happiness* introduces this concept which is described as a human experience that involves both the mind and the body are stretched to its limits in a voluntary effort to accomplish something difficult and worthwhile. The people interviewed in the studies conducted by Csikszentmihalyi (1993; 2002) report about their experiences and their feelings whether on social or professional level. They describe their experiences as concentration, interest, deep involvement, joy and a sense of accomplishment. In his study of flow Csikszentmihalyi (1993) interviewed dancers, scientists, sport players, medical doctors and surgeons who reported on their feelings and described their performance as spontaneous and rewarding and outlines eight dimensions of flow which are listed below:

- 1-Clear goals: an objective is distinctly defined, immediate feedback and self awareness of how positive one is doing
- 2- Personal skills are well suited to the challenge or the task
- 3- Concentration on the task

4- Sense of potential control

5-Loss of self consciousness, transcendence of ego, sense of growth and becoming part of a greater entity

6- Action and awareness merge

7- Changed sense of time, usually seems to pass faster

8- Experience becomes autotelic

Clawson (1999) points out to the relationship between world-class performance and resonance. Resonance is defined as a special kind of experience that would result in high level of performance. Clawson (1999) outlines a number of factors that play the role in the resonance experience:

1-Performance is at the peak of ability and yet the experience is effortless

2-Time wraps either speeding up or slow down

3-Intense focus on the activity at hand

4-Loss sense of self

5-Performance is satisfying and rewarding

6-Larger sense of self is gained afterwards

Clawson (1999) model of resonance is originated from a study by Newburg and Clawson (1997) in which a model of World-class performance is developed and a study is conducted where they interview 200 respondents from various disciplines and backgrounds and professions. The individuals in this study included world record holders and Olympic gold medal athletes, international jazz musicians, American recognised thoracic surgeons and chief executive officers of remarkable fast growing

businesses. Newburg and Clawson (1997) point out those respondents in their study were performing in different careers and come from completely different background, yet they follow the same pattern of thinking and behaving which is extraordinarily consistent. Newburg and Clawson (1997) developed a model of world class performance. The model highlights a set of commonalties in these respondents. They are performing at the peak of their professions and abilities. They all have a strong dream that has become a powerful source of motivation and driving force of their efforts. The first stage of this experience begins with preparation that is demanding and challenging. The stage is when this performer comes across barriers, obstacles and challenges and minor successes that might divert this performer in the middle of their activity to achieve this dream or purpose. The next stage of the model shows the retreating to the preparation stage which will create a negative and stressful feeling that would affect the productivity of the performer. The next stage illustrates how the performer breaks this vicious circle by breaking through these barriers and obstacles by revisiting and rethinking the dream and managing their performance at a higher level.

Also the model draws the attention to the relationship between freedom and responsibility. Freedom is very important to world class performers as the model points out. Respondents in Newburg and Clawson (1997) sample stressed the need to freedoms of and freedom to achieve peak performance. The world class performer's model stresses that these exceptional individuals need their freedom from regulations, customs, legal guidelines, or any other external factors that could prevent them from achieving maximum ability to perform.

3.6.3.2 Measuring Satisfaction at work: Action Tendency Scale

Locke (1967) studies a number of approaches to job satisfaction. The action tendency implies a specific approach to the measurement of job attitude which is asking the respondent to report the action tendencies they experience in relation to their job and its components elements. Action tendency approach does not ask the individual how he feels as such or, nor how he acts as such, rather the focus of the approach is how the individual feels like acting and how he would act if no other external factors but his feelings were driving his actions. For example a typical question that would be congruent with this approach would be listed in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10 Sample items for an action tendency interview for job satisfaction

- 1- When you wake up in the morning, do you feel reluctant to go to work?
- 2- Do you ever feel reluctant to go home from work at night because of the enjoyment you are getting from your job?
- 3- Do you feel like going to lunch at work sooner than you do?
- 4- Do you feel like taking a coffee or rest break more often than you should?
- 5- Do you ever wish you could work at your job on evenings or weekends?
- 6- Are you sometimes reluctant to leave your job to go on a vacation?
- 7- When you are at work do you ever wish you could be somewhere else?
- 8- Do you feel like working right through lunch break?
- 9- When you are on your way to work, do you ever feel like going somewhere else instead?
- 10- How would you feel about working over-time at this job without extra pay?

3.7 The Proposed Research Conceptual Model

The theoretical framework of managerial leadership and organisational culture investigates the relationship between a set of three variables of leadership behaviours and a set of dependent variables of organisational culture (Figure 3.1). The model is developed in three stages.

The first stage of the model would be studying a set of theoretical hypotheses measuring the relationship between leadership variables and organisational culture variable originated from the prior literature. The model examines a set of theoretical relationships between leadership styles and cultures in organisations. This sample is chosen from organisations from the financial industry.

The second stage of the model would be studying a set of theoretical hypotheses measuring the relationship between leadership and satisfaction at work. The independent leadership variables and dependent job satisfaction variables are originated from the prior literature. The model examines a set of theoretical causal relationships between midlevel managers' perceptions of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership styles and the degree of their satisfaction at work. The sample is chosen from the financial industry.

The third stage of the model would be studying a set of theoretical hypotheses measuring the relationship between organisational culture and satisfaction at work variables. The independent organisational culture variables the dependent job satisfaction variables are originated from the prior literature discussed in this chapter.

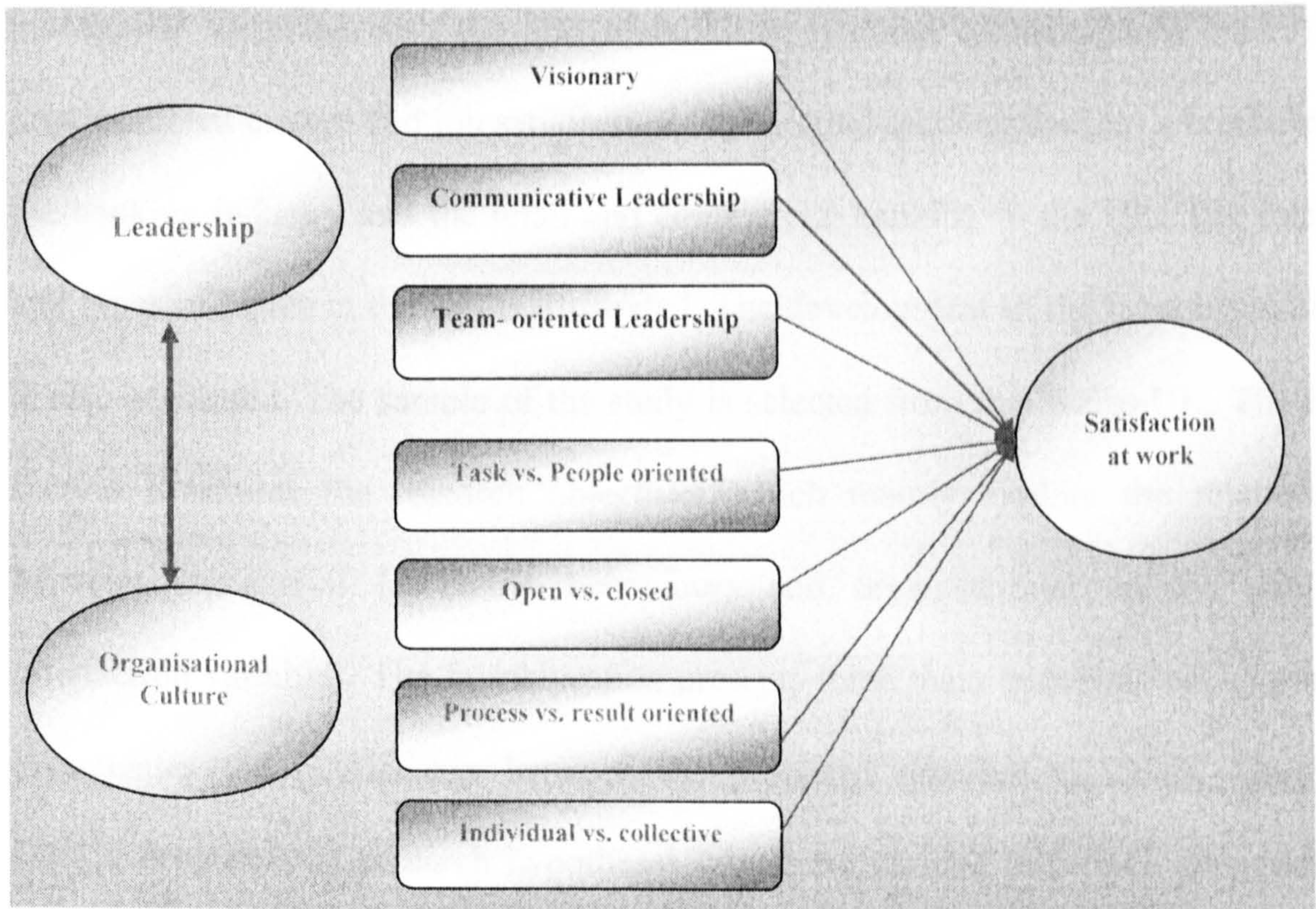
The model examines a set of theoretical casual relationships between organisational culture and satisfaction at work. The sample is chosen from the financial industry.

The model puts forward the following theory that is developed into three dimensions.

The first dimension of this theory indicates that effective managerial leadership would start with three aspects of leadership behaviours. These aspects are visionary, communicative and team-oriented behaviours. According to this model individuals /managers who have a positive perception of the above-mentioned leadership behaviours and a very good impression about their mentors or exceptional individual they have come across will be expected to experience positive feelings and satisfaction and rewarding experience at work, than those who do not have this conception of visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership. The next stage of this model indicates that there is causal relationship between four types of organisational cultures and job satisfaction of people in these organisations. The aim of this model is to find out by proposing a set of hypotheses about the relationship between organisational cultures and satisfaction at work.

The next stage is to find out about the relationship between managers' perceptions of visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership and organisational culture. What kind of relationship exists between individual managers who have positive or negative impressions or perceptions of leadership and the organisational culture they work in? Figure 3.1 illustrates the three dimensions of the conceptual framework model.

Figure 3.1 Theory of Managerial leadership, Organisation culture and Satisfaction at work



3.8 Conclusion

The conceptual framework chapter investigated the relationship between three managerial variables with the aim of building a model of managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction. The second section provides a brief idea of the banking industry and the retail and commercial banking in the UK. The number and types of banks in the UK is illustrated. The development in the branches number is also presented. The sample of the study is selected from the Wales-UK. The third section illustrates the research objectives which mainly explore the relationship between managerial leadership behaviours and organisational culture and job satisfaction variables. The fourth section presents three main questions which mainly investigate the relationship between the proposed research variables. The fifth section proposes the research hypotheses which are divided into three propositions. Proposition one is divided into four hypotheses which mainly investigate the relationship between managerial leadership and organisational culture. Proposition two is divided into three hypotheses which mainly investigate the relationship between managerial leadership and job satisfaction. Proposition three is divided into three hypotheses which mainly investigate the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. The sixth section presents the research variables. The first sets of variables are the managerial leadership variables which are the visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership variables. The second sets of variables are the organisational culture variables which are task oriented vs. people oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system cultures, individual vs. collective cultures and process vs. result cultures. The third sets of variables are the job satisfaction variables which are mainly founded on basis of the prior literature and the

studies of flow Csikszentmihalyi (1993, 2002) and action tendency scale by Locke (1967). The seventh section is the chapter summary which offers a presentation to the structure of the chapter. The next chapter of the research study is the methodology. The methodology chapter presents various major theories of research methodology as positivism, realism and interpretivism. The methodology chapter also presents the research methodology approach which involves the differentiation between the qualitative and quantitative research methodology, the research process, data collection methods, questionnaire construction, fieldwork and data analysis plan.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The aim of the methodology chapter is to provide an overview of the research methodology applied in the current research study. The second section presents an overview on research methodology and the various approaches of research methodology as the deductive and inductive theories and epistemological and philosophical trends such as positivism, realism and interpretivism. The third section is dedicated to explain the differences between the qualitative and the quantitative research methods. The employed research methodology and the research process are discussed in this section. The fourth section discusses the research process. Section five presents an explanation on the sampling of the study which is followed by the discussion of the nature and types of primary and secondary data in section six. Section seven provides an illustration of the various methods of data collection such as observation, interviews and self completed questionnaires. The eighth section explains the process of questionnaire construction, the different kinds of measurement scale and data types such as the nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio types. It also explains the theoretical development of questionnaires and how the pilot study was conducted. The ninth section provides an elaboration of the fieldwork and the process of collecting the data and the strategies applied in the process. Section ten discusses the data analysis plan. Finally the chapter ends with a chapter summary.

4.2 The Research Philosophy

The research philosophy implied in this research contains important assumptions about the way in which the researcher views the world. These assumptions will underpin the research strategy and the methods which are chosen as part of that strategy (Saunders et al 2000). Cooper and Schindler (2003) outline four approaches to methodologies of business and management studies which can be classified as reporting, descriptive, explanatory and predictive. Reporting is the simplest approach where the researcher provides summation of data which is already available and generates some statistics. In the descriptive approach the researcher attempts to describe and define subject by creating a profile of a group of problems. In the descriptive approach, data will be collected and distributed after the researcher makes several numbers of observations on a single factor which can be considered as a variable. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) the descriptive study reports is very popular in business research because of its flexibility and resourcefulness in various fields and disciplines. The explanatory approach goes beyond description and attempts to describe the reasons for the phenomenon. In the explanatory studies Cooper and Schindler (2003) argue that the research can be build upon theories and hypotheses to study or take into account the factors or forces that caused this phenomenon. In this section three major research philosophies in management research including positivism, realism, and interpretivism will be discussed.

4.2.1 Positivism

According to Smith (1998) positivism is an epistemological position that advocates the application of methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond. Epistemology involves the study of theories of knowledge, the question we ask about how we know. According to May (1997) the 'aim of positivism is to collect and assemble data on the social world from which we can generalise and explain human behaviour through the set of our theories' (p.10). Bryman (2004) outlines the following principles with regard to positivism. The purpose of theory is to produce hypotheses that can be tested and will allow explanation of laws to be assessed. This is related to the deductive approach. Knowledge can also be generated through the gathering of facts that provides the bases for the theory. This is the inductive approach. There is a clear distinction between scientific statements and normative statements and the belief that the scientific statements are the true domain of the scientist and knowledge is generated and confirmed by the senses. Positivism entails elements of both deductive and inductive approaches and there is a sharp distinction between theory and research. According to Morrison (2007) positivism has a number of key features; first are the objects of the educational research, second is the researcher observation through experience which can be considered as knowledge, third is that scientific knowledge can be obtained through the collection of verified facts, fourth is that positivism takes a particular stance with regard to value, fifth is that positivism may predict in the sense that observation in the past may enable them to predict what will happen in the future. According to Collis and Hussey (2003) positivists believe that the only phenomena that are observable and measurable can be validly regarded as knowledge. The positivists approach considers that they are detached from what they are researching and regard the phenomena which are the

focus of the research as objects. It is frequently advocated that the positivist researcher will be likely to use a highly structured methodology in order to facilitate replication (Saunders et al 2003). Furthermore, the emphasis will be on quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis.

4.2.2 Realism

Realism is another philosophical approach that implies to provide an account of the nature of scientific research. Realism relates to scientific enquiry (Saunders et al 2003). According to Bryman (2004) realism shares two features with positivism. First is the belief that social sciences should and can apply the same kind of approach as natural sciences to the data collection and the explanation and the interpretation of this data. Second is the commitment to the view that there is an external reality to which the researcher is directing their attention and the distinction between the reality and the researcher's description of it.

According to Bhaskar (1989) there are two forms of realism: empirical realism asserts that reality can be understood and that there is a perfect correspondence between reality and the terms used to describe it. Critical realism is a specific form of realism whose application is to recognise the reality of the natural order and the events of the social world and to adopt the philosophy that a researcher could only understand the social world if the researcher identifies the structure that generates these events. These structures are not apparent in the visible pattern of events; rather they can be identified through practical and theoretical work of sciences. One way of understanding the critical realism approach is through studying it in terms of the

relation to positivism. According to Bryman (2004) where as positivists take the view that the researcher or the scientist's conceptualisation of reality reflects that reality, critical realists believe that the scientist's conceptualisation is the way of knowing this reality. According to Bhaskar (1975) a critical realist recognizes that the categories they employ to understand reality are expected to be temporary and conditional. Critical realists point out to the distinction between the object of the study and scrutiny and the terms that are used to describe them.

4.2.3 Interpretivism

According to Bryman (2004) interpretivism refers to the view that a strategy is required which respects the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences therefore it requires the scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action. According to Von Wright (1971) the epistemological clash between positivism and interpretation, or hermeneutics which is a term imported into social sciences which is concerned with the theory of interpretation of human action, reflects the division between the emphasis on the explanation of human behaviour which is the positivist approach, and the understanding of this behaviour. According to Bryman (2004) the latter approach is concerned with understanding this phenomenon, rather than the forces that are considered to act on it. Interpretivism is intellectually related to Weber's (1947) theory of verstehen which described sociology as the science that aims at understanding of social action through interpretation for the purpose of arriving at a causal explanation of its course and effects (p.88). To sum up, interpretivism is an epistemology which supports that it is necessary for the researcher to understand differences between humans in our role as social actors.

4.3 Research Methodology Approach

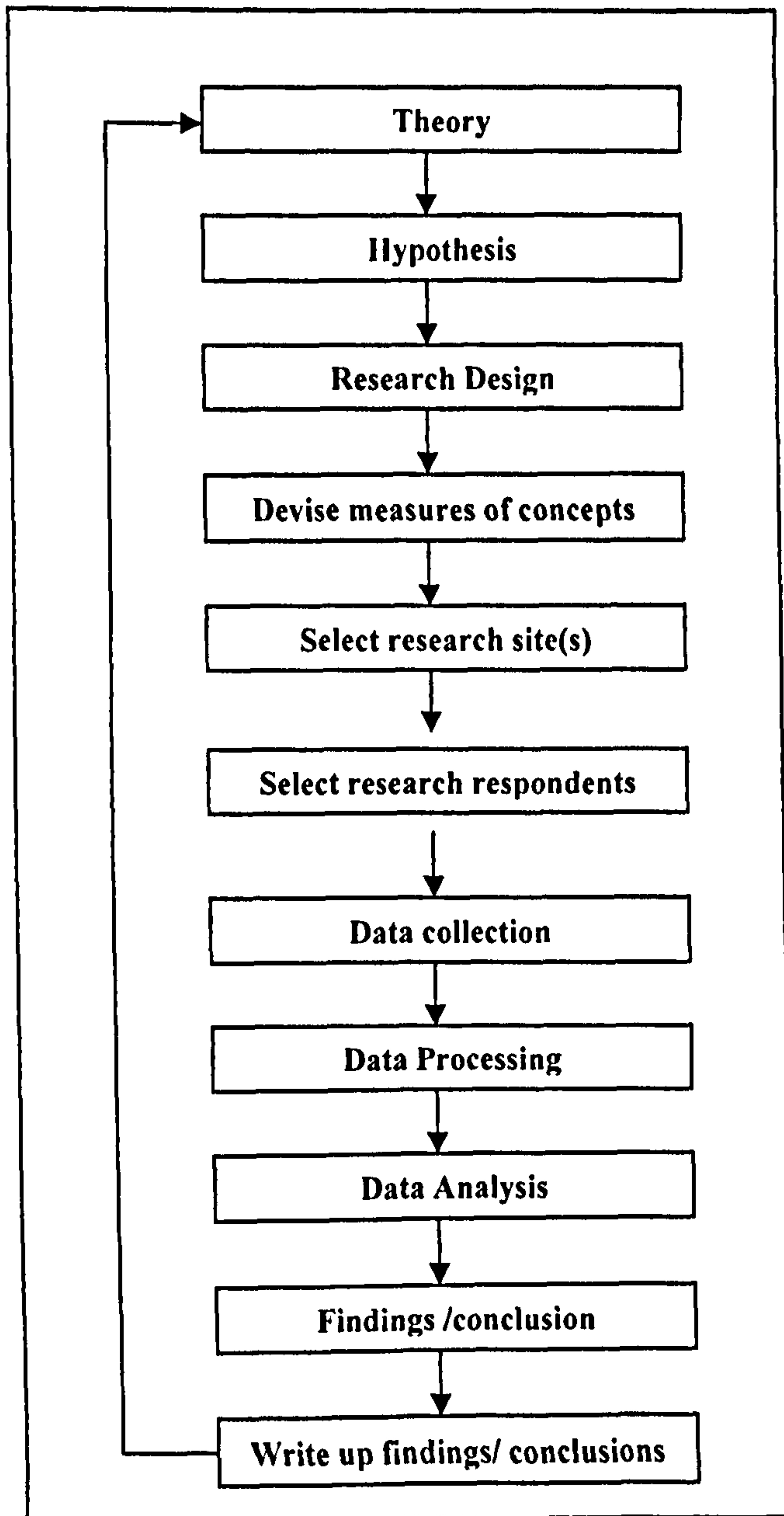
Research projects in management and leadership involve the use of theory (Karami et al, 2006a). That theory may or may not be made explicit in the design of the research, although it is made explicit in presentation of the findings and conclusions. Saunders et al (2000) argue that being clear about the theory at the beginning of the research project raises the question concerning the research design. This is whether research should use the deductive approach in which a researcher develops a theory and hypothesis and designs a research strategy to test the hypothesis, or inductive approach, in which the researcher collects the data and develops theory as a result of data analysis. The deductive approach is generally associated with quantitative approach; in contrast the inductive approach benefits from qualitative research methods. This section provides an overview of the quantitative and qualitative research. The last sub-section illustrates the main steps applied and employed in this study which involved both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research methodology.

4.3.1 Quantitative Research Methodology

Bryman (2004) exemplifies the nature of the relationship between theory and research and illustrates how the deductive approach deduces a hypothesis that must be subjected to empirical scrutiny. The researcher must then translate and deduce the hypothesis into operational terms (Karami et al, 2006a). This will require the researcher to specify how the data for this hypothesis will be collected. The deductive process starts with a theory and is followed by a hypothesis or a set of hypotheses and

then the requirement for data collection and findings and then confirmation or rejection of the hypothesis and revision of the theory. The deductive or quantitative approach starts with theory formulation and ending with findings and revision of the theory.

A quantitative research strategy can be applied as a research method that focuses and emphasises quantification in terms of collecting and analysing of data. Quantitative research methods involve a deductive approach focusing on the relationship between theory and research. It involves the testing of this theory and embodies a view of social reality as an external reality. In very broad terms quantitative research is defined as the involvement of collecting numerical data. Bryman (2004) outlines the main steps of quantitative research suggesting that a hypothesis is deducted from a theory and is tested. Figure 4.1 illustrates the process of quantitative research. The tested hypothesis is connected to experimental research. The next step after testing the hypothesis entails the selection of a research design which provides a framework for collecting and analysing of the data. The research design is involved with studying casual connections between variables, generalising to larger groups of individuals the ones on the forming part of the research study; and understanding behaviour and its meaning and causes in the social context. The next step would be the selection of the target site or sites or the organisations the study with take place and that would be followed by the selection of the respondents or the subjects of the study.

Figure 4.1 The process of quantitative research

Source: Adapted from Bryman (2004)

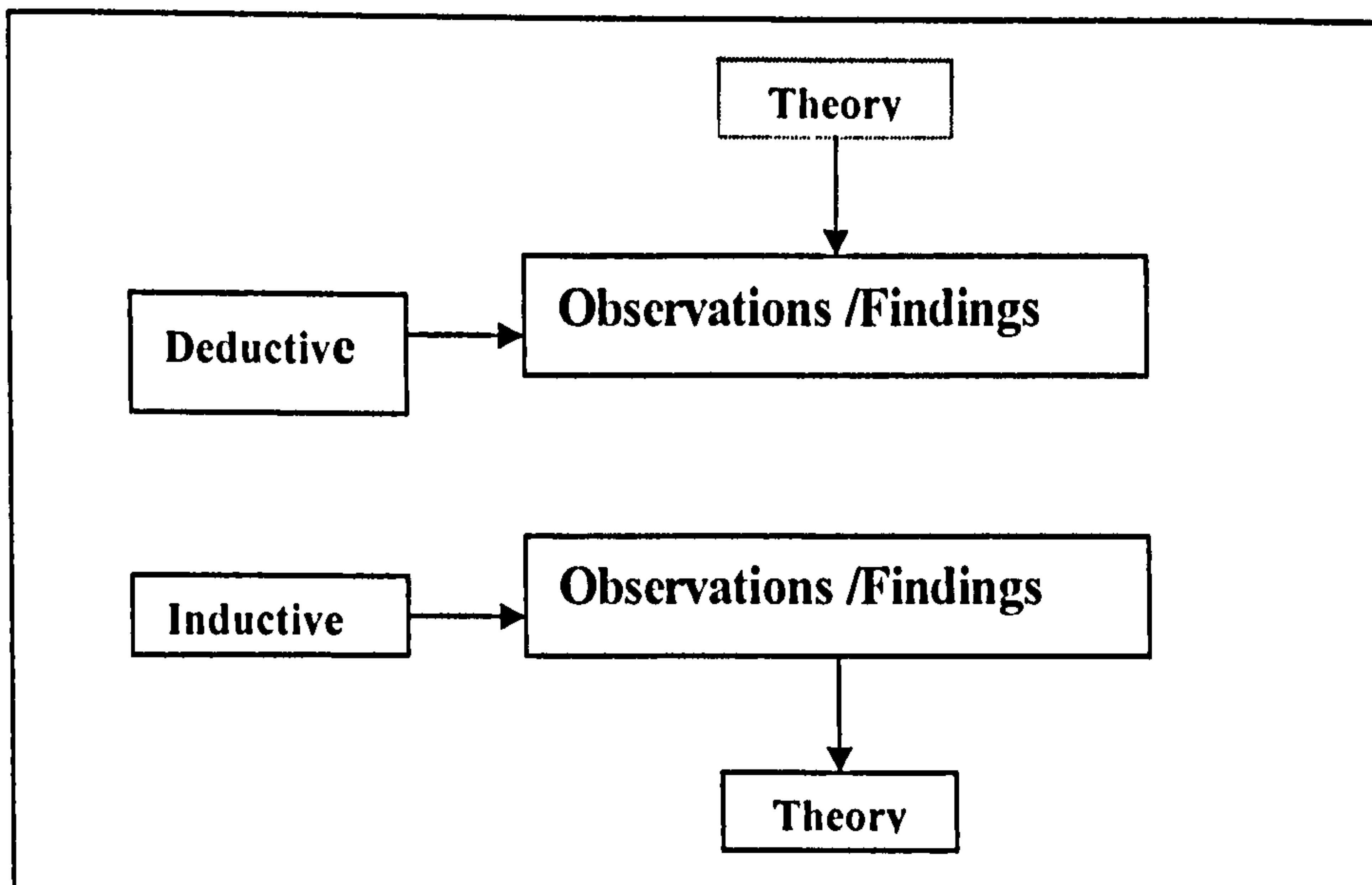
The next step would involve the administration of the research instruments and data collection. This involves pre-testing subjects, defining the independent variables designing survey research instruments that would involve interviewing and questionnaire design and distribution to the sample members. The next step after collecting the information would be transforming this information into quantifiable data. According to Pelosi and Sandifer (2000) when data is collected, the result is a

list of observations which is referred to as raw data. Statistical analysis provides a tool for transforming this raw data into information.

Some sort of data does not need transformation as it is already numerical such as the number of people's age, income, years of experience etc... For other sorts of data, coding the information and the transformation into numbers would be carried out by the computer. According to Saunders et al (2003) all data types should be recorded using numerical codes. The next step would be the data analysis and measuring the relationship between variables and developing a way of presenting the results of the analysis. The final stages of the research would be the presentation and reaching the findings and the conclusion of the study and finally the writing of the whole research thesis.

4.3.2 Qualitative Research Methodology

The inductive approach involves movement in the opposite direction where the researcher assumes and infers the implications of their findings that introduced and promoted the theory. The findings are fed back to the theory. With the inductive approach, theory is the outcome of research (Bryman 2004, Karami et al, 2006a). Figure 4.2 illustrates the differences between the deductive and the inductive approaches.

Figure 4.2 Deductive and inductive approaches

Source: Bryman (2004)

Qualitative research methods tend to emphasise the inductive approach in which the focus is on the generation of theories (Bryman, 2004). According to Gerson and Horowitz (2002) qualitative research involves some kind of direct encounter with the world and that the qualitative researcher is also routinely concerned with measurable facts or phenomena but also with the ways people distinguish, understand and give meaning to these experiences; qualitative research also aims to discover the new concepts rather than imposing preconceived categories. According to Gerson and Horowitz (2002) qualitative methodologies offer more than epistemological assumptions and encompass several distinct approaches the most distinguished of is the participant observation and in-depth interviewing. In-depth Interviewing requires a more inductive approach to research design and theory building.

4.3.3 The Employed Research Methodology

The aim of this research is to look at the relationship between a set of managerial leadership behaviours namely visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational culture and job satisfaction. These three major areas are the key dimensions of the research study. To study these three relationships between these three dimensions requires asking questions like: what is the relationship between leadership and organisational culture? What is the relationship between culture and job satisfaction? What is the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction? In the long journey and scientific process of answering these questions, the researcher must define the methodology which will be applied to answer these questions. The method that is applied and used in this research approach follows mainly the deductive approach which starts with researcher reading about the subject of the study and immersing with prior literature that studied and debated and examined the topic, and then formulating a theory on basis of the research studied in this area. The researcher's aim at this stage is to prove this theory by constructing a set of hypotheses deducted from the theory itself. This research study follows the deductive pattern of study. Chapter three of the research study presents the conceptual framework and provides a theoretical background of the study and the evolution of theories that aim to relate leadership behaviours with organisational culture and the nature and degree of employees' satisfaction at work. Chapter three is dedicated to the purpose of explaining the theoretical background of this study and how the theory is formulated, followed by a set of hypotheses to be tested and examined. A further explanation of the research process is provided in the next section. The employed research methodology for this research study combined both the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

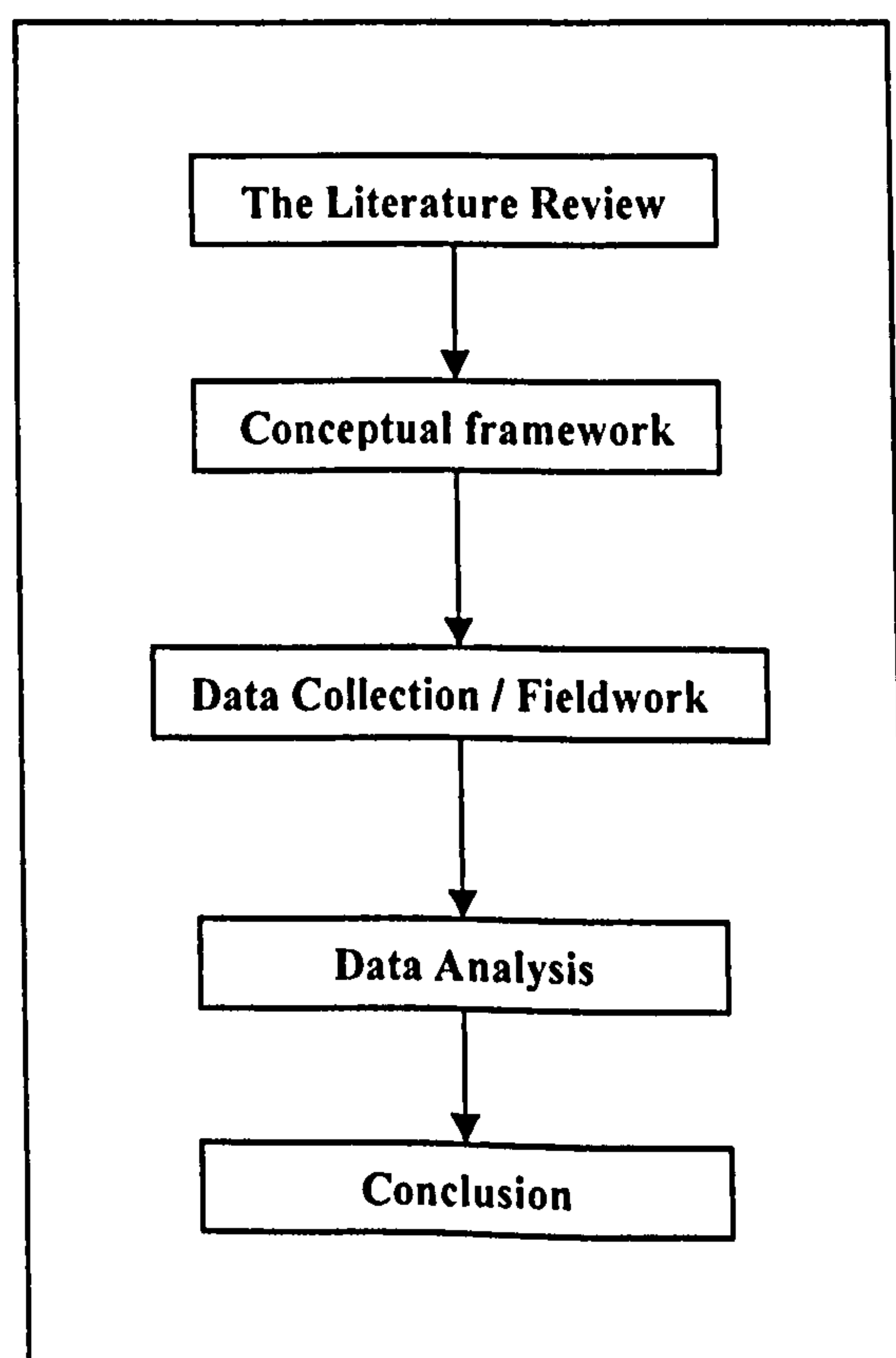
4.4 Research Process

The research process which is applied in this research works through the six following stages. The first stage involves immersing in the literature review and the search to formulate a problem. According to Gerson and Horowitz (2002) formulating a problem is the most important and difficult task for any researcher. Immersing in the literature review of the topic is an ongoing process the researcher will do until the final stage of the research as the researcher carries on updating the literature with the most recent studies in the field. The prior literature review gives the researcher an opportunity to study and examine the theoretical backgrounds and the methodologies applied in these studies. The second step involves the conceptualisation of the theory. Introducing the conceptual framework is crucial and probably the hardest part of the research study. The conceptual framework involves introducing the theory and the hypotheses, the research design, introducing the variables of the study and selecting the target organisations of the study. The third step involves the data collection and fieldwork. The fourth step involves the data analysis. The final step involves the findings and conclusion of the study where the research presents the findings of the study the discussion and recommendations. Figure 4.3 illustrates the research process and the chronological sequence and progression of the process.

4.5 Sampling

This section is concerned with the explanation of some aspects of sampling principles and the selection of people who would be asked questions through participating in interviews or questionnaires conducted by the researcher. Cooper and Schindler (2003) study the nature of sampling by giving an example that one taste of the drink tells us whether it is sweet or sour and that the basic idea of sampling is that by selecting some of the elements in a population, we may draw a conclusion about the entire population. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) the population element is the subject which the measurement is taken. The population element is defined as the unit of analysis. The unit of analysis could be a person or an organisational department or functional operational team or something else. In this research study the unit of analysis is the branch manager. In some minor cases deputy managers or departmental managers were selected in cases where the branch manager was not available.

Figure 4.3 Research Process



The population is the total number of observations or the elements of the study. The census is a count of all the elements of the study. For example if the total population of the research study is 740 branch managers, the census in this case would be the count of 740 observations and the census would be obtaining information from every single participant in the study. According to Maxim (1999) sampling is a less desirable procedure for data collection; however conducting a census would be very difficult and impractical. Sampling is less costly and would require less time if compared with testing of the whole population. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) there are many reasons why researchers do sampling and that includes lower cost as sampling requires lesser cost than testing the whole population. Sampling also gives greater accuracy with results and greater speed of data collection and data analysis and availability of population elements.

According to Maxim (1999) the accuracy of a sample is very important and the more accurate the sample is the more it is expensive. In some studies a high degree of accuracy is required to estimate respondents' participation. If a high level of accuracy is required but the resources are not available, the researcher would either consider an alternative strategy or reschedule until a later day.

Cooper and Schindler (2003) outline two factors that should exist in a sample to represent the characteristics the population. The validity of a sample depends on accuracy and precision. Accuracy is the degree to which bias is absent from the sample. An accurate sample is one in which the under-estimators and the over estimators are balanced among the members of the sample and there should be no systematic variance with an accurate sample. According to Cooper and Schindler

(2003) systematic variance is defined as the variation in measures due to some known or unknown influences that would cause the scores to lean in one direction more than another. Precision of estimate is the second criterion of a valid sample and no sample will completely represent its population in all aspects. This is called sampling error and reflects the influences of chance in drawing the sample members. Sampling error is what is left after all known sources of systematic variance have been accounted for. According to Bryman (2004) a sample error is the difference between a sample and the entire population from which it is selected, even though a probability sample has been selected. A non sampling error is the differences between the population and the sample that arise either from deficiencies in the sampling approach such as inadequate sampling frame or the non-response or problems in the questionnaire wording or the poor interview. Non response is a source of non sampling when the respondents of the sample refuse to cooperate or cannot be contacted for some reasons. According to Field (2005) the interest in looking and finding results that apply to the entire population of people or other phenomena is essential to the research in the sense that the researcher cannot collect data from every single element in the entire population. In this case the researcher collects smaller sample and analyses the results and infer the results about the entire population.

4.5.1 The Employed Sampling Method of the Study

This research study is looking at the relationship between visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership behaviours, and dimensions of organisational cultures and dimensions of job satisfaction in selected organisations from the banking industry in the UK. The organisations in the study were selected from Wales in the United Kingdom which takes the Western region of the United Kingdom. Figure 4.4 shows the Welsh map and the region where the sample of the study is selected. The field study is conducted in Wales in the UK to test the hypotheses. The organisations that were selected in the study were from the banking industry. The main reasons for choosing the banking industry is because there is no substantial research conducted in the field of managerial leadership and organisational culture in the banking industry.

Figure 4.4 The map of Wales



Source: Multimap (2007)

The organisations were coordinated and harmonised according to technological sophistication, organisational goals and structure and banking services. The selected organisations provide retail services in the UK. For the sake of confidentiality and anonymity issues the real names of the organisations will not be illustrated and will be coded. Table 4.1 illustrates the organisations selected in the study. The banks selected in this study are from the retail banking industry and are mainly High street retail banks and provide personal or retail services as current and saving accounts, debit and credit facilities, cheque facilities, as well as offering personal loans, mortgages and insurance. The sample of the study was selected from retail banks operating in the Wales. The total number of branches investigated and examined in this study is 740 branches located around Wales-UK. The branches of this study are retail banks and are illustrated in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 Coded Names of the Organisations selected in the study

Coded Names of banks and number of their branches operating in Wales	
1-AN Bank	54 Branches
2- BS Bank	157 Branches
3- HX Bank	43 Branches
4- HC Bank	197 Branches
5- LB Bank	146 Branches
6- NW Bank	143 Branches

The total population of the research study consisted of 740 branch managers from the retail banking industry in the above mentioned selected organisations. Appendix 4.1 shows a list of the sample frame and a list of elements from which the sample was drawn.

4.6 The Data

This section aims to shed some light on the nature and sources of data used in the current research study which is divided into two main sources: primary and secondary data. This section aims to illustrate the nature of primary and secondary data and the sources these data could be obtained from.

4.6.1 Primary Data

According to Zikmund (1991) primary data are data gathered and accumulated specifically for the project or the research study at hand. According to Saunders et al (2003) primary data is new data collected specifically for the purpose of the research study the researcher is conducting. According to Saunders et al (2003) collecting primary data can be employed through observation and through using semi-structured and in depth interviews and through using questionnaires. According to Saunders et al (2003) observation involves the systematic observation, recording, description, analysis and interpretation of people's behaviour. The second method of collecting primary data is through using semi-structured and in-depth interviews which can help the researcher gather valid and reliable data for the purpose of the research they are conducting (Saunders et al, 2003). In this research study the main method of

collecting primary data is through self completed questionnaires. The details of fieldwork and primary data collection will be discussed in the section 7.

4.6.2 Secondary Data

According to Zikmund (1991) secondary data is gathered and collected by some one else before the research and for purposes other than the current needs of the researcher. Secondary data are usually historical and already collected. For example data bases like Bank Scope or the Security Statistics contain broad generally historical and statistical data about financial markets and banking organisations, which can be quite useful to the particular needs of a specific research study about financial organisations in the UK for example. Collecting secondary data has advantages and disadvantages. According to Zikmund (1991) one of the advantages of secondary data is that obtaining this kind of data is not expensive and that secondary data can be obtained more rapidly than primary data. The financial and time factors play an important role in the success of the research and secondary data could save on both elements. According to Zikmund (1991) collecting data that has been already collected and tested would save the researcher doing the fieldwork. One of the disadvantages of secondary data is that it is obtained from secondary data resources which are not designed to meet the specific needs of the research and the researcher. Does the data apply to the population of interest? Is the subject matter consistent with the research problem of definition? For example in this research study, which is studying the relationship between managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction in UK retail banks operating in Wales, secondary data which is provided from Bank Scope or Thomson would be very useful as these data bases

could provide data about retail banks in Wales specifically rather it would provide data from the UK in general. The secondary data may not suit the needs of the research.

4.6.3 Data Sources of the Study

The data sources of this research study were collected and assembled from two sources: primary and secondary sources. The primary data is the main source of data for this research study. The primary data was collected through conducting a survey that covered the Welsh region in the UK. The study targeted selected organisations from the commercial banking industry which provided retail banking services. The unit of analysis of the study is the branch manager. The process of data collection method will be thoroughly explained in the fieldwork section. The secondary data was collected through organisations website and data bases and annual reports or other publications provided by the selected organisations of the study. The secondary data gathered in this research has been used for developing research variables and the conceptual framework of the research.

4.7 Data Collection Methods

This section aims to explain three data collection methods for collecting primary data mainly used in social and management and business studies, namely observation, interviewing and questionnaires. The last sub-section aims at illustrating and examining the employed data collection method used in this current research study.

4.7.1 Observation

According to Adler and Adler (1998) observation has served as a bedrock source of human knowledge who points out that not only is observation one of the earliest and most basic forms of research but it is most used in conjunction with other methods such as participant observation, experimental design and interviewing. Observation consists of gathering impressions of the surrounding world through all relevant human faculties which involves direct contact with the objects and subject of study and observation. According to Morris (1973) observation is defined as “the act of noting a phenomenon, often with instruments and recording it for scientific and other purposes” (p.906). According to Adler and Adler (1998) one of the aspects of observation is its non-interventionism in the sense that the observer does not manipulate or stimulate their subjects of study and does not ask the subject of study research questions poses tasks or create provocation. In comparison to interviews, observation follows the flow of events. According to Zikmund (1991) several aspects about the behaviours of people or objects can be observed like physical action and evidence, verbal behaviour, or expressive behaviour. Communication between the researcher and the subject of study may not be necessary; for example rather than asking a customer how much time they would spend shopping in a retail store or supermarket the researcher will observe the shopping time by timing the interval between a shopper entering or leaving the store. Visible observation is when the observer’s presence is known to the subject of study. Hidden observation is when the subject of study is unaware that observation is taking place. According to Zikmund (1991) direct observation produces a detailed record of events and the observer plays a passive role and there is no attempt to control or manipulate a situation. The observer’s role is to record what occurs. According to Zikmund (1991) observation is

very crucial to identify first the participants of the study knowing who they are and how many of them, second the setting whether the subject of study is a drug store, factory or a branch of a company; third is the purpose these participants are in for in the sense that there is an official purpose these participants are gathered together; fourth is the social behaviour in the sense of observing what these participants do, and towards whom or what this behaviour is directed; fifth is the frequency and duration in the sense that the observer wants to know when did this situation occur and what are the occasions that caused it or give rise to it. According to Bryman (2004) structured observation is a technique where the researcher employs explicitly formulated rules for the observation and recording of behaviour. Observation was not applied in this research study. However during the fieldwork stage and data collection there was a chance to observe behaviours of people or objects like the physical action and evidence, verbal behaviour, or expressive behaviour; the behaviour of the staff and the branch managers of the selected organisations of the study. Also observing the setting of study and gathering impressions about the outside world of these settings which were the branches of these selected organisations and the purpose these participants are in for, in the sense that there is a purpose these participants are gathered together. Recording and reporting about the cultures of these organisations is very important factor in collecting data through observation; how do these organisations look and are they technologically sophisticated? Observing the behaviour of the staff is important. Are they customer oriented and friendly to people? How many cash-points ATM (automated teller machine) are there in each branch? All these information can be obtained through observation.

4.7.2 Interviewing

According to Fontana and Frey (1998) interviewing is a powerful tool the researcher applies to try to understand a human phenomenon; and it has a variety of forms for a range of uses; and the most frequent and widespread type of interviewing is the individual face to face verbal interchange. According to Zikmund (1991) the gathering of information through face to face contact with individuals has a long history which goes back to the ancient empires of Egypt and Rome when censuses were used as a basis for tax rates and military conscription. It is argued that (Zikmund, 1991; Saunders et al, 2003) personal interviews are direct communication where the interviewer is in face to face situations asks respondents questions. The method is a two way conversation between the interviewer and the respondent. The setting of the interview could be in a factory, staff room in company or executive office. According to (Zikmund, 1991) personal interviews give the interviewer an opportunity for feedback and the opportunity to probe if the respondent's answer is brief or vague; probing refers to "interviewers asking for clarification or expansion of answers to standardized questions" (p.163). According to Fontana and Frey (1998) structured interviewing is when the interviewer asks the interviewee or the respondents a number of pre-established questions. All of the respondents will receive the same set of questions. According to Bryman (2004) unstructured interviewing refers to the situation when the researcher or interviewer uses an 'aide memoire' to deal with certain range of areas and topics. The interviewer might use one question and let the interviewee answer freely and flexibly with the interviewer responding to questions that seem worthy of being followed.

4.7.3 Questionnaire

According to Zikmund (1991) survey research is conducted among voters, investors, students, employees, consumers, retailers and many other people. The purpose of the questionnaire research is to obtain primary data which is collected and assembled for the sole and specific purpose of this study the researcher is doing; and are designed to ask respondents for information. The sample survey emphasises the purpose of contacting respondents is to obtain a representative sample of the target population. According to Bryman (2004) one way of gathering data using a social survey design is through distributing questionnaires and asking respondents to complete it. The most frequent and regular way of questionnaires is the self completion or postal questionnaire. Bryman (2004) points out that with self-completion questionnaires the respondent answers the questions listed in the questionnaire. The most common form would be the postal questionnaire where the respondent receives the questionnaire by post and sends it back by post after completion. According to Bryman (2004) with self completion questionnaires, there is no interviewer to ask the questions and the respondent must read the questions and answer them themselves. Self completion questionnaires tend to have less opened questions as closed ones are easier to answer; have to be designed in an easy form to minimise the risk that the respondent could fail to understand the question; and have to be short and brief to reduce the 'respondent fatigue' and the possibility that they might lose interest in continuing the questionnaire if the questions were too long.

According to Nachimas and Nachimas, (1996) discussed the main advantages of the postal mail survey. The first advantage is low cost. Economy is one of the most obvious appeals of mail questionnaire. The mail questionnaire does not require a

trained staff of interviewers; all it entails is the cost of planning, sampling, duplicating, mailing, and providing stamped self-addressed envelopes for the returns. The second advantage is reduction in biasing error. The mail questionnaire reduces biasing error that might result from the personal characteristics of interviewers and variability in their skills. The third advantage is that with self completed questionnaire there is greater anonymity. The absence of an interviewer also provides greater anonymity. The assurance of anonymity with mail questionnaires is especially helpful when the survey deals with sensitive issue. On such matters, a mail survey may elicit a higher response rate than a personal interview. The fourth advantage is considered answers and consultations. Mail questionnaires are also preferable when questions demand a considered answers or if the answer requires consulting personal documents or other people. The last advantage is accessibility. Finally the mail questionnaire permits wide geographic contact at minimal cost.

4.7.4 Employed Data Collection Method

According to Nachmias and Nachmias, (1996) data collection methods have been grouped into three categories consisting of observational methods, interviews and questionnaire surveys. This research study required the collection of quantitative and qualitative data that would facilitate comparison and hypothesis testing. The only method that was applied in this research study is the conduction of a self completed questionnaire. Other methods such as observation and personal interviews were not included in the methodology due to financial and time factors. Conducting interviews with the respondents was not included in the study because of lack of time and limitation of the financial resources for this research as this would require travelling

around the sample of the study to conduct the interviews with the participants in the study. Interviewing is a strong tool to collect qualitative data where the researcher has the opportunity to meet the interviewee face to face and collect data and get answers for all the questions. This methodology was not applied in this research study as this would require time which was not provided. The cost of travel from one city to another to conduct interviews was also another reason for not interviewing the participants in the study. The considerable reasons in selecting the mail survey as the main research instrument in this study can be summarised as follow:

First, we can gather abundant information through a structured questionnaire. Since the required information in this research not only embodies issues of leadership and organisational culture, but also include several organization characteristics, the questionnaire could be used to gather information in an effective way. Secondly, the topic in this research itself is sensitive. Other methods may encounter a lot of problems during data collection process and fail to gather enough good quality information. In addition, this accuracy of the data can be secured and the interview bias can be controlled by mail survey. Thirdly, because of a large sample size, the information gathering process can be very efficient under a limited time. Accordingly because of the region wide focus of the study, the postal questionnaire was the efficient instrument. Finally, owing to financial constraints, the mail questionnaire was the most appropriate way and economical instrument to conduct the survey.

Respondents were sent postal questionnaire and were asked to complete self completed questionnaires, and were asked to answer the questions and send them back by post. According to Bryman (2004) one of the advantages of the self completion questionnaires is that it is less costly to administer as interviews can be

time consuming and more expensive. Questionnaires can also be quicker bearing in mind that questionnaires do not come back immediately and may take several weeks to be returned; another advantage would be the invariability of questions in the sense that there is no interviewer who is asking questions in a different order of different approaches and there is no interviewer influence; self completed questionnaires are also more convenient for respondents as they can answer them at their own convenience and speed. With the disadvantage of the self completion questionnaire, there are a number of elements such as the possibility that the respondent does not understand the questions clearly and there is no opportunity to probe the respondent to elaborate especially if the questions were designed as open-ended. Also there is a possibility of missing data which happens in the case of this research as the respondent does not answer all the questions listed. Also the ambiguity of the identity of the respondents who participated can be considered as a disadvantage, as with postal questionnaires the researcher can never be sure who really completed the questions (Bryman 2004). There was a follow up letter with regard to participants who did not respond back. The first stage of the data collection procedure was sending the postal self completed questionnaires to participants and waiting for the response. The second stage was calling the participants to ensure a high response rate, as well as travelling in person to ask participants to complete the questionnaire. The third stage was sending the self completed questionnaire for the second time with a follow up letter asking respondents to complete the questionnaire and travelling to meet the respondents in person to guarantee and achieve a higher response rate.

4.8 Questionnaire Construction

In this research study the questionnaire is designed in four sections. The introductory section is designed to measure and obtain data about the personal profile of the respondents and specific information about the organisations they work with. The personal profile data includes names and locations of the organisations, position of the respondent, as well as gender and nationality and finally years of professional experience in the banking industry. The first section is designed to ask a set of questions with regard to visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and test the respondent's perception of these three managerial behaviours. The second section is designed to ask questions with regard to the types of organisational cultures existing in the targeted organisations of this study and test respondents' identification and classification of these organisational cultures that base partly the theoretical framework of the study. The third section is designed to ask questions regarding the respondents' fulfilment with work and measure their degree of satisfaction at their work. Developing and designing a questionnaire which aims to extract these different kinds of data: nominal, interval and numerical, requires a careful and a custom oriented designed scale. The aim of this questionnaire is to measure manager's perceptions of managerial behaviours and attitudes about certain aspects of leadership and organisational culture and satisfaction at work. Such measurement would require a more complicated scale than the simple standardised ones. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) a scale is defined as a "procedure for the assignment of numbers (or other symbols) to a property of objects in order to impart some of the characteristics of numbers to the properties in question" (p.250).

4.8.1 Measurement Scales

Cooper and Schindler (2003) point out to three types of measurements: rating, ranking and categorization. Rating is used when respondents score an object or indicant without making a direct comparison to another object; for example the respondent may be asked to code their degree of agreement and disagreement about a certain point on a five-point rating scale. Ranking is used when participants make comparison among two or more objects or indicants; respondent may be asked to compare and choose between which one of two cars for example has better qualities or more attractive style. Categorization is used as respondents are grouped or categorised according to their gender or ethnic background as the research is directed into certain category. For the sake of this current research study the rating scale is mainly applied in the questionnaire of this study.

4.8.2 Rating Scales

Rating scales are used to judge properties or objects of study without reference to other similar objects. Cooper and Schindler (2003) list these rating scales as follows:

- 1- The simple category scale
- 2- Multiple choice single response scale
- 3- Multiple choice multiple response scale
- 4- Likert scale
- 5- Semantic differential scale
- 6- Numerical scale
- 7- Multiple rating list scale

8- Fixed sum scale

9- Staple scale

10- Graphic rating scale

In the current study, the rating scale has been used whenever the researcher asks respondents to make a judgment in terms of sets of ordered categories, such as 'strongly agree', or 'very often'. For example the following question from research questionnaire shows rating format.

QUESTION

In this section we outline a list of statements. These statements are not about your organisation as such, but relate to your organisational and work experience of the banking industry. Please indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with each of these statements below the scale:

Scale : 1- Strongly agree; 2- Agree; 3- Not sure; 4 – Disagree; 5 – Strongly disagree **1 2 3 4 5**

1-In these organisations there is little concern for employees' welfare.

2-In these organisations there is high pressure to meet targets and accomplish the tasks

3-In these organisations crucial decisions are made by the people at the top.

4-In these organisations there is stress on employees' responsibilities and task structure.

5-In these organisations competition between employees is very strong.

6-In these organisations there is little concern for the employee's private life.

7-In these organisations employees have a good working relationship with their line managers.

8-In these organisations the majority of employees prefer to stay with the company until they retire.

9-In these organisations teamwork and community spirit is very high among employees.

10-In these organisations employees have time for their personal and family life.

4.8.3 Measurement Consideration

Data types vary and are listed as nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio types of data. Each data type has its own set of characteristics and empirical operations. The next subsections study the category and nature of these data types.

4.8.3.1 Nominal Data

According to Zikmund (1991) the nominal scale is the simplest kind of scale as the numbers and the letters assigned to objects serve as labels for identification or classification. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) nominal data involves the collection of information on a variable that can be grouped into two or more categories that are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive. Nominal data is widely used in surveys when the data is by major subgroups of the population. Classifications of nominal data are such as respondents' marital status, gender and other categories

In this study the nominal scale is applied in the personal profile section which asks respondents to clarify their position in the company, gender and years of experience in the banking industry. Table 4.2 presents an example of the nominal scale which is applied in the study survey.

Table 4.2 Example from the nominal scale

1- Gender:		
Gender:	Male	Female

4.8.3.2 Ordinal Data

According to Zikmund (1991) an ordinal scale arranges and classifies objects according to their degree in an ordered relationship. A typical ordinal scale in business research asks respondents to rate a certain brand for example as excellent, good, fair and poor. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) the use of an ordinal scale implies a statement of greater than or less than without stating how much greater or less. For example if a, is greater than b and b is greater than c, then a, is greater than c.

4.8.3.3 Interval Data

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) interval scale incorporate the concept of equality of the distance between 1 and 2 and 2 and 3 which should be equal distance. For example the calendar time is an interval scale. The time between the 1st and 2nd is equal to the time between the 3rd and 4th. However, one cannot say that 4th is twice late as the 2nd because the zero time is an arbitrary origin. According to Zikmund (1991) a classic example of an interval scale is the Fahrenheit temperature scale. However if the temperature is 80 degrees it cannot be said that it is as twice as hot as 40 degrees. Many attitude scales are considered to be interval such as intelligence scores, semantic differential scales and other multi-graphical scales. The scale applied in the questionnaire of this research study is mainly interval as the Likert scale is applied in sections one, two and three of the questionnaire. When a scale is interval, the arithmetic mean is used as the measure of the central tendency.

The Likert scale is applied in the first, second and third sections of the managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction questionnaire of the research study. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) the Likert scale consists of statements that express either a positive or negative attitude towards the objects of study. The respondent is asked to agree or disagree with each question. Each response is given a numerical score to reflect its degree of attitudinal favourableness. The score will be calculated totally to measure the respondent attitude. In this research study respondents are asked to code their degree of agreement of how frequently the person they perceive as a leader is capable of engaging behaviours presented in the questions. The respondent chooses one of the five levels of agreement. The numbers indicate the value to be assigned to each answer with a 1 which is strongly agree and a 5 which is strongly disagree. Table 4.3 illustrates some examples of the data measured using Likert scale.

Table 4.3 Examples from the data measured using Likert Scale

Example from the leadership section of the questionnaire

1- Would you consider that this person Has the ability to idealise future goals for team members				
Strongly agree 5	Agree 4	not sure 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1

Example from the Organisational culture section of the questionnaire

1- In these organisations there is a little concern for employees' welfare				
Strongly agree 5	Agree 4	not sure 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1

1- When I wake up in the morning I feel reluctant to go to work				
Strongly agree 5	Agree 4	not sure 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1

4.8.3.4 Opened or Closed Questions

The question design or style is another issue the researcher bears in mind when developing and building the questionnaire. According to Bryman (2004) one of the most significant considerations for many researchers is whether to ask a question in an opened or closed format. In the case of opened questions, the respondent is asked a question with no limitation or given choices where they could choose from. The respondent has the freedom to answer as they wish. In the case of closed questions the respondent is presented with a set of choices from which they can select an appropriate answer. According to Bryman (2004) with self completion questionnaires, most of the questions are likely to be closed. The process of developing a strongly constructed questionnaire is extremely important as it is one of the most important reasons for accomplishing a good response rate. According to Dillman (1983) an attractive layout is more likely to increase the response rate than other tactics such as reducing the margins or space between questions. According to Bryman (2004) due to the low response rate problem it is preferable to design the questionnaire as short as possible, assuring that the layout is easy on the eye and that it facilitates answering all the questions that are relevant to the respondent.

4.8.4 Questionnaire theoretical Development

The leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction questionnaire is divided into the personal profile section and three sections testing managers perception of visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership; it also tests manager's perception of a set of organisational practices and culture and finally it measures managers' job satisfaction. The theoretical development of the research study questionnaire is divided into three sections: the leadership behaviours section, organisational culture section and job satisfaction section.

The first section consists of a set of 36 questions measuring three managerial leadership behaviours: visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership. Questions 2, 4,5,10,14,26,27, were adapted from the Conger and Kanungo (1998) questionnaire of charismatic leadership in organisations. The rest of the questions in the first section were theoretically developed from the various theories of visionary and team-oriented leadership. Kouses and Posner (1995), Munter (2000), Kotter (1996), Clawson (1999), Kolger (2000), House et al (2004). Questions 13, 25, 29 and 31 are reversed score questions.

The second section of the questionnaire is designed to measure six dimensions of organisational cultures: task oriented vs. people, process vs. result, parochial vs. professional, open vs. closed, loose vs. tight and collective vs. individual cultures. The theoretical development of the questions was based mainly on the work of Hofstede (2001) and partly on House et al (2004). The first five dimensions of organisational cultures: 1- task oriented vs. people, 2- process vs. result, 3- parochial vs.

professional, 4- open vs. closed, 5- loose vs. tight are adapted from Hofstede (2001). The six dimensions of organisational culture is based on House et al (2004). However House et al (2004) introduced a dimension which is defined as called gender egalitarianism which is “the degree to which an organisation or a society minimises gender role differences while promoting gender equality”. This study however is measuring the degree of masculinity vs. the degree of femininity in the selected organisations of the study.

The third section is designed to measure satisfaction at work through designing a set of job satisfaction indicators on bases of Locke (1967), Clawson (1999) and Csikszentmihalyi (1993). The total number of these questions is 13. Questions 1, 3 and 6 are reversed scored questions. Questions 1-7 are adapted from Locke (1967); questions 8, 9, and 13 are theoretically developed on bases of the classic work of Csikszentmihalyi (1993); questions 10, 11, and 12 are also theoretically developed on basis of Clawson (1999) work of Level Three Leadership.

4.8.5 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted before the actual administration of the questionnaire. A group of 25 participants mainly bank managers were asked to fill in the questionnaire as a part of pilot study. The purpose of the pilot study is mainly to ensure that the questions operate well. The pilot study consisted of 25 questionnaires that were sent via email. The response of these questionnaires was 15 responses. There is consistency in the answers in the sense that most of the respondents answered similarly, taking into consideration the variation in gender and cultural background.

According to Bryman (2004) the self completed questionnaire is crucial in research methodology because the interviewer would not be present to clear up any misunderstanding or confusion; a pilot study also allows the researcher to determine the sufficiency of instruction to interviewers and it also allows the researcher to study and see how well the questions flow and if it required to improve the questions or remove some.

4.9 Fieldwork

The fieldwork of the research study was conducted in the United Kingdom to test the hypotheses. The research total population consisted of a total of 740 branch managers from the retail banking industry. These branches were located in Wales. The self completed questionnaires was the only method for collecting data in this research study as other methods like observation or constructed interviews were not included or applied in this research study.

The first step of the field study was locating the branches of the selected organisations and obtaining the post code of each branch. This was acquired through the banks websites through the branch locator which would locate the name of any city in the United Kingdom which has branch operating in this city. For example, HSBC branch locator would locate all the branches in Cardiff city or any other city in the UK when the name of the city is entered and the searching engine starts operating. This method was the most effective way in locating branches and addresses and post codes in defining the total number of units of this study and the sample frame. The branch locator provides the postal address and a telephone number to contact the respondent.

The next step after locating all the units of the study was preparing the postal questionnaires. Each respondent was sent one questionnaire and prepaid envelop with a covering letter providing the respondent with a brief idea about the research study and assuring the participant about confidentiality, anonymity and that no information will be disclosed to a third party and that study will be presented in an aggregate form that no single respondent will be recognised. The covering letter is attached at the end of the chapter as Appendix 4.2. The next step after the long time consuming process of envelop preparation was sending the questionnaires by post in one batch. One of the advantages of sending a postal questionnaire rather than conducting interviews with all the participants of the study is time and financial factor. Sending questionnaires to the participants in the sample is less costly as the researcher sends all the questionnaires in one batch and waits for the response. On the other hand interviewing the respondents has also its advantages. One of these advantages is that the interviewer would have a chance to clear any misunderstanding and explain any vague questions to the participant. With good communication skills the interviewer can achieve excellent results and get the required information. The next step after sending all the questionnaires is waiting for the response which could take a little time. The response is very important and having a low response rate is likely to occur with postal questionnaires. This may require sending a follow up letter or calling the branch if that option is possible.

The next step after sending the self completed questionnaires and waiting for a response was sending the postal questionnaire for the second time with a follow up letter asking respondents to complete the questionnaire. The next step in the research field study was calling the respondent and explaining to them the aim and the rationale of the study and assuring them about the confidentiality and anonymity of the research and that the names of the participants will not be revealed in the research study.

The next stage in the research methodology was approaching the organisation and asking for the branch manager if they could complete the questionnaire or provide them with a prepaid envelop to send it back once they have completed it at their convenience. The purpose of the site visits was to meet the respondent who would be in most cases the branch manager or a department manager and emphasise or ask them to complete the self completed questionnaire. Travelling and meeting with the respondents and conducting informal interviews with them was extremely important in this research study to explain to the respondent the rationale and purpose of this study and the significance of their participation. Some respondents were very enthusiastic and curious to know about the field of the study and asked questions in the areas of managerial leadership, organisational behaviour and organisational culture. Other participants were very busy and asked if they could keep the questionnaire to complete it at their convenience. In some occasions the respondent asked if they could complete it and send it back by the pre-paid envelop provided in the postal questionnaire or by envelop provided by their organisations. In other occasions the respondents asked the researcher if they could call in an hour time or the next day to collect the questionnaire. The purpose of the informal interviews

which were conducted with the respondents was to explain the purpose of the questionnaire and clarify any unclear points. The purpose of the informal interviews was not for the purpose of data collection in this research study, rather to clarify any unclear points about the subject area of the research study. In practice this method worked extremely well, as meeting someone working in this branch whether it was the branch manager or deputy manager or a customer service advisor, would give the researcher a chance to introduce themselves and establish courtesy and trust with the interviewee or the customer advisor who will express this request to the interviewee. Establishing trust between the interviewer and the interviewee is very important to the success of this specific task. Also having good communication skills is vital to the interviewer. It is in that perspective the emphasis here is on communication skills and persuasion. It is vital for the researcher to have good communication skills, to be smartly dressed and have clarity and simplicity of purpose and approach. There is always a possibility that the branch manager is a young newly graduated student and that would help and provide an element of sympathy or empathy to the researcher and help process the completion of the questionnaire. One factor that was a good advantage was that selecting and targeting smaller and remote towns like Llandudno, Caernarfon or Bargoed is a good choice, so there is greater possibility that respondent or the branch manager would complete the questionnaire, than another respondent located in large cities like Cardiff or Swansea.

The ethical implication in this research study is extremely important in the sense that the research study takes into consideration the importance of confidentiality of the research and anonymity of the participants and the organisations. The covering letter which is attached in the postal questionnaire clarifies and impress on elements of

confidentiality and anonymity and that no name of the respondents will be identified or recognised in the research study. Conducting in-depth interviews with branch managers and accessing internal data about leadership and organisational culture models in any organisations would require permission from the Head office in the organisation, or that the researcher is connected to the organisation in the sense that they work for the organisation and that the research conducted about this organisation is part of the research and development programs in this organisation. In the case when an individual researcher approaches an organisation with the purpose of conducting a research or a case study, this would require permission from the Head office. In the case of this research it was very difficult to obtain permission from six organisations with a purpose of conducting a research study as this would require that the researcher is connected with head office of these organisations and that the research is synchronized and coordinated with broad objectives and aims of the organisation. Establishing trust was extremely important element in the case of this research. The respondents were approached directly and were asked to kindly to complete a questionnaire for the purpose of an Academic research for the fulfilment of a PhD study. Most of the respondents that I have met personally responded positively and were happy to take the responsibility of completing the self completed questionnaire. Other respondents replied that completing a survey or a questionnaire would require permission from Head office. In many occasions the branch manager forwarded the postal questionnaire to the attention of the cluster director to seek advice to see if the area or cluster director could forward the questionnaire to be completed by right people. In one occasion I have received a phone call from the area manager who is responsible for a whole cluster in Wales who was interested in the questionnaire and was asking a specific question about who would be able to

complete the questionnaire, and the fact that he received the questionnaire from different managers and supervisors in this cluster who were not sure if they were allowed or capable of completing the survey baring in mind that in some branches of small towns like Beaumaris or Caernarfon there would be no branch manager, but rather a supervisor performing customer service and front desk duties. These supervisors would have no managerial experience rather customer service skills and knowledge and they would not be able to complete the questionnaire. The ethical implication of the study is an extremely important factor that was taken into consideration.

4.10 Data Analysis plan

The Stage of data analysis begins after the data has been collected. The raw data that is collected in the fieldwork must be edited and transformed into the information that helps the researcher. According to Zikmund (1991) the conversion of raw data into information requires that data must be edited and coded so that it might be transformed to a computer or other data storage medium. Editing is a process of checking and adjusting for omissions, legibility and consistency. Coding is a process of identifying and classifying each answer with a numerical score. Transforming the data into numerical symbols prepares for the data entry in the computer.

4.10.1 Data Input

The process of preparing data and transforming data from the research survey into the computer is called data input. The research survey is designed into four sections. The first section covers the personal profile of the respondents which includes information about the respondent's position in the company, age, gender and years of professional experience. The second section of the survey covers the questions regarding managerial leadership. The third section covers the organisational culture questions. The last section covers the job satisfaction questions. The survey questions are entered into the SPSS program for data analysis.

4.10.2 Descriptive Data Analysis

Descriptive data analysis refers to the transformation of data into a form that will make it easy to understand and interpret (Karami et al, 2006a; Zikmund, 1991). Descriptive data analysis involves the calculation of averages, frequency distribution and percentages distribution. The preliminary data analysis utilised in this research study will involve organising and sorting the data and calculating the mean and the standard deviation. The data analysis used in this research study will involve using frequency tables, pie charts, and diagrams to represent the number of people falling in each category.

4.10.3 Distribution of the data and reliability

According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2000) a frequency distribution is an organised tabulation of the number of individuals located in each category. A frequency distribution can be structured either as a table or as graph. According to Field (2005) frequency distribution can be very useful for assessing properties of the distribution of the scores. By looking at which score had the tallest bar, the researcher can see the mode. The next stage after the data input would be seeing the frequency distribution of the data and how it is clustered. In order to analyse the data and consequently testing the hypothesis, the collected data was summarised using statistical graphs such as, bar charts and histograms. In addition, various descriptive statistics including means, medians, modes, standard deviations, coefficient of skewness and kurtosis were calculated. The main reason of such analysis was to get a clear picture of how the different variables were distributed. The general picture which has been gotten was that of skewed and non-normal distributions. In order to cross check these observations regarding the distributions the Kolmogorove-Smirnov goodness-of-fit test on the data to check for normality has been performed (See Appendix 4.4). The result of the test confirmed that majority of variables were not normally distributed. Accordingly the finding had a big influence on the choice of statistical techniques to use for testing the hypotheses. Regarding the reliability of the data, reliability analysis on measurements has been carried out. Reliability refers to the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if measurements are made repeatedly. Churchill and Peter (1984) argued that, this reliability coefficient varies from 0 to 1, and a value of 0.6 or less generally indicates unsatisfactory internal consistency reliability. In this research the coefficient alpha ranged from 0.68 to 0.96. This coefficient gave an indication of the internal consistency and therefore stability of

measurement generated by research scales and indicated that, the data collected were quiet reliable.

4.10.4 Parametric or Non Parametric Analysis

According to Zikmund (1991) the term parametric and non parametric statistics refers to two major groupings of statistical procedures. In this case the data is interval or ratio scaled and the sample size is large then parametric statistical procedure is suitable. This procedure is based on the assumption that the sampling distribution is normal. When the researcher does not make this assumption of normality then a non parametric test is appropriate and applied. The next stage after the data input is the distribution of the data. If the data is normally distributed a parametric statistical procedure is suitable. If the data is not normally distributed a non parametric statistical procedure is suitable. For analysing and investigating the relationship between the major variables of the, a Bivaiate analysis will be applied to measure the relationship between the variables of the study. A Bivariate analysis is used to uncover if the two variables are related. A Bivariate correlation analysis will be deployed to measure the relationship between managerial leadership behaviours and organisational culture to study the relation between the two variables.

4.11 Chapter summary

In conclusion, chapter four provided an overview of the methodology applied in this research study. This chapter has reviewed a number of alternative approaches to the design of an appropriate methodology to meet the specific objectives of this study including research philosophy, research design and approaches, qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, research process, data collection methods, and data analysis plan. In terms of the nature of the data, it has been concluded that, the objectives of this research require that qualitative and quantitative data be collected; thus a methodology, which combines qualitative and quantitative approaches, was deemed appropriate. However, quantitative data is the main source of data for this research. Leadership researchers use a wide range of techniques to collect their primary data. In order to gather the data, a questionnaire survey technique was judged to provide the most comprehensive means of capturing exploratory, descriptive and explanatory data pertinent to the stated research objectives. Regarding data analysis the data was analysed using the SPSS package. Through preliminary analysis, it has been found that, a portion of the data violated several of the assumptions underlying parametric analysis. Therefore non-parametric analyses as well as parametric analysis have been used. Chapter five provides details of the data analysis. The next chapter presents the data analysis and the statistical methods implemented in the research study which involves the descriptive data analysis and the correlation analysis, and the regression analysis between the three research variables.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the data analysis and the statistical methods applied in analysing the data. The second section presents the personal profile of the respondents and the descriptive data analysis applied in this section. The personal profile of the respondents includes the age, gender, position, years of experience in the banking industry and in the present company. The third section presents the descriptive data analysis of the managerial leadership behaviours which are divided into visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership behaviours. The fourth section also presents the descriptive data analysis with regard to the organisational cultures variables which are four dimensions. The fifth section presents descriptive data analysis for job satisfaction variables which are divided into thirteen variables. The descriptive data analysis includes calculating the mean and the standard deviation for some of the managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction variables and the frequencies and percentages of respondents' answers. The sixth section presents the correlation analysis between the managerial leadership behaviours, the organisational culture variables and the job satisfaction variables. The correlation analysis shows positively significant correlation between managerial leadership and organisational culture, managerial leadership and job satisfaction and insignificant correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction. The seventh section presents the simple regression analysis between managerial leadership variables and job satisfaction variables. The regression analysis shows positive

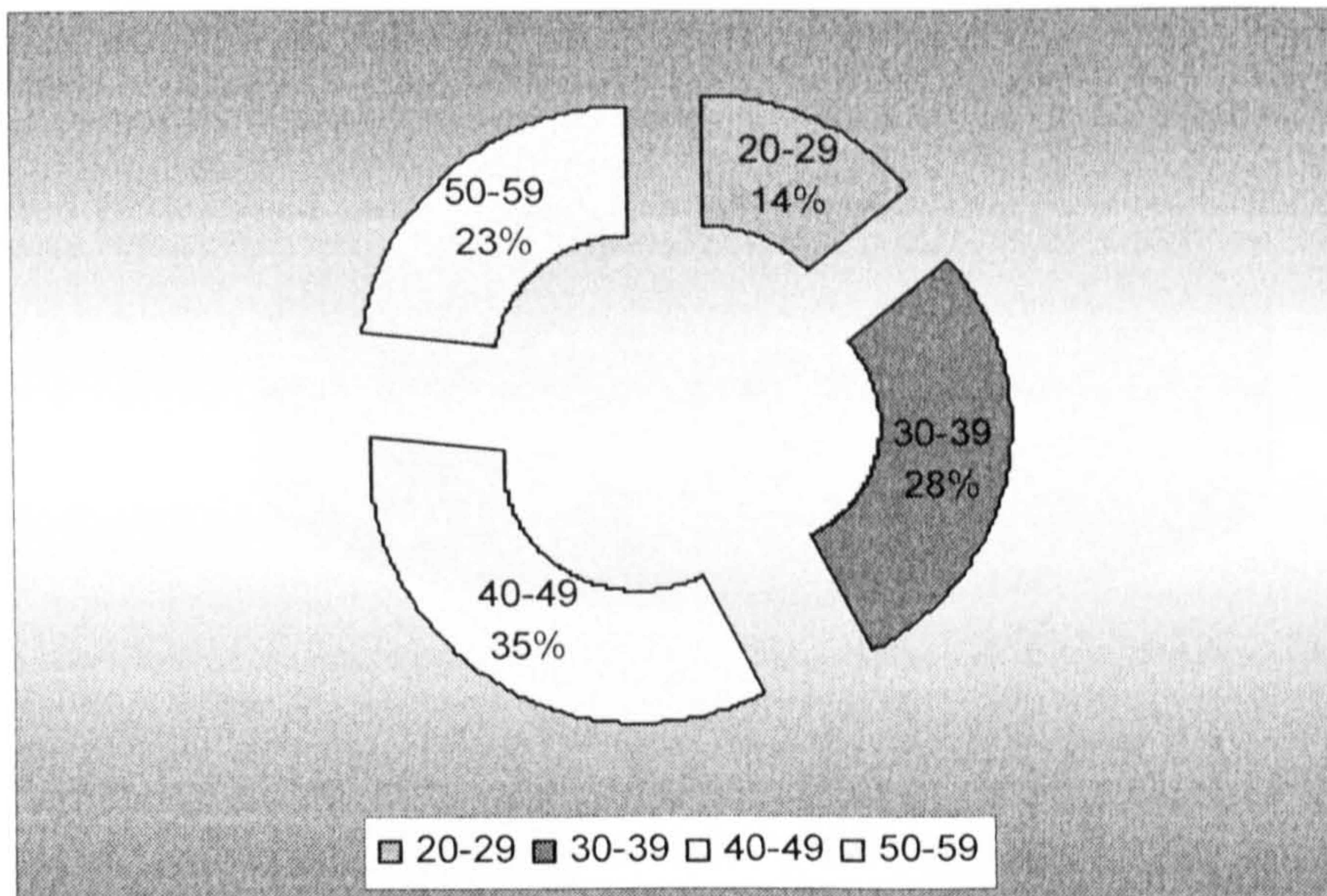
correlation between the two variables. The last section provides a conclusion of the chapter of the main sections in the chapter.

5.2 Personal profile of the Respondents

This section presents a descriptive analysis of the personal profile of the respondents of this study. The personal profile includes respondents' age, gender, position, managerial experience in the banking industry and work experience in the branches studied. The sample of the study consisted of six organisations from the banking industry.

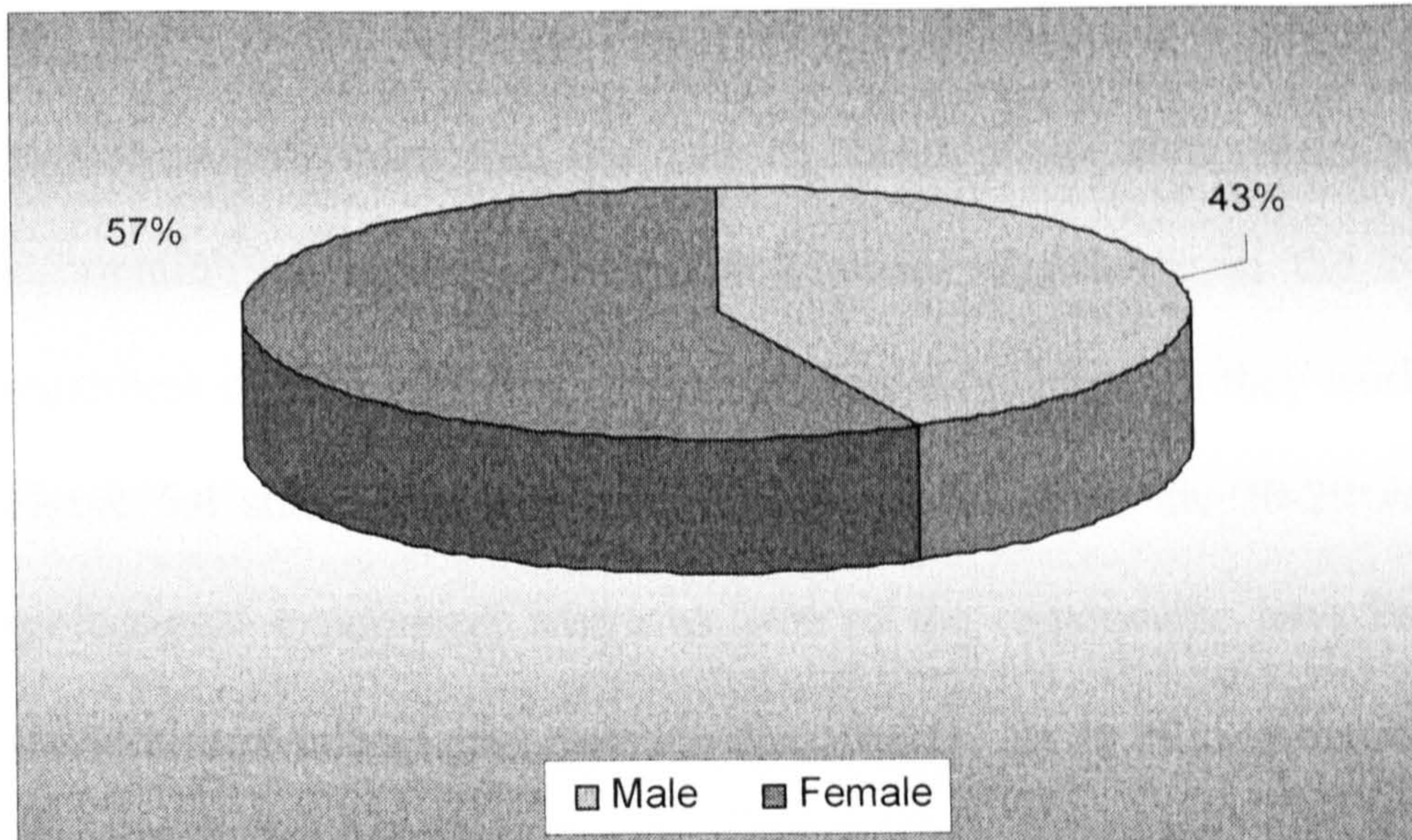
5.2.1 Age

The respondents' age groups which are categorised into four groups. The first group ranges between age 20- 29 years, the second is 30-39, the third 40-49 and last age group categorises respondents of 50-59 years. Figure 5.1 shows that 35% of the respondents were between the ages of 40-49, where as 28% of the respondents were in the second age category which is 30-39 years; 23% of the respondents were between the age of 50 and 59 and finally 14 % of the respondents were between 20-29 ages categories. Descriptive statistics shows that the majority of respondents were between the age of 40 and 49 years. It would be interesting to see the relationship between age and work experience in the organisation. The descriptive data analysis shows that the mean of the age group is 2.6 and the standard deviation is 0.98, n= 118.

Figure 5.1 Respondents' age group

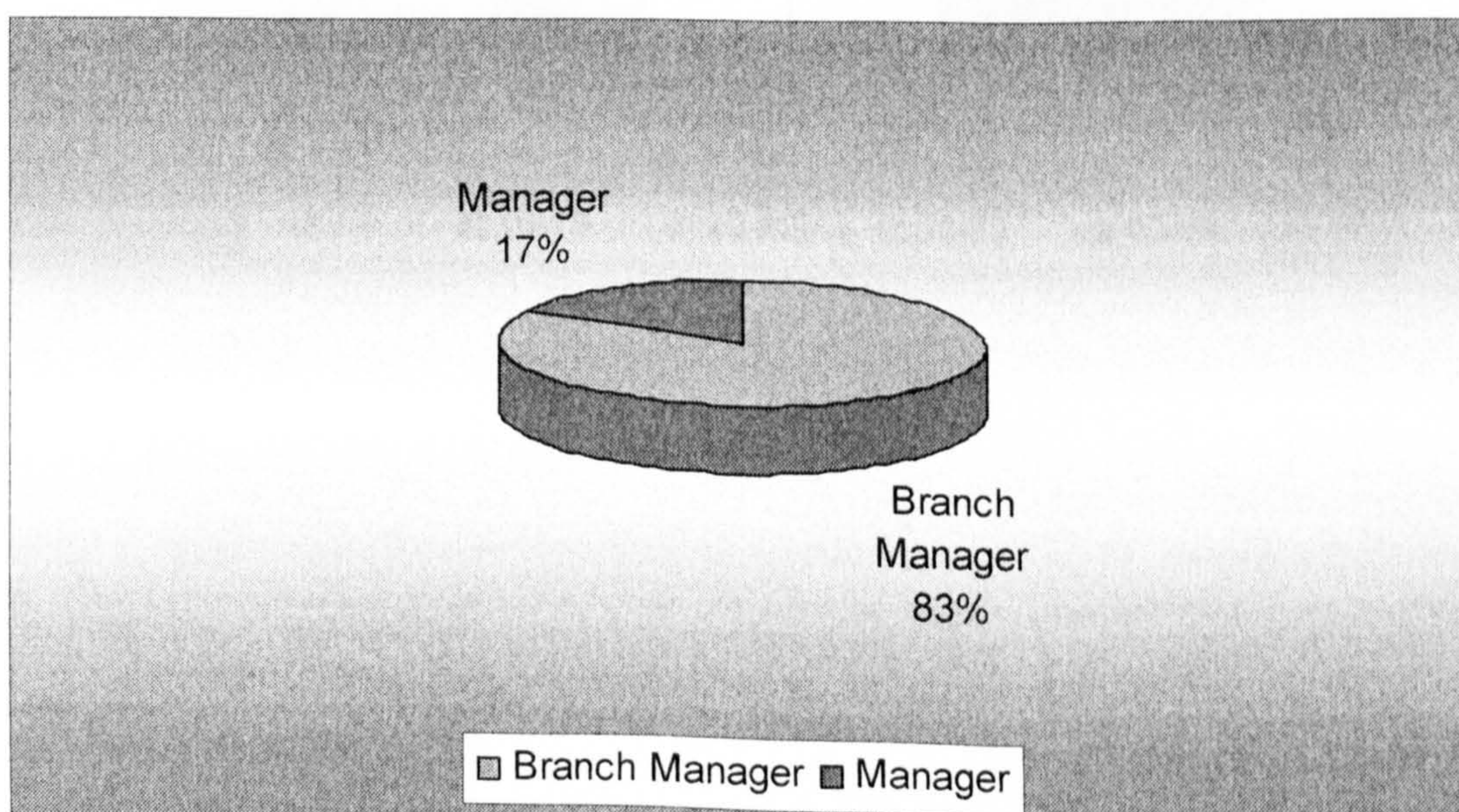
5.2.2 Gender

Figure 5.2 shows that 43% of the respondents were male where as 57% were female. This indicates that female branch managers and female staff are more dominant at this level of mid level management and customer service than male managers. The descriptive data analysis shows that the mean of the gender respondents is 1.57 where as the standard deviation is 0.497, n= 118.

Figure 5.2 Respondents' gender

5.2.3 Respondents' Position

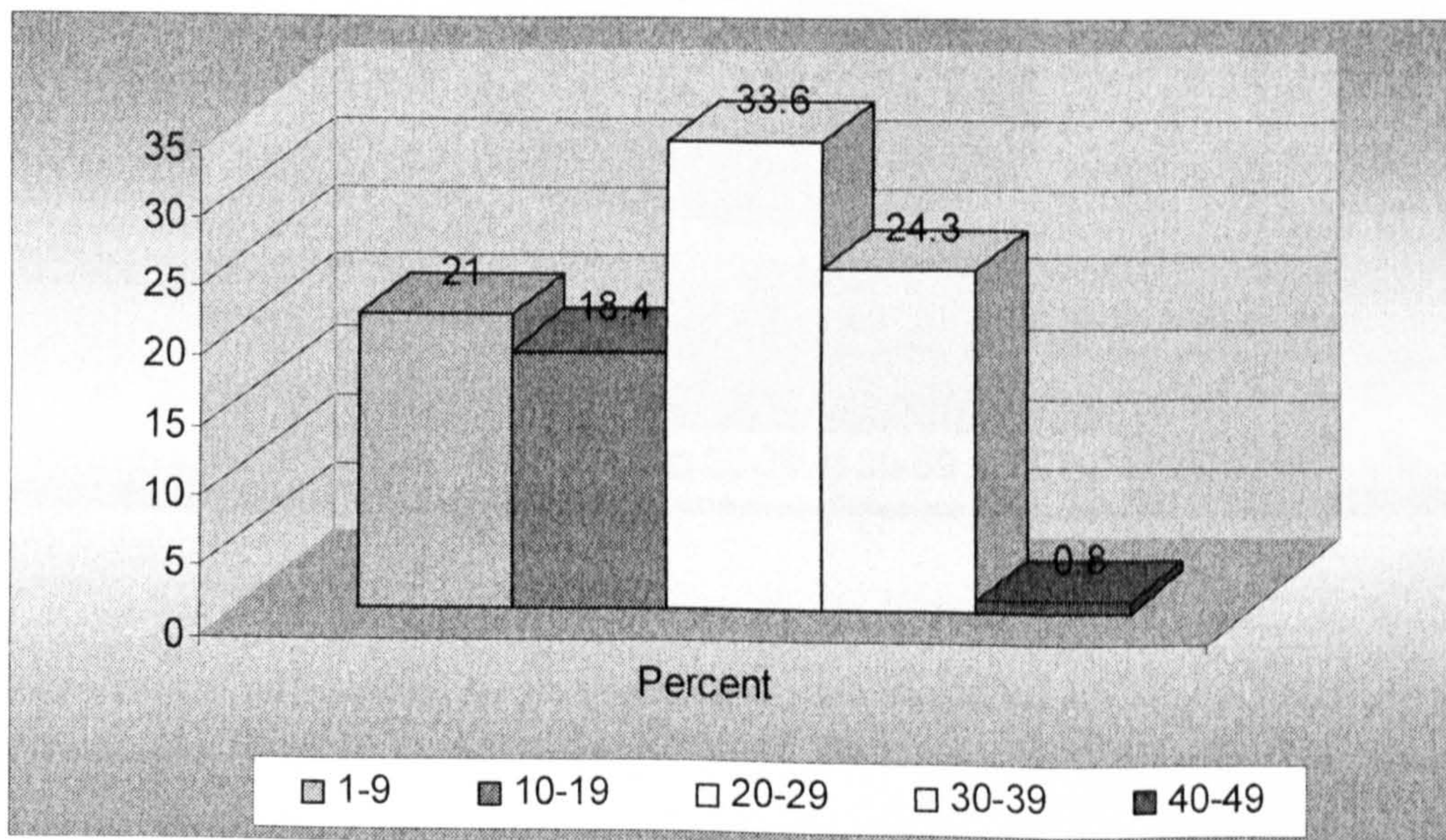
The sample of the study targeted branch managers of the selected organisations. Each respondent received a postal self completed questionnaire addressed to the branch manager of the organisation. Figure 5.3 shows that 83% of the respondents are branch managers, whereas %17 of the respondents are department or sales managers.

Figure 5.3 Respondent's position

5.2.4 Professional Experience in the banking sector

The fourth section in the personal profile of respondents is concerned with years of professional experience in the banking sector. Respondents were asked to provide information about the years of professional experience in the banking industry regardless of their experience with the present organisation they work with currently. Figure 5.4 shows that 34% of the respondents are in the 20-29 years category of professional experience; where as 24% of the respondents have between 30 to 39 years of professional experience in the industry. 21 % of the respondents have 1 to 9 years of professional experience in the banking industry. The descriptive data analysis shows that the mean of the professional experience of respondents is 2.6 and the standard deviation is 0.98, n= 118.

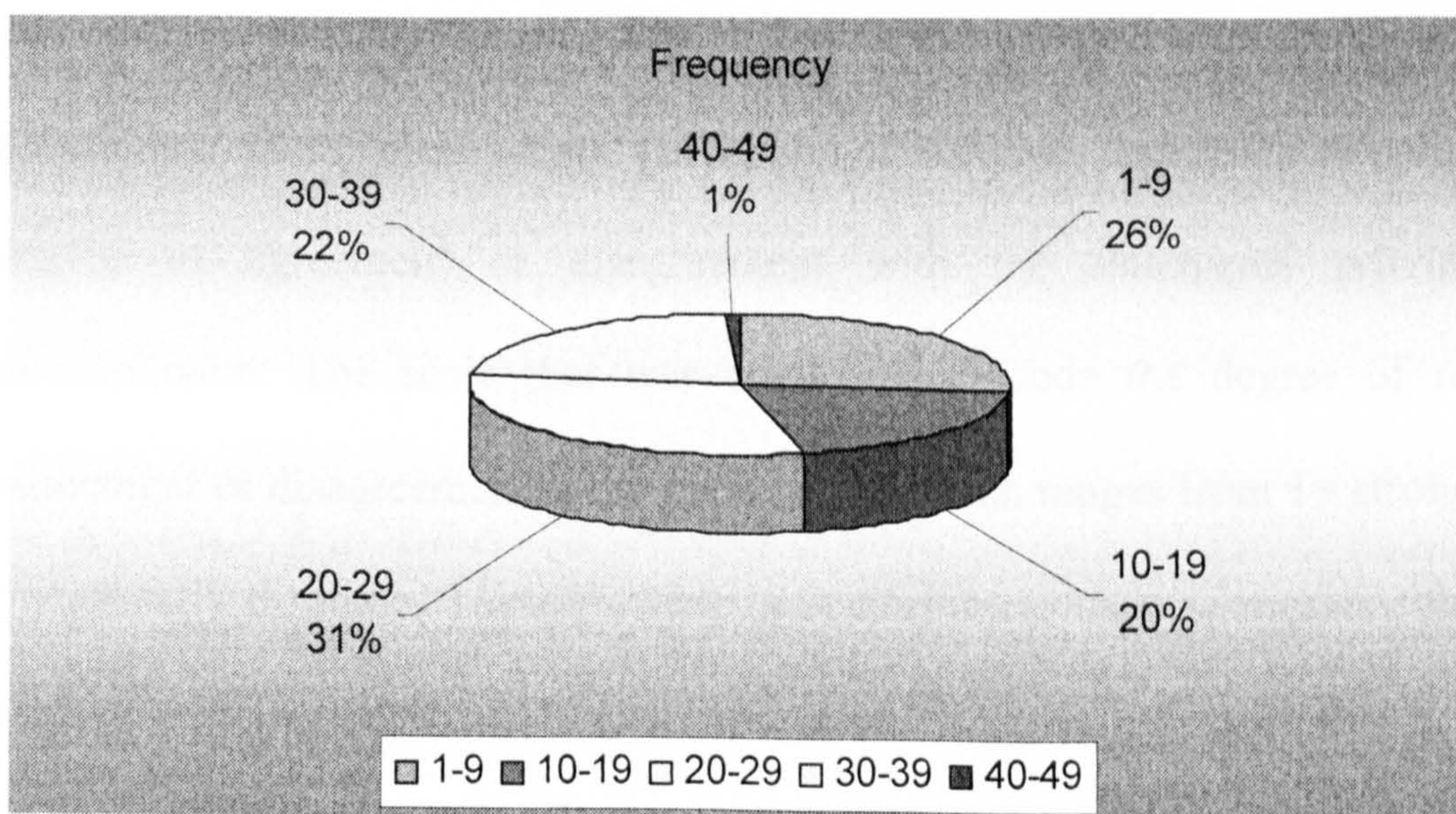
Figure 5.4 Professional experiences in the Industry



5.2.5 Professional Experience in the Company

The last section in the personal profile is concerned with the respondents' work experience in the company they work with currently. Figure 5.5 shows the total number of observations, $n= 118$, and that 31% of the respondents have worked with companies between 20 and 29 years, where as 26 % respondents worked with companies of the study between 1 and 9 years; 22 % of the respondents who worked with the companies are in the age category of 30 and 39 years and finally 20 % of the respondents worked between 10 -19 years in the company.

Figure 5.5 Professional experience in the Company



5.3 Managerial Leadership Behaviours

The first section of the questionnaire is concerned with manager's perception of managerial leadership behaviours. The managerial leadership behaviours are divided into three sections which are visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership behaviours. This section will study the data provided from the survey and the descriptive data analysis with regard to this section.

5.3.1 Visionary Leadership

The first section of the managerial leadership behaviours which is studied in the survey is the visionary leadership behaviours. Visionary leadership consists of 17 questions to assess respondents' perception of visionary leadership behaviours and the degree of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided in the questionnaire. The scale that was employed to code the degree of respondents' agreement or disagreement is the Likert scale which ranges from 1= strongly agree to 5= strongly disagree. The following indicators were used to measure the visionary leadership behaviour.

- 1- Idealising future goals
- 2- Identifying organisational barriers
- 3- Creative
- 4- Energetic
- 5- Risk taker
- 6- Agent of change
- 7- Interpreting the industry trends
- 8- Future task oriented goals

- 9- Team commitment influence
- 10- Inspirational
- 11- High standards of excellence
- 12- Performance and action plan revision
- 13- Authoritarian manner
- 14- Challenge and motivation
- 15- Image of knowledge
- 16- Vision oriented
- 17- Unifying elements for team members

Figure 5.6 shows the distribution of the data of question 5 which indicates the leader's willingness to take risk for achieving organisational goals. This variable is developed by Conger and Kanungo (1998) as an indication of visionary and charismatic leadership quality. Figure 5.6 shows that 35 % of the respondents agreed that their perception of leadership includes risk taking as a quality of the leader and 28 % of the respondents strongly agreed where as 17 % of the respondents were not sure leaving 15 % of the respondents to disagree and 5 % to strongly disagree.

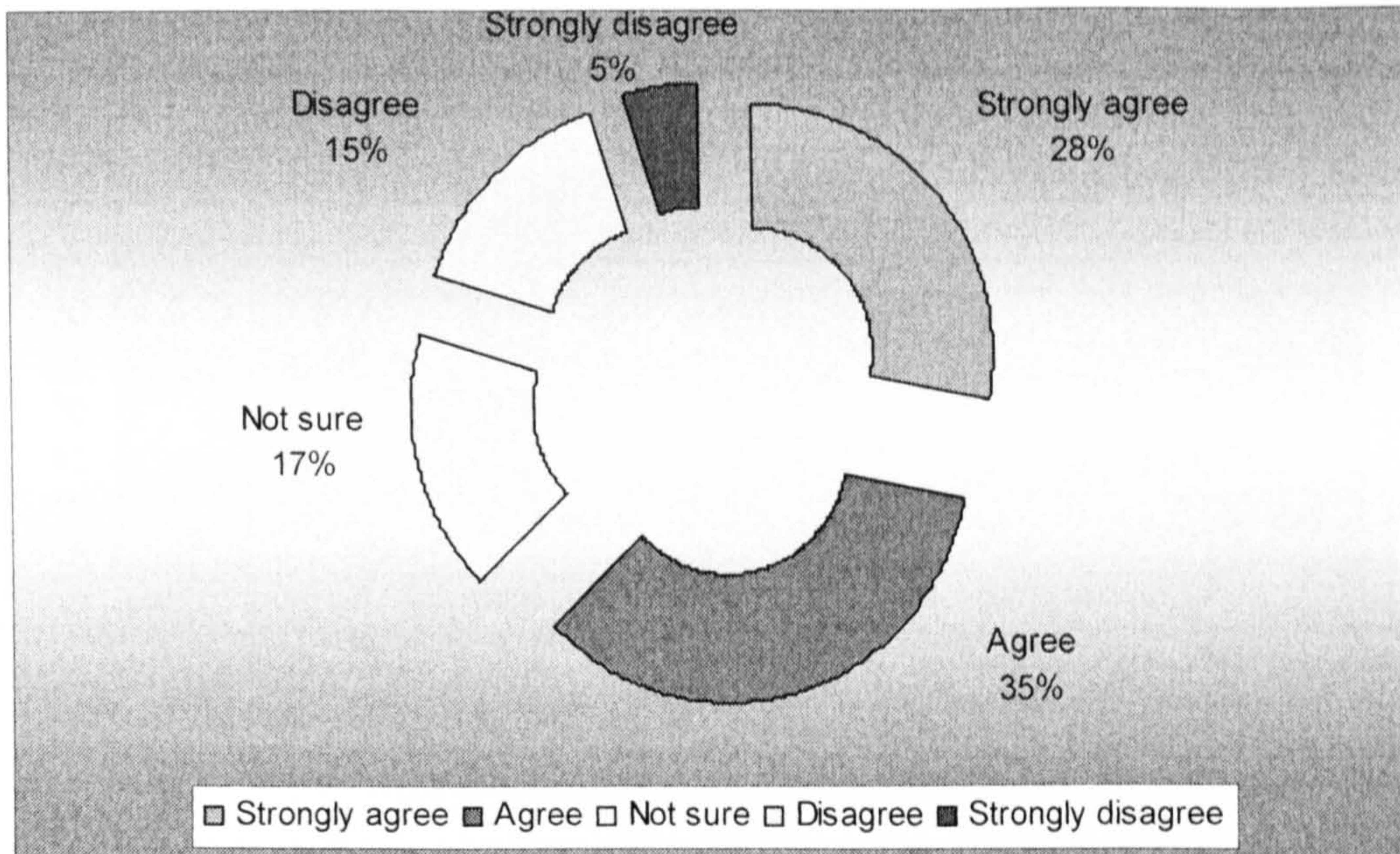
Figure 5.6 Risk taking as a leadership quality

Figure 5.7 shows the distribution of data with regard to question 13 which is assessing respondents' degree of agreement or disagreement whether their perception of leadership comprises the authoritarian style of the leader. This question was developed as a reverse question to test the respondent's authenticity and focus while answering questions. Figure 5.7 shows that 39 % of the respondents disagreed that their perception of the attractive leader is being authoritarian. This is very interesting result and was not surprising given the fact that the study was conducted in the UK which is a Western culture. Dorfman (1997) shows that in Mexico and Japan participative leadership did not score positively, rather managers in Mexico would prefer a directive leader to a participative one who would gain agreement through negotiation and influence rather than power and authority. On the other hand 21% of the respondents agreed, where as 16 % percent were not sure and 15 % strongly agreed leaving 8.4 % who strongly disagreed.

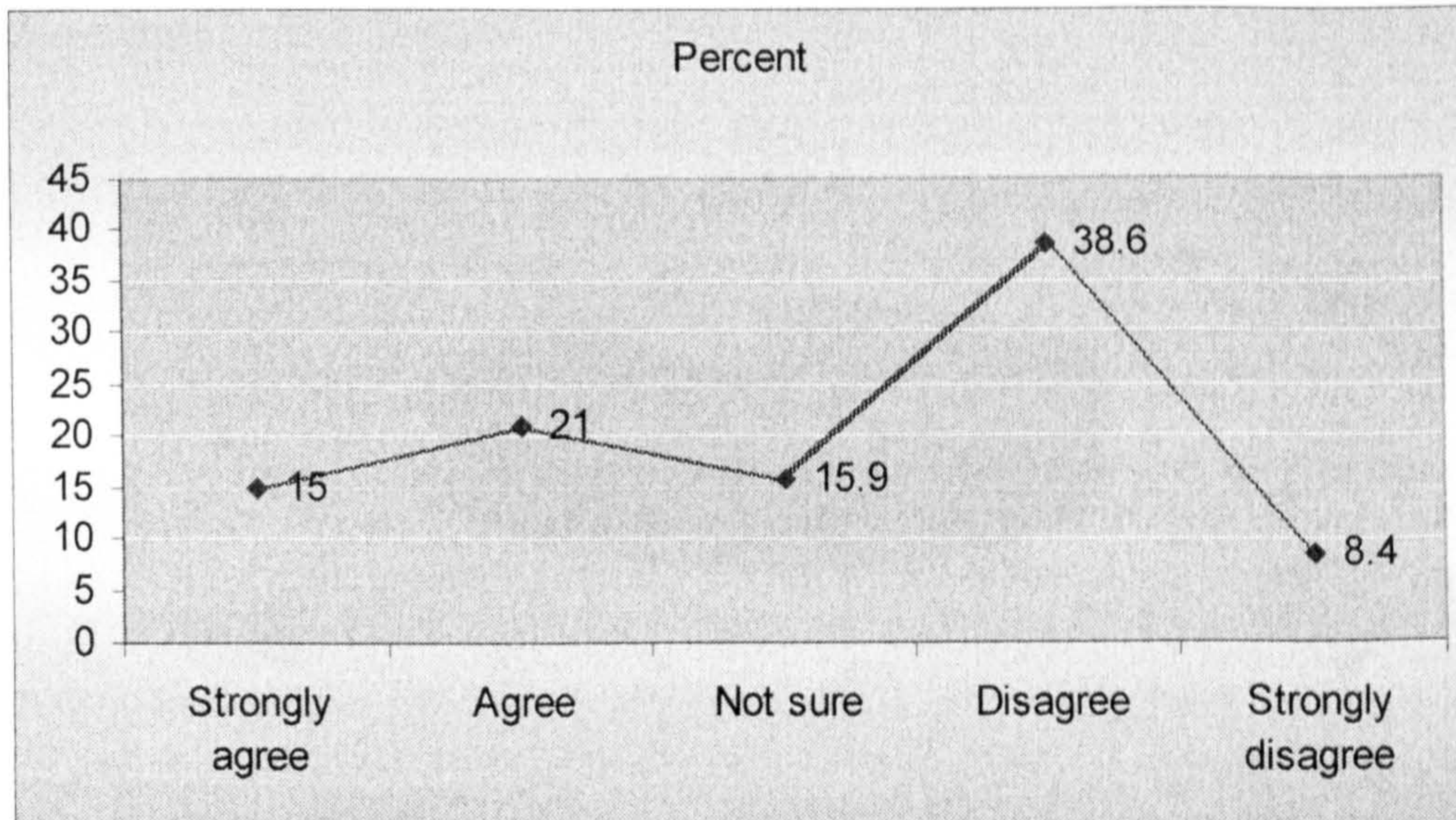
Figure 5.7 Authoritarian style of leadership

Figure 5.8 shows participants response to question 6 which assesses their perception of the leader as an agent of change. The descriptive data analysis shows that 53 % of the respondents agreed that their perception of leadership comprise that the leader is an agent of change, and someone capable of bringing change to the organisation. Figure 5.8 illustrate that 37 % of the respondents strongly agreed to the statement, where as 6% where not sure leaving 3 % with disagreement and less than 1% who strongly disagreed.

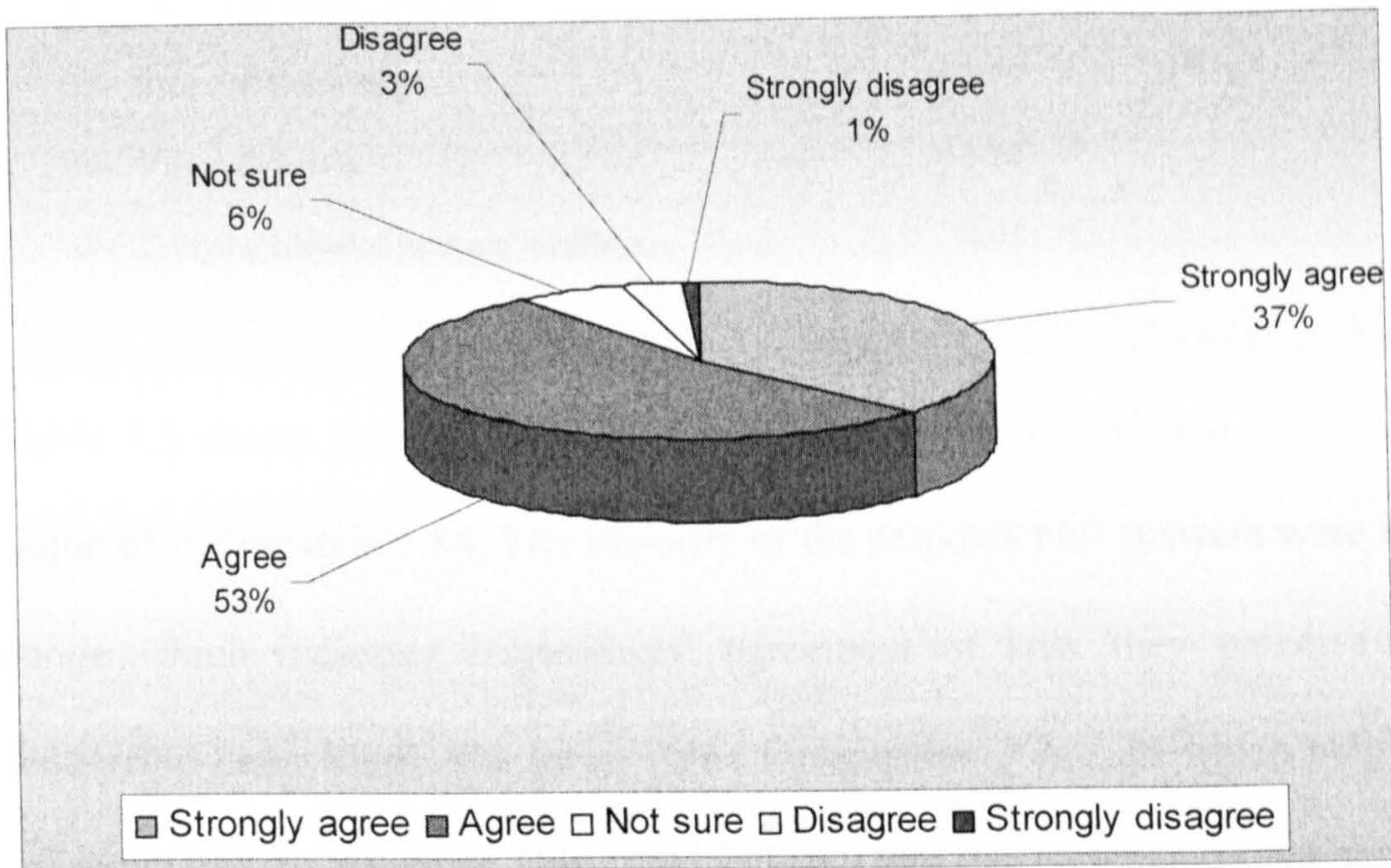
Figure 5.8 Leadership and change

Table 5.1 shows the descriptive data analysis for the visionary leadership variables and the mean value and the standard deviation.

Table 5.1 Descriptive Data Analysis for Visionary Leadership Behaviours

Visionary leadership Variables	Mean	SD
1- Idealising Future Goals	1.63	.749
2- Identifying Organisational barriers	1.78	.775
3- Creative	1.77	.900
4- Energetic	1.84	.995
5- Risk Taker	2.35	1.187
6- Agent of Change	1.78	.775
7- Interpreting the Industry Trends	1.78	.786
8- Future Task Oriented Goals	1.64	.722
9- Team Commitment Influence	1.56	.768
10- Inspirational	1.66	.869
11- High Standards of Excellence	1.41	.719
12- Performance and action plan Revision	1.81	.837

13- Authoritarian manner	3.04	1.250
14- Challenge and Motivation	1.83	.743
15- Image of Knowledge	1.75	.849
16- Vision Oriented	1.79	.856
17- Unifying Element for team members	1.75	.730

Table 5.1 shows the mean values which range between 1.63 and 3.04. The average value of the mean is 1.84. The majority of the respondents' answers were in the 1.84 range which indicates respondents' agreement of how they perceived visionary leadership behaviours. The mean value for question 5 is 2.35 which ranges between 2= agree and 3= not sure. This could indicate that respondents are not sure about the quality of the leader as a risk taker whether it exists in their perception of their managers/supervisors or not. The mean value for question 13 is 3.04 which is also an indication the respondents disagree or not sure about the authoritarian style being as a quality demonstrated by their supervisors and coordinators.

5.3.2 Communicative Leadership

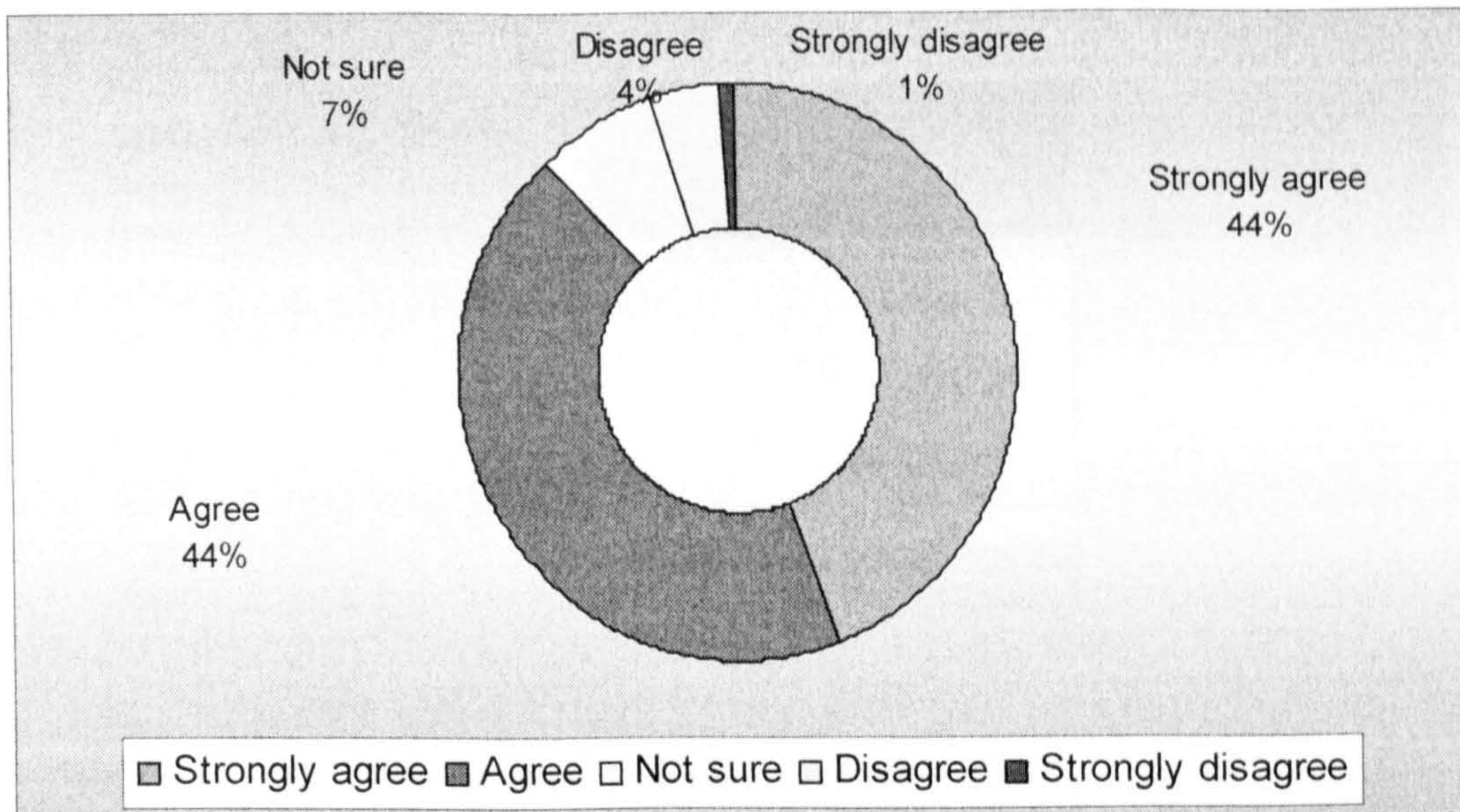
Communicative leadership consists of eight questions to assess the respondents' perception of communicative leadership behaviours and the degree of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided in the questionnaire. The scale that was employed to code the degree of respondents' agreement or disagreement is the Likert scale which ranges from 1= strongly agree to 5= strongly disagree. The communicative leadership variables are:

- 1- Careful listener

- 2- Role model
- 3- Aware of team members cultural background
- 4- Advocating and networking
- 5- Awareness of team members ability
- 6- Informing team members about organisational decisions
- 7- Does not explain the rationale behind orders
- 8- Using simple clear language

5.3.2.1 Leadership and Listening

One of the communicative leadership skills is listening. Figure 5.9 shows how the data is distributed with regard to the first variable of the communicative leadership which is the quality of being a careful listener and having listening skills. Figure 5.9 shows that 44 % of the respondents strongly agreed that this quality is perceived in their leader and 44% agreed, where as 7% were not sure and 4% disagreed, leaving less than 1% respondents who strongly disagreed.

Figure 5.9 Leadership and listening

5.3.2.2. Leadership and the lack of Explanation of the Rationale of orders

Figure 5.10 shows the distribution of data with regard to question 7 which assess respondents' agreement and in this case disagreement with the question. Figure 5.10 shows that 50 % of the respondents disagreed that their perception of the leader as someone who does not explain the rationale of the orders given. The descriptive data analysis shows that 29 % of the respondents strongly disagreed and 7 % were not sure were as 5 % agreed and 6 % strongly disagreed.

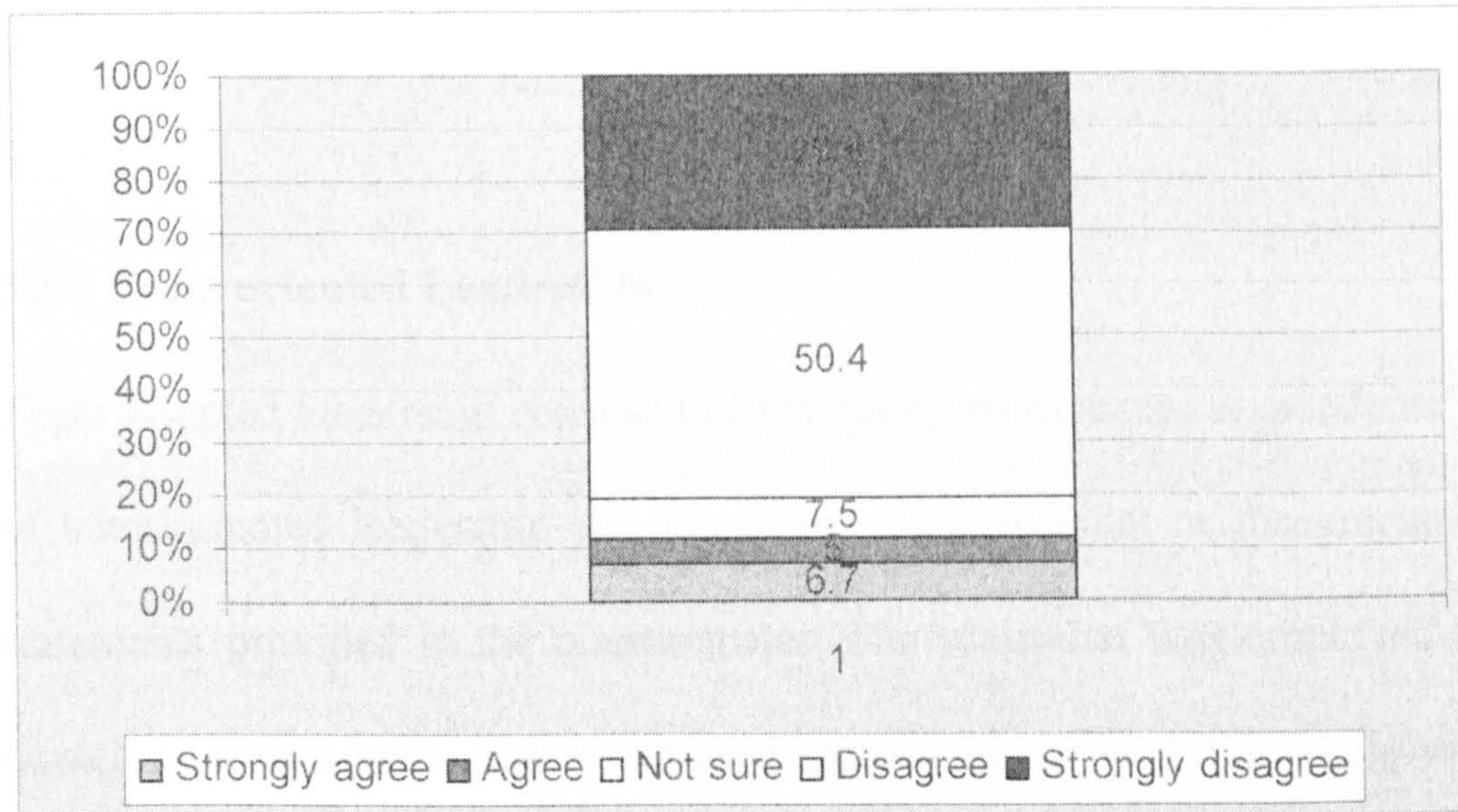
Figure 5.10 Lack of explanation of the rationale of orders

Table 5.2 shows the descriptive data analysis with regard to the communicative leadership variables, the minimum and the maximum values, the mean and the standard deviation. Question 7 measures the leader's behaviour of lacking explanation of the rationale of the orders given. Respondents' score the least favourite and the mean value of this question was 3.92 which is almost 4 which is disagree. The standard deviation for question 7 is also high compared to the other questions which is 1.091

Table 5.2 Descriptive Data Analysis of Communicative leadership

Variables	Mean	SD
1- Uses Simple/clear language	1.58	.733
2- Careful Listener	1.74	.831
3- Role model	1.58	.789
4- Aware of team members cultural background	2.01	.956
5- Advocating and Networking	1.75	.837
6- Aware of team members ability	1.72	.783

7-	informing team members about organisational decisions	1.90	.810
8-	Does not explain the rationale behind orders given	3.92	1.091

5.3.3 Team oriented Leadership

Team oriented leadership consisted of ten questions to assess respondents' perception of team-oriented leadership and the degree of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided in the questionnaire. The scale that was employed to code the degree of respondents' agreement or disagreement is the Likert scale which ranges from 1= strongly agree to 5= strongly disagree. The team-oriented leadership variables are the leader's:

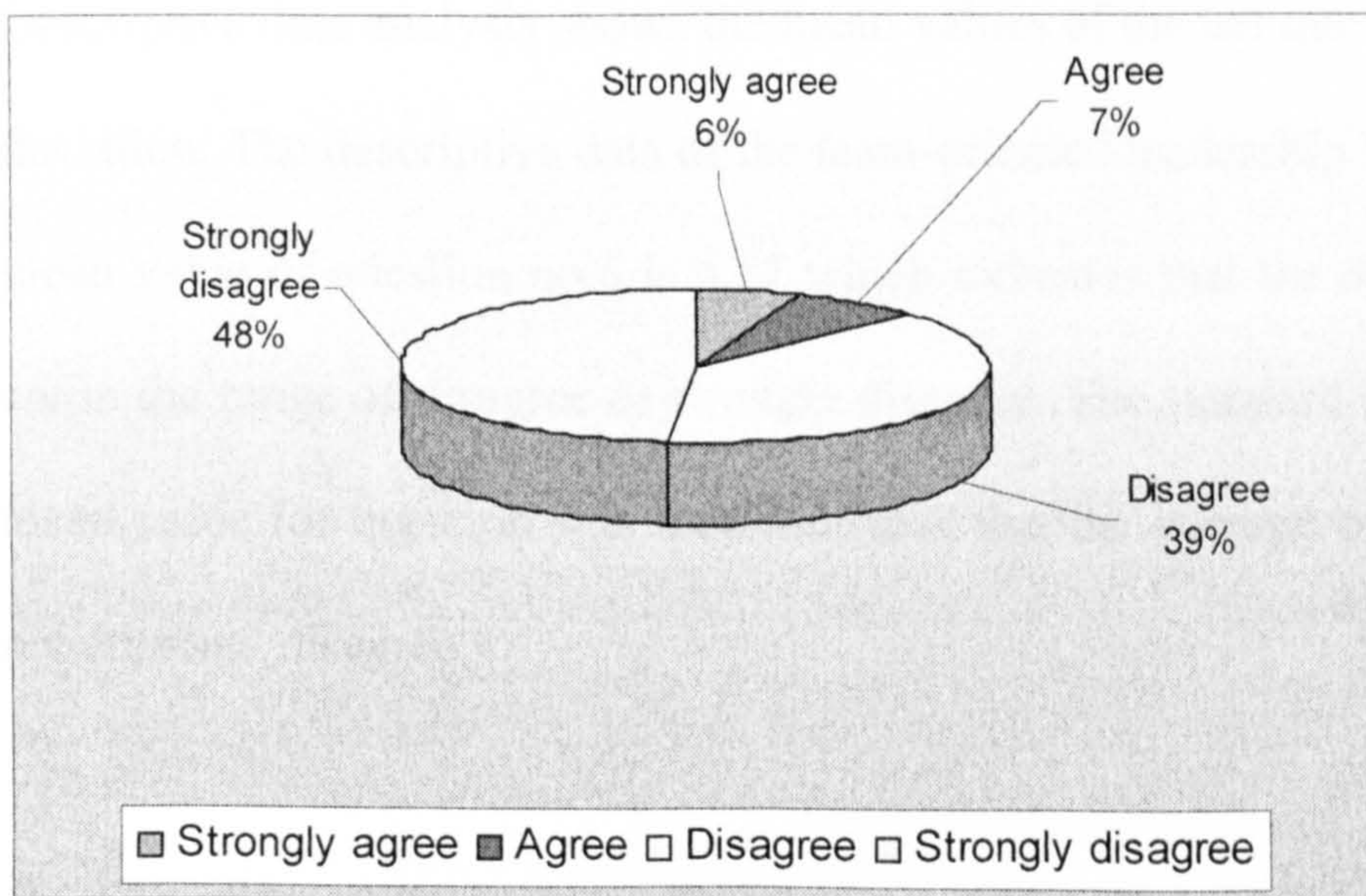
- 1- sensitivity to the abilities and emotional needs of the team
- 2- Awareness of organisational factors impairing goals
- 3- Persuasive approach
- 4- Not being a risk taker
- 5- Effective communicator with team members
- 6- Lacking clarity about organisational goals
- 7- Working towards one collective team identity
- 8- Standards of excellence
- 9- Attention for personal welfare of the employees
- 10- Clarity of attitude to team members

5.3.3.1 Lack of clarity of organisational goals

Figure 5.11 shows participants' responses to question number 6 which is asking participants' perception of the leader's lack of clarity about organisational goals and

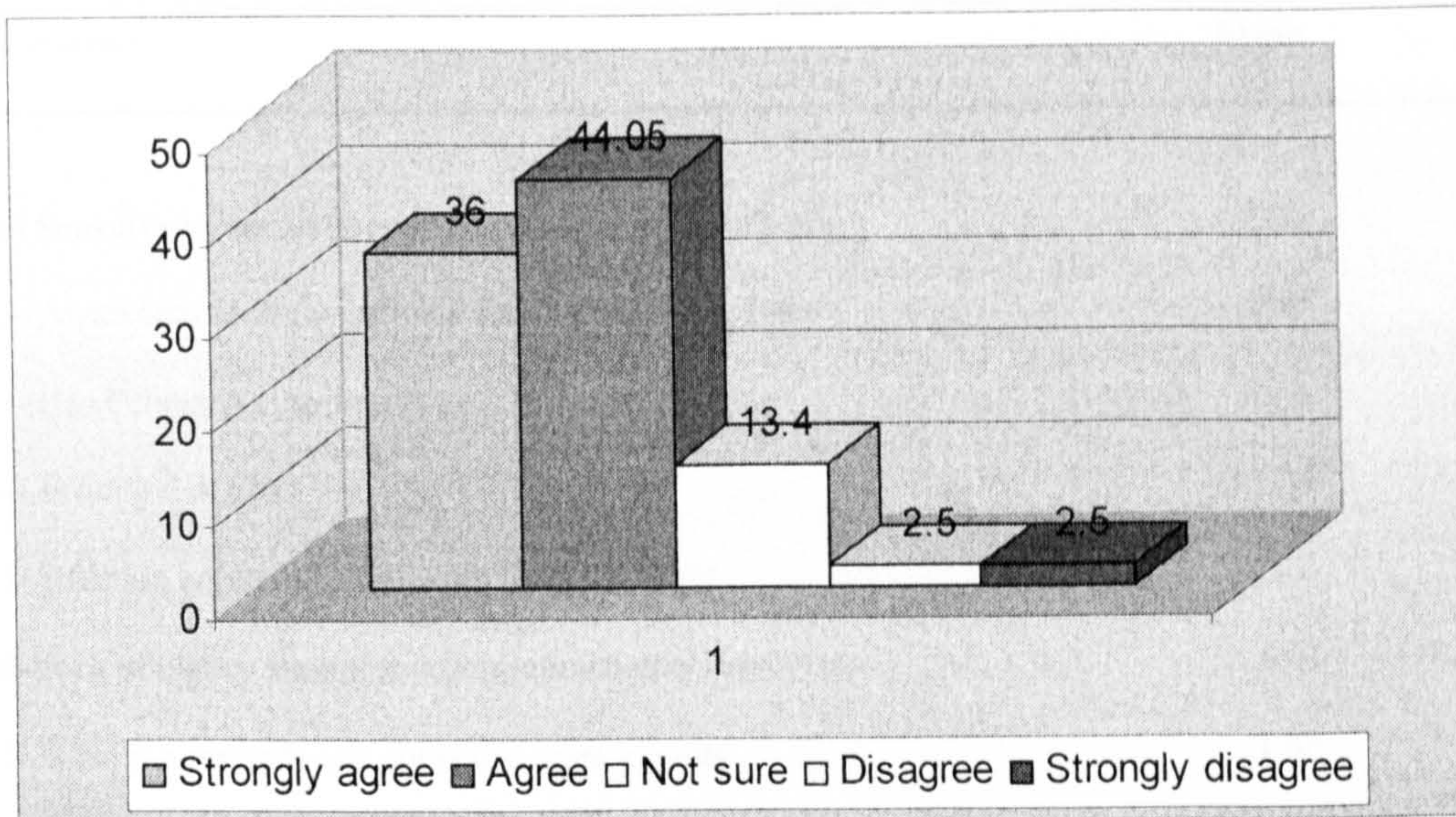
plans. The data shows that 48% of the participants strongly disagreed that their perceived leader lacks the clarity about organisational goals, whereas 39 % of the respondents disagreed to the statement. The descriptive data analysis shows that 7% agreed that their perceived leader is not clear about his plan and organisational goals and 6 % strongly agreed to the question. None of the respondents' answer was in the not sure category, which means respondents either agreed or disagreed to this question.

Figure 5.11 Lack of clarity of organisational goals



5.3.3.2. Leadership and Team Collective Identity

Figure 5.12 shows the distribution of data with regard to question 7 which asks respondents to code their agreement if the perceived leader has the ability of working towards one collective identity. Figure 5.2 shows that 44 % of the participants of the study scored agree to this statement and 36 % scored strongly agree, where as 13 % were not sure and 2.5 % strongly disagreed and 2.5 % disagreed.

Figure 5.12 Leader's team collective identity

Descriptive data analysis shows the mean values of the ten questions and the standard deviation. The descriptive data of the team-oriented leadership variables show that the mean value of question no.6 is 4.17 which indicates that the majority of the answers are in the range of disagree or strongly disagree. The standard deviation is 1.127. The mean value for question 4 is 3.26 indicates that the average of responses is between not sure and disagree.

Table 5.3 Descriptive Data Analysis

Variables	Mean	SD
1- Sensitive to the abilities and emotional needs of team	2.04	.881
2- Awareness of organisational factors impairing goals	2.00	.877
3- Has Persuasive Approach	1.73	.759
4- Is not a risk taker	3.26	1.284
5-Effective communication with team members	1.64	.822
6-Lack of clarity about his organisational goals and plans	4.17	1.127
7- Working towards one collective team identity	1.90	.909
8- Maintaining standards of excellence	1.66	.719
9- Personal welfare of employees	2.10	.973
10- Clarity of attitude to team members	1.69	.736

5.4 Organisational Culture Variables

The second section is concerned with managers' perception of organisational culture with regard to four organisational culture practices which are:

- 1- Task vs. People oriented cultures
- 2- Opened vs. Closed communication system cultures
- 3- Result vs. Process oriented cultures
- 4- Collective vs. Individual oriented cultures

5.4.1 Task vs. People oriented cultures

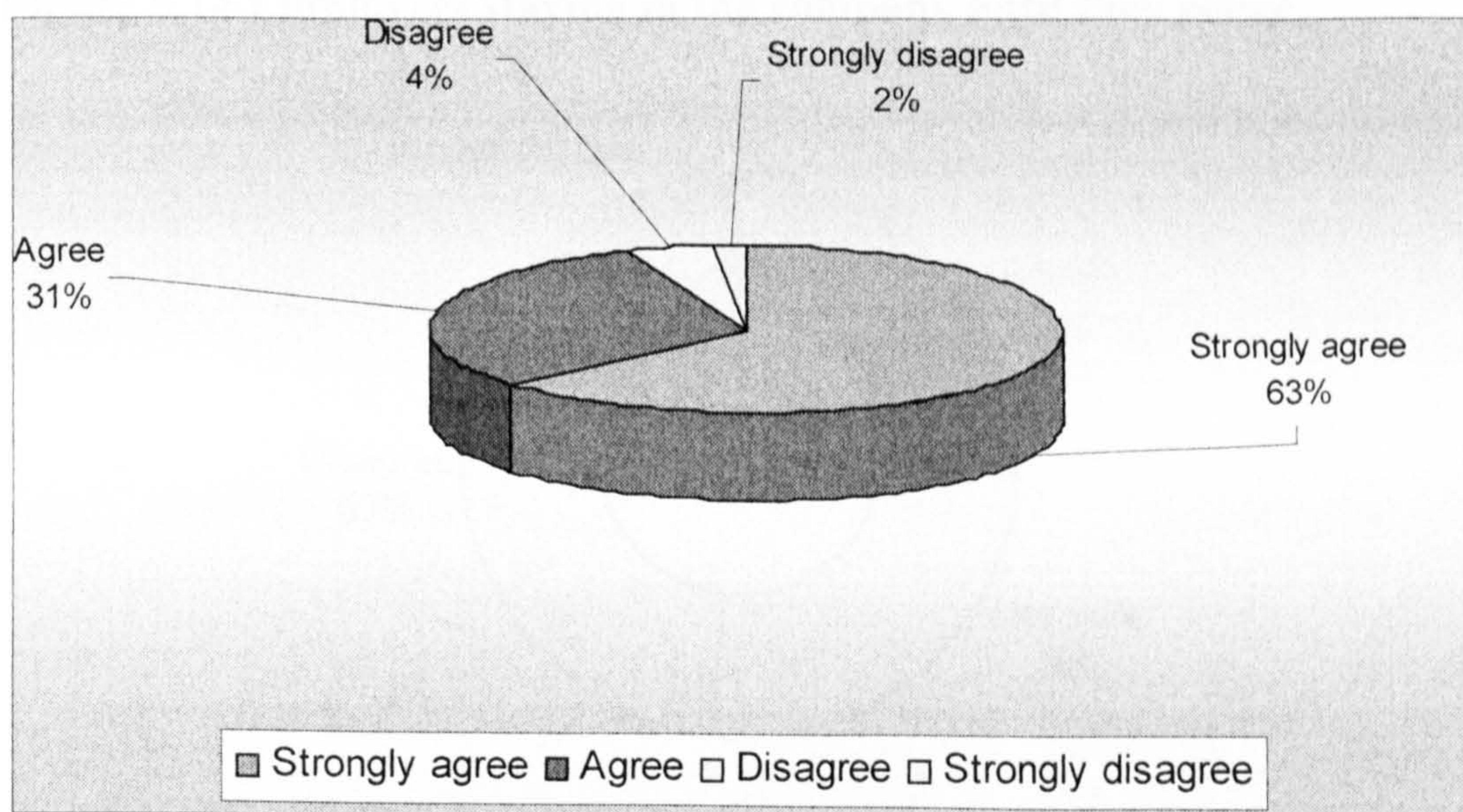
The first organisational culture variable is originated from Hofstede (1989, 2001) where the focus is on the employee's job performance only where as in employee oriented cultures the attention is on employee's well being and personality. In task oriented cultures members of the organisation expressed pressure to meeting targets and getting the mission. In employee oriented cultures, members of the organisation felt that their personal lives and problems were taken into account and that the organisation took responsibility for their welfare. To measure this organisational variable 11 questions have been developed to test to what degree the selected organisations of the study were task or people oriented organisational cultures. The task – people organisational culture variables are:

- 1- Little concern for employees welfare
- 2- High pressure on meeting targets
- 3- Crucial decisions made at the top
- 4- Stress on task structure
- 5- Competition is very strong
- 6- Little concern for employees private life
- 7- Good working relationship with line manager
- 8- Employees staying in the company until they retire
- 9- Good teamwork and community spirit
- 10- Employees have time for personal life
- 11- Important decisions made by teams and committees

5.4.1.1 Pressure to meet Organisational Targets

Figure 5.13 shows participants' responses to question no. 2 which asks if there is high pressure to meet the organisational targets and tasks in their organisations. The data shows that 62% of the participants strongly agreed to the question and 30% agreed where as 4% disagreed and 1% strongly disagreed.

Figure 5.13 High pressures on meeting targets



5.4.1.2 Lifetime employment

This question was developed to measure the degree the organisations of the study were people oriented cultures. Figure 5.14 shows that 22 % of the participants of the study agreed that employees stay in the company until they retire, and 12 % strongly agreed where as 26% were not sure and 22% disagreed leaving 3% who strongly disagreed.

Figure 5.14 Employees staying in the company until they retire

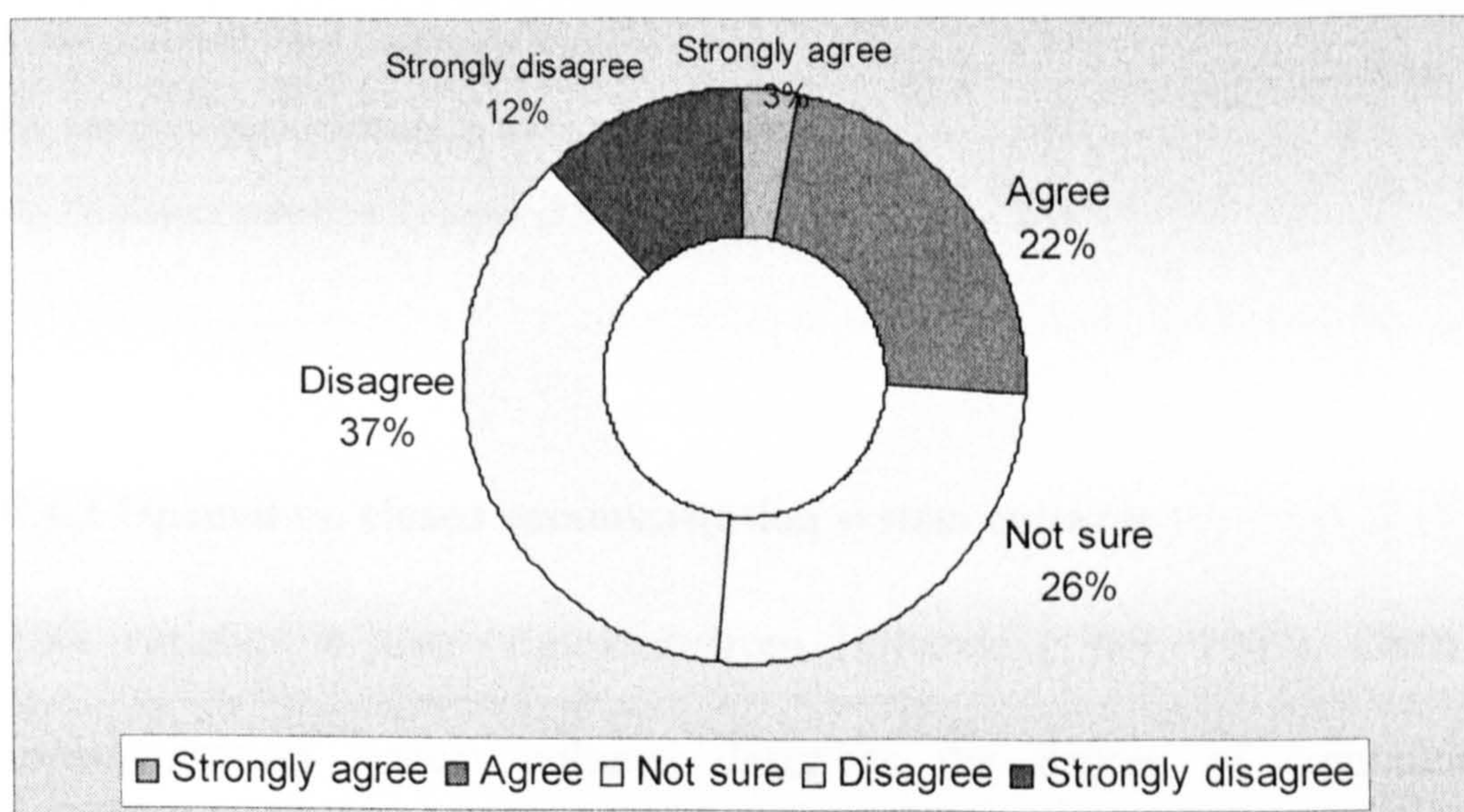


Table 5.4 illustrates descriptive analysis of task cultures versus people oriented cultures in the banks studied. 'The little concern for employees' welfare' has the highest mean ($M = 3.81$), while 'high pressure on meeting target' has the lowest mean ($M = 1.50$) amongst 11 indicators.

Table 5.4 Descriptive Analysis of Task vs. people oriented cultures

Variables	Mean	SD
1-Little concern for employees' welfare	3.81	1.064
2- High pressure on meeting targets	1.50	.847
3- Crucial decisions made at the top	1.73	.953
4-Stress on task structure	1.92	.948
5-Competetion is very strong	2.75	1.106
6 -Little concern for employees' private life	3.26	1.226
7- Good working relationship with line manager	2.09	.934
8- Employees staying in company until they retire	2.67	1.083
9- Good teamwork and community spirit	2.23	.986
10- Important decisions made by teams and committees	2.81	1.129
11- Employees have time for personal life	2.46	.996

5.4.2 Opened vs. closed communication system cultures

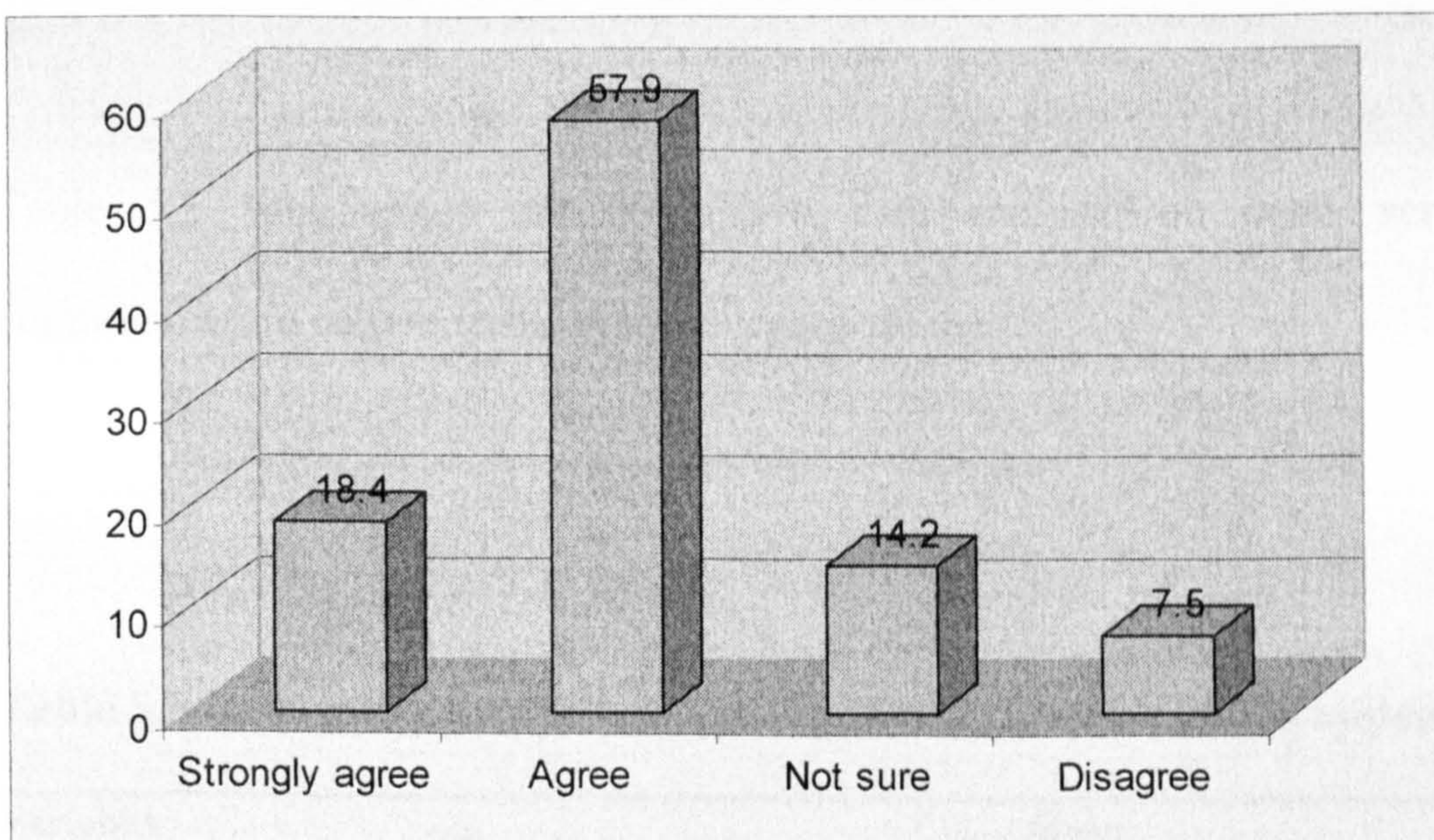
This variable is also originated from Hofstede (1989, 2001). Open vs. closed communication system cultures describes the degree of communication and cooperation between organisational members. To measure this dimensional organisational culture, five questions were developed to asses the degree the organisations of the study were opened or closed in terms of communication system.

- 1- Employees work and co-operate openly
- 2- Employees share information
- 3- Employees are open to new comers
- 4- Ineffective communication between employees
- 5- Employees are secretive about their work

5. 4. 2.1 Employees share information

This question was developed to measure employees' level of communication at work and to what extent they work in an open and communicative environment. Figure 5.15 shows that 58% of the participants agree that employees share information and communicate effectively in their organisations, where as 18% strongly agreed and 14% were not sure and 14 % disagreed.

Figure5. 15 Employees share information at work



5.4.2.2 Ineffective communication between employees

This variable was developed to measure employees' levels of communication and the communication system in the organisations of the study. Effective communication system results in high employees' satisfaction and performance. Figure 5.16 shows that 55 % of the respondents disagree that the communication system is ineffective in their organisations and 20% strongly disagreed, where as 15% were not sure and 10% agreed with the question.

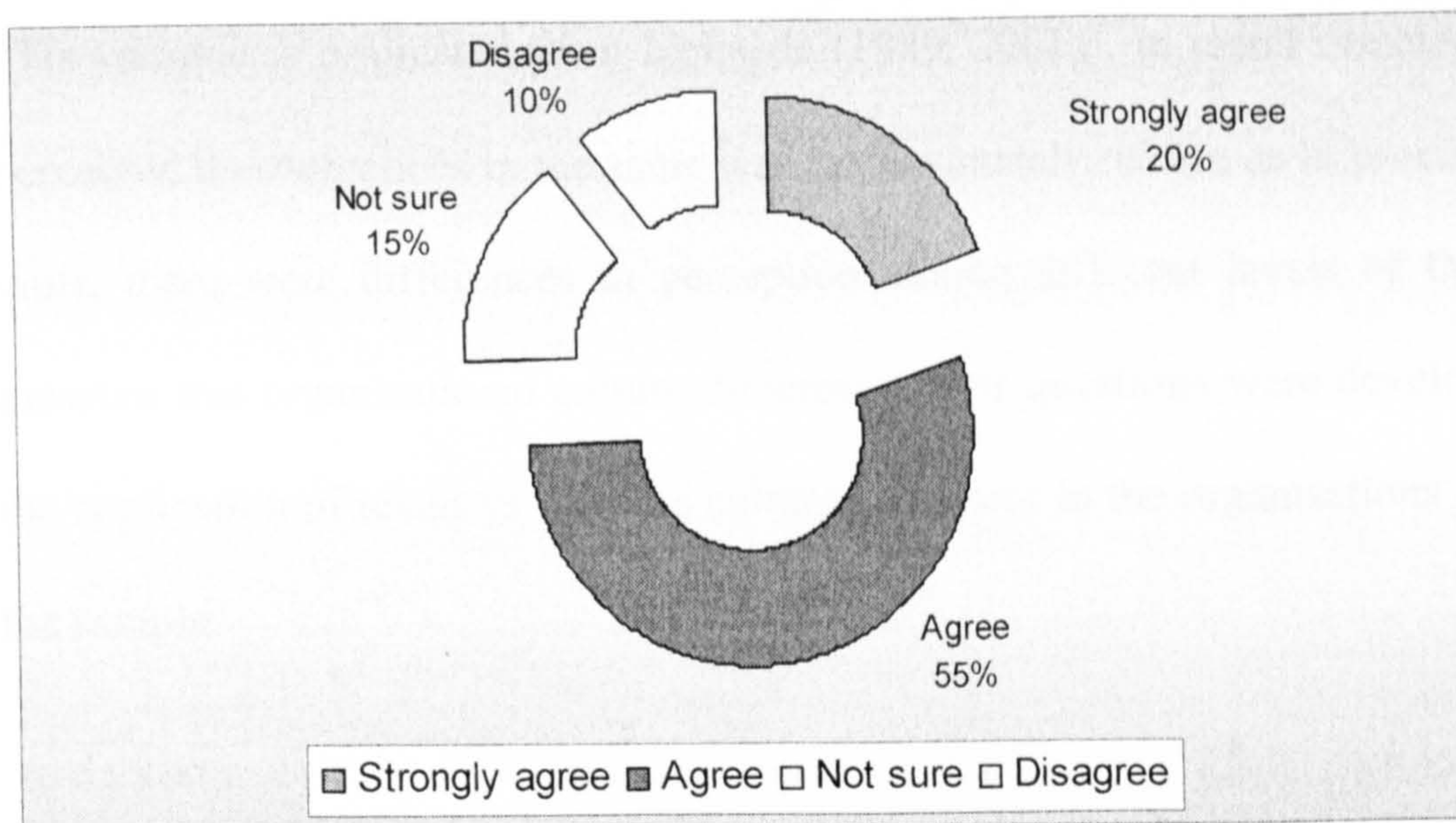
Figure 5.16 Ineffective communications between employees

Table 5.5 summarises the descriptive data analysis on open versus closed communication culture in the studied organizations.

Table 5.5 Descriptive analysis of open vs. closed communication system

Variables	Mean	SD
1-Employees work and co-operate openly	2.24	.916
2- Employees share information and communicate	2.11	.796
3-Employees are open to new comers	1.85	.727
4- Ineffective communication between employees	3.84	.861
5- Employees and closed and secretive about their work	3.89	.898

5.4.3 Result vs. Process oriented cultures

This variable is originated from Hofstede (1989, 2001). In result oriented units, all perceived their practices in the same way approximately, where as in process oriented units, there were differences in perception among different levels of the unit. To measure this organisational culture dimension, four questions were developed to test the application of result vs. process cultures practices in the organisations selected in the sample.

5.4.3.1 Different tasks and challenges

As it has been discussed in literature, involvement in decision making about how to do the job and challenging nature of the tasks reduced boredom at work. In this research the respondents were asked to answer the question whether there are any new different tasks and challenges to employees at work. Figure 5.17 shows that 55% of the respondents agree that in their organisations they have new different challenges and tasks, and 23% strongly agree where as 9% are not sure and 11% disagree leaving 2% of respondents who strongly disagreed to the question.

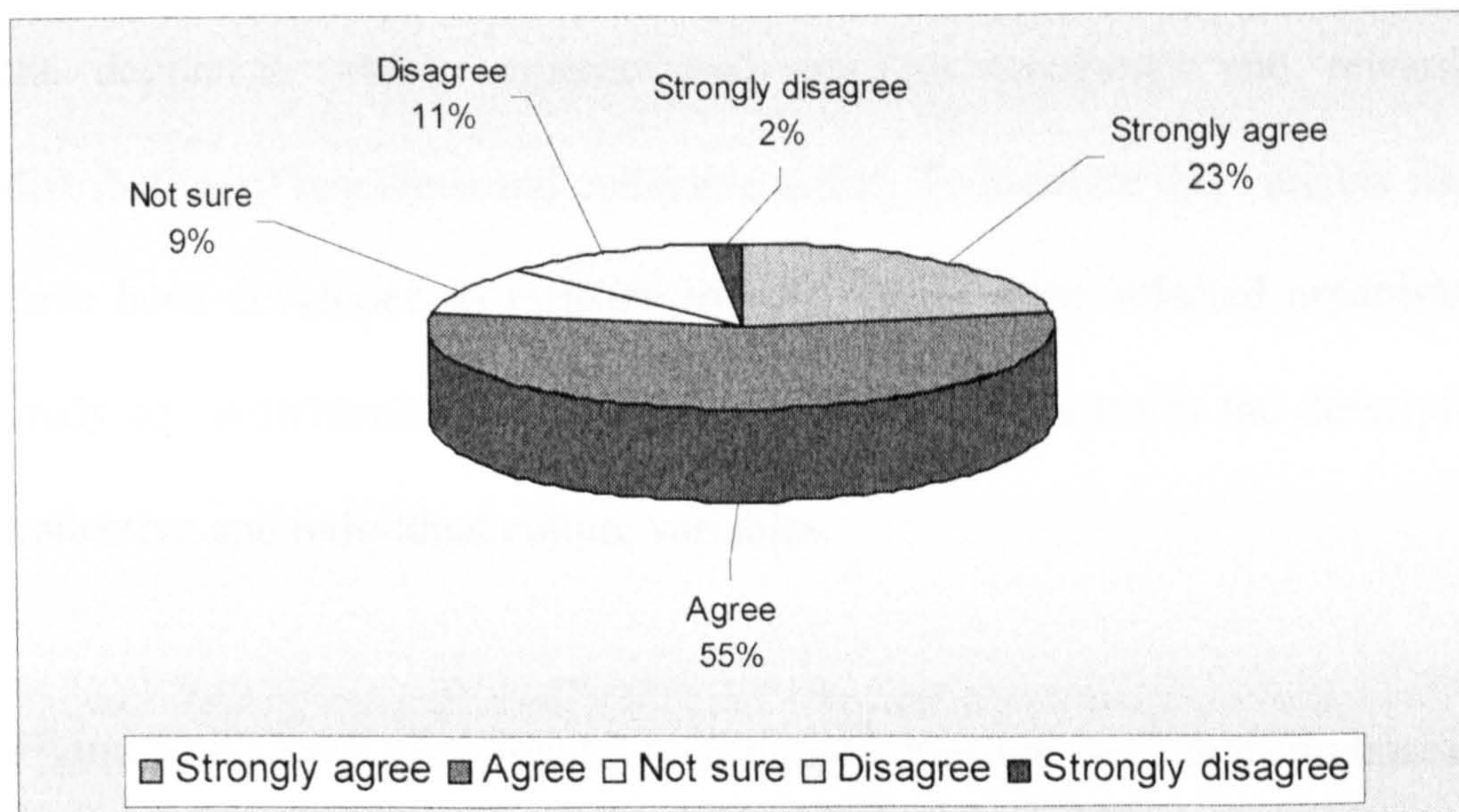
Figure 5.17 New different tasks and challenges

Table 5.6 illustrates mean and standard deviations of the result versus process culture variables.

Table 5.6 Descriptive data analysis of result vs. process cultures

Variables	Mean	SD
1-New different tasks and challenges to employees	2.14	.955
2-Results oriented organisations	2.71	1.280
3-Risk Avoidance and little effort	3.90	1.029
4-Unfamiliar tasks and challenging situations	3.13	.905

5.4.4 Collective vs. individual cultures

This variable is originated from House et al (2004) where institutional collectivism is the degree to which organisational practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action. To measure this variable four questions have been developed to measure to what extent these selected organisations of the study are individualistic or collective. Table 5.7 illustrates the descriptive data for collective and individual culture variables.

Figure 5.18 shows participants' responses to question no. 2 that emphasise employees shared objectives and interchangeable commonalties. The data shows that 40 % of the participants disagreed to the statement that there is emphasis on employees shared objectives and commonalties; where as 36% were not sure and 14% agreed leaving 5% who strongly disagreed and 3% who agreed to the question.

Figure 5.18 Employees shared objectives and commonalties

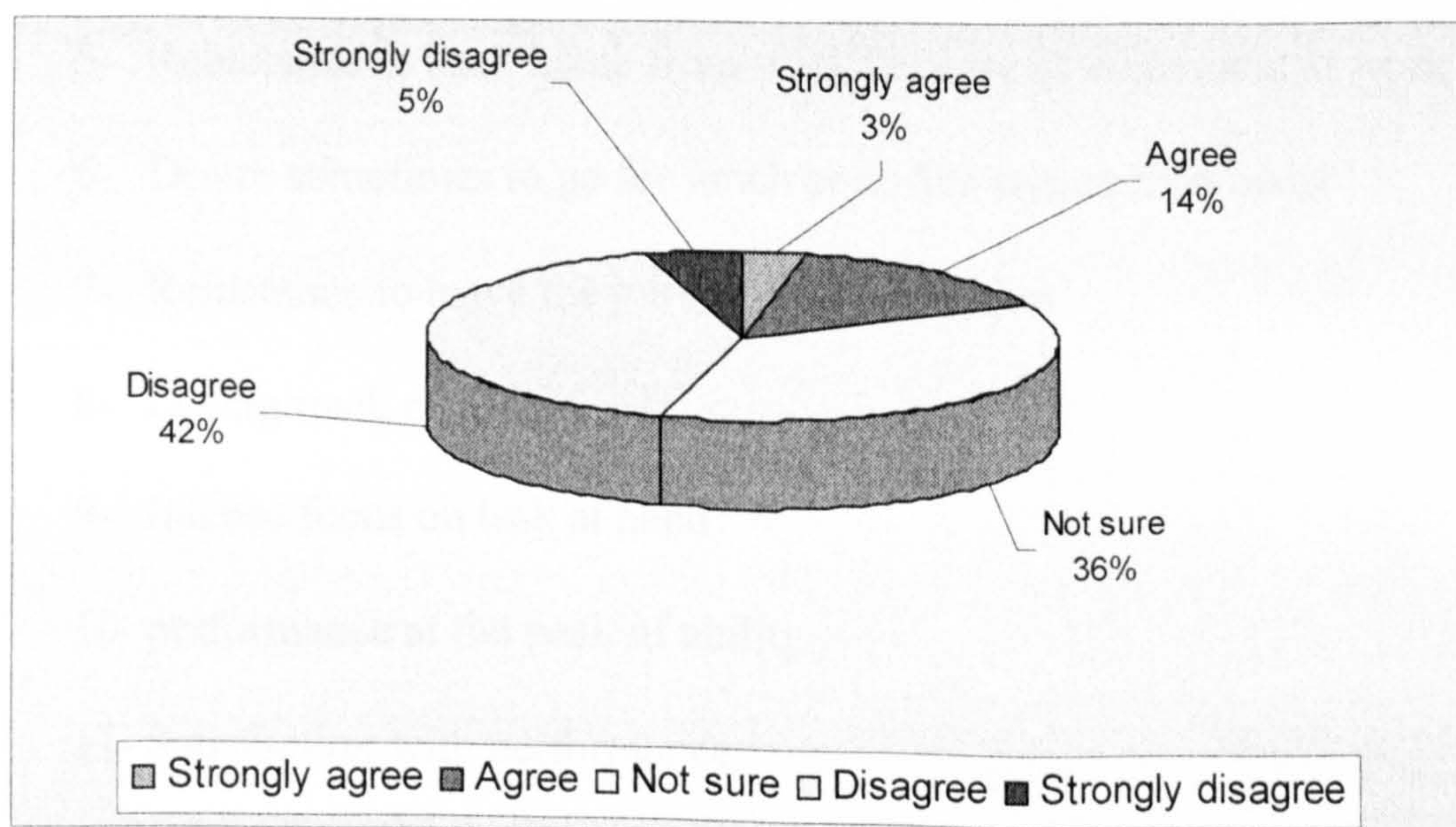


Table 5. 7 Descriptive data analysis of collective vs. individual cultures

Variables	Mean	
1-Collectiveness in organisation	2.85	1.137
2- Employees' shared objectives and commonalties	3.30	.899
3- Employees unique qualities and individualities	2.75	1.090
4- Employees' obligation to the organisation rather than work	2.60	1.005

5.5 Job satisfaction Variables

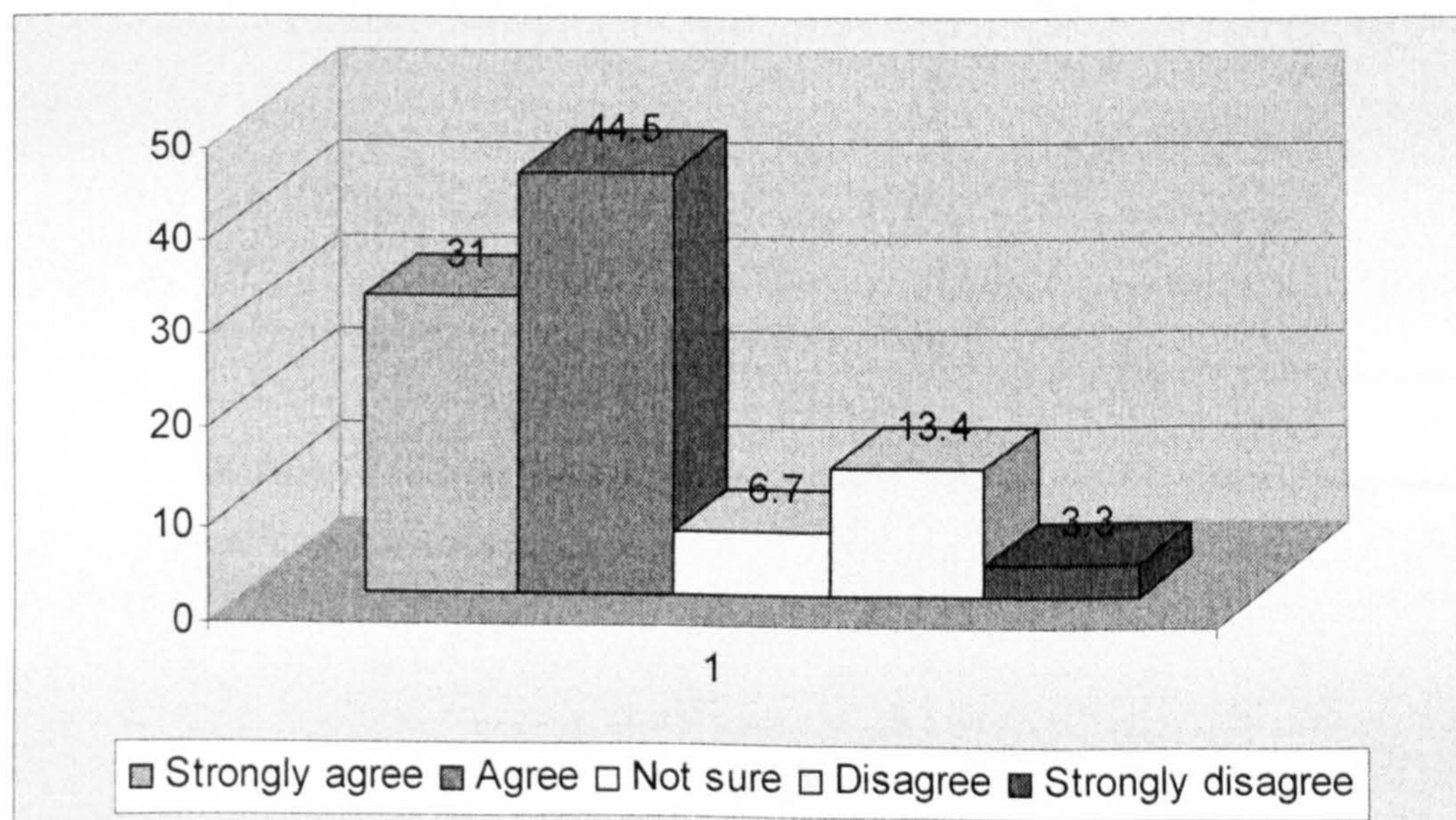
The third section in the research questionnaire is concerned with managers' level and degree of satisfaction at work with regard to:

- 1- Reluctance to go to work
- 2- Looking forwards to go to work back from a vacation
- 3- Desire to leave work for good
- 4- Working through lunch break
- 5- Reluctance to back home from work because of enjoyment at work
- 6- Desire sometimes to go for lunch or coffee sooner than usual
- 7- Reluctance to leave the job to go on a vacation
- 8- Losing track of time
- 9- Intense focus on task at hand
- 10- performance at the peak of ability
- 11- Satisfaction with performance
- 12- Performance is effortless
- 13- Losing sense of the self and engagement at work

5.5.1 Reluctance to go to work

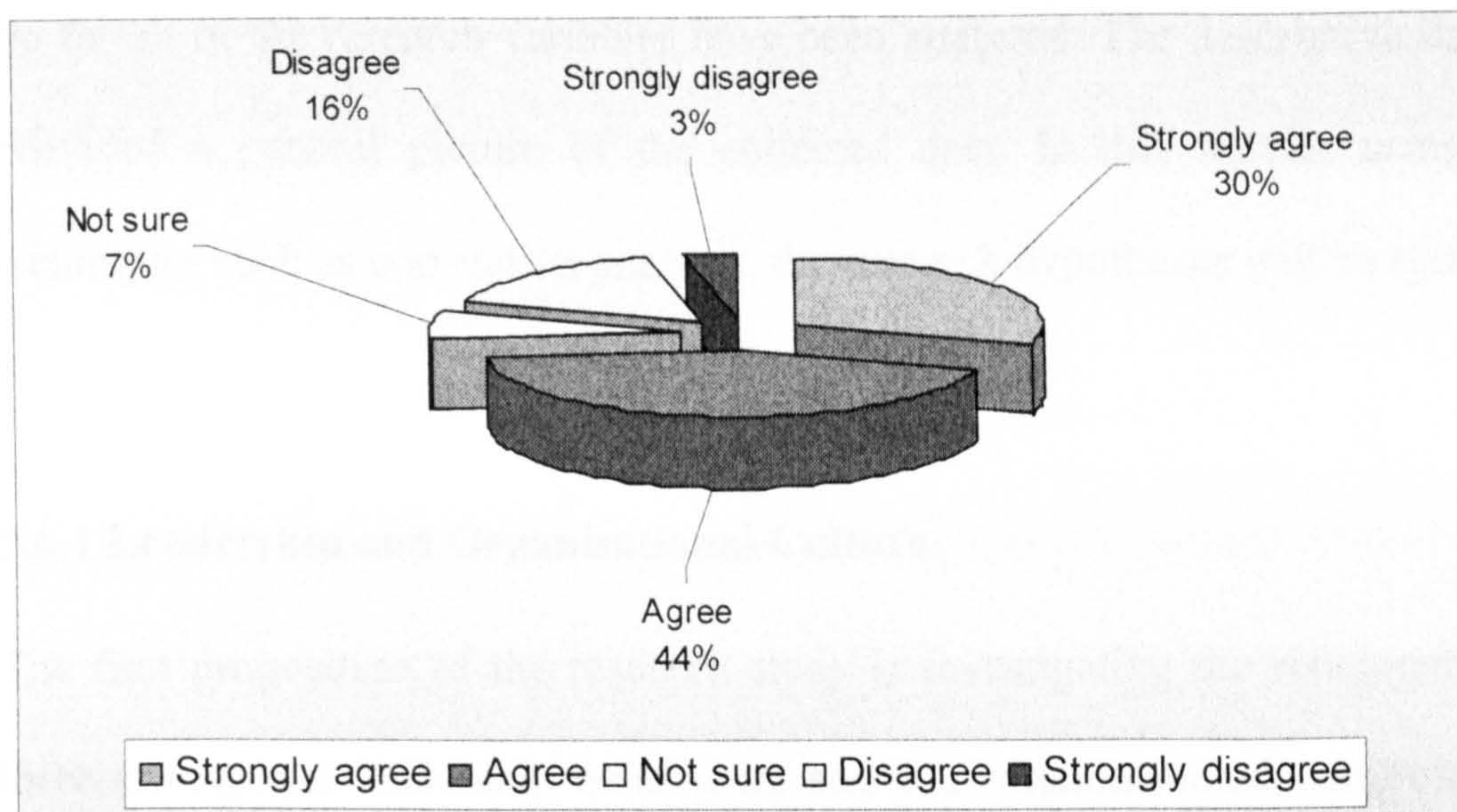
Reluctance to go work is derived from Locke (1967) which is originated from the Action Tendency Scales where the scale measures ask the participant to report the action tendencies which they experience in relation to their job and its component elements. Figure 5.19 shows the distribution of the data in terms of participants' response to the question related to the participant's reluctance go to work. The data shows that 45 % agree with the statement, while 31% strongly agreed, where as 14% disagreed and 7% were not sure leaving 3% who strongly disagreed.

Figure 5.19 Reluctance to go to work



5.5.2 Losing track of time

Losing track of time is a variable developed and originated from Csikszentmihalyi (1993, 2002) to measure the participant's degree of flow and engagement and happiness at work. Figure 5.20 shows that 44% of the participants agree that they experience losing track of time at work, and 30% strongly agree, where as 16% disagreed leaving 7% not sure and 3% who strongly disagreed.

Figure 5.20 Losing track of time

The details of the descriptive data analysis of job satisfaction variables are revealed in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Descriptive data analysis of job satisfaction variables

Variables	Mean	SD
1- Reluctance to go to work	2.13	1.106
2- Looking forwards to go to work after a vacation	3.55	1.129
3- Leaving my job for good	2.60	1.433
4- Working through lunch break	2.16	1.267
5- Reluctance to go home leaving work at hand	3.97	.995
6- Going to coffee break/lunch sooner than usual	2.53	1.160
7- Reluctance to go on a vacation	3.96	1.208
8- Losing track of time at work	2.19	1.134
9- Intense focus on task at work	2.14	.889
10 -Performance at the peak of ability	2.00	.847
11- Satisfaction with performance	1.88	.818
12- Effortless performance	3.07	1.123
13- Losing sense of self and total engagement in the work	2.71	1.095

5.6 Advanced Analysis

So far all of the research variables have been analysed. The descriptive data analysis provided a general picture of the collected data. In this section using statistical techniques such as correlation analysis, the research hypotheses will be tested.

5.6.1 Leadership and Organisational Culture

The first proposition of the research study is investigating the relationship between three managerial leadership behaviours and four organisational culture dimensions. Measuring this proposition required breaking it into four hypotheses.

5.6.1.1 Leadership and Task vs. People Cultures

The first hypothesis studies the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and task vs. people oriented organisational cultures. The correlation analysis between visionary, communicative, team-oriented leadership and task vs. people cultures is reported in Table 5.9 where each pair of variables is correlated.

The correlation analysis between visionary and communicative leadership shows strong significance between the two variables where $r = .819$, $n = 118$ subjects, $p < 0.001$ two tails. The correlation analysis between visionary and team-oriented leadership behaviours shows strong significance in terms of the relationship between both variables where, $r = .699$, $n = 118$ subjects, $p < .01$, two tails.

The correlation analysis between visionary leadership and task vs. people oriented cultures shows negative significance between both variables where $r = -.065$, $n=118$ subjects, $p < .487$.

5.6.1.2 Leadership and Communication System Cultures

The second hypothesis studies the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and opens vs. closed communication system cultures. The correlation analysis visionary, communicative, team-oriented leadership behaviours and open vs. closed communication system is reported in table 5.9 where each pairs of variables are correlated. The correlation analysis between visionary leadership behaviours and open vs. closed communication systems cultures shows strong positive significance between the two variables where, $r = .418$, $n=118$, $p < .01$ two tails. The correlation analysis between communicative leadership behaviours and open vs. closed communication systems cultures shows strong positive significance in the relationship between the two variables where $r = .455$, $n = 118$, $p < .01$ two tails. The correlation analysis between team-oriented leadership behaviours and open vs. closed communication systems cultures shows strong positive significance between the two variables where $r = .401$, $n = 118$, $p < .01$ two tailed.

5.6.1.3 Leadership and Control System Cultures

The third hypothesis studies the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and the loose vs. tight control system in organisational cultures. The correlation analysis between the leadership behaviours and loose vs. tight control system cultures is reported in table 5.9 where each pairs of

variables are correlated. The correlation analysis between visionary leadership behaviours and control cultures shows strong positive significance in the relationship between the two variables where $r = .262$, $n = 118$, $p < .01$, two tailed. The correlation analysis between communicative leadership behaviours and control cultures shows strong positive significance in the relation between the two variables where $r = .278$, $n = 118$, $p < .01$ two tailed. The correlation analysis between team-oriented leadership behaviours and control cultures does not show a significance in the relationship between the two variables where $r = .134$, $n = 118$, $p < .149$.

5.6.1.4 Managerial leadership and Col. vs. Inv. Cultures

The fourth hypothesis studies the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and collective vs. individual organisational cultures. The correlation analysis between the leadership behaviours and collective vs. individual cultures is reported in table 5.9 where each pair of variables is correlated. The correlation analysis between visionary leadership and collective vs. individual cultures shows weak significance where $r = .219$, $n = 118$, $p < .017$. The correlation analysis between communicative leadership and collective vs. individual cultures shows positive significance in the relationship between the two variables where $r = .229$, $n = 118$, $p < .05$, two tailed.

Table 5.9 Correlation Analysis between Visionary, Communicative and Team-oriented Leadership and Organisational Culture

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1- Visionary Leadership	1.83	0.57	1						
2- Communicative Leadership	2.02	0.58	0.819** 0.000	1					
3-Team-oriented Leadership	2.20	0.50	0.699** 0.000	0.783** 0.000	1				
4- Task vs. People oriented leadership	2.94	0.60	-0.065 0.487	-0.158 0.088	-0.223* 0.015	1			
5- Open vs. Closed communication System	2.09	0.66	0.418** 0.000	0.455** 0.000	0.401** 0.000	-0.510** 0.000	1		
6- Loose vs. Tight control	2.52	0.46	0.262** 0.004	0.278** 0.002	0.134 0.149	-0.006 0.947	0.197* 0.034	1	
7-Collective vs. Individual	2.91	0.39	0.219 0.017	0.229* 0.013	0.141 0.127	-0.212 0.021	0.425** 0.000	0.105 0.260	1

5.6.2 Managerial Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The second proposition of this study is investigating the relationship between three managerial leadership behaviours and job satisfaction variables. Testing this proposition required breaking this proposition into four hypotheses.

5.6.2.1 Visionary Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The first hypothesis studies the relationship between visionary leadership behaviours and job satisfaction variables which are originated from the research of Csikszentmihalyi (1993, 2002) and Locke (1967). The correlation analysis between visionary leadership and job satisfaction is reported in table 5.10 where the two variables are correlated. The correlation analysis between visionary leadership and job satisfaction shows strong significance in the correlation where $r = .337$, $n = 118$, $p < .001$, two tailed.

5.6.2.2 Communicative Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The second hypothesis studies the relationship between communicative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. The correlation analysis between the two variables is reported in the table 5.10 where the pairs of variables are correlated. The correlation between communicative leadership behaviours and job satisfaction shows strong significance in the relationship between the two variables where $r = .284$, $n = 118$, $p < .002$, two tailed.

5.6.2.3 Team- oriented Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The third hypothesis studies the relationship between team-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. The correlation analysis between team-oriented leadership and job satisfaction is reported in table 5.10 where the pair of variables is correlated. The correlation analysis between team-oriented leadership and job satisfaction shows strong positive significance in the association between the two variables, where $r = .303$, $n = 118$, $p < .001$, two tailed.

5. 6. 2. 4 Visionary, Communicative and Team-oriented Leadership Job Satisfaction

The correlation analysis between visionary, communicative, team-oriented leadership behaviours and job satisfaction is reported in table 5.10 where each pair is correlated together. The correlation analysis shows strong positive significance in the relation between visionary, communicative, team-oriented cultures and job satisfaction. The results are reported in table 5.10

Table 5.10 Correlation Analysis between Managerial Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1-Visionary Leadership	1.83	0.57	1			
2-Communicative Leadership	2.02	0.58	0.819**	1		
3- Team- oriented Leadership	2.20	0.50	0.699**	0.783**	1	
4- Job satisfaction	2.68	0.54	0.337**	0.284**	0.303**	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)

5.6.3 Organisational Culture and Job Satisfaction

The third proposition investigates the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. To measure the proposition it is broken into four hypotheses.

5.6.3.1 Task vs. People oriented cultures and Job Satisfaction

The first hypothesis studies the relationship between task vs. people oriented cultures and job satisfaction. The correlation analysis between task vs. people oriented cultures and job satisfaction is reported in table 5.11 where the pair of two variables is correlated. The correlation analysis between task vs. people oriented cultures shows strong positive significance in the relationship where $r = -.360$, $n = 118$, $p < .001$, two tailed.

5.6.3.2 Open vs. Closed communication Cultures and Job Satisfaction

The second hypothesis studies the relationship between open vs. closed communication systems cultures and job satisfaction. The correlation analysis between open vs. closed communication system cultures and job satisfaction is reported in table 5.11 where the two variables are correlated. The correlation analysis between open vs. closed communication system cultures and job satisfaction shows strong and positive significance in the relationship where $r = .379$, $n = 118$, $p < .001$, two tailed.

5.6.3.3 Tight vs. Loose control cultures and Job satisfaction

The third hypothesis studies the relationship between Tight vs. loose control cultures and job satisfaction. The correlation analysis between tight vs. loose cultures and job satisfaction is reported in table 5.11 where the two pairs are correlated. The correlation analysis shows that there is no strong significance where $r = .078$, $n = 117$, $p < .401$, two tailed.

5. 6. 3.4 Collective vs. Individual Cultures and Job satisfaction

The fourth hypothesis studies the relationship between collective vs. individual cultures and job satisfaction. The correlation analysis is reported in table 5.11 where the two variables are correlated. The correlation analysis shows strong positive significance between collective vs. individual cultures and job satisfaction where $r = .270$, $n = 118$, $p < .003$, two tailed.

Table 5.11 Correlation Analysis between Organisational culture and Job satisfaction variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1-Task vs. People	2.94	0.94	1				
2- Open vs. Closed	2.09	0.66	-0.510**	1			
3- Loose vs. Tight control	2.52	0.46	-0.006	0.197*	1		
4- Collective vs. Individual	2.91	0.39	0.947	0.34	0.105	1	
5- Job satisfaction	2.68	0.54	-0.212*	0.425**	0.260	0.270**	1
			0.021	0.000	0.078	0.003	
			-0.360**	0.379**	0.401		
			0.000	0.000			

5.6.4 Managerial Leadership and Organisational Culture

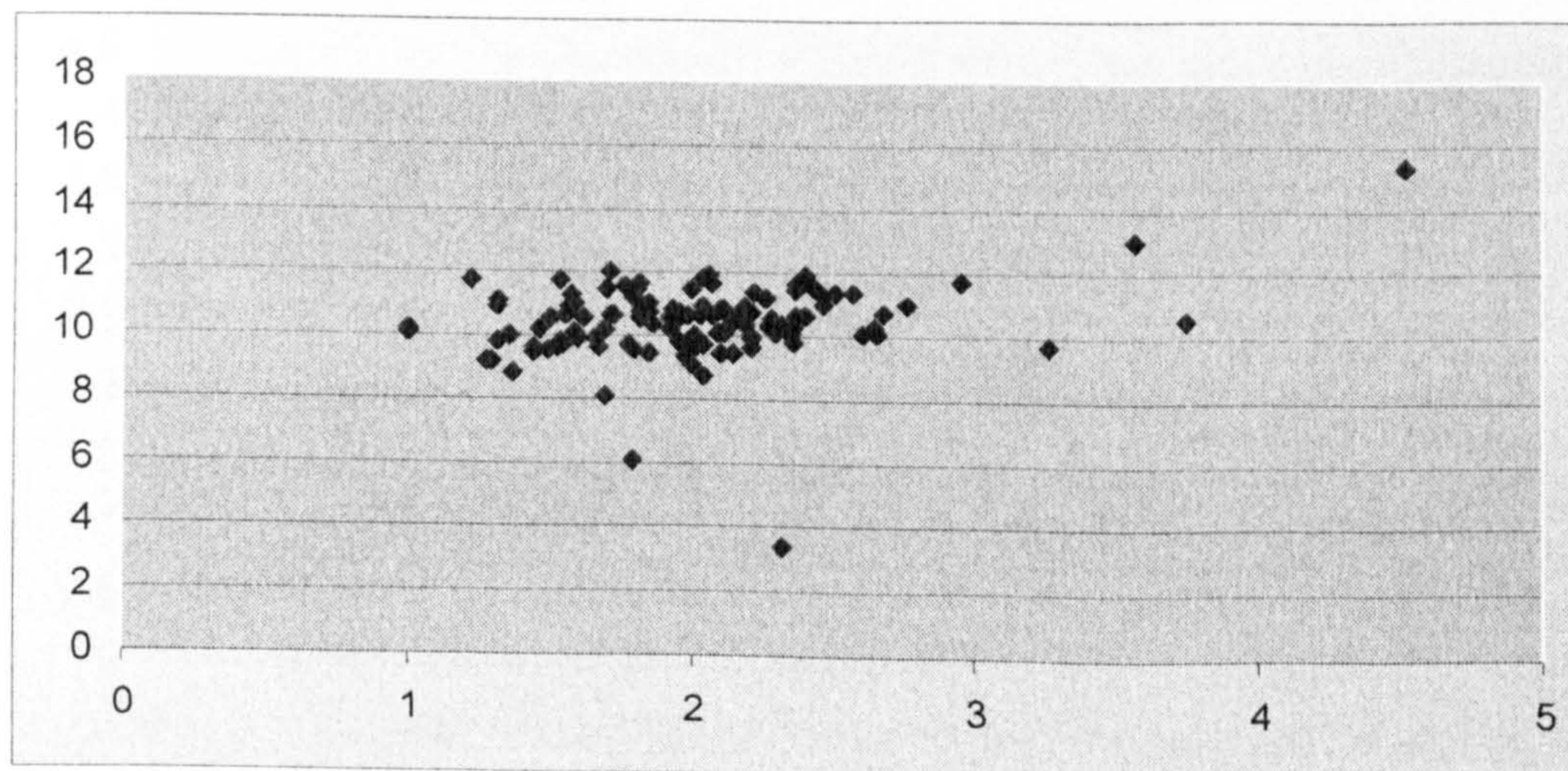
The correlation analysis between managerial leadership and organisational culture is reported in table 5.12 and the two variables are correlated. The correlation analysis shows strong positive significance in the relationship between managerial leadership and organisational culture where $r = .321$, $n = 118$, $p < .001$, two tailed.

Table 5.12 Correlation Analysis between managerial leadership and Organisational culture

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2
1-Managerial Leadership	2.02	0.51	1	
2-Organisational Culture	10.43	1.20	0.321**	1

**Correlation significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)

Figure 5.21 Managerial leadership and organisational culture



5.6.5 Managerial Leadership and Job satisfaction

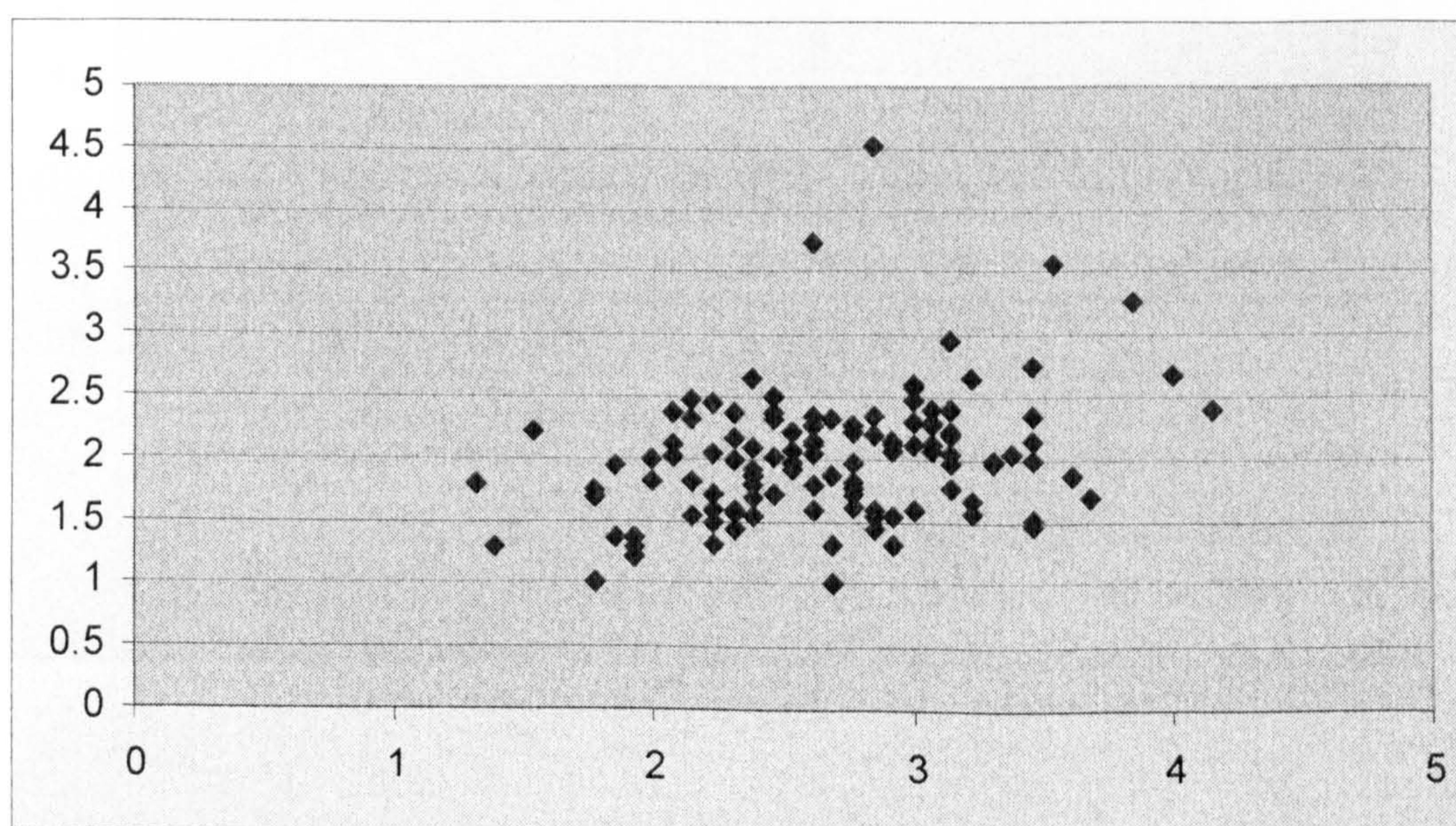
The correlation analysis between managerial leadership and job satisfaction is reported in table 5.13 where the two variables are correlated. The correlation analysis shows strong positive significance where $r = .335$, $n = 118$, $p < .001$, two tailed.

Table 5.13 correlation analysis of managerial leadership and job satisfaction

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2
1-Managerial Leadership	2.02	0.51	1	
2-Job Satisfaction	2.68	0.54	0.335** 0.000	1

**Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2 tailed)

Figure 5.22 Managerial leadership and job satisfaction



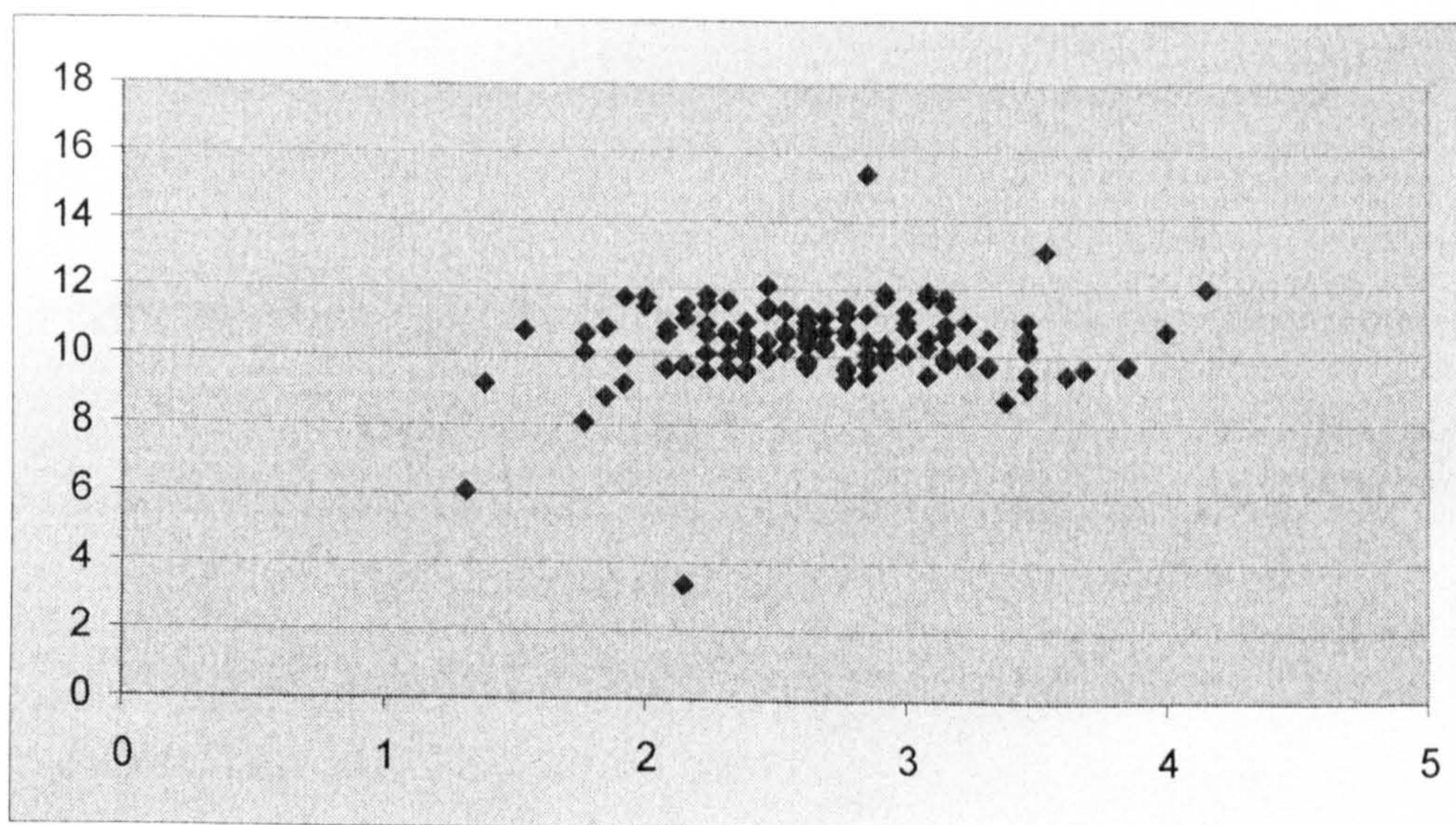
5.6.6 Organisational Culture and Job Satisfaction

The correlation analysis between organisational culture and job satisfaction is reported in table 5.14 where the two variables are correlated. The correlation analysis does not shows significance in the relationship between the two variables where $r = .177$, $n = 118$, $p < .56$, two tailed.

Table 5.14 Organisational Culture and Job satisfaction

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2
1-Organisational Culture	10.43	1.20	1	
2- Job Satisfaction	2.68	0.54	0.177 0.056	1

Figure 5. 23 Organisational culture and job satisfaction



5.7 Managerial leadership and Job satisfaction

The correlation analysis between managerial leadership and job satisfaction shows strong positive significance where $r = .335$, $p < .001$, two tailed. The ANOVA is reported in Table 5.15 where managerial leadership is the independent variable and job satisfaction is the dependent variable. The R square value is 0.112. The regression analysis reported in table 5.15 shows ANOVA test confirms a significant relationship between the two variables, where $F = 14.67$, $P < .001$.

Table 5.15 ANOVA table for managerial leadership and Job satisfaction

Variables	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F- value	sig. Level
	3.838	1	3.838	14.674	P< .001
	30.337	116	.262		

5.8 Conclusion

In conclusion the data analysis chapter discussed the research methods applied in this study and the process of analysing the data. The first section provided an introduction to the chapter introducing the main section in the research. The second section in the data analysis chapter discussed the personal profile of the respondents. The personal profile of the respondents included age, gender, position, work experience in the banking industry and work experience in the company. The descriptive statistics of the personal profile of the respondents included calculating the mean and the standard deviation and the frequency of the data and the percentages of the respondents' answers in each question. The third section of the data analysis chapter discussed the managerial leadership behaviours. The third section is divided into three sub-sections, these sections are visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours. The descriptive data analysis of the managerial leadership behaviours included calculating the means and the standard deviations as well as the frequency of the data and the percentage of the respondents' answers to managerial leadership variables. For example in the third section the communicative leadership variables were discussed and one of these variables was analysed in terms of calculating the mean and the standard deviation and the percentage of respondents answers to the variable / question which requested the participant to provide their perception of managerial listening as an attribute of the leader. The fourth section of the data analysis chapter discussed the descriptive data analysis of organisational culture dimensions in the study. The fourth section is divided into four sub-sections which presented the organisational culture variables. These variables are task vs. people cultures, process vs. result cultures, open vs. closed communication system cultures and tight vs. loose cultures. The descriptive data analysis of the organisational culture variables included

calculating the mean and the standard deviation as well as the frequencies of the data and the percentages of the respondents' answers to the organisational culture questions. The fifth section discussed the descriptive data analysis of the job satisfaction variables which are divided into thirteen questions to measure the participant's degree of satisfaction at work. The descriptive data analysis included calculating the mean and the standard deviation and the percentage of the respondents' answers to some of the questions. The sixth section presents the bivariate correlation analysis between the three main dimensions of the study. The correlation analysis between managerial leadership and organisational culture shows strong and positive significance. The correlation analysis between managerial leadership and job satisfaction shows strong and positive significance. The correlation analysis between organisational culture and job satisfaction shows an insignificant correlation between the two variables. The seventh section of the data analysis chapter presents the simple regression analysis between managerial leadership and job satisfaction. The regression analysis shows the two variables are strongly and positively correlated. The final section provides a chapter summary of the main ideas and sections in the chapter. In the next chapter which is the finding and discussion, results of the study will be presented and discussed in terms of the relevance of this research study to other prior studies.

CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

The aim of the findings and discussion chapter is to present findings and results of the research study. The second section presents the results of the personal profile of the respondents. The personal profile of the respondents involves the age, gender, position and professional experience in the banking industry and the company. The third section presents the results of the correlation analysis between managerial leadership behaviours and organisational culture dimensions. The fourth section presents the correlation analysis between managerial leadership behaviours and job satisfaction. The fifth section presents the results of the correlation analysis between organisational culture and job satisfaction. The final section presents the conclusion of the chapter.

6.2 Personal Profile of the Respondents

The personal profile of the respondents includes participants' age, gender, position and professional experience in the banking industry and the current organisation. The survey of the study consists of a total number of 740 branches. This does not mean that in all the branches of the six organisations there were branch managers. In some smaller areas like Beaumaris, Abergele or Holyhead, the majority of organisations did not provide full banking facilities, rather just counter services. In such locations there would be no manager with managerial experience in the branch, rather staff and supervisors doing clerical and customer service work.

The first characteristic in the personal profile is the respondent's age. The descriptive data analysis shows that 35% of the respondents are in the 40–49 age category and 28% between the 30-39 age group; 23% of the respondents are in the 50-59 age category where as 14 % are in the 20-29 age group. This shows that the majority of branch managers are between the 40-49 years of age category. There is no investigation made in this current study about the relationship between age, leadership behaviours, organisational culture and job satisfaction. However, it would be extremely interesting to make such an investigation in future studies, to look at influence of age on leadership styles and how age differences would influence managers' organisational behaviours and their managerial skills and styles. The second characteristic in the personal profile is respondent's gender. The descriptive data analysis shows that from the sample of the study 43% of the respondents were male whereas 57% were female. There are also very interesting studies that investigates the relationship between gender and work. McDowell (1997) studied the relationship between gender and employment and work in three merchant banks in the city of London. The third characteristic in the personal profile is the respondent's position. The descriptive data analysis shows that 83% of the respondents in the study are branch managers and 13% of the respondents are sales or department managers. The fourth characteristic in the personal profile is the respondent's professional experience in the industry. The descriptive data analysis shows that 34% of the respondents have between 20-29 years of professional experience and 24% of the respondents have between 30 to 39 years of professional experience and 21% of the respondents have between 1-9 years of professional experience.

The fifth characteristic in the personal profile is the respondent's professional experience in the company and the descriptive data analysis shows that 30% of the respondents have between 20 and 29 years of experience and 26 % worked between 1 and 9 years where as 22% of the respondents are in the age category of 30 and 39 years of professional experience and 19% of the respondents worked between 10 and 19 years. Investigating the relationship between manager's work experience and leadership qualities is also interesting for future research. However in this research study there was no such investigation between the any of the personal profile of the respondents and the leadership, culture and job satisfaction variables.

6.3 Leadership and Organisational culture

The first set of hypotheses studies the relationship between managerial leadership and organisational culture variables. The first hypothesis in the first proposition supposes a positive relationship between managers' perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and task-oriented cultures.

The results of the study show a positive correlation analysis between visionary and communicative leadership. The correlation analysis between visionary and team-oriented leadership behaviours shows strong significance between the two variables. The results of the study show that there is a strong relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership variables. This result indicates that participants' answers to the questions were positively interrelated. This result also indicates that there is a strong and positive correlation between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and that a manager who possesses the visionary behaviour is predicted to have communicative and team-

oriented leadership behaviours. The results of the study show strong significance between the visionary, communicative and team oriented behaviours. This is a result that is supported by the prior research in the sense that leaders or managers in leadership positions and authorities who would have the ability to inspire a shared vision in their organisations or departments are predicted to have the communicative and team-oriented collective behaviours.

According to Kotter (1996) creating vision for the company is one aspect and communicating this vision is another. According to Kotter (1996) a great vision can serve useful purpose, however the real power of a vision is unleashed only when most of those involved in an enterprise or activity have a common understanding of its goals and direction. The effective communication plays role in creating a sense of shared sense and identity for the organisation that would help motivate and coordinate the kinds of actions that create transformation. The study conducted by Kotter (1996) relates to this research study in the sense that both studies emphasises the relationship between visionary and communicative leadership behaviours in the organisational field.

Kotter (1996) refers to the reasons of failure of communication of vision as either limited intellectual abilities among lower-level employees or a general human resistance to change. Kotter (1996) enlists several steps to effective communication of vision in organisations. The first element of communicative strategy for the leader or the communicator is clarity and simplicity of message. According to Kotter (1996) the challenge of simple and direct communication is that it requires clarity of thought. It would be much harder to be clear and concise than over complicated and wordy.

Kotter (1996) also argues that the most powerful method to communicate a new direction is through behaviour. Kotter (1996) presents an example that when a CEO of an airline organisation receives a letter of complaint from a customer, they personally send a response back within forty-eight hours. After a while stories about this letter circulate through the company. The research finds that 90% of the employees can describe the change vision when asked and 80% say that they believe senior management is committed to making it reality.

In comparison to prior studies, this research study investigates the relationship between three leadership behaviours and organisational culture dimensions adapted from prior research to study the relationship between leadership and organisational culture and the impact of leadership behaviours on organisational values of the organisation. The results of the study show that the correlation analysis between visionary leadership and task vs. people oriented cultures shows negative significance. The correlation analysis between communicative leadership and task vs. people oriented cultures shows insignificant relationship. The correlation analysis between team-oriented leadership and task vs. people oriented cultures shows negative significance between the two variables. The results of the study show that the correlation analysis between visionary leadership and open vs. closed communication system cultures is positive and significant. The correlation analysis between communicative leadership and open vs. closed communication system shows that the two variables are strongly and significantly correlated. The correlation analysis between team oriented leadership and open vs. closed communication system shows strong significance.

The contribution of this research in the field of leadership lies in the combination of the three leadership behaviours and studying the relationship between the three variables. The prior research studies show substantial research in organisational behaviour field in defining vision, managerial communication and teamwork as a managerial leadership behaviours. The contribution of this research is in studying the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours. The results of the research study show positive relationship between the three leadership behaviours and support previous studies.

Nanus (1992) defines vision as a realistic, credible, attractive image of the future for the organisation. It is a future that is in many important ways better, more successful and more desirable for the organisation than the present situation. Nanus (1992) argues that vision plays an important role not only in the start up stage of an organisation but throughout the organisation entire life cycle. Selecting and articulating the right vision is the most difficult task and the truest test of great leadership. The right vision attracts commitment and energizes people. The right vision creates meaning in workers lives. The right vision establishes a standard of excellence. The right vision bridges the present and future.

Vision is a sense of destination shared by people who care about this organisation (Analoui and Karami, 2003). Nanus (1992) defines vision as a mental model of a future state of a process, a group, or an organisation and that it deals with a world that exists in the imagination, a world built upon plausible speculation. A vision has no power to inspire or energize people or set new standards or attract commitment unless it is offering a view of the future is obviously better for the organisation. Vision is a

mental model of a desirable or idealistic future for the organisation. Conger and Kanungo (1998) defined vision as a set of idealised goals established by the leader that represent a perspective shared by followers. Tichy and Devanna (1990) defined vision as optimistic, motivating and energizing followers to take on difficult challenges.

Kouzes and Posner (1995) stress the importance of establishing a shared sense of destiny in organisations. The importance of vision is not only in the implementation of this vision and change in the organisation; people of the organisation must understand, accept and commit to this vision. Kouzes and Posner (1997) stress the importance of enrolling others so that they can see how their own interests and aspirations are aligned with the vision and can thereby become mobilized to commit their individual energies to its realisations.

Kelly (2000) defines communication as the process by which information is exchanged and understood by two or more people with the intention of motivating and influencing the behaviour. Kelly (2000) points out to the question that vision can be used to improve organisational communication. Barriers to effective communication are also identified in this study as interpersonal and organisational. Interpersonal barriers include perception and perceptual selection processes, secondly semantics, thirdly channel selection and inconsistent verbal and non verbal communication. Organisational barriers include physical distractions, information overload, time pressure, technical and in-group language, status differences, task and organisation structure requirements and absence of formal communication channels.

According to Kelly (2000) communication depends on perception and the way individuals perceive people and their intentions. Perception is affected by the sensory data in the mind and how it is organised interpreted and selected. The individual chooses from the stream of this sensory data and concentrates on one side and ignores the other. This process is defined as the perceptual selection. Increasing our awareness of the values and the attitudes and beliefs influences our perception and improves understanding and sensitivity to others. According to Kelly (2000) semantics play an impact on effective communication. It is viewed as a barrier in effective communication in organisations as words interpreted inaccurately or may mean different things to different people. According to Kelly (2000) organisational barriers also play role in effective communication in organisations. Physical distraction including noise, interruption or equipment breakdowns plays a negative impact on communication. Information overload, time pressure, technical and in-language, status differences, task organisation structure and absence of formal communication channels are all organisational barriers that play a negative impact on communication.

The results of the correlation between managerial leadership behaviours and tight vs. loose control cultures support the hypotheses with the exception of the last hypothesis. The results of the study show that the correlation analysis between visionary leadership and tight vs. loose control system cultures is strongly and positively significant. The correlation analysis between communicative leadership and loose vs. tight control cultures is also strongly and positively significant. The correlation analysis between team oriented leadership and loose vs. tight control system cultures does not support the hypothesis and relationship between the variables is not strongly significant.

The results of the study show that the correlation analysis between managerial leadership and collective vs. individual cultures supports the hypotheses with the exception of the last one. The correlation analysis between visionary leadership and collective vs. individual oriented cultures shows strong and positive significance. The correlation analysis between communicative leadership and collective vs. individual oriented cultures shows positive significance. The correlation analysis between team oriented leadership and collective vs. individual cultures does not support the hypothesis as the two variables are not strongly correlated.

The importance of the relationship between vision and organisational culture is clearly discussed in the prior literature. Vision in organisations has an impact on the organisation as a whole. Effective organisational vision has an impact on the organisational culture and commitment of employees and individuals in the organisation. Schein (1986, 2004) emphasises on the importance of the leader of the organisation as the founder who introduces the ideology and the philosophy that shapes the values and practices of this organisation. This research study supports the result that there is a positive relationship between visionary leadership and organisational culture.

Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) examine the relationship between leadership, organisational culture styles and employee satisfaction. According to Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) leadership combines both task and socio-emotional orientation and that effective leadership results in individuals who are willing to set aside their personal agendas in order to tackle tasks that move the group agenda toward the task. Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) point out that leadership effectiveness will be

positively related to organisational culture styles that will enhance employee satisfaction. Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) also study the relationship between personal effectiveness and organisational culture. Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) point out that personal effectiveness is perceived by employees as the ability to meet the task requirement. Personal effectiveness will be positively related to organisational culture styles that enhance employee satisfaction.

The relationship between work related learning, ERP implementation success and organisational culture have been investigated (Sambrook, 2005; Ke and Wei, 2007). According to this study Enterprise resource planning implementation success is positively related with the organisation's learning and development culture. According to Ke and Wei (2007) the relationship between leadership, organisational culture and ERP implementation success is very crucial in the sense that leadership is determinant of organisational culture design and the fit between organisation culture and an information system is critical for its implementation success.

Yang (2007) investigates the relationship between organisational culture and collaboration and how certain types of leadership roles affect knowledge sharing. The results of the study show that there is a strong and significant relationship between the two variables. Work groups collaboration showed the highest correlation. The results of the regression analysis show that the three independent variables explained a 74% of the variance in KS.

According to Yang (2007) mentor and facilitator leadership roles would be most positively associated with organisational knowledge sharing. These roles were positively related to the regression equation. According to Yang (2007) to successfully nurture a sharing culture required leaders to play a mentor role. The regression model suggests that components of the facilitator and mentor role were crucial and an innovator role could make a minor contribution to knowledge sharing. According to Yang (2007) the innovator role was also strongly and positively correlated with knowledge sharing but only weakly contributed to the regression equation after the three variables were entered.

Yousef (2000) investigates the role of organisational commitment in the relationship of leadership behaviour and the work outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance in a non-Western country where multi-culturalism is a dominant feature of the workforce. According to Yousef (2000) national culture moderates the relationship of leadership behaviour with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance. According to Yousef (2000) there is a positive relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment and therefore the argument in this research study is that variations in leadership behaviours as a result of the variation in culture would lead to variation in the level of organisational commitment.

According to Yousef (2000) organisational commitment mediates the relationships of leadership behaviour and job satisfaction and job performance. According to Yousef (2000) there is a positive relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment, and between organisational commitment and both job satisfaction and job performance.

Yousef (2000) findings are that the prevalent perceived leadership behaviour is consultative and that Arab cultures nurture consultative and participative tendencies. This preference demonstrates the influence of Islamic and tribalistic values and beliefs since both Islamic and tribal law reinforce consultation in all aspects of life. According to Yousef (2000) the investigated organisations are highly committed to their organisations and highly satisfied with their jobs; and their performance is high which indicates that these employees perceive their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership behaviour.

According to Yousef (2000) the results of the study show that the relationship between organisational commitment and work outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance are positive and significant. It indicates that those who are committed to their organisations are more satisfied with their jobs and their performance is high. According to Yousef (2000) national culture moderates the relationship between leadership behaviours and job satisfaction which indicates that those who perceive their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership behaviours who are UAE nationals are more satisfied with their jobs.

Gonzalez and Garazo (2006) investigate the relationship between customer contact employee job satisfaction and employee organisational citizenship behaviour. The study also investigates servant leadership behaviours which will be positively and directly related to customer contact employee job satisfaction.

6.4 Leadership and job satisfaction

The correlation analysis between managerial leadership and job satisfaction supports the hypotheses. The correlation analysis between visionary leadership and job satisfaction shows strong and positive significance. The correlation analysis between communicative leadership and job satisfaction shows strong significance. The correlation analysis between team oriented leadership and job satisfaction shows strong and positive significance.

House and Mitchell (1974) investigated the relationship between leadership effectiveness and satisfaction at work and job performance and organisational commitment. The path goal theory proposes four leadership behaviours: directive, supportive, participative and achievement oriented leadership behaviours. The theory proposes that the leadership behaviours are satisfying and acceptable to followers which will have a positive influence on subordinate's satisfaction with work and supervision. House and Mitchell (1974) studied the relationship between leadership and followers satisfaction with work and supervision.

Clawson (1999) investigated the concept of resonance. The first element of resonance is that they are performing at the peak of their abilities, second is that time seems to wrap, third there is intense focus on what they are doing; fourth they lose sense of self

and begin to merge in the events and things around them and fifth and most of all they find the entire experience intensely rewarding. Clawson (1999) defines this experience as resonance. As Clawson (1999) points out that leadership is an act of engagement and that people who have not identified their dream and have not begun to achieve it are less engaged than those who have. There is a stress in this context on the importance of engagement as a method to influence others. Clawson (1999) conducted a model of leadership namely the diamond in the rough model of leadership in organisations. In this model Clawson (1999) defines three key leadership directions. First is the relation between leadership and the task, second is the relation between leadership followers and Clawson uses the term others, third is the relation between leadership and the organisation. Clawson (1999) outlines several key points of team leadership. First is inspired vision that unifies the team, second is powerful sense of mission that is clear to team members, third is getting the right people to be part of the team, fourth is effective and distributed team leadership, fifth is extraordinary coordination with team members in coordinating and mobilizing the efforts of the team; six is the right role for the right people in terms of team leadership and finally establishing a moral foundation for respect and fairness and promise keeping.

According to Day et al (2004) a team is a composed of a number of individuals who each have their own needs, goals and expected outcomes that motivate their behaviours. Leadership is a process that can help align the individual needs of team members with the result of a shift in the definition of self from the personal I into the “We”. Team leadership could be defined as a process of shifting individual identities into a collective team identity.

Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) study the relationship between managers' leadership style and employee job satisfaction in Isfahan University Hospital in Iran. The data were collected by the distribution of two questionnaires among 814 employees, first line, middle and senior managers of the selected hospitals through a stratified sample. The results of the study show that the dominant leadership style of managers was the participative style. The mean score of employee-oriented dimension of leadership style in the first line, middle and senior managers 52, 54 and 54 from 75 credit. The mean score of task oriented leadership style in first line, middle and senior managers were 68, 69 and 70 from 100 credit respectively. The mean score of employee's job satisfaction was 3.26 ± 0.56 on a 6 scale (moderate satisfaction), 1.9, 26.1, 64.7 and 7.3 percent of hospital employees had respectively very low, moderate and high satisfaction with their jobs. The employees expressed less satisfaction with their salaries, benefits, work condition, promotion and communication and more satisfaction with factors as the nature of the job, co-workers and supervision type factors. Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) study utilised descriptive correlation design and cross sectional survey methodology. The conceptual framework of the study derives from Rensis Likret's model of leadership styles which applies four distinct practices effective leaders use to affect employee and organisational performance. These practices include: exploitive authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative and participative. The results of the study show that employees were moderately satisfied with their jobs. The study recommended that particular attention was to be given to improving employees' job satisfaction. According to Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) variables as employee age, gender, work experience years, marital status and organisational position were seen as having significant correlation with job satisfaction. Certain motivators as loyalty to

employees, job security, good pay, good working conditions, discipline, involvement, promotion and help with personal problems were important to employees. Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) study shows that job satisfaction was higher among employees with higher occupational positions. This is due to having more control over the job, more decision making autonomy with more central position between healthcare professionals, higher salaries and benefits linked to seniority and more social recognition. According to Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) the nature of the job is not an important motivator for either employees or managers. The study also shows that another major finding as the cause of employee job dissatisfaction is the lack of respect and recognition received from hospital management. According to Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) recognition and respect are highly important especially for employees who are in direct contact patients, families, peers and other health care team members.

Mosadeghrad and Tahery (2004) investigated in a study about managers of Isfahan Medical University and the levels of knowledge about Likret's leadership styles. The results of the study show that the mean score of managers' knowledge about leadership styles is 14.15 ± 4.77 on a 36 scale. The mean score of their knowledge about exploitive authoritative, Benevolent authoritative, consultative and participative styles were respectively 4.52, 2.73, 3.20 and 3.69 on a nine scale. This could be an indication that research about participative management could help managers understand more the impact of their management style on their employees.

Team leadership is a great phenomenon that starts with a group of people and a task. True team leadership is not a privilege or a status bestowed on the individual who is appointed to be the team leader. Team leadership requires honesty and self sacrifice

and experience in the task the team is working on. Without honesty and the ability to influence others there can be no effective team leadership. Good communication skills and cultural awareness is essential to the team leader. The leader's awareness of gender difference and possible clashes that could occur in the team is also important.

6.5 Organisational culture and Satisfaction at work

The correlation analysis between organisational culture and satisfaction at work does not support the hypotheses. The correlation analysis between job satisfaction variables and task vs. people oriented cultures shows strong negative significance. The correlation analysis between job satisfaction and open vs. closed communication system shows strong and positive significance. The correlation analysis between job satisfaction and collective vs. individual cultures shows strong and positive significance.

From what has been discussed earlier regarding the term vision in the organisational sense and its nature and components, a conclusion could be drawn in this context that vision has the nature of an image, a dream and a mental model of ideal desirable image. It starts in the mind of the individual and it is a source of inspiration and motivation. What have been discussed in this research study is the association and the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction and not the nature of vision or where does it come from. Vision is an ideal image of a future orientation. It could be an idea of a new product that would take the organisation into a different challenge and status. Taking into consideration all great organisations and how they started their businesses and grew the researcher cannot escape the importance of

vision to the organisation. Vision is a source of motivation, a powerful force that transforms dreams into reality. This analysis could be romantic in a sense; however it is realistic by all means. Great organisations like Nokia, or Universal started with a dream and an intention to achieve a goal. The role of strategic management is very important in achieving the vision of the organisation.

The first organisational culture dimension in this research study is originated from Hofstede (2001) *Culture Consequences*. The dimension is referred to as employee oriented versus job oriented organisational dimension. In the employee oriented cultures employees felt that their personal problems were taken into consideration and that the organisation took responsibility for employees' welfare and that important decisions were made by groups and committees. In comparison in job oriented cultures there is high pressure on employees to achieve targets and accomplish the tasks and that the organisation is interested in the job they do and not their personal or family welfare. According to Hofstede (2001) in job oriented organisations people perceive that the organisation is interested in the only in the work they perform and not in their personal lives and that, important decisions tend to be made by individuals rather than groups and committees.

The second organisational culture dimension in this study is originated from Hofstede (1989, 2001). In the open system cultures employees considered both the organisation and its employees opened to new comers and outsiders and that almost any one could fit in the organisation that new comers needed few days to fit in the organisation. In comparison in closed system cultures employees are secretive and closed about their work even among insiders and that only special people would fit in the organisation.

The third organisational culture dimension in this study is originated from Hofstede (1989, 2001) and House et al (2004). According to House et al (2004) employees in individual cultures would presume that they are hired because of their unique skills and abilities rather than their personal background or social relationships. In individualistic cultures employees would be willing to leave the organisation if their needs are better served in another organisation. In comparison in collective organisation employees consider themselves as highly interdependent with the organisation. In collective organisations the sharing of the organisational identity would be so strong that the employee identity would be part of the organisation identity.

The fourth organisational culture dimension in this research study is originated from Hofstede (1989, 2001). In process oriented cultures employees considered themselves as avoiding risk and spending little time in their jobs and that each day is similar to another. In comparison in result oriented organisations employees considered themselves as comfortable in unfamiliar situations and put maximum effort in their job and that every day brought a new challenge.

Lund (2003) investigates the influence of organisational culture types on employee job satisfaction. The study explores a typology of organisational cultures consisting of four forms which are clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market. The results of the study show that clan and adhocracy cultures are positively associated with job satisfaction. The relative ordering of culture types from the best to worst level of job satisfaction are clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy cultures. The univariate tests for job

satisfaction are highly significant for all culture types. According to Lund (2003) organisational cultures that emphasise order, control, and strong desire for individual achievement could be defined as ruthless work environment and not conducive to employee long term security, loyalty and satisfaction. Other types of organisational cultures as clan culture which is characterised by its emphasis on innovation, entrepreneurship and flexibility emphasised higher levels of employee satisfaction and market culture which emphasises competition and goal achievement. According to Lund (2003) job satisfaction in clan and adhocracy organisational culture type is higher than overall job satisfaction in market and hierarchy cultures.

6.6 Chapter Summary

In conclusion this chapter discussed three major propositions of the research study. The second section of this chapter discussed the personal profile of the respondents. The third section of the chapter discussed the three major propositions of the study. The first proposition investigates the relationship between managerial leadership and organisational culture. The second proposition investigates the relationship between managerial leadership and organisational culture. The third proposition investigates the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. The fourth section of this chapter discussed the managerial leadership behaviours which are visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership behaviours. The fifth section of this chapter discussed the organisational culture dimensions. Finally the sixth section of the chapter discussed the job satisfaction variables and dimensions. The next chapter is the conclusion which will presents the major findings of the study, the theoretical contribution of the research, policy implication, how this research study

could be applied and who is going to benefit from it, as well as the limitation of the study and suggestion for future research.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of the conclusion chapter is to present the major findings and results of the research study. The second section presents the major results on proposition one. The first proposition investigates the relationship between managerial leadership and organisational culture. The third section presents the major findings on proposition two. The second proposition investigates the relationship between managerial leadership and job satisfaction. The fourth section presents the major findings on proposition three. The third proposition investigates the relationship between organisational culture job satisfaction.

7.2 Revisiting the research objectives and research questions

It would be useful to revisit and remind the main research objectives and research questions prior to sum up the major findings of the research. The first objective of this study is to explore whether there is a positive or negative relationship between leadership styles and organizational culture in banking industry. The second objective is to explore the relationship between visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership behaviours and the degree of the individual satisfaction at work in organisations. The third objective of this research is to explore the relationship between organisational culture dimensions namely: task oriented vs. people oriented cultures, process vs. result oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system

cultures and organisational collective vs. individual cultures and satisfaction at work in organisations.

In order to achieve the research objectives three main research questions have been developed. The research questions are as follows:

1. Is there a significant relationship between managerial leadership behaviours and organisational culture?
2. Is there a significant relationship between managerial leadership and job satisfaction?
3. Is there a significant relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction?

7.3 Major findings

The major finding of this research associated with the research propositions are discussed as follows.

7.3.1. Findings on proposition one: leadership and organizational culture

The first question of the research study poses the following question: what is the relation between managerial leadership and organisational culture? Is there a positive or negative correlation between managerial leadership and organisational culture? The first proposition of this research study is investigating the relationship between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours and organisational culture. The correlation analysis between visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours shows strong and significant relationship. The correlation

analysis between task oriented cultures and leadership variables shows significant and negative relationship. In comparison the correlation analysis between open vs. closed communication system and the leadership variables shows a positive and strong relationship between the leadership variables and the open vs. closed communication cultures, and a significant and negative relationship between task vs. people oriented cultures and open vs. closed system cultures. The results of the study show that the correlation analysis between loose vs. tight control cultures and visionary and communicative leadership variables is significantly strong. In comparison the correlation analysis between team oriented leadership and loose vs. tight control cultures is negative. The correlation analysis between loose vs. tight control cultures and collective cultures shows positive significance. The correlation analysis between collective vs. individual cultures and visionary leadership shows no significance, whereas the correlation between communicative leadership and collective vs. individual cultures shows strong positive significance. The correlation analysis between team-oriented leadership and collective vs. individual cultures shows weak significance. The correlation between collective vs. individual cultures and task vs. people oriented leadership shows no significance.

7.3.2 Findings on proposition two: leadership and job satisfaction

The second question of this research study poses the following question: to what extent does managerial leadership positively or negatively affect managers' job satisfaction? Is there a positive or a negative relationship between managers' perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership and job satisfaction? The second proposition of this research study is investigating the

relationship between visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership and job satisfaction. The correlation analysis between the managerial leadership and job satisfaction variables shows that all the variables are strongly and positively correlated. The correlation analysis shows positive and significant relationship between visionary, communicative, team-oriented leadership and job satisfaction.

7.3.3. Findings on proposition three: organizational culture and job satisfaction

The third question of this research study poses the following question: Is there a positive or negative relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction? Is there a positive or negative relationship between task oriented vs. people cultures, open vs. closed communication system, tight vs. loose control system culture and job satisfaction?

The third proposition of this research study investigates the relationship between task oriented vs. people oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system, tight vs. loose control system cultures and job satisfaction variables. The correlation analysis between task vs. people oriented cultures, open vs. closed, loose vs. tight control system, collective vs. individual cultures and job satisfaction shows negative significance. The correlation analysis between task oriented cultures, open vs. closed communication system, loose vs. tight control system cultures, individual vs. collective cultures and job satisfaction shows that they are strongly and positively correlated. Finally the correlation analysis between collective vs. individual cultures and job satisfaction shows that they are strongly and positively correlated.

7.3.4 Findings on the correlation between the study variables

The correlation analysis between managerial leadership and organisational culture variables shows strong and positive significance between the two variables. The correlation analysis between managerial leadership and job satisfaction also shows strong and positive significance between the two variables. In comparison the correlation analysis between organisational culture and job satisfaction shows no strong significance. The regression analysis of the study shows strong and positive significance between managerial leadership and job satisfaction.

7.4 Research theoretical Contribution

This research study developed a theoretical model of managerial leadership behaviours, organisational culture and job satisfaction in organisations. The model investigates the relationship between visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership behaviours and organisational culture dimensions on the one aspect. The model secondly investigates the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. Finally the model investigates the relationship between visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership and job satisfaction. The theoretical model of managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction studies the integrated relationship between three dimensions of organisational leadership. The first dimension is vision in organisations and to what extent it is vital and significant in the organisational context. The second dimension is managerial communication in organisations. The third dimension is team leadership which is a dimension that emphasises team building and the implementation of a collective identity and common goal among team members. The theoretical model investigates the

relationship between the three managerial leadership dimensions. The results show that there is a positive association between the three leadership dimensions. According to this research study, vision, communication and team-orientation are positively correlated and associated. The first theoretical contribution of this research study is investigating the relationship between leadership dimensions that are integrated in the model. The prior literature investigated the relationship between leadership and organisational commitment and job performance, leadership in groups, the various styles of organisational leadership as initiating structure and initiating consideration, charismatic leadership in organisations and its effect of articulating and formulation of organisational goals leadership as a driving force of organisational change (House 1971, Fiedler 1967, Stogdill and Coons 1957, Cogner and Kanungo 1998, Kotter 1996)

The theoretical model of managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction studies the integrated relationship between four dimensions of organisational culture. The first dimension is task vs. people oriented cultures; second is process vs. results cultures; third is open vs. closed communication system cultures and fourth is collective vs. individual cultures. The prior research investigated the relationship between organisational culture and leadership, organisational culture across societies comparing values, behaviours and practices the GLOBE study of 62 societies comparing various aspects of social and organisational culture values and practices (House et al 2004, Schein 2004, Hofstede 1989, 2001).

The first contribution of this theoretical model of leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction is investigating the relationship between visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership and organisational culture. Schein (2004) studies the effects of leadership on organisational culture and the role of the leader as a founder of the organisational culture and values in the organisation. The second theoretical contribution of this theoretical model of leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction is investigating the relationship between visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership and job satisfaction. The prior literature investigated the relationship between leadership and motivation, satisfaction with work, satisfaction with supervision and job commitment (see House 1971, 1974, Dorfman 1997), the relationship between leadership and peak performance (Clawson 1999, Newburg and Kimiecik 2002, Csikszentmihaly 1993, 2002). The third contribution of this theoretical model of leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction is investigating the relationship between four dimensions of organisational culture and job satisfaction. The prior literature investigated the relationship between culture and leadership and job satisfaction, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, leadership, employee empowerment and job satisfaction (see Lok 2003, Sy et al 2006). The fourth contribution of this research study is the application of the theoretical model that was developed in sample from the banking industry. The literature review in the field of managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction shows that there is limit research on leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction in a sample from the banking industry.

7.5 Policy implications

This research study is looking at the interaction between managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction. The policy implication involves the application of this research study in the practical world. This research study is investigating and examining the relationship between visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership and four dimensions of organisational culture and job satisfaction. The sample of the study is selected from the banking industry in the UK. The selected sample is from the retail banking industry from Wales in the UK. The main purpose of the study is to investigate managers' perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership and organisational culture and job satisfaction in mid level management in these selected organisations. The questionnaire is designed to measure the branch manager's perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership, as well as organisational culture and job satisfaction. The total number of branches in this study is 740 branches which are located around Wales- UK.

This research study should be interesting and beneficial to Banking organisations, specifically to commercial banks which offer retail services as well as building societies. The questionnaire of the study is designed for mid level management in the banking industry. The question that arises at this stage is to what extent providing managers with training and awareness of managerial aspects of leadership is vital to the organisation? Should we train managers to be visionary, communicative and team-oriented leaders? What is the importance of managerial communication skills and qualities for a branch manager? To what extent is vision and the clarity of purpose and mission are important to the organisations? To what extent do we need teamwork

and collective organisational identity in our organisations? These are questions this research study is investigating. This research study should be significant and important to mid level managers in the banking industry to assist them clarify issues of managerial and effective team leadership in teams at work, teamwork issues, and effective communication between the team leader and team members, team health and team mission and tasks.

The study should be helpful to any manager from mid or senior level management working in a business organisation whether in the financial industry of any other business industry to help them enhance their leadership and communication skills while managing their subordinates and building a team to achieve organisational targets and organisational effectiveness. The results of the study show that the three leadership behaviours investigated in the research study are positively received by respondents and are positively correlated together.

The study shows that visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours are positively correlated and positively endorsed which indicates that these managerial behaviours are applicable and effectively valid and relevant in business management studies and development. This research study should be effective and useful for executive education training and development organisations or HR departments who would be interested in the application of these organisational behaviours within their own organisations and study effect on the organisational cultures and practices that exist in these organisations. The three managerial leadership behaviours are positively correlated. The study also shows negative and positive relationship between managerial leadership and various aspects of

organisational culture. The study also shows a positive relationship between managerial leadership and job satisfaction. The study shows a positive relationship between managerial leadership and organisational culture. Finally the study does not show strong significance in the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction.

The questionnaire of this study is also designed to measure certain aspects of organisational culture in banking organisations. The question that arises at this stage is what are the organisational culture aspects that are suitable in the banking industry? The study investigates four dimensions of organisational culture. These dimensions are task vs. people orientation; open vs. closed communication system, tight vs. loose control system, and collective vs. individual cultures.

7.6 Limitation of the study

The first limitation of this research study is the time constraint. The research study developed a model of managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction in organisations. The model investigates the relationship between organisational leadership and culture. The model also investigates the effects of managerial leadership on managers' job satisfaction. The model argues that managers with positive perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership behaviours are happier at work. This is a huge research and it requires a lot of analysis and discussion on each aspect of this study. The time limit makes this task difficult.

The second limitation of the study is the data collection process and the factors that are related to it. Data collection is generally not an easy process no matter what study the researcher is conducting. This research study requires collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. The questionnaire of the study is designed to collect quantitative data from branch managers from the banking industry. The process of data collection is challenging. The financial factor is also major limitation to the research. In a perfect world the researcher would conduct one to one interview with the respondent and get answers to all questions that might not be clear. This method i.e. the interview is costly and time consuming. The financial pressure the researcher goes through is also considered a limitation in the study.

7.7 Suggestion for Further Research

This research study investigates the relationship between three organisational dimensions in business organisations. These aspects are managerial leadership, organisational culture and job satisfaction. The selected sample of the study is from the banking industry in Wales in the UK.

The first suggestion for further research in this research study is developing the same model and the application of the model on a larger sample that would include a wider demographical and regional and cultural aspect. An interesting research study would be to investigate the relationship between the three variables and apply the model on a wider sample that would include England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

The other suggestion is the social culture factor can be included in the theoretical model developed in this research. Social culture would be an independent variable affecting leadership and organisational culture. What is interesting to investigate in a future study is the measuring the managerial model of visionary, communicative and team oriented leadership among a wider sample including all the UK and possibly expanding the study on a cross cultural level taking into consideration a comparative study of managerial leadership in a different national and organisational cultures. Another future study would be investigating the relationship between managerial leadership and the personal profile variables. These variables include age, gender, years of professional experience and managerial position.

7.8 Conclusion

To conclude a PhD research study is perhaps the most difficult step. It involves the sum of all pains, all experiences, all fears that the researcher went on. The conclusion of a PhD is an opportunity for the researcher to sum up all work and search and analysis that has been done for years of hard work and study. Perhaps a good definition of leadership is the one that been said by Dwight D. Eisenhower where he defines leadership as “the art of getting someone else to do something you want done because he wants to do it”. The stress is on leadership as influential force. Perhaps this research study investigated leadership as the ability to have a powerful vision and sense of direction, opening communication channels and establishing a common land and purpose for others to follow this vision. Leadership does not belong to certain country. Leadership is about values that belong to the universal. Perhaps that is a definition of leadership.

Appendix 3.1: Data Dictionary

No.	Number of question in questionnaire	Variable code name in SPSS	Variable	Measurement Scale
1	1	S1 V1	Idealising future goals	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
2	2	S1 V2	Identifying organisational barriers	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
3	3	S1 V3	Creative	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
4	4	S1 V4	Energetic	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
5	5	S1 V5	Risk Taker	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
6	6	S1 V6	Agent of Change	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
7	7	S1 V7	Interpret the industry trends	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
8	8	S1 V8	Future task oriented	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
9	9	S1 V9	Team commitment Influence	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

10	10	S1 V10	Inspirational	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
11	11	S1 V11	High standards of excellence	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
12	12	S1 V12	Performance and action revision	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
13	13	S1 V13	Authoritarian manner	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
14	14	S1 V14	Challenge and motivation	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
15	15	S1 V15	Maintaining an image of being knowledgeable	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
16	16	S1 V16	Vision oriented	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
17	17	S1 C17	Ability to establish common ground of understanding	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
18	18	S1 C18	Uses simple and clear language	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
19	19	S1 C19	Careful listener	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

20	20	S1 C20	Role model	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
21	21	S1 C21	Aware of team members abilities	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
22	22	S1 C22	Advocating and networking	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
23	23	S1 C23	Aware of team members abilities	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
24	24	S1 C24	Informing team members about organisational decisions	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
25	25	S1 C25	Does not explain the rationale behind orders given	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
26	26	S1C26	Sensitive to the abilities and emotional needs of team members	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
27	27	S1 C27	Awareness of organisational barriers impairing goals	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
28	28	S1 C28	Persuasive	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
29	29	S1 C29	Is not a risk taker	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

30	30	S1 C30	Effective communicator with team members	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
31	31	S1 C31	Unable to clarify organisational goals and plans	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
32	32	S1 T32	Works towards one collective identity	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
33	33	S1 T33	Maintaining high performance standards	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
34	34	S1 T34	Aware of personal welfare issues of team members	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
35	35	S1 T35	Clear attitude to team members	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
36	36	S1 T36	Awareness of gender differences in the team	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
37	1	S2 TK1	Little concern for employees	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
38	2	S2 TK2	High pressure on meeting targets	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
39	3	S2 TK3	Crucial decisions made at the top	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

40	4	S2 TK4	Stress on task structure	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
41	5	S2 TK5	Competition is very strong	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
42	6	S2 TK6	Little concern for employee private life	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
43	7	S2 PE7	Good working relationship with line manager	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
44	8	S2 PE8	Employees staying in the company until they retire	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
45	9	S2 PE9	Community spirit is high among employees	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
46	10	S2 PE10	Time for personal and family life	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
47	11	S2 PE11	Decisions made by teams committees	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
48	12	S2 PE12	Employees work and cooperate with each other openly	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
49	13	S2 OP13	Employees share information	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

50	14	S2 OP 14	Employees are opened to new comers	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
51	15	S2 CL 15	Ineffective communication between employees	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
52	16	S2 CL 16	Employees are closed and secretive about their work	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
53	17	S2PR 17	New different tasks and challenges to employees	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
54	18	S2 RS 18	Results oriented organisations	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
55	19	S2 PG19	Stress on meeting customers needs	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
56	20	S2 RS20	Risk avoiding organisations	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
57	21	S2RSPR 21	Unfamiliar with tasks and challenges everyday	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
58	22	S2 LS22	Tolerance with mistakes	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
59	23	S2 TG 23	Cost conscious organisations	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

60	24	S2 TG 24	Stress on time keeping and punctuality	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
61	25	S2 TG 25	Strict dress code and appropriate behaviour	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
62	26	S2 LS 26	Employees freedom to apply own approach to work	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
63	27	S2 LS 27	Flexible timekeeping organisation	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
64	28	S2 PA 28	Organisation affecting employees personality	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
65	29	S2 PF 29	Strong Division between employees' private life and professional life	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
66	30	S2 PF 30	Job competence is the only criterion	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
67	31	S2 CV 31	Collectiveness in organisations	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
68	32	S2 CV 32	Employees obligation to their teams and organisations rather than the task	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
69	33	S2 CV 33	Employees shared objectives and commonalties	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

70	34	S2 IN 34	Stress on employees unique qualities and differences	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
71	35	S2 M35	Men are more competitive than women	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
72	36	S2 F36	Conflict resolution through negotiation	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
73	37	S2 IN37	Public appraisal for excellent performance	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
74	38	S2 F38	Women at top level management	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
75	1	S3 JS1	Reluctance to go to work	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
76	2	S3 JS2	Looking forwards to go to work on a vacation	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
77	3	S3 JS 3	Leaving my job for good	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
78	4	S3 JS4	Working through lunch break	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
79	5	S3 JS5	Reluctance to go home leaving work at hand	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

80	6	S3 JS6	Going to coffee break /lunch sooner than usual	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
81	7	S3 JS 7	Reluctance to go on a vacation	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
82	8	S3 JS 8	Losing track of time	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
83	9	S3 JS 9	Intense focus on task at hand	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
84	10	S3 JS 10	Performance a the peak of ability	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
85	11	S3 JS 11	Satisfaction with performance	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
86	12	S3 JS 12	Effortless performance	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree
87	13	S3 JS 13	Losing sense of self and engagement in work	1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Not Sure 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

Appendix 4.1 List of the total population of the branches of the selected organisations

AN	BS	IIS (full banking)	HC	LB	NW
Aberdare	Aberaeron	Aberdare	Aberaeron	Aberdare	Aberaeron
Aberystwyth	Aberdare	Abergavenny	Gorseinon	Abergavenny	Aberdare
Ammanford	Abergavenny	Aberystwyth	Aberdare	Abergavenny	Aberdovey
Bangor	Abergele	Bangor	Abergavenny	Abertillery	Abergele
BARRY	Abertillery	Barry	Abergele	Aberystwyth	Abersoch
BIRKENHEAD	Aberystwyth	BIRKENHEAD	Abersoch	Ammanford	Aberystwyth
BLACKWOOD	Ammanford	BLACKWOOD	Abertillery	Bangor	Amlwch
BRECON	Angelsey	BRIDGEND	Aberystwyth	Bargoed	Ammanford
BRIDGEND	Anglesey	Caerphilly	Amanah Birmingham	Barry Docks	Bala
BUILTH WELLS	Anglesey	Cardiff	Amanah Cardiff	Bebington	Bangor
CAERNARFON	Bala	Cardiff	Amanah Wolverhampton	Birkenhead	Barmouth
CAERPHILLY	Bangor	Cardiff	Amanah walsall	Blackwood	Barry
CARDIFF	Bargoed	CARMARTHEN	Amanah Wrexham	Brecon	Beaumaris
CARDIFF	Barmouth	CHESTER	Amlwch	Bridgend	Benllech
CARDIFF	Barry	CHESTER	Ammanford	Brombough	Blaenau Ffestiniog
CARMARTHEN	Barry	Colwyn Bay	Bala	Bromyard	Brecon
CHESTER	Birkenead	CWMBRAN	Bangor	Brynmawr	Bridgend
COLWYN BAY	Birkenhead	DENBIGH	Bargoed	Buckley	Bridgend
CWMBRAN	Birkenhead	ELLESMERE PORT	Neath	Burry Port	Bridgnorth
Halton Lea	Birkenhead	HAVERFORDWEST	Barmouth	Caernarfon	Bromyard
HAVERFORDWEST	Birkenhead	HEREFORD	Barry	Caerphilly	Buckley
HEREFORD	Birkehead	LEOMINSTER	Beaumaris	Caldicot	Builth Wells
HESWALL	Birkehead	LLANDUDNO	Benllech	Canton	Caernarfon
HOLYHEAD	Birkehead	Llanelli	Bethesda	Cardiff Bay	Caerphilly
HOLYWELL	Birkehead	MERTHYR TYDFIL	Betws-Y-Coed	Cardiff	Cardiff
LEOMINSTER	Birkehead	Mold	Birkenhead	Cardiff	Cardiff
LLANDRINDOD WELLS	Birkehead	Neath	Bishop's Castle	Cardiff	Cardiff
LLANDUDNO	Bishops Castle	NEWPORT	Fforestfach	Cardiff	Cardiff
LLANELLI	Blackwood	Oswstry	Flint	Cardiff	Cardiff
LLANGFN	Brecon	PONTYPRIDD	Blackwood	Cardiff	Cardiff
MERTHYR TYDFIL	Bridgend	Port Talbot	Blaenau Ffestiniog	Cardigan	Cardiff
MOLD	Bridgend	PORTH	Amanah Manchester	Carmarthen	Cardiff
MONMOUTH	Brynmaur	PORTHCAWL	Blaenavon	Carmarthen	Cardiff
Moreton	Buckley	RHYL	Brecon	Chepstow	Cardiff
NEATH	Builth Wells	RUNCORN	Bridgend	Chepstow	Cardiff
NEATH	Caernarfon	SHREWSBURY	Bridgend	Chester	Cardigan
NEWPORT	Caerphilly	Swansea	Bromborough	Chester	Carmarthen
NEWTOWNSY	Cardiff	Swansea	Bromyard	Chester	Chester
Oswestry	Cardiff	WALLASEY	Brynmaur	Chester	Chester
PENARTH	Cardiff	WHITCHURCH	Buckley	Church Shertton	Colwyn
PONTYPRIDD	Cardigan	WIDNES	Harlech	Church Village	Conwy
PRESTATYN	Carmarthen	Wrexham	Builth Wells	Swansea	Corwen
RHYLLLI	Carmarthen		Holywell	Colwyn Bay	Cowbridge
ROSS-ON-WYE	Chepstow		Burry Port	Cowbridge	Crickhowell
Shrewsbury	Chester		Caergwrle	Crickhowell	Deeside
SWANSEA	Chester		Caerleon	Cwmbran	angor
TELFORD	Colwyn Bay		Fishguard	Ebbw Vale	Denbigh
TENBY	Conwy		Caernarfon	Ellesmere port	Dinas Powys
	Cowbridge				Dolgellau
	Craven Arms				
	Cwmbran				
	Denbigh				
	Dolgellau				
	Ebbw Vale				
	Ellesmere port				
	Ferndale				
	Fishguard				
	Flint				
	Glynneath				
	Gorseinon				
	Haverfordwest				
	Hay-on-Wye				

TONYPANDY	Hengoed		Caerphilly	Ellesmere	Eastham
Wallasey	Hereford		Ellesmere Port	Fishgaurd	Ebbw Vale
WEST KIRBY	Holywell		Caldicot	Flint	Ellesmere Port
WIRRAL	Kington		Cardiff Albany Road	Gorseinon	Ellesmere
WREXHAM	Knighton		Cardiff Bute Street	Gwent	
	Lampeter		Cardiff Canton	Harlscott	Flint
	Leominster		Hawarden	Harverfordwest	Grangetown Cardiff
	Llandeilo		Heswall	Haverfordwest	Harlescott
	Llandoverly		Cardiff City	Hawarden	Hay On Wye
	Llandrindod Wells		Haverfordwest	Hereford	Heads of the valley
	Llandudno Junction		Cardiff Queens	Heswell	Hereford
	Llandudno		Ferndale	Holyhead	Hereford
	Llandysul		Cardiff Rhiwbina	Chester	Holyhead
	Llanelli		Holyhead	Kenfig Hill	Holywell
	Llangollen		Cardiff Rhyd-Y-Penau	Lapeter	Hoole
	Llanidloes		Cardiff Rumney	Ledbury	Lampeter
	Llantwit Major		Cardigan	Leominster	Ledbury
	Llanwrst		Cardiff University	Liscard	Leominster
	Llanwrtyd Wells		Carmarthen	Llandeilo	Llandaff
	Ludlow		Carmarthen Trinity College	Llandoverly	Llandeilo
	Machynlleth		Cefn Mawr	Llandrindod Wells	Llandoverly
	Merthyr Tydfil		Cemaes Bay	Llandudno	Llandudno
	Merthyr Tydfil		Chepstow	Llandudno	Llandysul
	Milford Haven		Chester	Llandysul	Llanelli
	Mold		Chester	Llanelli	Llanfair Caereinion
	Monmouth		Chirk	Llangefni,	Llangefni
	Mountain Ash		Church Stretton	Llanishen	Llangollen
	Much Wenlock		Clydach	Llantwit Major	Llanidloes
	Narberth		Colwyn Bay	Ludlow	Llanishen
	Neath		Conwy	Maesteg	Llanrwrst
	Neath		Higher Bebington	Malpas	Llansamlet
	Newcastle Emlyn		Corwen Cerigydrudion	Pontypridd	Llantwit major
	Newport		Hereford	Merthyr Tydfil	Llanybydder
	Newport		Hay-on-Wye	Milford Haven	Ludlow
	Newport		Corwen	Mold	Machynlleth
	Newport		Cowbridge	Monmouth	Maesteg
	Newport		Craven Arms	Moreton	Malvern Link
	Newtown		Criccieth	Mount Pleasant	Malvern
	Oswestry		Cwmbran	Mountain Ash	Menai Bridge
	Pembroke Dock		Denbigh	Mountian Ash	Merthyr Tydfil
	Pembroke		Dolgellau	Mumbles Swansea	Mold
	Penarth		Ebbw Vale	Neath Glynneath	Montgomery
	Pontardulais		Hoylake	Neath	Morrison
	Pontyclun		Kenfig Hill	New Ferry	Mumbles
	Pontypool		Kington	Newbridge	Neath
	Pontypridd		Kinmel Bay	Newcastle Emlyn	Neston
	Port Talbot		Knighton	Newport Gwent	New Quay
	Porth		Lampeter	Newport Gwent	Newcastle
	Porth		Ledbury	Newport Pembs	Newport
	Porthcawl		Leintwardine	Newtown	Newtown
	Porthnadog		Leominster	Newtown	Oswestry
	Prestatyn		Llandaff	Oswestry	Oswestry
	Pwllheli		Llandeilo	Pembroke Dock	Penarth
	Queensferry		Llandoverly	Pembroke	Pencoed
	Rhayader				Penmaenmawr
	Rhyl				Pentre
	Ruthin				
	Shrewsbury				
	Shrewsbury				
	South Wirral				
	St Davids				
	Swansea				
	Swansea				
	Swansea				
	Swansea				
	Swansea				
	Swansea				
	Swansea				
	Swansea				
	Swansea				
	Tenby				
	Tonypandy				
	Tredegarr				
	Tregaron				
	Treharris				

Treorchy	Llandrindod Wells	Penarth	Pontypridd
Treorchy	Llandudno	Pontardawe	Pontypridd
Tywyn	Llandyssul	Pontnewydd	Port Talbot
Usk	Llanelli	Pontradulais	Porthcawl
Wallasey	Llanfair Caereinion	Pontyclun	Porthmadog
Welshpool	Llanfairfechan	Pontypool	Prestatyn
Wem	Llanfyllin	Port Talbot	Pwllheli
Whitchurch	Llangefni	Porth	Queens ferry
Wirral	Llangollen Glyn Ceiriog	Porthcawl	Radyr
Wirral	Llangollen	Prenton	Rhiwbina
Wirral	Llanidloes	Prestatyn,	Rhos on Sea
Wrexham	Llanrhaeadr	Presteigne	Rhosllannerchrugog
Wrexham	Llanrwst	Rhymney	Rhyl
	Llantwit-Major	Roath park	Risca
	Ludlow	Ross-on-woye	Roath
	Machynlleth	Shotton	Rossett
	Maesteg	Shrewsbury	Ruthin
	Menai Bridge	Skewen Neath	Shotton
	Merthyr Tydfil	Swansea	Shrewsbury
	Milford Haven	Swansea	St. Asaph
	Mold	Swansea	St. Asaph
	Monmouth	Swansea	Stourport
	Montgomery	Swansea	Swansea
	Moreton	Swansea	Swansea
	Morrison	Talbot Green	Swansea
	Mountain Ash	Tenby	Swansea
	Mumbles	Swansea	Swansea
	Narberth	Tonypandy	Swansea
	Nefyn	Tonyrefail	Talbot Green
	Neston	Tregaron	Talgarth
	New port	Tumble	Tarporley
	New port	Uni swansea	Tregaron
	Newbridge	Upton Wirral	Tywyn
	Newcastle Emlyn	Welshpool	Wem
	Newport	West Kirby	Whitchurch
	Newtown	Whitchurch	Whitchurch
	Oswestry	Swansea	Wrexham
	Oswestry	Ystrad Mynach	Wrexham
	Oswestry	Ystradgynlais	
	Pembroke Dock	Pwllheli	
	Pembroke	Rhyl	
	Penarth	Wrexham	
	Penrhyndeudraeth	Wrexham	
	Penygroes	Pride Hill	
	Pontardulais		
	Pontyclun		
	Pontycymmer		
	Pontypool		
	Pontypridd		
	Port Talbot		
	Port Talbot		
	Porth		
	Porthcawl		
	Porthmadog		

			Prenton Prestatyn Presteigne Pwllheli Queensferry Rhayader Rhosllannerchrugog Rhos-on-Sea Rhyl Risca Ross-on-Wye Ruabon Ruthin Saudersfoot Shotton Sketty St Aspaph St Clears St Davids Swansea Castle Square Swansea Portland Street Swansea Tenby Tonypandy Trawsfynydd Tredegar Treharris Treorchy Tumble Tywyn Usk Valley Welshpool West Kirby Whitchurch Whitland Wrexham Wrexham Shrewsbury Shrewsbury		
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Appendix 4.2 Covering Letter

Dear Branch Manager,

Re: Ph.D. Research Questionnaire

3rd March 2007

I have the pleasure of informing you that Miss Serene Dalati is carrying out a research in **“Managerial Leadership and Organizational Culture: Empirical Evidence from the Banking Sector”** for her Ph.D project at the Bangor Business School, University of Wales, UK. I am acting as her leading supervisor.

Your branch has been selected, from among all branches operating in the sector, to take part in this study. I would be most grateful if you could take 15 minutes of your time to complete the attached questionnaire. I would like to emphasize that your participation is crucial for the success of this research. The result of this study will be presented in aggregate form, and in such a way that no single respondent can be recognized. Please note that all information gathered in this survey will be held in the strictest confidential and anonymous form, and will never be disclosed to a third party. More specifically, the gathered data will be used exclusively for academic and scientific purposes.

Miss Dalati’s questionnaire contains more details of the planned project. I would like to take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your participation.

Please do not hesitate to contact either me, or Serene on 07757319968 should you require further information.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. Azhdar Karami
Supervisor

Appendix 4.3

Managerial Leadership and Organisational Culture and Job satisfaction Questionnaire

**University of Wales, Bangor
Bangor Business School
College Rd, Bangor LL57 2DG**



PHD RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

This research is concerned with identifying managers' perceptions and attitudes towards managerial leadership and organizational culture. We would be grateful if you could take 15 minutes of your time to answer the following questions and return it in the pre-paid envelop provided, to: Miss Serene Dalati, PhD Programme, Bangor Business School, University of Wales Bangor, College Road, Bangor, LL57 2DG. Thank you for taking the time and effort for filling this questionnaire.

PERSONAL PROFILE

Name of organisation and location :

Position:

Age:

Gender: Male Female

Nationality:

How long have you worked in the Banking sector?

How long have you been employed with this company?

SECTION ONE

In your work experience you may have come across an individual/mentor, whom you admired and thought of to have an exceptional personality, leadership qualities and management skills. Please read each sentence and code the degree of agreement of how frequently this person is capable in engaging in the behaviours outlined below the scale:

Scale: 1-Strongly agree; 2-Agree; 3-Not sure; 4- Disagree; 5- Strongly disagree

Would you consider that this person: 1 2 3 4 5

1- Has the ability to idealise future goals for team members.

2-Has the ability to foresee and identify obstacles in the organisation that may impair achievement of goals.

3- Is creative and original about achieving organisational goals.

4-Engages in activities involving great effort and energy.

5-Is willing to take risk for the sake of achieving the organisational goals.

6- Has the ability to change team members' attitude to advocate a proposed vision.

- 7-Has the ability to interpret and use the knowledge of the industry trends.
- 8-Has the ability to set future oriented tasks and goals.
- 9-Has the ability to influence people to commit to the team goals.
- 10-Has the ability of being inspirational.
- 11-Focuses on performance and sets high standards of excellence.
- 12-Reviews his/her performance and action plan regularly.
- 13 Speaks in an authoritarian manner that cannot be questioned
- 14-Provides a sense of challenge and a motivating force to implement change.
- 15-Has an image of being knowledgeable.
- 16-Has a vision of future for the organisation.
- 17-Has the ability to establish a common ground of understanding with team members.
- 18-Uses simple, clear language in his/her conversation.
- 19-Has good comprehension and takes time to listen carefully to what people are saying.
- 20- Act as role-model for team members
- 21-Has the awareness of team members' cultural backgrounds and values.
- 22-Is capable of advocating and networking.
- 23- Is aware of team members' abilities and what they can contribute to the team.
- 24-Keeps all channels opened and informs the team about decisions made in order to gain their support.
- 25-Usually does not explain the rationale and justification behind the orders given.
- 26-Is sensitive to the abilities and emotional needs of team members.
- 27-Is aware of any organisational factors that may detain organisational goals.
- 28-Has the ability to sell his/her ideas in a persuasive approach.
- 29- Is not willing to take the risk to achieve organisational goals
- 30-Has the ability to communicate effectively and clearly with team members.
- 31- Is not clear about his plan and organisational goals
- 32-Works towards one collective team identity.
- 33-Maintains standards of excellence in performance.
- 34-Focuses on the personal welfare of employees.
- 35-Makes sure that his/her attitude is clear to the team.

36-Is aware of gender differences and treats team members with egalitarian approach.

SECTION TWO

In this section we outline a list of statements. These statements are not about your organisation as such, but relate to your organisational and work experience of the banking industry. Please indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with each of these statements below the scale:

Scale : 1- Strongly agree; 2- Agree; 3- Not sure; 4 – Disagree; 5 – Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5

1-In these organisations there is little concern for employees' welfare.

2-In these organisations there is high pressure to meet targets and accomplish the tasks

3-In these organisations crucial decisions are made by the people at the top.

4-In these organisations there is stress on employees' responsibilities and task structure.

5-In these organisations competition between employees is very strong.

6-In these organisations there is little concern for the employee's private life.

7-In these organisations employees have a good working relationship with their line managers.

8-In these organisations the majority of employees prefer to stay with the company until they retire.

9-In these organisations teamwork and community spirit is very high among employees.

10-In these organisations employees have time for their personal and family life.

11-In these organisations important decisions are made by teams and committees.

12-In these organisations people co-operate with each other and work openly.

13-In these organisations employees share information and communicate effectively.

14-In these organisations members are open to newcomers.

15-In these organisations communication between employees is not effective.

16-In these organisations people are closed and secretive about their work.

17-In these organisations each day brings a new different challenge to employees.

18-In these organisations meeting results is more important than processes.

19-In these organisations there is strong emphasis on meeting customer needs.

20-In these organisations employees avoid taking risks and spend little effort in their jobs.

21-In these organisations employees enjoy unfamiliar situations and tasks.

22- In these organizations mistakes are tolerated.

23- In these organisations employees are cost conscious.

24- In these organisations there is a strong emphasis on time keeping and punctuality.

25-In these organisations there is strong emphasis on strict dress code and appropriate behaviour.

26-In these organisations employees have the freedom to apply their own approach to the work.

27-In these organisations meeting times is kept flexible.

28-In these organisations employees' personality is strongly affected by the organisation norms.

29-In these organisations there is a strong division between employees' private life and their working life.

30-In these organisations job competence is the only criterion for hiring people.

31-In these organisations employees see themselves as interdependent to their teams.

32-In these organisations employees are more focused on their obligation and duties to the organisation than their attitude to the job.

33-In these organisations the emphasis is on employees shared objectives, interchangeable interests and commonalties.

34-In these organisations there is emphasis on employees' unique qualities and differences.

35-In these organisations men are more competitive than women.

36-In these organisations conflict resolution is achieved through effective communication, problem solving, and negotiation.

37-In these organisations awards and public appraisal are encouraged for excellent performance.

38-In these organisations women would be frequently seen in top level management positions.

SECTION THREE

In this section we outline a list of statements about your job. Please indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with each of these statements below the scale:

1 2 3 4 5

Scale : 1- Strongly agree; 2- Agree; 3- Not sure; 4 – Disagree; 5 – Strongly disagree

1- When I wake up in the morning I feel reluctant to go to work.

2- When I am on vacation I look forward to getting back to work.

3- Sometime I feel like leaving my job for good.

4-Sometime I feel like working right through lunch break.

5-I often feel reluctant to go home from work because I enjoy my job.

6-I often feel like going to lunch or coffee break at work sooner than I usually do.

7-Sometimes I am reluctant to leave my job to go on a vacation.

8-When I am at work I lose track of time.

9-When I am at work I experience intense focus on the task at hand.

10-When I am at work I often perform at the peak of my ability.

11- I am satisfied with my performance in general.

12- When I am at work my performance seems effortless.

13- When I am working I lose sense of myself and engage in the work.

If you would like to know about the results of the survey, please enclose your business card.
Thank you very much again for your co-operation in completing the survey.

Appendix 4.4 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Variables	N	Normal Parameters(a,b)		Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z
		Mean	Std. Deviation	
Visionary Leadership	118	1.8330	.57952	1.115
Communicative Leadership	118	2.0233	.58902	1.042
Team oriented Leadership	118	2.2080	.50513	.848
Task/People cultures	118	2.9422	.60870	.703
Open /closed communication system	117	2.0940	.66725	1.675
Loose /Tight Cultres	117	2.5271	.46473	1.055
Collective/individual cultures	118	2.9153	.39449	1.193
Job Satisfaction	118	2.6838	.54046	.533
Managerial Leadership	118	2.0214	.51336	1.040
Organisational Culture	118	10.4394	1.20735	1.348
Idealising Future Goals	118	1.63	.749	2.899
Identifying Organisational barriers	118	1.78	.775	2.835
Creative	118	1.77	.900	2.777
Energetic	118	1.84	.995	2.892
Risk Taker	118	2.35	1.187	2.632
Agent of Change	118	1.78	.775	3.111
Interpreting the Industry Trends	118	1.78	.786	3.220
Future Task Oriented Goals	118	1.64	.722	2.947
Team Commitment Influence	118	1.56	.768	3.541
Inspirational	118	1.66	.869	3.371
High Standards of Excellence	118	1.41	.719	4.168

Performance and action plan Revision	118	1.81	.837	2.725
Authoritarian manner	118	3.04	1.250	2.746
Challenge and Motivation	118	1.83	.743	2.979
Image of Knowledge	118	1.75	.849	2.864
Vision Oriented	118	1.79	.856	2.989
Unifying Element for team members	118	1.75	.730	2.664
Uses Simple/clear language	118	1.58	.733	3.363
Careful Listener	118	1.74	.831	2.796
Role model	118	1.58	.789	3.458
Aware of team members cultural background	118	2.01	.956	3.168
Advocating and Networking	118	1.75	.837	2.795
Aware of team members ability	118	1.72	.783	2.752
Informing team members about organisational decisions	118	1.90	.810	3.048
Does not explain the rationale behind orders given	118	3.92	1.091	3.650
Sensitive to the abilities and emotional needs of team	118	2.04	.881	3.154
Awareness of organisational factors impairing goals	118	2.00	.877	3.130

Has Persuasive Approach	118	1.73	.759	2.902
Is not a risk taker	118	3.26	1.284	2.727
Effective communication with team members	118	1.64	.822	2.986
Lack of clarity about his organisational goals and plans	118	4.17	1.127	3.401
Working towards one collective team identity	118	1.90	.909	2.923
Maintaining standards of excellence	118	1.66	.719	2.908
Personal welfare of employees	118	2.10	.973	2.846
Clarity of attitude to team members	118	1.69	.736	3.087
Awareness of gender differences in the team	118	2.09	1.013	2.976
Little concern for employees welfare	118	3.81	1.064	2.907
High pressure on meeting targets	117	1.50	.847	3.858
Crucial decisions made at the top	117	1.73	.953	3.229
Stress on task structure	117	1.92	.948	3.025
Competition is very strong	117	2.75	1.106	2.493
Little concern for employees' private life	117	3.26	1.226	2.234

Good working relationship with line manager	117	3.91	.934	4.046
Employees staying in company until they retire	117	3.28	1.097	2.403
Good teamwork and community spirit	117	3.77	.986	3.266
Employees have time for personal life	117	3.49	1.022	3.418
Important decisions made by teams and committees	117	3.19	1.129	2.162
Employees work and co-operate openly	117	2.24	.916	3.472
Employees share information and communicate	117	2.11	.796	3.605
Employees are open to new comers	117	1.85	.727	3.484
Ineffective communication between employees	117	2.16	.861	3.444
Employees are closed and secretive about their work	117	2.11	.898	3.352
New different tasks and challenges to employees	117	2.14	.955	3.620
Results oriented organisations	117	2.71	1.280	2.228
Stress on meeting customer needs	117	1.60	.788	3.309

Risk Avoidance and little effort	117	3.90	1.029	3.249
Unfamiliar tasks and challenging situations	117	3.13	.905	2.134
Mistakes are tolerated	117	2.62	1.057	2.515
Cost conscious organisations	117	2.53	1.063	3.498
Stress on time keeping and punctuality	117	1.95	.869	3.397
Strict dress code and appropriate behaviour	117	1.72	.849	2.984
Employees having freedom to apply their approach to work	117	3.10	1.086	2.690
Flexibility in time keeping	117	3.25	1.074	2.468
Organisation affecting employees personality	117	3.02	.991	2.098
Devison between private and professional life	117	3.15	1.103	2.226
Job competence as the only criterion	117	3.32	1.179	2.415
Collectivness in organisation	118	2.85	1.137	2.126
Employees' obligation to the organisaiton rather than work	118	2.60	1.005	3.091

Employees' shared objectives and comminalites	118	3.30	.899	2.613
Employees unique qaulities and individualities	117	2.75	1.090	2.249
Men are more competative than women	118	4.03	.920	3.102
Conflict resolution through negotiation and problem solving	117	2.32	.980	3.357
Public Appraisal for excellent performance	118	1.99	.947	3.091
Women at top level management	118	2.51	1.100	2.487
Reluctancy to go to work	118	2.13	1.106	3.351
Looking forwards to go to work after a vacation	118	3.55	1.129	2.600
Leaving my job for good	118	2.60	1.433	2.412
Working through lunch break	118	2.16	1.267	3.403
Reluctancy to go home leaving work at hand	118	3.97	.995	3.278
Going to coffeebreak/lunch sooner than usual	118	2.53	1.160	2.818
Reluctancy to go on a vacation	118	3.96	1.208	3.190
Losing track of time at work	118	2.19	1.134	3.319
Intense focus on task at work	118	2.14	.889	4.013

Performance at the peak of ability	118	2.00	.847	3.866
Satisfaction with performance	118	1.88	.818	3.701
Effortless performance	118	3.07	1.123	2.580
Losing sense of self and total engagement in the work	118	2.71	1.095	2.816

a Test distribution is Normal.

b Calculated from data.

APPENDIX 5.1 STATISTICAL METHODS USED

Bivariate Correlation Analysis

According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2000) correlation is a statistical technique which is used to describe a relationship between two variables. For example, in this study, the aim is to study the relationship between managerial leadership and organisational culture. These two variables are identified as X and Y. Correlation is classified into main categories and that is positive and negative correlations. A correlation measures the degree of relationship between two variables on a scale from 0 to 1.00.

According to Field (2005) there are two types of correlation: bivariate and partial. The bivariate correlation is a correlation between two variables; the partial correlation looks at the relationship between two variables while controlling the effect of one or more additional variables. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) Bivariate correlation analysis is different from nonparametric measures of association and regression analysis in two ways. First, parametric correlation requires two continuous variables measured on an interval or ratio scale; second the coefficient does not distinguish between independent and dependent variables. The two variables are treated symmetrically since the coefficients have the same interpretation. The Pearson correlation coefficient varies over a range of +1 through 0 to -1. Correlation coefficients reveal the magnitude and direction of the relationships. The magnitude is the degree to which variables move in agreement or apposition. The direction of the correlation tells us if large values on one variable are associated with large values of another variable. This is regarded as positive correlation.

The shape of linear relationships characterised by a straight line where as non-linear relationships have curvilinear, parabolic and compound curves. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) the first requirement for r is linearity. The second assumption for correlation is a Bivariate normal distribution where the two variables are normally distributed in a joint manner.

Simple Regression Analysis

According to Zikmund (1991) regression analysis is a technique for measuring a linear relation between a dependent and independent variables. Regression analysis assumes that the dependent variable, Y , is linked to the independent or predictor variable X . The regression analysis predicts the values of a continuous, interval- scaled dependent variable from the specific value of the independent variables. The bivariate linear regression investigate a straight line relationship of the type $Y = a + \beta X$, where Y is the dependent variable and X is the independent variable and, a and β are two constants to be estimated. The symbol a represents the Y intercept

In this research study, the proposition is that the level of job satisfaction (dependent variable) of midlevel managers in the selected study can be predicted on basis of their perception of managerial leadership behaviours (independent variable). The regression analysis was conducted between managerial leadership and job satisfaction to study the causality relationship between the variables. The argument is that manager's perception of managerial leadership has an influence on their satisfaction at work. In other words,

managers who have positive perception of visionary, communicative and team-oriented leadership are predicted to be more satisfied and happier at work than those who do not.

Pearson correlation

The formula for calculating Pearson's r is

$$R = \frac{\Sigma (x - \bar{x}) (y - \bar{y})}{(N-1) S_x S_y}$$

Where

N = the number of pairs of cases

S_x, S_y = the standard deviation for X and Y

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

The One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test procedure compares the observed cumulative distribution function for a variable with a specified theoretical distribution, which may be normal, uniform, Poisson, or exponential. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z is computed from the largest difference (in absolute value) between the observed and theoretical cumulative distribution functions. This goodness-of-fit test tests whether the observations could reasonably have come from the specified distribution.

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