The Relationship between the Full Range of Leadership Styles and Employees’ Creative Performance in Civil Service Organizations: A Field Study of Omani Civil Service Managers

A thesis submitted to The University of Manchester for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Development Policy and Management in the Faculty of Humanities

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By

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<td>FRL</td>
<td>Full Range of Leadership</td>
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<td>IIA</td>
<td>Idealized Influence Attributed</td>
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<td>IM</td>
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<td>LF</td>
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<td>MBEA</td>
<td>Management-By-Exception (Active)</td>
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<td>MBEP</td>
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<td>MLQ</td>
<td>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire</td>
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<tr>
<td>PBUH</td>
<td>Peace Be Upon Him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Doctor of Philosophy</td>
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<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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(Number of words = 86,634 words)
Abstract

The study’s primary research interest is in the area of leadership and creativity. Investigating the literature indicates that there is a gap in knowledge regarding the effect of the Full Range of Leadership styles, especially the influence of transformational leadership on employees’ creative performance. Examining this relationship in different sectors (for example: public government sector); in different cultures (for example: Arab Islamic culture); and from multi-perspectives (for example: leaders and employees) is strongly encouraged by research. The Omani civil service sector was used as a case study, thus the aim of the study was to investigate the degree to which Omani civil service managers practised the Full Range of Leadership styles to influence employees’ creative performance.

The study set six objectives which provided the foundation for the structure of the study and the way its research questions were formulated. Accordingly, the study methodology was designed in a way that points towards the achievement of the study objectives. The study adopted a mixed-methods research approach by combining survey questionnaires with semi-structured interviews. This triangulation technique was utilized to enable more accurate investigation and allow in-depth coverage of the issues examined. The probability sampling method as represented by the random sampling technique was adopted for this study and applied to the two groups of managers and employees. The total size of the managers’ sample was 269 participants, while the employees’ sample was 371 participants. In addition, 15 semi-structured interviews were conducted to supplement the quantitative results.

The results of this study show that the Omani managers are performing both transformational and transactional leadership styles. Examining the relationship, the study confirms that there is an overall statistically significant relationship between managers’ use of transformational and transactional leadership styles and employees’ creative performance from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives. The results also reveal that Omani managers are infrequently practicing passive/avoidant leadership style and that this style does not contribute to the employees’ creative performance. Further, the study demonstrate that Omani managers’ personal characteristics have a slight effect on managers’ perceptions towards transformational leadership styles and do not have any impact on their perceptions toward employees’ creative performance.

Finally, this study contributed to knowledge in several areas where scholars who are interested in investigating the relationship between leadership and creativity will find it valuable.
Declaration

No portion of the work referred to in the thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

Signed………………………….

Date:
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Acknowledgement

I am grateful to Allah, the Almighty, for having given me the strength, blessings, patience and success in completing this study.

A special word of thanks and sincere appreciation is extended to my parents, wife and children whose warmth and affection have had a great impact on my life as a whole. I am truly indebted to them for their love, support and encouragement. I realize I could not have come this far without their love, patience and understanding.

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Finally, I truly appreciate and wish to acknowledge the government of Oman as represented in the Ministry of Higher Education for the scholarship award which has enabled me to pursue my PhD degree. I hope that this study will contribute to the process of development that is being undertaken in Oman.
Dedication

I would like to dedicate this piece of work to myself. Because I strongly believe that if I do not love myself, I cannot love others. Also, I am eternally grateful to my parents who instilled in me the importance of patience, persistence and never giving up until the goal is accomplished.

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Research Background
In a dynamic and changeable world of global competition, incorporating an on-going knowledge revolution and rapid change in communications and technologies, organizations face a pressing need to be competitive in an changeable environment. Regardless of their activities, the work environment of both private and public organizations has become more unpredictable due to ever-changing challenges and threats (Kottler, 1982, and Egan, 2005). In order to survive, compete, grow, and lead, organizations increasingly aspire to become more creative. According to Egan (2005:161), the development of creativity within organizations “is a necessity, not an option, for most organizations interested in responding to: (a) advancing technology; (b) a changing environment; (c) changing organizational structures or strategies; (d) overcoming competitors that improve their products, processes, and services; (e) evolving customer desires; and (f) evolving societies influenced increasingly by global issues and diversity”

Many writers emphasize leadership as having a significant effect on overall organizational innovation as well as employees’ creativity in the workplace (Pieterse et al., 2010; Oke et al., 2009; Jaskyte and Kisieliene, 2006; Politis, 2004; Jung, 2001; Kim, 2001; Tierney et al., 1999; and Redmond, et al., 1993). Indeed, by encouraging employee creativity, leadership will develop organizational innovation overall. Specific leadership behaviours can influence employees’ perceptions of their work environment, which, in turn, can inspire their creativity (Amabile, et al., 2004). Studies have shown that among the specific leadership behaviours to have a significant effect on employee creativity are: supporting employees to articulate their opinions; providing feedback and autonomy; giving high levels of social support; expressing concern for employees’ feelings; balancing employees’ freedom and responsibility; and assisting skill development (Amabile et al., 2004; Broeder, 2006; and Oldham and Cummings, 1996).

In its report addressing the release of human potential for a better public sector, a United Nations Report demonstrated the critical position that leadership plays in developing the public sector. It emphasizes this by stating that:

A leadership style based on command and control is no longer suited for effective public sector management. Instead, leaders are increasingly judged by their ability to motivate and
bring out the best in staff ... the complexity of challenges in the public sector is requiring new leadership skills of senior civil servants (United Nations Publication, 2005:16).

These new leadership skills should influence managers to set up a creative work environment by establishing an appropriate organizational structure, climate, and culture and by developing human resources.

In Oman, the development of human resources has gained a lot of attention in recent years. Like other countries in the Arab Gulf states, Oman today is undergoing vast and essential changes, economically, administratively, politically, and technologically, in order to meet the needs of a changing society. The commercial export of oil started to bring in windfall gains in revenues and hard currency earnings; therefore, there was no acute shortage of finance to help feed the development process. However, finance alone cannot generate success. Difficulties associated with converting monetary resources into productive human resources have been a challenging obstacle in the path of achievement. In fact, the oil revenue which poured into the country’s treasury brought wealth to a country which had no practical administrative experience with which to manage it (At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza, 1996).

In July 1970 the Sultanate of Oman saw the emergence of a new and visionary leader, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said, who was open to experience rather than relying solely on tradition. As soon as the country was subject to widely effective and coherent control, and with positive ambition of its new leadership, the state bureaucracy became dynamic and stood at the centre of the governmental process where it enjoys a monopolistic position in both the policy-making process and policy implementation (Mujtaba et al., 2010).

This bureaucracy has been the main drive of change and development in the country. The government is continually establishing a variety of organizations for planning, executing, and controlling development in education, welfare programmes, agriculture, industry, public enterprises, and public administration generally. Consequently, it is not only involved in creating organizations, but is also interested in ascertaining ways and means of improving and institutionalizing both the already existing, and the newly created organizations. The government’s aim is to make such organizations effective instruments and to be the main vehicle of deliberate social change and development (Mujtaba et al., 2010).

During the last four decades, Oman’s administrative system has gained enormous power and authority due to the expansion and large growth in its role, size, resources, and allocation.
The scope of administrative actions has been expanded and has become both more difficult and complex, in order to cope with a variety of emerging administrative demands. As a consequence, the number and functional coverage of administrative organizations has had to be increased. The adoption of the policy of transforming the public service from an institution loosely structured and created primarily for ensuring control to one that is responsible for stimulating rapid socio-economic change has led to the very rapid expansion of the Sultanate’s public sector, far exceeding beyond traditional confines. The country has witnessed a very extensive growth in the number of civil service employees recruited to manage and direct these emerging agencies. The principles of administrative reform and policy change were triggered or inspired by developmental needs (Mujtaba et al., 2010).

At the end of the first phase of the country’s development plans (1970–1995), Oman set out its 2020 vision, outlining the country’s economic and social goals over the 25 years of the second phase of the development process (1996–2020). In practice, it will be difficult for the 2020 vision to be achieved without a significant contribution from the public sector. However, for the public sector to make any significant contribution, it needs to operate outside the traditional bureaucratic mindset and become more creative. To achieve this aim, the 2020 vision emphasizes the importance of developing Omani human resources skills and competences for those working in the public sector. The government in practice aims to translate this vision into long-term strategies and development plans. It is preparing an improvement in government employees’ skills, enhance their abilities to achieve their maximum performance, and inspire their creative attitudes (Ministry of National Economy, 2010).

Indeed, creativity is one of the core skills that has been emphasized by His Majesty Sultan Qaboos in many of his speeches. In his speech before the convening of the annual session of the Council of Oman in 2008, the theme of improving employees’ creativity was significant. He said: “Giving attention to human resources, including the provision of the various tools required for enhancing their performance, developing their capabilities, diversifying their creative talents and improving their scientific and practical qualifications, is the basis of real development and the cornerstone in its structure which is based on solid foundations. The human element is the maker of a renaissance and the builder of a civilization” (Ministry of Information, 2008).
Additionally, His Majesty, the Sultan, re-emphasized his pledge to build an environment that encourages creative performance, especially for youths, in his speech at the opening of the Majlis Oman in 2011. He said: “The forthcoming stage will witness, with God’s will, more attention and greater care to provide more opportunities for the youth in order to consolidate their gain in knowledge, strengthen their talents in creation and production and increase their participation in the comprehensive development march” (Ministry of Information, 2011).

Therefore, to enhance employees’ creativity within the Omani workplaces, civil service sector organizations should look at the development of conditions that encourage creativity within their working environment as a long-term process rather than a quick fix to their current problems. Scholars such as Amabile et al., (1996), Mumford et al., (2002), and Politis (2004) emphasize that leadership is a crucial factor that influences overall creativity and innovation. Therefore, there must be a dynamic interaction between leadership and creativity in a way that supports, encourages, and energizes the perceptions and behaviours of employees who influence the creative work environment. Thus, considering the role of the leader in enhancing employees’ creativity, the interrelationship between leadership and employees’ creativity in the Omani civil services sector should be examined.

In fact, creativity is a complex process that demands great personal involvement from employees, especially given that most creative ideas are likely to fail. Notably, even successful ideas often require a substantial investment in time and money before returns can be realized and it becomes a successful innovation (Broeder, 2006). However, there is a difference between creativity and innovation. Oldham and Cummings (1996) attempted to distinguish between the meaning of creativity and innovation. They state that creativity is the production of novel and useful ideas, while innovation is the successful implementation of creative ideas within an organization. Thus, creativity is at the individual level, while innovation is at the organizational level.

Indeed, individuals are the ultimate source of any new idea and provide the foundation for organizational innovation (Redmond et al., 1993). According to Shalley and Gilson (2004), creative employees produce new and useful ideas about organizational products, practices, or procedures. Creative employees are those who tend to identify opportunities for new products (i.e. goods and services). Further, Oldham and Cummings (1996), state that employees may find new uses for existing methods or equipment, or generate novel but practical work-related ideas.
These people are more likely not just to propose creative solutions to problems and champion ideas to others, but also to develop adequate plans for the implementation of new ideas and serve as role models to the rest of the people in the organization.

While the capability of an organization to become more creative must start at the level of the individual, individual creativity in itself is not enough. A vital, often ignored, component of creativity is the creativity that occurs at the organizational level (Andriopoulos, 2001).

At the organizational level, in order to remain competitive, organizations must develop and introduce new products or services to external markets. However, they must also innovate within their organizational boundaries, focusing internally to improve the efficiency of the ways in which inputs become outputs, value is created, and work is completed (Oldham and Cummings, 1996). Empirical studies such as Jaskyte and Kisieliene (2006) and Politis (2005) argued that there is a need for organizations to create the organizational contexts that are most supportive of idea generation and creative thinking. Furthermore, researchers indicate that rewards and bonuses (Amabile et al., 1996) and goal setting and the evaluation of new ideas (Egan, 2005) are necessary to encourage employees’ creativity and thus influence organizational innovation. According to Andriopoulos (2001) there are several key factors that affect organizational creativity. Among these factors are organizational climate, organizational culture, resources and skills, the structure and systems of an organization, and leadership style.

In point of fact, existing academic literature has documented the importance of perceived leader support for subordinate creativity (Mumford et al., 2002; Jung, 2001; and Redmond et al., 1993), but which leadership style best supports this creativity?

Scholars such as Politis (2004), Pieterse et al., (2010), and Leithwood and Sun (2012) have argued that Bass’s (1995) transformational leadership style appears to be the most effective leadership approach for enhancing employees’ creativity. However, between 1985 and 1995 Bass’s theory was expanded to denote three types of leadership style – transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership – and is referred to as the Full Range of Leadership model (Antonakis et al., 2003; and Bennett, 2009).

The literature addresses empirical evidence regarding the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance. Studies such as Church and Waclawski (2011) and Howell and Higgins (1990) indicate that transformational leaders put greater emphasis on creativity than transactional leaders. Further, a field study conducted with
230 employees in a government agency in the Netherlands combining multisource ratings showed that transformational leadership is positively related to creative performance only when psychological empowerment is high, whereas transactional leadership has a negative relationship with creative performance (Pieterse et al., 2010).

Although the effectiveness of transformational leadership over transactional leadership in stimulating employees’ creative performance, a few studies that investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ creative performance found very mixed results. For instance, a study done by Basu and Green (1997) found a negative relationship, whereas a study conducted by Boerner et al., (2007) found a positive effect, and a third study did not find any effects (Moss and Ritossa, 2007). Further, transactional leadership has not been related to employees’ creative performance in previous research (Boerner et al., 2007, and Moss and Ritossa, 2007). Therefore, the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance needs to be investigated further to add to the knowledge and enrich the leadership/creativity literature.

1.2 The Statement of Research Problem

Despite, literature confirms that leadership is recognized to be one of the most important factors that affect organizational creativity (Andriopoulos, 2001, and Wang Casimir, 2007), studies such as Amabile et al., (2004), Mumford et al., (2002), and Pieterse et al., (2010) emphasize the importance of examining this relationship in different cultures and in various fields. In Oman, Dorfman and House (2004) verify that leadership research studies are scarce due to the inherent difficulty of conducting organizational research. This conclusion is also supported by Common (2011) who argues that there are only a small number of studies of the concept of leadership in Oman and that the area needs more investigation.

Investigating Omani studies from many different sources demonstrates a lack of studies that specifically examine the influence of leadership on employees’ creativity. One of the few studies that has been carried out in Oman is that by Tabook (2001). The study examined the role of administrative leadership in the development of organizations in Oman’s civil service sector. The study investigated 299 administrators. The results suggest that job descriptions, organizational factors (such as the decision-making process), methods of technology, financial
resources, legislation, and regulations all affected administrative leaders participating in the study in achieving organizational development.

Another study was conducted by Al-Mandhri (2003). It focused on studying leadership practices in basic education schools in Oman, from the point of view of 202 school assistant principals and 405 senior teachers. The study suggested that the application of the requirements of basic education needed leaders because of their creative abilities. Additionally, Al-Harmi’s study (2003) focused on creative processes and techniques and their obstacles in higher level schools in Oman. The study found that one of the most important obstacles that creativity in the field of management education face is the managers’ weakness in supporting employees to search for new ways to solve their daily problems. Furthermore, research carried out by Al-Kalbany (2007) explored the relationship between leadership and creativity. The study aimed to examine the relationship between leadership patterns and the level of administrative creativity in headmistresses in general education schools in Oman. The study indicated that there is a positive correlation between the leadership patterns (authoritative pattern–democratic pattern–indulgent pattern) and the level of administrative creativity. Moreover, Analoui et al., (2010) conducted a study exploring the factors which influence the effectiveness of senior management in the Muscat (the capital of Oman) Municipality. The study confirmed that Omani senior managers working in Muscat Municipality are exhibit a transactional leadership style more than transformational leadership style and suggested that the Municipality needs to establish a learning environment to foster transformational leadership. In addition, Mujtaba et al., (2010) conducted a study to examine the leadership tendencies of government employees in Oman toward task or relationship orientation based on age and gender. The study investigated 129 Omani government employees and found that gender and age did not produce any statistically significant differences in their perception toward leadership style regarding task or relationship orientation. Furthermore, an unpublished thesis by Al-Asmi (2008) examined the perceptions of 246 Omani middle managers and 932 subordinates. The research determines the degree of effectiveness of Omani civil service managers in directing practices. Interestingly, the research empirically illustrated that there is a significant relationship between leadership and employees’ creativity and that a considerable relationship developed through providing suitable work conditions. Nevertheless, the study concluded that to some extent the Omani middle managers lacked the qualifications and the necessary skills to enhance creativity among their employees.
This finding is supported by interviews conducted with Omani director general managers, in which one stated clearly that Omani managers lack creative skills, initiative, and the ability to use scientific methods. Al-Asmi (2008) also emphasized that few Omani empirical studies have systematically investigated the possibility of encouraging employees’ creativity. Shortly, it can be concluded from reviewing these Omani studies that most of those researchers examined leadership and creativity separately (for example, Tabook, 2001, and Al-Mandhri, 2003); used a different leadership model to the Full Range of Leadership model (for example, Al-Kalbany, 2007; Al-Asmi, 2008; and Mujtaba et al., 2010); studied the creative process, but not the behaviours (for example, Al-Harmi, 2003); or were carried out in a specific field (for example, Al-Mandhri, 2003, and Analoui et al., 2010).

Thus, due to the paucity of research in general and the absence of any comprehensive study situated in Oman of the relationship between leadership and creativity, this study aims to fill this particular Omani knowledge gap and identify the degree to which Omani middle-level managers demonstrate the Full Range of Leadership types. It also investigates the nature and extent of the relationship between the model styles and employees’ creative performance in the Omani civil service sector. In other words, this study aims to answer the following questions: To what extent do Oman managers in the Omani civil service sector demonstrate transformational leadership style to influence the employees’ creative performance?

1.3 The Rationale for the Study

Acknowledging the background and the statement of the problem discussion, this section illustrates the justification for embarking on this research. It shows the gaps that the study attempts to fill and the significant contributions of the study.

As is evident from the previous section, the relationship between leadership and creativity has been studied; however, a very limited research has investigated the relationship between specific leadership styles, such as transformational and transactional leadership, and their influence on employees’ creativity (for example: Amabile et al., 2004; Mumford et al., 2002)

In a global context, studies have indicated that leadership behaviour is one of the most significant elements that enhance employees’ creativity, while in particular a leaders’ behaviour
both directly and indirectly inspires employees’ creative performance through the impact of their behaviour on the perceived work climate for creativity (Amabile, 1997; Dunegan et al., 1992; and Scott and Bruce, 1994). However, empirical research carried out by Pieterse et al., (2010) argues that studies that examine the role of transformational leadership in inspiring employees’ creativity are inadequate and inconsistent. While some studies found positive effects in the leadership–creativity relationship, others found negative effects. For example, a study conducted by Jaussi and Dionne (2003) point out that transformational leadership does not relate to the individual creative performance of the participating students. On the other hand, Shin and Zhou (2003) found in research carried out on 260 research-and-development employees and their leaders from 46 Korean companies that employees exhibit more creativity under transformational leadership. Apparently, this contradiction in these two studies might have occurred because of the variation in the design of the studies. There were a number of factors involved in terms of the different designs of the two studies (experimental and real workplace), the different contexts they were conducted in (the U.S. and South Korea), and the different samples used (students and employees), which might have resulted in the different findings. Thus, Mumford and Licuanan (2004) argue that more studies should carry out investigations in real settings, to find out whether leadership positively affects employees’ creativity and thus enhances overall organizational innovation. Obviously it seems that there is still a gap in knowledge regarding the effect of the Full Range of Leadership styles, especially the influence of transformational leadership on employees’ creative performance. Redmond et al., (1993) as well as Tierney et al., (1999) concluded that this study area has received little attention and needs a further and deeper investigation. This study will systematically examine the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance in the civil service sector using Oman as a case study.

Similarly, this study attempts to fill an existing gap in the Omani (and wider) literature. As illustrated earlier in the background section, the topic of leadership and its relationship to creativity in the Omani context has received very little attention and many scholars have recommended a further and more comprehensive investigation. Therefore, what sets this study apart from others is that it intensively explores the role of the Full Range of Leadership model in stimulating Omani employees’ creative performance in the Omani civil service environment.
Indeed, the study extended the scope of exploration to include samples from several governmental sectors such as health, manpower, finance, and tourism.

Clearly, the study aims to assist Omani managers’ leadership style based on the Full Range model, which includes transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles. The study will also evaluate the Omani employees’ creative performance level. Omani practitioners and decision makers who are interested in developing leadership and creativity within their organizations as a cornerstone for organizational innovation may find the results of this study useful, and it will enrich their agenda in designing development programmes. According to Yukl (2009), as the need for new leadership skills and competencies increases, leadership training and development programmes are becoming more important than ever before. Hence, the results of this study will help to lay the foundation for civil service policy makers in designing leadership-training-and-development programmes for Omani managers to develop their transformational and transactional leadership behaviours.

Certainly, organizations today rely on talented employees – those who are valuable to organizations and can make a difference. According to Govaerts et al., (2011), talented employees are those employees with the potential to fulfil an executive function within their organizations. Further Govaerts et al., (2011) illustrate that creativity and leadership skills are recognized to be two of the core characteristics that distinguish those talented employees. Therefore, the study will identify the sort of leadership style for Omani managers that would benefit employees’ level of creativity; thus government administrations could utilize the findings of this study to enhance the development of their organization’s human resource management. For instance, measuring the managers’ transformational leadership style provides the basis for developers to understand which transformational leadership behaviours need to be recognized as behaviours that influence Omani employees’ creativity. The study results could also encourage government organizations to promote the selection process. The recruiting process criteria could include leadership behaviours that inspire Omani employees’ creativity, which would also set the foundation for building the future Omani transformational leaders in organizations. In addition, Amabile et al., (1996) argue that leaders who seek to foster creativity and innovation within their organizations should not only concentrate on paying attention to what sort of individuals they hire, or place emphasis on training their employees in creative skills, but should also focus on developing an environment that enhances the climate for creativity. Accordingly, that will help
to attract new talented people and will also help to retain the current creative individuals. Therefore, the study will recommend ways to improve the Omani organizational culture that encourage creativity within their work environment, in order to capitalize on the benefits of creativity to successfully compete in today’s competitive work environment.

Another gap to be acknowledged is that most of the recent studies, such as Chen et al., (2007) and Jung et al., (2003), have investigated the leadership and creativity relationship from a single perspective (managers or employees) and used a single research method (quantitative or qualitative). In contrast, this study attempts to close this gap by examining the relationship from two perspectives and employing two different research methods. The study will evaluate the degree to which Omani managers demonstrate Full Range of Leadership styles from managers’ opinions as a self-assessment and from employees’ views as a subordinate assessment. In addition, employees will evaluate their creative performance as a self-assessment and the degree to which their managers practise Full Range of Leadership types as a subordinate assessment. In terms of methodology, this study will employ a mixed-methods research approach. The triangulation of survey and interview methods of data collection with the analysis of documentary data will greatly enrich the analysis, and add to the reliability of the findings. This approach will also allow a more sophisticated understanding of the complex interplay between the various factors of leadership and creativity phenomena. The interviews conducted provided useful in-depth information and explanations for the results obtained from the questionnaire so give the analysis strength and the findings extra reliability.

Furthermore, this study aims to bridge a gap in the knowledge, as the majority of studies exploring the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model – or even more specifically, transformational and transactional leadership styles – and employees’ creative performance, are conducted in the business sector. Consistent with Wart (2003), leaders in public sector organizations may adopt different behaviours in comparison with leaders in private sector organizations because these organizations afford their managers different amounts of discretion. Hence, scholars such as Ackerley (2006), suggest that this relationship should be examined with different samples, such as government leaders and administrators. Therefore, one of the strengths of this study is that it investigates the relationship in the Omani work climate, which is characterized by a specific environment, namely in civil service organizations run by the
government in the Sultanate of Oman where the organizational systems, regulations, and culture are different from those in the private sector.

Besides, the absence of a representation of the Omani culture in every sense of the differences and similarities ensures that this research provides valuable material for the general literature on the subject of leadership and creativity. Literature such as Bolden and Kirk (2009) documented that culture has a significant effect on leadership behaviour. Actually, leadership behaviour must reflect the culture in which it is found. For example, different leadership models would be expected to occur in societies that have different cultural profiles. In some cultures, one might need to take strong decisive action in order to be seen as a leader, whereas in other cultures a leader should participate in consultation and democratic approaches. Therefore, leadership styles differ among individuals as well as cultures and countries (Hofstede, 1993; Wildrom et al., 1999; and Jones et al., 2003). Acknowledging that, Common (2011) mentioned that there are few studies of the concept of leadership in the Arab Gulf states in general, and the Sultanate of Oman in particular, and that the area needs more attention. This conclusion is also supported by Dorfman and House (2004), who argue that leadership studies in Oman are almost non-existent due to the inherent difficulty of conducting organizational research.

Most empirical evidence on the effects of the Full Range of Leadership model and in particular transformational leadership has been confined to the Western world, and very little research has looked at the developing world. This study therefore continues and extends this line of inquiry by examining the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance in Oman. The expected results will confirm Bass’s claims (1985 and 1998) about the universality of the transformational and transactional leadership paradigm across different nations and societies. Bass suggests that the same conception of phenomena and relationships can be observed in a wide range of organizations and cultures in different parts of the world. He argues that when exceptions to the generalizations occur, they are usually circumstances explained by the peculiarities of the organizations and cultures.

Moreover, Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) state that leadership attributes in Middle Eastern societies carry many common characteristics as well as some unique culture-specific attributes. Therefore, this study theoretically will attempt to fill another gap in the Omani literature as well as globally by examining a body of literature that investigates the various perspectives from some theorists and writers concerning the Omani leadership style. The study
will focus on understanding the factors that shape the Omani leadership style to enrich the leadership literature.

1.4 Research Aim and Objectives
The study’s primary research interest is in the area of leadership and creativity. The aim is to investigate the extent to which Omani civil service managers practise the Full Range of Leadership model to enhance employees’ creative performance. To achieve this aim, this study specifically has the following research objectives:
1. To determine to what degree Omani civil service sector managers demonstrate the variables measured by the Full Range of Leadership model.
2. To identify the relative significance of the components of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours of Omani managers.
3. To explore the extent to which employees working in the Omani civil service sector are performing in a creative way.
4. To examine the relationships between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance.
5. To assess the effect of transformational and transactional leadership components on employees’ creative performance.
6. To investigate the extent to which managers’ perceptions toward employees’ creative performance are influenced by their personal characteristics.

1.5 Research Questions
Based on the above objectives, a number of research questions have been formulated, as follows:

RQ1: To what extent do managers and employees in the Omani civil service sector perceive that Omani managers demonstrate the three types of the Full Range of Leadership model, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership? To what extent do they differ in their perceptions and what is the magnitude of the mean differences?
RQ2: What is the relative significance of the components of transformational and transactional leadership of Omani managers from both the managers’ and employees’ perspectives?
RQ3: To what degree do managers and employees think that employees working in the Omani civil service sector are creative? And to what extent do they differ in their perceptions of employees’ creative performance?

RQ4: Is there a relationship between the Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creative performance?

RQ5: What is the effect of transformational and transactional leadership components on employees’ creative performance?

RQ6: To what extent are managers’ perceptions of their own transformational leadership and their perceptions of employees’ creative performance influenced by their personal characteristics?

1.6 Organization of the Study

This study is structured into nine chapters. The first chapter presents the introduction of the thesis. The chapter sets out the research background, illustrates the statement of the research problem and explains the rationale for conducting this study. The chapter highlights the research aim, objectives, and questions. Finally, the chapter ends by outlining the organization of the whole thesis.

Chapter Two analyses the literature review related to the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance. The chapter is divided into three parts. Part one reviews the leadership concept and theories of its historical evolution. It also discusses the Full Range model and its components. In part two the evolution of the creativity concept is illustrated considering theories which relate to both individual and organizational creativity. The third part demonstrates the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance.

Chapter Three considers the unique context of Omani culture and attempts to discuss and elaborate on factors that shape leadership in Oman’s civil service sector. This chapter starts by giving an overview of the Omani context, such as location, population, religion, economy, and human resources. Then the chapter reveals factors that affect and shape the leadership style of managers in Oman’s civil service, considering five factors: Islamic religion, tribalism, influence of political leadership, national culture, and the effect of national institutions.
Chapter Four displays the analytical framework for this study, which has been developed by synthesizing concepts from leadership theory and organizational creativity theory. The framework concentrated on addressing the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creative performance.

Chapter Five discusses the research methodology. The study follows and adopts the research layers of Saunders et al., (2012) as a methodological framework. The contents of the framework layers for the research are: philosophies, approaches, strategies, choice of method(s), time horizons, and techniques and procedures. The chapter also demonstrates the study population and sample. It further describes procedures undertaken in developing the study instruments and procedures of data collection. Finally it exhibits the study data analysis strategy.

Chapter Six presents the descriptive results analysis for the quantitative data that were collected. The descriptive analyses are divided into four sections. The first section illustrates the personal characteristics of the study’s respondents, and the second section shows the respondents’ perceptions toward the Full Range of Leadership styles. The third section displays the respondents’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours, and the last section reveals the respondents’ perceptions toward employees’ creative performance.

Chapter Seven displays the results and analysis for the qualitative data collected. It is divided into three sections: the first section analyses the interview results that show the extent to which Omani managers perform Full Range of Leadership types. The second section investigates the interviews that demonstrate the extent to which Omani employees perform in creative ways, and the last section presents suggestions for enhancement of leaders’ behaviours that encourage employees’ creative performance.

Chapter Eight presents the overall study’s results and discussion. The chapter is organized to answer the six study questions, and it is divided into six sections. The first section looks at the perceptions of managers and employees toward the components of the Full Range of Leadership styles. The second section demonstrates the different perceptions of managers and employees regarding transformational leadership behaviours. In the third section the data reveals the perceptions of managers and employees toward employees’ creative performance. The fourth section presents the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance. The fifth section displays the effect of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours on employees’ creative performance. The sixth section shows the effect of
managers’ personal characteristics on their perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours and employees’ creative performance.

Chapter Nine contains the conclusion of the study. It is devoted to summarizing the study’s major findings and conclusion, illustrates the study’s contribution to knowledge, and presents the practical implications of the study. Additionally, the chapter reveals the limitations of the study and proposes directions for future researches.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter has set out the foundation for the study which primarily investigates the relationship between leadership – specifically the Full Range of Leadership model – and employees’ creative performance. The chapter sets out the research background and illustrates the statement of the research problem. It also, explains the rationale for conducting this study. The chapter highlights the research aim, objectives, and questions. Finally, the chapter ends by outlining the organization of the whole thesis.
Chapter Two: The Relationship between the Full Range of Leadership Model and Employees’ Creative Performance

2.1 Introduction

As indicated in chapter one, this research attempts to fill a void in the discussion of how managers’ leadership styles influence employees to stimulate their creative performance in public organizations, particularly in developing countries where environmental variables or national contexts have a strong impact on leadership styles.

Since the study aims to determine the degree to which Omani civil service managers practise the Full Range of Leadership styles to enhance employees’ creative performance, three interrelated issues need to be addressed to meet these aims: 1) historical evolution of theories of leadership emphasized in the Full Range of Leadership model; 2) historical development of creativity theories focusing on an individual creativity model; and 3) the interrelationships between the issues 1 and 2. Therefore, the chapter is structured into these main areas of interest. In the first part, the chapter examines the leadership concept and its historical evolution theories. It concentrates on the Full Range of Leadership model and its components as a new leadership approach. In part two the chapter reveals the evolution of the creativity concept. It highlights individual creativity theories and discusses employees’ creative performance. In the third part, the chapter demonstrates the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance.

2.2 Part One: The Historical Evolution of Leadership

2.2.1 Overview of the Leadership Concept

The leadership phenomenon is recognized as being the most extensively researched social process known to behavioural science, because it is believed that leadership plays a crucial role in organizations through a direct influence on individuals and groups within those organizations (Yukl, 2008).

Leadership is a difficult concept to define. Taylor (1994) argues that the literature has shown no one definition, list of descriptors, or theoretical model that provides a complete picture of either the theory or practice of leadership. Further, Yukl (2008) suggests that despite the fact
that many definitions have been offered, no one particular definition captures the essence of leadership. Bass (1999) claims that the definition of leadership should depend on the purposes to be served by the definition. According to Burns (1978), leadership is identified as the ability to inspire followers to attempt to accomplish goals that represent the values, motivations, wants, needs, aspirations, and expectations of both leaders and followers. Additionally, Schein (1992) indicates that leadership is the ability to operate outside of the existing culture to start an evolutionary change processes.

Other scholars such as Bass and Bass (2008) attempted to describe leadership in broader terms. They mentioned that the definition of leadership involves a number of assumptions and understandings from both empirical and conceptual sources. Leadership: (a) exists within social relationships and serves social ends; (b) involves purpose and direction; (c) is an influence process; (d) is a function; and (e) is contextual and contingent. Therefore, leadership involves those who work with others to provide direction and who exert influence on persons and things in order to achieve the organization’s goals.

Leadership is also defined in terms of a process of social influence, whereby a leader influences members of a group towards a goal (Bryman, 1992). In his definition Bryman tends to emphasize three main elements of leadership: influence, group, and goal. Northouse (2012) extended Bryman’s leadership elements and identifies four main components central to the definition of leadership: (a) leadership is a process; (b) leadership involves influence; (c) leadership occurs in groups; and (d) leadership involves common goals.

Therefore, referring to leadership as a process it is not a trait or characteristics that reside in the leader. It means that a leader affects, and is affected by followers. It emphasizes that leadership is an interactive event occurring between the leaders and their followers. Therefore, leadership is concerned with how the leader affects followers, and thus involves influence. Obviously, those definitions want to illustrate that without influences, leadership does not exist.

Besides, Northouse (2012) points out that leadership is a phenomenon that occurs in groups. Groups are the context in which leadership takes place. Thus, leadership is basically about one individual who influences a group of others to accomplish common goals. Therefore, both leaders and followers are involved together in the leadership process. That is why it is common to say that leaders need followers, and followers need leaders. In fact, it is a transactional event that occurs between the leader and the followers. Although leaders and
followers are closely linked, it is the leader who often initiates the relationship, creates the communication linkages, and carries the burden for maintaining the relationship (Bryman, 1992).

Briefly, after a careful revision of the extensive variety of conceptualisations of leadership available in the literature, the crucial elements of leadership are best represented in Northouse’s definition (2012:6), where leadership is defined as a “process whereby an individual motivates a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”.

This definition raises the following question: What are the leadership characteristics that enable an individual to influence others to unite for a common purpose? This question can best be answered by gaining a better understanding of the historical evolution of leadership and the theoretical paradigms in which leadership has been studied. With this in mind, the next sections will discuss the development of leadership theories, from the traditional leadership theories of the mid-1800s and leading to the more modern paradigm of transformational/transactional leadership theory.

2.2.2 Historical Evolution of Leadership Theories

Since the early 1800s researchers have attempted to develop different research approaches to analyse the construct of leadership and its relationship with motivating others to greater productivity. The next section focuses on five of the main organizational leadership theories that have been developed over time. These theories are the great-man theory, the trait theory, the behavioural approach, the situational approach, and the integrative approach.

2.2.2.1 Great-Man Theory

In the early nineteenth century, great-man theory was popular and focused on great leaders who helped to change and shape world events. Those great leaders or heroes were highly influential individuals due to their personal charisma, intelligence, or wisdom, and they utilized this power in a way that had a decisive historical impact. The theory assumes that leaders are born and not made. Thus, the capacity of the leader is inherent and there is not much you can do about it. The great-man theory believes that those great leaders possessed specific traits or characteristics that enabled them to stand out from others, to attract the necessary followers, to set direction, and to be strong leaders in their time. These theories evolved and were the natural forerunners to trait theory (Bass and Bass, 2008, and Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991).
2.2.2.2 The Trait Approach

The trait approach focuses upon personal qualities of leadership. This approach is based on the assumption that leaders can be identified by specific traits or characteristics. Basically, there are three broad types of trait which have been addressed by the literature: first, physical elements, such as height, weight, appearance, and age; second, ability characteristics, such as intelligence, scholarship and knowledge, knowing how to get things done, and fluency of speech; and third, other personality features, such as self-confidence, inter-personal sensitivity, and emotional control (Yukl, 2008).

Hundreds of trait studies were carried out during the 1930s and 1940s, but according to Stogdill (1974) the massive research effort failed to find any traits that would guarantee leadership success. Smith and Peterson (1988) suggest that the failure of the trait approach has been attributed to the following reasons: first, providing only a list of traits and skills found to be productive did not help in understanding leadership; second, the trait approach failed to tell what these leaders actually do in performing their day-to-day leadership tasks; and third, the method of measurement used by researchers for this approach did not include psychological scaling.

Obviously, over the years, it has been documented that leader traits contribute significantly to the prediction of leader effectiveness, leader emergence, and leader advancement. However, there is still a lack of agreement among researchers regarding leader traits and attributes (Zaccaro et al., 2004). Realizing the unreliability of trait theory, researchers began to focus on the observable leadership behaviours, an area which came to be known as behavioural leadership theory.

2.2.2.3 The Behavioural Approach

The behavioural approach started in the 1950s as researchers became discouraged with the trait approach and started to pay closer attention to what leaders actually do. Yukl (2008) provides details of two major research studies that were conducted by researchers from Ohio State University and the University of Michigan using two lines of research methods developed to study leader behaviour. The method used by Ohio State University utilized observations to investigate how leaders spend their time completing the activities, responsibilities, and functions...
of the job. Researchers, therefore, collected data from direct observation, diaries, job description questionnaires, and interviews. The other method of research used by the University of Michigan focused on perceptions of effective leadership behaviour.

In conformity with Horn-Turpin (2009) and Yukl (2008), from a series of studies which have been conducted at Ohio State University, it was concluded that the major dimensions of leaders’ behaviour involved two factors: consideration and initiation. Consideration refers to the extent to which the leader shows consideration to followers. This means the leader listens to the members, shows concern for their welfare, is friendly and approachable, expresses appreciation for good work, treats subordinates as equals, increases subordinates’ work and maintains their self-esteem, reduces inter-personal conflict, and puts subordinates’ suggestions into operation. On the other hand, initiation refers to task-related behaviour, such as initiating activity in the group, organizing it, coordinating tasks, and defining the problem for the group and outlining the way the work is to be done. The initiation of structure includes such leadership behaviour as planning activities, facilitating goal achievements, providing feedback for the group, maintaining standards and meeting deadlines, deciding in detail what should be done, and how establishing clear channels of communication, organizing work tightly, structuring the work context, providing a clear-cut definition of role responsibility.

Based on Yukl (1989), the University of Michigan study identified two specific leadership behaviours that corresponded to the two behaviours identified in the Ohio State University study: (1) production oriented; and (2) employee oriented. Production-oriented behaviours, which corresponded to the initiation behaviour in the Ohio State study, involved completion of tasks, while employee-oriented behaviours corresponded to the consideration-based behaviour in the Ohio State study. Leaders who demonstrated the employee-oriented behaviour also exhibited human-relation-oriented skills and relationships with their employees. Actually, these studies supported the notion that effective leaders had to be cognizant of both task and relationship orientation. Additionally, these studies suggested that some organizations may need leaders who are more focused on tasks, while others require a leadership perspective with strong human-relations skills.

Despite the significant findings from both studies, Bryman (1992) mentioned four problems that had been identified with the behavioural approach. The first was inconsistent findings – that is, the magnitude and direction of the correlations between consideration and
initiating styles and various outcome measures were highly variable. Also, some correlations failed to reach statistical significance. Secondly, an absence of situational analysis. Behavioural approach studies failed to include in their research situational variables that are, including variables which moderate the relationship between leader behaviour and various outcomes. Thirdly, there was a measurement problem: for example, the consideration measure seemed to be affected by leniency effect. Ratings of leaders were found to be contaminated by subordinates’ implicit theory. Finally, there was a problem of causality – that is, does the style of leader influence various outcomes, or does the leader adjust his/her style in response to group performance?

Thus, some research went further to suggest that different situations may require different leadership styles and approaches. This concept led to a major shift to contingency theory.

2.2.2.4 The Contingency Approach

The fourth leadership approach is Fiedler’s (1967) contingency theory or the contingency approach. The theory was developed in the 1950s and 1960s and was viewed as a complement to the Michigan and Ohio State studies. It focuses upon the impact of the situation in determining the leader’s style. According to Fiedler (1967) as cited by Yukl (2008), leadership performance depends on both the organization and the leader. He suggested that situational variables have a moderate effect on the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness. Fiedler mentioned that leadership performance depends as much on the organization as it does on the leader’s own attributes.

Evidently, the contingency approach emphasizes the importance of contextual factors that might influence the leadership process. The characteristics of followers, the nature of the work that the leader’s unit performs, the organization type, and the external environment are all major situational variables. The theory suggests that the effectiveness of leader behaviour is dependent upon the situation. Indeed, the contingency approach is sometimes referred to as the situational theory (Yukl, 2008).

Northouse (2012) argue that the contingency approach is like the behavioural approach and has many problems similar to those identified in the behavioural approach, such as inconsistent findings, causality, and measurement problems. Further, the theory has also been
criticized as being an ambiguous approach. Thus, the integrative approach appeared as an attempt to integrate all these theories in one.

2.2.2.5 The Integrative Approach
The integrative approach involves studying more than one type of leadership variable. Indeed, few theories or studies include traits, behaviour, influence processes, situation variables, and outcomes all in the same design (Northouse, 2012). In fact, as leaders engage in the constantly changing environment and demands of others, Yukl (2008) point out that this approach may offer a meaningful analysis of the practical day-to-day situations that leaders might encounter. He emphasized that leaders influence a number of situations. Leaders impact the effectiveness of a group or organization by influencing the: (a) interpretation of external events by members; (b) choice of objectives and strategies to pursue; (c) motivation of members to achieve the objectives; (d) mutual trust and cooperation of members; (e) organization and coordination of work activities; (f) allocation of resources to activities and objectives; (g) development of member skills and confidence; (h) learning and sharing of new knowledge by members; (i) enlistment of support and cooperation from outsiders; (j) design of formal structure, programme, and systems; and (k) shared beliefs and values of members. All of these situations are important and require that a leader effectively recognizes the situation and employs the appropriate leadership strategies.

Over time, the academic focus has moved from leadership traits to leadership behaviours and then to using different leadership styles in various situations; however, it was obvious that because of the limitations found in those leadership theories, a new leadership approach needed to emerge. Problems such as inconsistent findings, measurement problems, and the problem of causality led to general doubt about leadership theory and stimulated fresh thinking, which led to a new approach (Bennett, 2009).

2.2.3 The New Leadership Approach: The Full Range of Leadership Model
Leadership theories had focused primarily on making operations more efficient, through looking for ways to increase production and improve operations. Bass (1985) stressed that in leadership theories, employee motivation was considered not the key; but only the vehicle. Vroom’s
expectancy theory (1982) demonstrates that motivation influences job performance and employees are motivated by receiving rewards and avoiding punishment. Thus, employees tied their level of effort to their expected outcome. They were transaction driven. According to Bass (1985), transactional leaders understood the needs of their employees and how to meet those needs in exchange for the appropriate level of effort. However, researchers saw situations where individuals were led by visionary and charismatic leaders who helped their organizations achieve more than was believed possible (Bass, 1985; House, 1977; and Bryman, 1992). Hence, these findings helped lay the foundation for transformational and transactional leadership theory, which later extended to the Full Range of Leadership theory.

The theory of transformational and transactional leadership began to develop in the 1970s and 1980s. Downton (1973) introduced the term “transformational leadership”, followed by Burns (1978), who focused on transformational and transactional leadership in the political field. In fact, they opened a new chapter in leadership research. From that time the transformational leadership approach has become one of the most popular approaches to leadership that has successfully attracted researchers since the early 1980s. According to Lowe and Gardner (2000), research in transformational leadership was found to cover one third of the all leadership research, and it occupies a central place in leadership studies.

As cited by Pearce et al., (2003), the literature confirms that Downton (1973) is the first researcher to make a distinction between transactional and transformational leadership, whereas the idea gained more attention in Burns’ work (1978) on political leaders. Burns distinguished between ordinary (transactional) leaders, who exchanged tangible rewards for employees’ work and loyalty, and extraordinary (transformational) leaders, who engaged with employees, focused on higher-order intrinsic needs, and raised consciousness about the significance of specific outcomes and new ways in which those outcomes might be achieved (Barnett et al., 2001; Pearce et al., 2003; Gellis, 2001; Rafferty and Griffin, 2004; and Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Actually, Burns (1978) defined transformational and transactional leadership styles as opposites, whereas Bass (1985) added to these concepts but also believed that managers could demonstrate both depending on the situation. Furthermore, Bass et al., (1987) and Waldman et al., (1990) clam that transformational leadership was an extension of transactional leadership. Later, Bass (1985) introduced the augmentation model, where he argued that transformational leadership augments
transactional leadership in predicting levels of individuals’ performances (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

It is obvious, then, that much of the research on transformational leadership today goes back to the original works of Burns (1978) and Bass (1985). Indeed, many researchers state that the most elaborate exposition of transformational leadership theory, which was later extended to the Full Range of Leadership theory, belongs to Bass (for example, Bryman, 1992; Simic, 1998; Zhang, 2011; and Si and Wei, 2012).

Bass (1985) applied Burns’s work (1978) on transformational and transactional leadership to organizational management. Bass (1999) defined the transactional leader as a leader who: (1) recognizes what his or her employees want to get from their work and tries to see that employees get what they desire if their performance warrants it; (2) exchanges rewards and promises of rewards for appropriate levels of effort; and (3) responds to the self-interests of employees as long as they are getting the job done. On the other hand, Bass and Bass (2008) claim that transformational leaders motivate subordinates to do more than is expected. They characterized transformational leaders as those who: (1) raise the level of awareness of employees about the importance of achieving valued outcomes, a vision, and the required strategy; (2) get employees to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the group and organization; and (3) expand employees’ portfolio of needs by raising their awareness to improve themselves and what they are attempting to accomplish.

Horn-Turpin (2009) outlines three important differences between the work of Burns (1978) and Bass (1999) on transformational and transactional leadership. Firstly, Burns (1978) suggests that the two styles of leadership are at opposite ends of the same leadership continuum: that is, the leader cannot be transactional and transformational at the same time, but could be either one of them, while Bass (1999) pint out that both transactional and transformational leadership can be displayed by the same leader. For example, Bass (1999) recognizes that the same leader may use both types of the process at different times in different situations. Bass (1999) sees transformational leadership as a higher-order second leadership which is needed in addition to transactional leadership.

Secondly, Burns (1978) indicates that actions are transformational if a society benefits from them. Bass (1999) views transformational leadership as not necessarily inherently
beneficial; for example, Hitler was negatively transformational. Bass (1999) focuses on the individual personality while Burns (1978) placed emphasis on the leader–follower relationship.

Thirdly, Bass (1999) examines the components of the two types of leadership, specifying their content more than Burns (1978). Based on practical researches, Bass (1985) found evidence for five leadership factors: individualized consideration, charismatic leadership, intellectual stimulation, contingent rewards, and management-by-exception. Transformational leadership consisted of the first three: charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Transactional leadership consisted of the last two factors: contingent rewards and management-by-exception.

After additional investigation between approximately 1985 and 1995 the theory was expanded to denote three types of leadership behaviour – transformational, transactional, and non-transactional laissez-faire leadership or passive leadership – and it is referred to in the Full Range of Leadership model (Antonakis et al., 2003, and Bennett, 2009). Moreover, researchers conducted a meta-analysis of multiple studies which provided a review of hundreds of studies completed over the past twenty years indicate that indicate there has been fairly consistent support for the key factors of transformational leadership: charisma/idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (for example, Lowe et al., 1996; DeGroot, et al., 2000; Dumdum et al., 2002; and Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Investigation into the Full Range of Leadership theory extended the components into nine factors: five transformational factors, three transactional factors, and one non-transactional leadership factor (for example: Avolio et al., 1999; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Barbuto, 2005; Rowold and Heinitz, 2007).

Another modification to the model occurred with regard to its components. Antonakis et al., (2003) suggest using idealized influence instead of charisma and recommend that idealized influence should be separated into two parts: attributes and behaviour. Further, Avolio and Bass (2004) argue that management-by-exception should be divided into two parts: active and passive. Later, studies suggested using the term “passive/avoidant” instead of “laissez-faire” as the third leadership type in the Full Range of Leadership theory because it was more descriptive. Also, it was proposed that management-by-exception (active) was a better fit with transactional leadership, and management-by-exception (passive) was a better fit with laissez-faire as two subscales under the third type of leadership, now identified as passive/avoidant (Avolio and
The Full Range of Leadership model is displayed in Figure 2.1. As illustrated, the Full Range of Leadership model components are organized around two axes: level of activity and degree of effectiveness. The activity axis is concerned with how active or passive the leader is in his or her way of being towards employees and towards the aims of the organization. Essentially this axis has to do with the leaders’ level of engagement and involvement in the leadership process. The effectiveness axis relates to the impact the specific leadership style has on employee, group, and organizational outcomes – in this study the outcome being investigated is employees’ creative performance.

2.2.3.1 Transformational Leadership

The Full Range of Leadership theory demonstrates that transformational leadership is a process whereby a leader utilizes a number of leadership behaviours or practices to influence the
commitment and effort of employees towards the accomplishment of organizational objectives. These practices, indeed, enhance the values and aspirations of both leader and employees (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Unlike other traditional leadership styles, transformational leadership attempts to give adequate support to organizational members so that they become highly engaged and inspired by goals that are motivational, because those goals are associated with values in which those members strongly believe or are persuaded to strongly believe. Thus, a transformational leader undertakes a matching process where he or she identifies which internal states of organizational members are critical to their performance and specifies a set of leaders’ practices most likely to have a positive influence on those internal states (Leithwood and Sun, 2012).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) went beyond that by conceptualizing transformational leadership as a process that changes the organization by focusing on action, and by converting followers into leaders and leaders into agents of change. This notion is also supported by Sergiovanni (1990) and Avolio (1999), who argue that transformational leadership might be defined as the process whereby leaders develop followers into leaders. Followers become leaders when they are committed to a cause and are self-managing.

For the purpose of this study, transformational leadership is defined in conformity with Bass and Riggio (2006), as a process through which a leader influences the organizational members toward the achievement of organizational goals by utilizing his social charisma and actions to encourage people in organization, articulate an inspiring vision for the future, create an environment for creativity, and pay close attention to individuals’ needs and wants.

2.2.3.2 Components of Transformational Leadership

According to Bass and Avolio (1989), transformational leaders motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they thought possible. They behave in ways to achieve superior results by employing one or more of the four core components of transformational leadership, which are: (1) idealized influence (attributed and behaviours); (2) inspirational motivation; (3) intellectual stimulation; and (4) individual consideration. To some extent Bass and Riggio (2006) state that these components have evolved, as refinements have been made in both the conceptualization and the measurement of transformational leadership. For example, Bass and Riggio (2006) point out that there are two aspects to idealized influence:
the leader’s behaviours, and the elements that are attributed to the leader by employees and other associates. These two aspects, measured by separate sub-factors of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), represent the interactional nature of idealized influence: it is embodied both in the leader’s behaviour and in attributions that are made concerning the leader by employees.

Conceptually, transformational leaders are charismatic and employees seek to identify with the leader and emulate them. Transformational leaders inspire employees with challenge and persuasion, and provide both meaning and understanding. They intellectually stimulate and expand the employees’ use of their own abilities. Finally, transformational leaders are individually considerate, and provide the employees with support, mentoring, and coaching.

Each of these components can be measured with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which will be discussed in the Methodology Chapter. Together, the five main dimensions of transformational leadership are interdependent; they must co-exist; and they are believed to represent the most effective leadership attitudes and behaviours (Gellis, 2001; Moolenaar et al., 2010; Hall et al., 2008; Pieterse, et al., 2010 and Leithwood and Sun 2012). Descriptions of the components of transformational leadership are presented in the following subsections.

### 2.2.3.2.1 Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA)

Idealized influence attributed is defined as the socialized charisma of the leader: whether the leader is perceived as being confident and powerful, and whether the leader is viewed as focusing on higher-order ideals and ethics. Leaders who exhibit idealized influence attributed are providing a role model that employees seek to emulate (Bono and Judge, 2004; Simic, 1998; Stone et al., 2003; and Ho et al., 2009). On the other side, employees view their leaders as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination, and they feel admiration, loyalty, and respect for the leaders (Bass, 1985).

Idealized influence leaders or charismatic leaders are highly motivated to influence their employees. Their employees trust their judgments and have faith in them. Such leaders can transform the established order, and instil pride, faith, and respect. They have a gift for seeing what is really important and a sense of a vision which is effectively articulated (Avolio and Bass,
Further, it has been noted that individuals who are under charismatic leadership are highly productive (Bass, 1985).

In keeping with Avolio and Bass (1988), charismatic leaders are transformational in that they, themselves, have much to do with the further arousal and articulation of such feeling of need among followers. Charismatic leaders have insight into the needs, values, and hopes of their followers. They have the ability to build on these needs, values, and hopes through dramatic and persuasive words and actions. Further, the charismatic leader can be a successful leader, but may fail in transforming organizations. Indeed, transforming organizations depends on how the leader’s charisma combines with other transformational factors, for example, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation in specific leaders. Additionally, Bass (1985) argues that charisma depends on the employees of the leaders as well as the leaders themselves. It is a two-way process between the leader and his employees. A leader is seen as charismatic if his or her employees have trust and confidence in him or her with extraordinary value and personal power. For example, charismatic leaders are likely to be seen when employees have highly dependable personalities and less pride in themselves, and are less self-confident and not highly educated. Charismatic leaders are likely to be resisted by highly educated, independent, and self-reinforcing followers.

2.2.3.2.2 Idealized Influence Behaviours (IIB)

Idealized influence behaviour refers to the charismatic actions of the leader that are focused on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission. It is leaders’ ability to behave in particular ways that allow them to build confidence and trust (Antonakis et al., 2003). Trust is earned by a willingness to take personal risks and the consistency in decisions (Bass, 1999). Idealized influence behavioural leaders are willing to make personal sacrifices in order to achieve set goals and meet organizational expectations. For instance, admiration and respect for the leader provides a foundation for accepting (radical) organizational change. That is, employees who are sure of the virtues of their leader will be less likely to resist proposals for change from her or him (Avolio and Bass, 1993). Further, leaders who demonstrate idealized influence behaviours avoid using power for personal gain and reveal high standards of ethical and moral conduct. They consider the ethical consequences of any decisions they make. They specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose and they empower long-term performance (Avolio et al., 1999).
In keeping with Bryman, Gillingwater, and McGuinness (1996), this dimension broadens the traditional leadership role into that of a ‘manager of meaning’.

### 2.2.3.2.3 Inspirational Motivation (IM)

Inspirational motivation behaviour refers to the way in which transformational leaders energize their employees by articulating a compelling vision of the future. They behave in ways that motivate and inspire their employees by providing meaning and challenge to their work. They talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished and express confidence that goals will be achieved (Avolio and Bass, 1993). They also arouse team spirit, enthusiasm, and optimism. Inspirational motivation leaders get employees involved in envisioning attractive future states (Avolio et al., 1999).

Transformational leaders involve their employees by clearly communicating the expectations for employees and also demonstrating commitment to goals and a shared vision. Those leaders encourage employees to become part of the overall organizational culture and environment (Moolenaar et al., 2010 and Stone, et al., 2003). This might be achieved through motivational speeches and conversations and other public displays of optimism and enthusiasm, highlighting positive outcomes, and stimulating teamwork (Simic, 1998).

Actually, an inspirational leader stimulates enthusiasm among subordinates, and says things to build their confidence in their ability to achieve group objectives (Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992). In fact, confidence building in employees is the major element in being an inspirational leader. Confidence and belief in the cause are important for employees’ aspiration (Yukl, 2009). According to Bass (1985), the combination of confidence in the individual’s capabilities and belief in the correctness of the cause will lead to extra effort and success. For example, in organizations, people who believe they are working for the best organization with the best products and resources are most likely to be committed and loyal and to exert extra effort.

### 2.2.3.2.4 Intellectual Stimulation (IS)

Transformational leaders stimulate their employees’ efforts to be innovative and creative by encouraging the imagination of employees, challenging the old ways of doing things, looking for better ways to do things, questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Furthermore, leaders who practise a
transformational leadership style solicit new ideas and creative solutions to problems from employees who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions (Politis, 2005).

In fact, by providing an intellectually stimulating environment, transformational leaders are able to foster the development of creative solutions to problems which stand in the way of organizational goal attainment. For example, when employees make mistakes, the leader does not publicly criticize them, and their ideas are not criticized because they differ from the leader’s ideas (Yammarino and Bass, 1990).

Moreover, intellectually stimulating leaders encourage employees to develop their own capabilities to identify, understand, and solve future problems. Employees of intellectually stimulating leaders can operate without the leader’s direct involvement in the problem-solving process. They can also become more effective problem solvers, and more innovative in analysing problems and the strategies they use to resolve them. Through intellectual stimulation the status quo can be questioned and new creative methods for organizational development can be examined (Bass and Bass, 2008; Felfe and Schyns, 2004; Felfe et al., 2004).

2.2.3.2.5 Individual Consideration (IC)

In a humanistic sense, the most outstanding component of transformational leadership is the leader’s individualized consideration of his/her employees. According to Bass et al., (1987) a leader’s use of individual consideration is a crucial element in employees’ achievement of their full potential via a close consideration of their developmental needs. In providing individual consideration, the leader is not only cognizant of and sensitive to the current needs of employees, but is also aiming to elevate those needs to a higher level. This is done, for example, by coaching and mentoring, as well as by setting examples and tasks which are developmentally consistent with the needs of each individual (Avolio and Bass, 1993, and Yammarino et al., 1993).

That is, individualized consideration is a trait whereby leaders pay special attention to each individual employee’s needs, abilities, and aspirations for achievement and growth by acting as a coach and mentor. According to Antonakis et al., (2003), leaders using individualized consideration contribute to follower satisfaction by advising, supporting, and paying attention to the individual’s needs and wants, and directing them to develop their self-actualization.
Leaders who recognize and understand these differences reduce resistance and create an understanding environment in which employees can acquire new skills and take advantage of opportunities (Stone et al., 2003). Leaders who demonstrate individual-consideration behaviours provide opportunities to employees for self-actualization and personal growth. They delegate tasks as a means of developing employees. These delegated tasks are monitored to see if their employees need additional direction or support and to assess progress (Bass, 1999).

In their demonstration of individual consideration, transformational leaders are effective listeners and encourage two-way communication. They practise ‘management by walking around’ which will enable them to treat their employees individually and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge (Shin and Zhou, 2003) and with the intention of allowing them to reach higher levels of achievement than might otherwise have been achieved (Chekwa, 2001).

Bass (1985) emphasized that individualized consideration is a very important factor in transformational leadership and is probably the key characteristic that distinguishes transformational leadership from transactional leadership.

### 2.2.3.3 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership occurs when there is an exchange or a transaction between leaders and employees. Leaders explain what is required from employees, and what reward they will receive if they do what is required (Bass and Avolio, 1993). That is, a transactional leader recognizes the employee’s needs and desires, clarifying how these needs and desires will be met in exchange for enactment of the employee’s work role (Bass, 1998).

Transactional leaders use positive and negative rewards when dealing with employees. For instance, they promote and give allowances to employees who perform well and give penalties to those who do not do a good job (Avolio et al., 1999). However, the effectiveness of transactional leadership depends on whether the leader has control of the rewards or penalties and whether employees are motivated by the promise of the reward and interested in avoiding the penalties (Bass, 1998). In line with Bass (1985), leaders in many organizations have little say regarding pay increases and promotions, which depend on seniority and qualifications. Therefore, Bass (1985) states that transactional leaders motivate their employees through positive and negative aversive contingent reinforcement. Contingent positive reinforcement reward occurs when agreed upon performance is achieved, incoherent to maintain the desired
speed and accuracy of employee performance. Contingent aversive reinforcement is a leader’s reaction to an employee’s failure to achieve the agreed-upon performance. The leader’s reaction signals the need to halt the decline in speed or accuracy of the employee’s performance, and to modify or change the employee’s behaviour. It signals the need for a re-clarification of what needs to be done and how.

For the purpose of this study, transactional leadership is defined, as in the study by Bass and Riggio (2006), as an exchange or a transaction process between leaders and employees where leaders clarify the employees’ responsibilities and demonstrate the expectations that they have, the tasks that must be accomplished, and the benefits of compliance to the self-interests of the employees.

2.2.3.4 Components of Transactional Leadership
Transactional leadership consists of two dimensions and, conforming to the Full Range of Leadership model that was introduced by Bass (1998), the relationship among those dimensions is oriented toward leader–employee exchanges, and they represent relatively low forms of leader activity and involvement (at least when compared with the transformational dimensions). The transactional leadership dimensions are contingent reward and the active management-by-exception behaviours.

2.2.3.4.1 Contingent Reward (CR)
Contingent reward is an interaction process between leaders and employees where leaders exchange promising rewards for good performance and recognize accomplishments. Contingent reward involves identifying employees’ needs and facilitating the achievement of agreed objectives, linking both to what the leaders expect to accomplish, and rewarding employees if objectives are met (Bass, 1998). Contingent reward leaders tell an employee what to do if he/she wants to be rewarded for his/her effort and arranges that the employee gets what he/she wants in exchange for achieving objectives (Bass, 1985). That is, in line with Antonakis et al., (2003), leaders who show contingent reward behaviours clarify role and task requirements and provide followers with material or psychological rewards contingent on the fulfillment of contractual obligations (Antonakis et al., 2003).
Furthermore, contingent reward can be displayed in two ways: positively or negatively. Positive contingent reward takes three forms: rewards for work well done, recommendations for bonuses and promotion, and commendations for meritorious effort including public recognition and honours for outstanding service. Negative contingent punishment may take several forms, such as calling someone’s attention to his or her failure to meet standards, sending a report to top management, giving him or her a bad appraisal, and halting his or her annual allowances (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

2.2.3.4.2 Management-By-Exception (Active) (MBE-A)
The second factor of transactional leadership is active management-by-exception. It entails enacting pro-active behaviours that try to prevent mistakes. Active management-by-exception leaders are monitoring employees’ performance, anticipating any deviations from standards, and taking corrective action (Bass and Avolio, 1993). According to Bass and Riggio (2006), active management-by-exception may be effective and even required in some situations, such as when safety is of paramount importance.

2.2.3.5 Passive/Avoidant Leadership
The third type of the Full Range of Leadership model is passive/avoidant. Meta-analytic studies have shown that transformational and transactional leadership behaviours are effective, and passive/avoidant leadership is ineffective (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996).

For the purpose of this study, passive/avoidant leadership is defined as the process where leaders avoid responsibilities and are passive and inactive; do not make necessary decisions; fail to follow up on issues; delay actions; and do not make use of authority.

2.2.3.6 Components of Passive/Avoidant Leadership
Passive/avoidant behaviour consists of two factors, namely passive management-by-exception behaviours and laissez-faire style. Both types of behaviour are more passive and reactive.
2.2.3.6.1 Management-By-Exception (Passive) (MBE-P)

Passive management-by-exception suggests a hands-off leadership approach until an employee requests intervention. Thus, leaders’ intervention occurs only when problems become serious. That is, leaders monitor employees’ performance, wait until mistakes are brought to their attention, and then take action (Bass, 1998). Passive management-by-exception is more reactive. It does not react to a problematic situation analytically. Passive management avoids identifying resolutions or even clarifying goals to be achieved by the followers. Further, leaders only intervene after noncompliance has occurred or when mistakes have already happened (Antonakis et al., 2003). As cited in Avolio and Bass (2004:98), “in this regard, passive management-by-exception is similar to laissez-faire styles – or no leadership. Both types of behaviour have negative impacts on followers and associates.”

2.2.3.6.2 Laissez-Faire (LF)

The second factor of a passive/avoidant style is laissez-faire. It is the avoidance or absence of leadership style. It describes leaders’ behaviours in avoiding responsibilities, not making necessary decisions, failing to follow up on issues, delaying actions, and not making use of authority (Bass, 1998).

According to Bass (1999), laissez-faire leaders have no confidence in their own ability to supervise; they bury themselves in paperwork, leave too much responsibility with employees, set no clear goals, and do not help their group to make decisions.

The employees under laissez-faire leadership will be left to their own devices and proceed as they think best. Basically, laissez-faire leadership demonstrates a lack of any kind of leadership. It is the failure of both transformational and transactional leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003). However, because the Full Range of Leadership model views all passive/avoidant leadership as less active, it makes sense that laissez-faire is the best exemplar of inactive leadership. Evidence suggests that contingent reward for transactional leadership is found to be positively correlated with transformational leadership, whereas laissez-faire for passive/avoidant leadership is found to be negatively related to transformational leadership (Bass, 1998).

The components that make up the Full Range of Leadership model are presented in Table 2.1.


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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2.1: The Components that Make Up the Full Range of Leadership Model</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Full Range of Leadership Style/Components</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence Attributes (IA) (Exhibit social charisma)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence Behaviours (IB) (Utilize charismatic actions)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inspirational Motivation (IM) (Inspires individuals)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation (IS) (Encourage creative thinking)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individual Consideration (IC) (Coaching and mentoring individuals)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contingent Reward (CR) (Reward achievements)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management-By-Exception (Active) (MBEA) (Monitor mistakes and take corrective action)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Passive/Avoidant leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive Management-By-Exception (MBEP) (Resolving problems when they become serious)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Laissez-Faire Leadership (LF) (Avoids involvement)</td>
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</table>

**Sources:** Antonakis et al., (2003); Avolio and Bass (2004); Bass and Riggio (2006); Nawaz and Bodla (2010); and Michel et al., (2011).

### 2.2.3.7 The Differences and Augmentation Model between Transformational and Transactional Leadership

According to Ho et al., (2009), transformational leaders are distinguished from transactional leaders in that transformational leaders are those who inspire their employees through their personal values, visions, and trust, while the latter view the relationship between leaders and employees as a “give-and-take” process. This feature means that while transformational leadership is concerned with motivating employees, transactional leadership focuses on the use
of manipulation of power and authority. In keeping with Ho et al., (2009), transformational leadership aims at creativity and innovation, whilst transactional leadership focuses on planning and execution, and uses rewards and punishments in order to achieve goals. These characteristics suggest that transformational leadership strives to create new opportunities for employees in an organization, whereas the transactional style works off of an existing structure. Stewart (2006) reviewed the conceptual and empirical development of transformational leadership as it evolved through the work of Burns, Bass, Bruce, Avolio, and Leithwood. Stewart argue that the distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership is very close to the distinction made between management and leadership and that a “transactional leader” might be better termed a “transactional manager”.

The above differences raise the following question: Does transformational leadership replace transactional leadership?

Bass and Riggio (2006) argue that there is a large and growing body of evidence that supports the effectiveness of transformational leadership over transactional leadership and the other components in the Full Range of Leadership model. They also suggested that there is nothing wrong with transactional leadership. It can, in most instances, be quite effective. Similarly, active, and even passive, management-by-exception can work depending on the circumstances. Indeed, transformational leadership does not replace transactional leadership. It increases transactional leadership in achieving the goals of the leader, employees, team, and organization.

Studies reveal that leaders could be transactional and transformational at the same time; it depends on the situation. There are different leadership styles that are appropriate to different situations and problems. In some situations the time is suitable for transformation, while in another situation being transformational may not be appropriate (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1993; and Bass and Bass, 2008).

In fact, Bass (1985) proposed an augmentation relationship between transformational and transactional leadership. It was suggested that transformational leadership augments transactional in predicting effects on follower satisfaction and performance. Bass and Avolio (2004) supported the model with evidence and noted that transactional leadership provides a basis for effective leadership, but a “greater amount of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction is possible from employees by augmenting transactional with transformational leadership”.
Moreover, Waldman, Bass, and Yammarino (1990) reported evidence for the augmentation effect among various samples of industrial managers and military officers, and Elenkov (2002) found it with Russian managers. The augmentation effect was also obtained by Seltzer and Bass (1990) for a sample of 300 part-time MBA students, each describing their superiors at their full-time working settings. Further, Howell and Avolio (1992) reported that transformational leadership also augments transactional in predicting levels of innovation, risk taking, and creativity.

Finally, Rowold and Heinitz (2007) conducted a study in a public transport company in Germany and found that transformational leadership augmented the impact of transactional leadership on profit. The researchers suggested that empirical studies needed to extend their research to other cultures, countries, and organizational contexts, such as government, non-profit, or research-and-development organizations.

2.3 Part Two: The Historical Development of Creativity
2.3.1 The Evolution of the Definition of Creativity

Researchers have discussed, debated, argued, and investigated the concept of creativity widely. While it may be easy to recognize creative ideas or creative individuals, defining creativity can be a bit more challenging (Amabile, 1997).

Historically, scholars defined creativity in accordance with their particular research focus: (a) as a process that takes place; (b) as a collection of characteristics and individual traits; or (c) as a set of uniqueness revealed by certain ideas or products (Amabile, 1988; Woodman, Sawyer, and Griffin, 1993; Amabile, 1997).

In the 1700s, the French philosopher Voltaire viewed the creative process as an individual taking two ideas and combining them together to form something new and exciting (Zhang and Bartol, 2010a). According to Glover et al., (1989) at the turn of the twentieth century Poincare in 1913 proposed new thoughts on the generation of creative ideas. Poincare described creativity as the emergence of sudden illumination as a manifest sign of long unconscious prior work.

Actually, the first milestone in the study of modern creativity research was introduced by Wallas. Wallas’s theory (1926) presented the steps an individual engages in during the creative experience as a four-stage process. These steps are: preparation, incubation, illumination, and
verification. Apparently, researchers and scholars accepted Wallas’s model as a simple formula for generating creative ideas. For instance, Sadowski and Connolly (2009) point out that Patrick (1955) studied poets, artists, and scientists and confirmed the existence of Wallas’s four stages. Osborn (1963) divided the creative process into seven stages, including: orientation; preparation; analysis; ideation; incubation; synthesis; and evaluation. Expanding on the original four stages of Wallas’s theory (1926), Taylor (1964) suggested that creativity exists at five different levels. Additionally, Rossman (1964) studied 710 inventors and based on the obtained result he expanded Wallas’s four stages into seven. Rossman’s (1964) seven steps of creativity were: observation of need; analysis of need; survey of available information; formulation of all objective solutions; critical analysis of solutions, including advantages and disadvantages; the idea or inventions; and experimenting to test the best solution.

In the late twentieth century researchers attempted to introduce definitions for creativity based on a process-oriented approach. Fabun (1969) described creativity as the process by which original patterns were formed and expressed. Worthy (2000) proposed that creativity involved closing the gaps, which made the unknown known, and the unseen seen. Feldman (1994) views creativity as the achievement of something remarkable and new, something that transformed and changed a field of endeavour in a significant way. Creativity has also been defined as the energy that allows an individual to think a different thought, and to express thoughts in a novel way, while creative individuals view life as an opportunity for exploration, discovery, and an expanding sense of self (Coelho et al., 2011). Moreover, Boden (2003) defined creativity as the ability to generate new, surprising, and valuable ideas or artefacts. The concept of creativity is also viewed as “going beyond existing knowledge and syntheses to pose new questions, offering new solutions, and fashioning works that stretch existing genres or configure new ones; creating builds on one or more established disciplines and requires an informed field to make judgments of quality and acceptability” (Gardner, 2007:156). Clearly, the previous definitions led to a synthesis of ideas, a common understanding of the creative process and the mechanics and unexplained processes involved. However, researchers looked at the individual characteristics and traits for evidences regarding the creative process.

Evidently, there has been a growing consensus among creativity researchers regarding the appropriateness of defining creativity in terms of individual characteristics and traits. Guilford (1975) hypothesized that there were at least eight primary abilities that were the foundations of
creativity: sensitivity to problems, fluency, novel ideas, flexibility, synthesizing and analysing abilities, complexity, and evaluation. He contended that the human mental abilities that contributed to the potential for creative production, and the mental functions that go with them, were considered to be an important part of human intelligence. In fact, Armstrong (1998) stated that the word creativity was closely linked to the word genius, since both had the root meaning “to give birth”. Essentially, creativity designated the capacity to give birth to new ways of looking at things and the ability to make new connections between different things, and to see things that might be missed by the typical ways of viewing life. Further, Armstrong (1998) asserted the twelve qualities of genius, which included: curiosity, playfulness, imagination, wonder, wisdom, inventiveness, sensitivity, behaviour, irrelevancies, silliness, and even rudeness and creativity. Additionally, Vernon (1989) identified creativity as the person’s ability to generate ideas, inventions, artistic objects, insights, and products that are judged by experts as being of high scientific, social, aesthetic, and technological value.

Research contributed to the individual traits approaches by adding other personality characteristics such as openness, originality, risk taking, and innovation (for example, Tesluk et al., 1997; and Moukwa, 1995). Morrison (1992) also characterized creative individuals as being achievement oriented, seeking attention and recognition for their ideas, being interested in new experiences, and valuing learning. However, because of some limitations of the personality approaches regarding explaining creative behaviour, the studies of personality have been reduced (Feist and Runco, 1993). The correlations between personality measures and behaviour are weak (Terborg, 1981). Thus, scholars moved to focus on creativity outcomes.

The third view in research regarding creativity is focus on its outcome. Scholars such as Amabile (1988) and Woodman et al., (1993) view creativity as a set of uniqueness revealed by certain ideas or products. Apparently, since experts from within the product field can easily evaluate it as a creative product, a significant number of creativity researchers who focus on organizational settings have adopted a definition of creativity that focuses on the product (for example, Amabile, 1983, 1988; Amabile et al., 1996; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Woodman et al., 1993). Amabile (1988:126) defines creativity in the workplace as “the production of novel and useful ideas by an individual or small group of individuals working together”. Oldham and Cummings (1996) add that a product, idea, or procedure is novel if it involves a significant recombination of existing materials, as well as the introduction of completely new materials.
Indeed, Amabile’s definition of creativity has been cited in subsequent conceptual models (for example, Ford, 1996; Woodman et al., 1993) as well as used in a number of creativity studies (for example, Amabile et al., 1996; Oldham and Cummings, 1996).

Noticeably, the creativity literature, and particularly the literature focused on organizational creativity, also uses the term “innovation” with the creativity concept; thus it is important to illustrate the distinction between creativity and innovation.

The terms creativity and innovation are often used interchangeably in research studies; however, recent researchers have distinguished between the two terms. Amabile et al., (1996) differentiates between creativity and innovation by defining creativity as “the production of novel and useful ideas” in any domain, and innovation as the successful implementation of creative ideas within an organization.

Therefore, creativity might best be conceptualized as a first step that is necessary for subsequent innovation (West and Farr, 1990). According to McLean (2005), in the life of an organization, many brilliant ideas never see the light of day. Indeed, to bring an idea from concept to market, it must be recognized for its potential; it must receive funding in an environment of scarce or at least competing resources; and it must overcome potential obstacles such as technology challenges, competitive pressures, and a variety of other obstacles. The process by which this happens is referred to as innovation and it is an important process when talking about creativity in the context of organizations. It would not be a stretch to say that when it comes to organizations, creativity without innovation is of significantly diminished value. The converse is also true: without creative ideas to feed the innovation pipeline so they may be promoted and developed, innovation is an engine without any fuel.

Actually, distinguishing between the two terms is critical to scholars and practitioners who study the relationship between leadership and creativity. Creativity is a phenomenon that is initiated and exhibited at the individual level. Variables such as personality (Feist, 1999), motivation (Collins and Amabile, 1999), and expertise (Weisberg, 1998) are related to creativity at the individual level. Definitely, environmental factors at the group and organizational levels, including organizational culture and climate, influence these variables and therefore impact individuals’ behaviour, but the focus of creativity is primarily on the individual. Innovation, on the other hand, operates much more at the group and organizational levels. The emphasis is more on interrelationships, interactions, and dynamics among actors and components of the
organization and its environment (Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Woodman et al., 1993). These differences have implications for leadership scholars in how they study creativity and innovation; they may impact the research question, the unit of analysis, and the research design. For leadership practitioners, the differences will impact the way in which they define issues in an organization, assess situations, and develop and implement solutions (Amabile et al., 1996).

Throughout this study, the concentration exclusively will be on creativity, since the study focuses on individual (employee) creative performance, and the term creativity is used at the individual level. The study will adopt Amabile’s definition of creativity (1988) as “the production of novel and useful ideas”. To deeply understand individual creativity, the next section will illustrate the componential model of individual creativity.

2.3.2 Individual Creativity Models
A comprehensive literature search reveals that innovation and creativity are generally considered to be critical competencies for improving organizational staying power (for example, Amabile, 1988; Kanter, 1988; Tushman and O’Reilly, 2002; Utterback, 1994; Woodman et al., 1993). Creativity theory suggests that when a working environment facilitates idea generation, knowledge sharing, and creative problem solving, individuals in that environment are more likely to generate creative ideas that involve unique concepts or new applications of existing concepts. Creative ideas can be used for problem resolution, process improvements, and the development of new services and/or products (Woodman et al., 1993).

Many studies have suggested that individual creativity is essential to organizational innovation (for example, Amabile, 1988; Scott and Bruce, 1994; Shalley, 1995; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; and Pieterse et al., 2010), which in turn is imperative for long-term organizational survival and success. Therefore, in order to enhance the chances of long-term survival, organizations should focus on supporting individual creative performance in the workplace because individuals are the ultimate source of any new idea (Redmond et al., 1993) and provide the foundation for organizational innovation (Shalley and Gilson, 2004).

Theoretically, the creative performance of employees provides the raw material needed for organizational innovation. Creative employees are those who tend to identify opportunities for new products, find new solutions for existing problems, have the ability to champion ideas to others, have the capability to find new uses for existing methods or equipment and work hard to
develop adequate plans for the implementation of new ideas (Scott and Bruce, 1994, and Oldham and Cummings, 1996). In conformity with Shalley and Gilson (2004), creative employees produce novel and useful ideas to enhance an organization’s processes, practices, and procedures, as well as its products and services. In addition, these people might serve as role models to the rest of the organization, where novel and new ideas and thoughts are transferable to other employees in the organization. However, an organization that does not encourage innovation and creativity will likely have significant untapped resources (Shalley, Zhou, and Oldham, 2004).

Indeed, Hinton (1970) demonstrates that individual creativity consists of two distinct elements: (1) creative potential; and (2) creative behaviour. Creative potential refers to an individual’s creative skills and abilities. On the other hand, creative behaviour or creative outcome is the measured result of creative efforts or performance. Actually, Hinton (1968) indicate that creative potential may never be realized as creative behaviour if an organization’s work environment does not foster creativity. The literature illustrates many models that attempt to understand the complex interaction of variables that influence individual creativity outcomes or performances. The following sections provide an overview of three of the more prominent areas within individual creativity theory:

(1) Traits/characteristics;
(2) Social relationships; and
(3) Motivation.

2.3.2.1 Traits/Characteristics

The first model of individual creativity has been presented by Woodman and Schoenfeldt (1989) and supplemented by Woodman et al., (1993). This model focuses on how the person, with his or her personality and cognitive abilities, is influenced by both antecedent conditions and the situation, which has both contextual and social influences. These elements then impact creative behaviour, which in turn leads to consequences that provide feedback to the person and help shape contextual influences.

Firstly, Woodman et al., (1993) make reference to some personality characteristics associated with creativity that have been identified by other creativity theorists including Amabile (1988) and Barron and Harrington (1981). Some of these characteristics include:
persistence; curiosity; interest in complexity; preference for autonomy; high energy; self-confidence; and an impression of oneself as creative, a concept similar to the idea of creative self-efficacy. Furthermore, Woodman and Schoenfeldt (1989) have internal locus of control as a characteristic that is often present in highly creative people. Studies such as Lefcourt (1982), Rotter (1966), and Woodman and Schoenfeldt (1989) suggest that individuals with an internal locus of control believe that their outcomes result primarily from their own actions. In contrast, individuals with an external locus of control believe that they have little or no control over what happens to them and that rewards are more likely to be a result of chance, fate, luck, or someone else’s actions.

Secondly, cognitive abilities included in the Woodman et al., (1993) model represent the abilities and skills involved in idea production, the ability to scrutinize the critical factors of a situation without being distracted, and the ability to produce limitless ideas combined with the ability to work through the problem-solving process and implement a solution. The model also includes divergent and convergent thinking, concepts considered critical to creativity and problem-solving processes. Indeed, empirical research suggests that training employees in creative thinking can result in improved attitudes toward divergent thinking (Zhou and George, 2001), which has important implications for creativity training aimed at improving performance. Finally, Woodman et al., (1993) expanded on the original Woodman and Schoenfeldt (1989) creativity model by adding the concepts of knowledge, intrinsic motivation, and expertise.

2.3.2.2 Social Relationships

Ford’s Concept of Multiple Social Domains presented the second model of individual creativity. Ford (1996) presents a theory of individual creative action which proposes that “creative and habitual actions are conceptually independent, competing behavioural options”. He suggests that an individual will be more likely to choose familiar habitual actions unless certain motivations and conditions support creative actions. This model suggests that an intentional pursuit of creativity must be present before expectations and emotions can influence individual creative action. Furthermore, creativity should be expected from those who are intrinsically motivated to be creative. According to Ford (1996), a person develops expectations based on previous experiences, which influence receptivity beliefs toward future experiences. He identified effective communication, reward systems, availability of resources, and tolerance of ambiguity
as receptivity beliefs that are associated with creative performance. For example, if an individual is punished for an idea that fails to solve a problem, the individual would probably not contribute any additional ideas to solve current or future problems. Conversely, if an individual is acknowledged for an idea that helps to solve a problem, that person would have a positive receptivity belief about contributing problem-solving ideas and would be more likely to continue to contribute ideas in the future.

Furthermore, Ford (1996) suggests that capability beliefs are related to both self-esteem and confidence. Such beliefs in one’s creative skills and abilities have been referred to as creative self-image (Ford, 1996) and creative self-efficacy (Tierney and Farmer, 2002). Creative self-efficacy is defined as “the belief one has the ability to produce creative outcomes” (Tierney and Farmer, 2002:1138). People lacking in belief in their own creative capabilities will have little or no incentive to act (Bandura, 1997), and beliefs can have a major influence on subsequent behavioural intentions (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

In keeping with Ford (1996), receptivity beliefs, capability beliefs, and emotions in particular are likely to impact an individual’s motivation for taking creative action. Ford (1996) suggests three influences that help shape a person’s capacity for engaging in either creative or habitual action, which are: domain-related knowledge, intelligence, and behaviour skills and abilities. Domain-related knowledge includes “prior learning, especially when it produces diverse knowledge and improves an individual’s ability to acquire new knowledge and to utilize that knowledge in creative ways” (Ford, 1996: 1124). In Ford’s (1996) model, intelligence is posited to have an impact on creativity but less impact at higher levels of creativity. Behaviour skills and abilities can impact creative action when specific skills are required for performance. Creative-thinking abilities include divergent thinking, and the use of association, analogies, metaphors, and intuition. Ford (1996) differentiates his theory from those of previous creativity theorists by proposing interplay among these domains along with competition between habitual and creative action.

2.3.2.3 Motivation

The third model of individual creativity focuses largely on the factors that facilitate and motivate creative behaviours. Amabile (1988) developed one of the earliest and most frequently cited models for understanding how social/environmental variables can influence individual creative
behaviour. Her revised theory is called the Componential Theory of Individual Creativity. The model assumes that all humans with normal capacities are able to produce at least moderately creative work in some domain, some of the time, and that the social environment (the work environment) can influence both the level and the frequency of creative behaviour. Amabile (1997) and Amabile and Mueller (2008) identify three components that comprise individual creativity in a given domain, which are detailed below.

2.3.2.3.1 Domain-Relevant Skills or Expertise (Innate Skills)
Domain-relevant skills, or expertise, comprise the possible responses that the individual has to draw upon in facing a given problem or situation. Domain-relevant skills are considered to be the basis for any performance in a given domain. These include factual knowledge such as principles and opinions, technical skills that may be required in a specific domain, and “special domain-relevant talents that may contribute to creative productivity” (Amabile, 1997). Domain-relevant skills are comprised of innate skills as well as those obtained through education, both formal and informal (Amabile and Mueller, 2008). Even if domain-relevant skills are high, if individuals are lacking in creativity-relevant processes, they will be unlikely to produce creative outcomes (Amabile, 1988).

2.3.2.3.2 Creativity-Relevant Processes or Creative Thinking (Learned Abilities)
Creativity-relevant processes include: personality; cognitive style; work style; and the use of heuristics for exploring new cognitive pathways (Amabile, 1997, and Amabile and Mueller, 2008). Creativity-relevant processes are also shaped by personality characteristics, which are generally viewed as stable characteristics that employees bring with them into organizational settings (Amabile, 1997, and Barron and Harrington, 1981).

Creativity researchers have identified a number of core personal characteristics that are positively related to creative performance across a variety of domains, including: self-confidence, flexibility, broad interests, attraction to complexity, intuition, aesthetic sensitivity, risk taking, and high tolerance for ambiguity (Barron and Harrington, 1981; Livingstone et al., 1997; and Dul et al., 2011). Additionally, Amabile (1983) claims that personality traits
associated with creativity-relevant processes are similar to self-discipline and include delay of gratification, perseverance, and independence.

Cognitive style is the second factor of creativity-relevant processes. It includes the ability to understand complexities, to break set during problem-solving, and to suspend judgment. Cognitive style also includes being able to see things differently from others (Amabile, 1997). Moreover, Kirton (1989, 1994) theorized that people have a relatively stable cognitive style that is associated with a distinct pattern of behaviours, preferences, and values. The way individuals perceive and organize information influences their preferred approach to creativity, problem solving, and decision-making.

According to Kirton (1994), all individuals fall somewhere along a value-neutral continuum that ranges from adaptive to innovative. Someone with an adaptive cognitive style (an adaptor) will work within established conventional paradigms when defining problems, utilizing data, and generating ideas. Someone with an innovative cognitive style (an innovator) prefers to go beyond conventional views, taking disparate notions and combining them in new or unusual ways, questioning assumptions, redefining problems, and generating ideas from outside the norm. Kirton (1994) emphasized that both adaptive and innovative styles produce creative ideas, but that the approaches and processes used in each style are significantly different.

Additionally, the development of a work style conducive to creative production is viewed as a creativity-relevant process. While there are many traits and actions that make up a work style conducive to creativity, two that stand out in the literature include perseverance and courage (Dacey and Lennon, 1998). In fact, sooner or later, all creative people encounter obstacles to the realization of their objectives. By definition, they typically go against what everyone else is doing and must have great powers of perseverance to continue on the path they believe to be correct (Dacey and Lennon, 1998). Moreover, Csikszentmihalyi (1997) as well as Amabile (1997) and Amabile and Mueller (2008) highlighted that a creative production work style should include the ability to focus on one thing for an extended period of time, to use “productive forgetting”, to replace unsuccessful solutions with new ones, to persist during the hard times, and to sustain high energy levels, effort, and productivity.

Knowledge of heuristics for generating novel ideas is another important creativity-relevant process. Creativity training that increases experience in idea generation (fluency) as well as flexibility, originality, and elaboration may increase the development of creative problem-
solving heuristics. In a meta-analysis of long-term creativity training programmes, Rose and Lin (1984) concluded that the Osborn-Parnes’ Creative Problem Solving (CPS) programme can moderately improve verbal creativity and that the use of CPS in management “should foster more original thinking among practitioners” (21). Indeed, supervisors who support creativity training can increase employee experience with creative problem-solving techniques and potentially help employees develop new cognitive pathways and heuristics for more creative problem solving (Amabile, 1997).

### 2.3.2.3.3 Intrinsic Task Motivation (Task Attitudes)

Task motivation is the third component of the Componential Theory of Individual Creativity. It includes attitudes toward the task and perceptions of one’s own motivation for undertaking the task (Amabile, 1997).

Intrinsic motivation seems to be the most extensively studied and is considered a primary driver for creativity at the individual level (Shalley et al., 1987; Deci and Ryan, 1985; Shalley and Oldham, 1985; Amabile, 1997; Woodman et al., 1993; and Zhang and Bartol, 2010b). For example, supervisors can potentially influence employee task motivation by affecting the level of intrinsic motivation that employees experience toward particular tasks. Intrinsic motivation is “the motivational state in which one is interested in working on a task mainly for its own sake instead of solely for the purpose of obtaining an external reward or avoiding punishment” (Zhou, 2003:170). According to a study conducted by Tierney et al., (1999), there is a significant positive relationship between employee intrinsic motivation and creative output.

Early evidence suggested that intrinsic motivation supported creativity while extrinsic motivation constrained creativity (Amabile, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 1985; Amabile et al., 1994; Tierney et al., 1999; and Zhang and Bartol, 2010b). Actually, this principle has been revised somewhat to reflect the possibility that extrinsic motivation may not always inhibit creativity. More specifically, Amabile (1997) argues that when extrinsic motivation is seen as controlling it may be detrimental to creativity, but when extrinsic motivation is viewed as informational or enabling it may in fact be conducive to creativity, particularly when coupled with high initial levels of intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation need not work in opposition, especially with regard to entrepreneurial creativity. Entrepreneurial creativity seems to require a
synergistic motivation that includes both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation focused on competence and skill development (Amabile, 1997). Amabile’s (1997) Componential Model of Creativity is shown in Figure 2.2.

Concisely, at the individual level, Amabile (1988), Woodman et al., (1993), and Ford (1996) include similar components within their theories of creativity. Knowledge, personality, high energy levels, divergent thinking, creative skills, and intrinsic motivation are frequently reported as contributing to individual creativity.

This study adopted the definition of Amabile’s (1988) for creativity which states that creativity is “the production of novel and useful ideas for processes and products that are accepted within relevant domains”. The core concept of new and practical ideas is paramount and common to creativity as it has been defined in both East and West (Ford, 1996), and so novelty and usefulness of ideas is at the centre of the definition adopted in the current study. Based on the definition of creativity, this study defines employees’ creative performance as it is identified by Amabile (1988) and Hennessey and and Amabile (1998) as “the production of novel and useful ideas”. In fact, this definition has been widely used in previous studies and focuses on practical outcomes of creative processes (for example, Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Farmer et al., 2003; Shalley and Gilson, 2004; Jaskyte and Kisieliene, 2006; Gong et al., 2009; and Munoz-Doyague et al., 2012).
Furthermore, as mentioned later, at an individual level there is a difference between creative potential (Hinton, 1970) and the capability to utilize these skills and abilities as measured by creative performance (Amabile, 1997; and Cummings et al., 1975) or creative behaviour (Hinton, 1968). Comparing individual creative potential with practised innovation and creativity will identify whether there is a difference, or a gap. If there is a gap between creative potential and practised creativity, this could suggest a bad “fit” between the person and the job, assuming that the job requires some level of creativity (Oldham and Cummings, 1997; Farmer et al., 2003; O'Reilly et al., 1991; and Zhou and Shalley, 2003). However, because most jobs can benefit from creative problem solving and idea generation, and because all individuals are seen as having some capacity for creativity (Amabile, 1997), such a gap is more likely to suggest that the organizational culture does not support innovation and creativity (Amabile et al., 1996; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; and Woodman et al., 1993). Consequently, such creativity at the individual level, through idea generation, is likely to lead to the implementation of those ideas at the organizational level. Thus the next section illustrates organizational creativity and innovation.

2.3.3 Creativity in Organizational Settings

Actually, the concept of organizational creativity identifies a relatively unexplored area in organizational change and innovation. Organizational creativity is the creation of a valuable, useful new product, service, idea, procedure, or process by individuals working together in a complex social system (Amabile, 1988). It is, therefore, the commonly accepted definition of creative behaviour, or the products of such behaviour (for example, Marmor, 1976; Barron, 1969) placed within an organizational context. In line with Ackerley (2006), the definition of organizational creativity is framed as a subset of the broader domain of innovation. Innovation is then characterized to be a subset of an even broader construct of organizational change. Although organizational change can include innovation, Egan (2005) argues that much of organizational change is not innovation. Similarly, even though creativity may produce new products, services, or ideas that are implemented through innovation, innovation can also include the adaptation of pre-existing products or processes, or those created outside of the organization (Amabile, 1988).
Acknowledging changes in environment and respecting the accompanying levels of complexity that today’s organizations face, many organizational leaders are interested in finding ways to increase creativity and innovation in their organizations (West, 2002). Hence, organizations follow different approaches to enhance creativity. One popular approach is to hire employees with creative potential. Another approach is training. Actually, the use of creativity training programmes has been adopted by increasing numbers of organizations. For example, between 1990 and 1996, the number of United States corporations offering creativity training programmes increased tenfold, to 40% of all United States corporations (Wang and Horng, 2002). In fact, both of these approaches make sense, especially if we assume that the secret to increased creativity and innovation in organizations lies with the individual creator. However, creative ideas do primarily come from individuals working alone or in small groups. Indeed, systems approaches indicate that no creative individual works in complete isolation (Amabile, 1997). Evidently, individual creativity is recognized to be the most crucial element of organizational innovation, but it is not, by itself, sufficient. Other features of the organization can be the most crucial determinants of an individual’s creativity at any point in time (Amabile, 1988). In fact, it is easier to enhance creativity by changing conditions in the environment than by trying to make people think creatively (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997, and Mumford, 2011).

The literature on creative disciplines has uncovered a number of environmental conditions that can potentially influence employees’ creative performances in the workplace. Some of these environmental conditions include leadership vision and strategic direction, organizational structure and communication practices, planning and innovation processes, management practices, and group dynamics (Amabile, 1988, 1997; Bush and Frohman, 1991; Nemeth, 1997; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Rogers, 2002; West, 2002; Mumford, 2011; Lin and Liu, 2012).

Of these various environmental conditions, management practices represent a very broad spectrum of leader behaviours that can influence employees’ creative performances in organizations. Research into management practices includes, for example, the study of goal setting, job design and assignment, level of freedom, risk-taking norms, availability of resources, level of work pressure, supervisory style, feedback and performance evaluation, and reward allocation (Amabile, 1997; Moultrie and Young, 2009; Lin and Liu, 2012). Although there is accumulating evidence that management practices have an important influence on employees’
creative performances, research on the relationship between leader behaviour (as a subset of management practices) and employees’ creative performance is an area that deserves more attention from researchers (for example: Amabile, 1988, 1997; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; and Aryee et al., 2012).

2.3.4 Componential Theory of Organizational Creativity and Innovation

Amabile et al., (1996) agree that environmental events in organizations influence creative behaviour according to the psychological meaning that individuals give to those events. Leader behaviour (or, as the model calls it, supervisory encouragement behaviour) that directs employee attention toward creativity as an important and desirable outcome and that increases employee motivation toward creative tasks should theoretically support employees’ creative behaviour (Amabile, 1983, 1988, 1997; Amabile et al., 1996; Amabile et al., 2004; Aryee et al., 2012). In her Componential Theory of Organizational Creativity and Innovation, Amabile (1988, 1997) integrates individual creativity with the work environment. According to the model, the work environment representing management practices, resources, and organizational motivation impacts individual/team creativity, and this in turn feeds innovation, as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

The Componential Theory of Creativity (Amabile 1988, 1997) specifies broad features of leader behaviour – both from immediate supervisors and from high-level managers – that contribute to the perceived work environment for creativity. Although the theory presents seven other features of the organizational work environment – including the behaviour of top management, the availability of resources, and cross-organizational cooperation – it proposes perceived leader support (termed “supervisory encouragement”) as the feature that is under the most direct control of the immediate supervisor. The componential theory suggests that leader behaviour influences employee perceptions of leader support that, in turn, influence creativity. Accordingly, the support provided by immediate supervisors exerts an influence on employees’ creativity through direct help with the task, the development of employee expertise, and the enhancement of employee intrinsic motivation. The componential theory also recommends that positive behaviours of leaders could include: serving as a good work role model; planning and setting goals appropriately; supporting the work group within the organization; communicating and interacting well with the work group; valuing individual contributions to the work; providing constructive feedback; showing confidence in the work group; and being open to new ideas. In a
recent study, Lin and Liu (2012) found that supervisory encouragement with other work environment factors such as organizational encouragement and sufficient resources was significantly related to perceived innovation with the mediation of work motivation.

In short, the literature demonstrates that leadership style has a significant effect on employees’ creative performance. Many studies have argued that Bass’s (1985) transformational leadership style appears to be the appropriate leadership approach for enhancing employees’ creative performance. Further, research by Howell and Avolio (1992) reported that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in predicting levels of innovation and creativity. Additionally, the Componential Theory of Creativity suggests that an organization’s ability to generate innovative ideas depends primarily on individual employees.

**Figure 2.3:** Amabile’s Componential Theory of Organizational Creativity.
Source: Adapted from Amabile (1997).
Indeed, employees’ creativity is essential and provides the raw material needed for overall organizational innovation. The theory also emphasizes that leader behaviours influence employee perceptions of leader support which, in turn, influences creativity. For the purpose of this study, employees’ creative performance is defined, as in the literature by Amabile (1988) and Hennessey and Amabile (1998), as “the production of novel and useful ideas”. In fact, this definition has been widely used in previous studies and focuses on practical outcomes of creative processes.

The first two parts in this chapter aimed to get a close understanding of the development of the Full Range of Leadership model and the evolution of individual creativity theories; the next part will demonstrate the link between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance.

2.4 Part Three: The Relationship between Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles and Employees’ Creative Performance

2.4.1 The Influence of Leader Behaviour

Leader behaviour can directly affect employees in a number of different ways. For example, leaders often determine the tasks on which employees’ work; how those tasks are structured and monitored; the type and amount of work pressure employees are subject to; how much support and freedom they are given; whether they get the resources they need; and what kinds of recognition and rewards employees are given (Amabile, 1997). Leaders also play an intermediary role between individual employees and the larger organization as a whole. For instance, leaders often have control over the content of information moving in and out of the work unit. Access to information and the leaders’ abilities to filter it can significantly affect employees’ perceptions of the work unit, the division, and the entire organization (Kozlowski and Doherty, 1989). Indeed, leaders occupy a boundary role position in organizations, where they are tasked with influencing employee behaviour in such a way as to facilitate the attainment of organizational goals (Redmond et al., 1993).

Further, leaders influence employee behaviour through many mechanisms, including role modelling, goal definition, reward allocation, and resource distribution, while serving to express organizational norms and values, structure the nature of group interaction, condition
subordinates’ perceptions of the work environment, and make decisions affecting organizational structure and operating procedures (Bass, 1981, 1985; De Jong and Hartog, 2007; Yukl, 1989). As a result of performing these functions, leaders have a strong, direct impact on employee behaviour, and, therefore may have a marked effect on employee creativity (Lee, 2008).

2.4.2 Leadership and Employee Creativity

The literature has demonstrated that leadership has been identified as an important contextual variable that has an effect on employee creativity (Amabile and Gryskiewicz, 1989; Woodman et al., 1993; Amabile, 1997; Ford, 1996; Oldham and Cummings, 1997; Isaksen et al., 2001; Cheung and Wong, 2011; Aryee et al., 2012).

Researchers have explored the relationship between leader behaviour and individual employee creativity in a variety of different ways. For example, Scott and Bruce (1994) examined the effects of leader expectations on employee creativity and found that the degree to which a leader expects a subordinate to be creative is positively related to the employee’s creativity behaviour. However, Scott and Bruce (1994) stated that this effect was only related to the technicians in this study. The creative behaviour of the engineers and scientists was not affected by their managers’ role expectations. Thus, leader expectations for employee creativity may influence the creative behaviour of some employees but may not have an effect on others.

Moreover, research utilizing leader–member exchange (LMX) theory in conjunction with employee creativity has resulted in a number of findings. For example, Scott and Bruce (1994, 1998) found that the quality of the leader–employee relationship positively influenced the creative behaviour of all professionals. In contrast, Tierney et al., (1999) found that LMX appeared to have no significant influence on the creative performance of employees with a highly creative cognitive style. In addition, employee motivation level may play a more significant role than LMX, since Tierney et al., (1999) found that employees who are highly motivated and enjoy high-quality LMX do not produce more creative output than employees with high motivation and low-quality LMX.

Additionally, Amabile et al., (1996) highlighted that there is an apparent link between perceptions of leader support and employees’ creative performance. As a result, leader encouragement is a variable associated with a work climate for creativity. Amabile et al., (1996) typically measured perceptions of leader support by creating a construct made up of a variety of
different leader behaviours. Employees perceive their leaders as encouraging if leaders exhibit the following behaviours: (a) leaders are open to new ideas; (b) leaders encourage employees to be creative when new ideas and solutions are required; (c) leaders model creativity-relevant processes for problem solving; and (d) leaders show confidence in their employees and support them and their work within the organization. Further, behaviours that demonstrate leader encouragement include “open interactions between leader and employee” and “goal clarity”.

Many extensive literature suggests that Bass’s (1985) transformational leadership style appears to be the appropriate leadership approach for enhancing employees’ creativity (for example: Politis, 2004, and Pieterse et al., 2010); thus the next section examines the link between transformational and transactional leadership types and employees’ creative performance.

2.4.3 Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Employees’ Creative Performance

Creativity is central to the notion of transformational leadership. The concept of transformational leadership was developed around leaders who transform the existing state of affairs into a new one (Burns, 1978, and Bass, 1985, 1998). Transformational leadership behaviours closely match the determinants of creativity in the workplace, some of which – for example, vision, support for creativity, autonomy, encouragement, recognition, and challenge – are likely to act as “creativity enhancing forces” (Elkins and Keller, 2003).

Transformational leaders stimulate employees’ creative behaviour by expressing an inspiring vision, allowing individual development and growth, and stimulating employees to question the status quo (Basu and Green, 1997). Transformational leaders oppose the status quo and strive to change it with their idealized vision that is highly discrepant with the status quo. In doing so, the leaders provide a challenge and a motivating force for change and creative thinking. Employees are encouraged to adopt multiple perspectives, to think creatively, to generate novel ideas, and to achieve creative outcomes (Bass and Avolio, 1990; Bass, 1996; Sosik et al., 1998; Clapham, 2001).

Empirically, Sosik (1997) found that computer-mediated groups with transformational leaders generated more original solutions, more supportive remarks, and greater solution clarification, and asked more questions about solutions than groups with transactional leaders. Additionally, Jung (2001) found that transformational leaders promote higher levels of creativity,
as measured by the divergent thinking of group members, than transactional leaders. Moreover, a study conducted by Jung et al., (2003) demonstrates that transformational leaders primarily encourage employee creativity by providing a climate that supports employees’ innovative efforts. They suggest that transformational leadership might affect creativity in two ways. Firstly, through intellectual stimulation a transformational leader might encourage employees to think “outside of the box”. Secondly, transformational leaders could increase employees’ intrinsic motivation, which stimulates employees’ creative performance and, according to Bass and Riggio (2006), is opposed to extrinsic motivation, which is used by transactional leaders. Indeed, the resulting intrinsic motivation felt by the employees is an important source of creativity (Tierney et al., 1999). Shin and Zhou (2003) found that intrinsic motivation partially mediated the influence of transformational leadership on employees’ creativity. For employees high on conservation (for example, employees who value conformity, security, and tradition), intrinsic motivation fully mediates this relationship. Amabile et al., (1996) argue that intrinsic motivation is one of the most important sources of creativity; when an employee is intrinsically attracted to a task, he or she is more likely to focus on it and explore and experiment with it, and hence exhibit more creative performance. Empirical studies have also shown that when employees are intrinsically motivated, they exhibit more creative performance (for example, Tierney et al., 1999; Jaussi and Dionne, 2003; and Coelho et al., 2011).

In contrast, transactional leadership can be argued to be negatively related to employees’ creative performance. That is because it is focused more on in-role performance and less on the stimulation of novel activities, which may be particularly detrimental for jobs where creativity is not an explicit part of the job description (Pieterse et al., 2010). Also, by definition transactional leadership clarifies expectations and gives feedback about meeting these expectations, which will lead employees to follow their leader’s guidance and divert attention from their own creative endeavours. Further, transactional leadership may be perceived as controlling and de-motivating, causing less creative behaviour (Amabile et al., 1996, and Pieterse et al., 2010).

The literature addresses empirical evidence regarding the relationships between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance. Studies such as Church and Waclawski (2011) and Howell and Higgins (1990) indicate that transformational leaders put greater emphasis on creativity than transactional leaders. Recently, a field study conducted with 230 employees of a government agency in the Netherlands combining
multisource ratings showed that transformational leadership is positively related to creative performance only when psychological empowerment is high, whereas transactional leadership has a negative relationship with creative performance (Pieterse et al., 2010).

However, the few studies that have investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ creative performance found very mixed results. For instance, a study done by Basu and Green (1997) found a negative relationship, whereas a study conducted by Boerner et al., (2007) found a positive effect, and a third study did not find any effects (Moss and Ritossa, 2007). Further, transactional leadership has not been related to employees’ creative performance in previous research (Boerner et al., 2007; Moss and Ritossa, 2007).

Evaluations of employees’ creative performance under each leadership style found that employees of transformational leaders have higher creative performance on idea-generation tasks in experimental studies compared to employees of transactional leaders (Jung, 2001, and Jung and Avolio, 2000). Additionally, both direct and indirect studies reveal that an increase in transformational leadership has been related to improved idea generation by employees (directly, Sosik et al., 1998; and indirectly, Sosik et al., 1999). However, other studies in laboratory settings found no relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ creativity (Jaussi and Dionne, 2003) or found that employees with transformational leaders generated few original ideas than employees with transactional leaders (Kahai et al., 2003).

### 2.6 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to explore the leadership and creativity literature, focusing on the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance. The chapter has theoretically defined and discussed different concepts related to the two subjects and was divided into three parts: the historical evolution theories of leadership concentrating on the Full Range of Leadership model; the historical development of theories of creativity, highlighting individual creativity theories and discussing employees’ creative performance; and the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance is examined.

The review has revealed that leadership style stimulates individual creative performance. The literature demonstrates that the transformational leadership style appears to be the leadership
approach for enhancing employees’ creative performance. However, some studies found that the transactional leadership style augments transformational leadership in predicting levels of creativity. Additionally, the Componential Theory of Creativity recommends that individual employee creativity is vital, providing the main base for overall organizational innovation. The literature addresses empirical evidence regarding the relationships of both transformational and transactional leadership styles with employees’ creative performance and indicates that transformational leadership is related positively to employees’ creative performance compared with the transactional leadership style.

Despite the effectiveness of transformational leadership in stimulating employees’ creative performance, Mumford et al., (2002) argues there are still other studies that found different results on this impact relationship. Mumford et al., (2002), recommend examining the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance in different sectors (for example: public government sector); in different cultures (for example: Arab Islamic culture); and from multi-perspectives (for example: leaders and employees). Therefore, this study aims to determine the degree to which Omani civil service managers practise the Full Range of Leadership model (transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership) to influence employees’ creative performance.

In the next chapter, we will identify the environment in which this study was conducted. It will provide an overview of the Omani context and discuss some factors that influence leadership in the Omani civil service sector.
Chapter Three: Factors that Influence Leadership in the Omani Civil Service Sector

3.1 Introduction
As indicated in previous chapters, this study aims to examine the extent to which Omani civil service managers demonstrate the Full Range of Leadership styles to enhance employees’ creative performance. It is conducted within the Omani civil service organizations.

Common (2011) argues that very little is understood about the concept of leadership in the Arab Gulf states in general, and the Sultanate of Oman in particular. According to Dorfman and House (2004), leadership studies in the Middle East are almost entirely absent due to the inherent difficulty of conducting organizational research there, and, specifically, the amount of research on the topic of leadership in Oman is extremely limited.

Corresponding to developing countries, Oman’s civil service sector remains the prime driver of the economy and in line with where the current study took place, this chapter considers the context of Omani culture and attempts to discuss and elaborate factors that influence leadership in Oman’s civil service sector. Delineating these factors could provide a basis for how leadership may be developed and adapted in Oman’s public workplace environment.

Therefore, this chapter aims to review the different theoretical concepts related to the context of the civil service in Oman. The chapter is divided into two parts: the Omani context and a discussion of factors that shape leadership in Oman’s civil service. It starts by giving an overview of the Omani context, discussing factors such as location, population, religion, the Omani economy, and Omani human resources. The second part reveals factors that influence leadership in Oman’s civil service; however, examining all possible factors would be beyond the scope of this chapter. Thus, the chapter considers five factors: the Islamic religion, tribalism, political leadership, national culture, and the effect of national institutions.

3.2 Part One: The Omani Context
The Sultanate of Oman is an Arab and Islamic country occupying the south-eastern corner of the Arabian Peninsula in the south-western part of the Asian continent. Oman is the third largest country in the Arabian Peninsula with an area of about 309,500 sq. km. Oman is bordered on the north by the United Arab Emirates, on the north-west by Saudi Arabia, and on the south-west by
the Republic of Yemen. The Omani coastline stretches 3,165 km (Ministry of Information, 2012).

According to the census report from 2010, Oman’s total population was estimated to be approximately 2,773,479, of which 1,951,100 (72.4%) are Omanis and 822,379 (29.7%) are non-Omanis. The figures demonstrate the annual population growth rate is more than 2.5%. Further, the census’s figures reveal that the Omani population is young, with 62.6% of the population aged 24 or under. The figures show that women comprise 50.5% and men 49.5% of the total population, respectively. Based on census indicators the future growth rate is expected to escalate to 2.6% in the first decade of the twenty-first century, and the Omani population is expected to increase to 5 million by 2025 (Ministry of National Economy, 2010).

Oman adopted Islam in the seventh century A.D., during the lifetime of the Prophet Muhammad. From that time onwards, Islam has had a great impact on most Omanis’ lives and practices. Today, Oman follows Sharia law, the principles of which are contained in the Qur’an and in the prophet’s sayings and practices, which are the second fundamental source of Islamic law after the Qur’an (Abdulali, 1990). The Omani government follows Islamic law for civic cases and modern civic law for criminal cases (Nasr, 1993). In Oman, the Sharia Court deals with marriage and divorce, the issuance of power of attorney, distribution of an estate in the absence of a will, writing wills, and related matters. The Magistrates’ Court deals with violations of the laws, both felonies and misdemeanours. Sharia law does not interfere in Omani government affairs; however, the government consults the Islamic laws and scholars when advice is needed. Further, Arabic is the country’s official language and many people speak English, especially in private enterprises (Ministry of information, 2012).

Prior to 1970, Oman’s economy was based mainly on agriculture, fisheries, and commerce. Indeed, Oman had been a major trading nation with interests stretching to both sides of the Persian Gulf and the East African coast. Today, Oman’s economy is mainly dependent on oil revenues as the major source of income. By the 1980’s, around the time of substantial falls in oil prices, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos and his government recognized the limitations of mainly depending on oil and the future impact of such a strategy on the development of the country; thus the government decided to diversify Oman’s economy (Ministry of Information, 2010a).

The figures reported by the Ministry of National Economy show incremental growth in the Omani economy. At the end of 2006 the value added to the gross domestic product (GDP)
was approximately 1,946 million Omani Rial achieved through non-oil activities. The estimated GDP in 2011 was 6.2 billion Omani Rial ($16 billion), with an expected estimated GDP growth rate of 4.8% in 2012. Further, the eighth five-year development plan (2011–2015) launched in 2011 aiming to realize a growth rate of not less than 3% and achieve low inflation rates. In fact, by 2020, it is expected that the industrial sector’s share in GDP in Oman will increase by 29%, with an anticipated reduction in crude oil contribution of 9% (Ministry of National Economy, 2011).

Indeed, the shortage in Omani skilled manpower, especially high-level and professional abilities, was the main challenge that the government faced to achieve its developments. Therefore, the government adopted economic development plans, the “Omanization” policy and a long-term development programme called the “Oman 2020 Vision” (Al-Lamki, 2000). Undoubtedly, the success of such techniques and practices that the Omani government intends to apply to develop the country depend upon the effectiveness and efficiency of human resources management policies, which aim to develop a workforce capable of supporting the efforts made by the government.

At the beginning of the 1970’s, the entire labour force in Oman’s civil service was only 1,253 employees, 93% of whom were Omanis. With the first economic development plan initiated in 1975, more and more skilled manpower was required. Hence, Oman turned to imported foreign manpower from India, Pakistan, the Philippines, Egypt, Jordan, Sudan, Europe (mainly the UK), and North America (both the USA and Canada) (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). In 1997, there were 103,575 employees working in the public sector, of whom 60% were Omani and 32% were expatriates. By the end of 2010, the total number of civil service employees was 128,415, of whom 114,206 (or 88.9%) were Omanis (Ministry of Civil Service, 2011). Obviously, these indicators show the extent to which the Omanization policy in the public sector was successfully implemented by the Omani government.

In Oman, the Omanisation programme has been in operation since 1988. The government attempts to secure increased participation of Omanis in the workforce. Through this policy the government aims at the utilization of Omani labour through the implementation of education, training and recruitment programmes to replace expatriates (Al-Lamki, 2000). The Ministry of civil service argues that the Omanisation policy in the public service achieved successfully. The statistical data shows that Omanis compared to expatriates in the public service by the end of the
year 2010 made up 88.9% (114,206 out of 128,415). The rates had declined over the years, for instance, the Ministry of civil service explained, the numbers of expatriates declined from 35.4% in 1990 to 11.1% in 2010 (Ministry of Civil Service, 2011). This data gives an optimistic expectation that the government could achieve its target of Omanis comprising 95% of the total employees who are working in public sector organizations by the year 2020.

Despite the government's considerable effort and active role in encouraging and promoting Omanization, the policy of replacing foreign workers by national workers in Oman can be viewed as work both ways. On one hand, it solves the unemployment issue by generates job opportunities. However, it also may lead to the weakness of performance and productivity, because some Omani workers lack necessary knowledge, skills and experience. Thus, the Omanization policy should carefully be evaluated. In fact, the policy “does not mean disregarding efficiency, but a match between various needs and obligations” (Al-Ghailani, 2005:188).

### 3.3 Part Two: Factors that Influence Leadership in the Omani Civil Service Sector

In the absence of possible information and research on leadership in Oman, this section is structured to enrich the Omani leadership literature by investigating a body of research and studies that are concerned with leadership in Oman. The aim is to figure out different factors and variables that influence the Omani leadership style. Considering the unique context of Omani culture, the chapter demonstrates that there are five factors which shape the Omani leadership style in the civil service sector. These are: the Islamic religion, tribalism, political leadership, national culture, and the influence of national institutions. Figure 3.1 presents these factors and the following paragraphs illustrate them.
3.3.1 The Influence of Religion

In their study about factors that influence human resources in Oman, Al-Hamadi et al., (2007) found that religion is the first factor that plays a vital role in Omani people’s daily lives. They emphasized that government has to consider the effects of Islam when designing human resources management policy. In fact, Ali (1996) who investigates the organizational development in the Arab world concluded that Islamic values, if correctly identified and understood, would facilitate organizational change and development.

Islam is the official religion of Oman, and people practise three forms of Islam: the Alabadhi, the Sunni, and the Shiah. Oman is a remarkable example of a culture where people are tolerant of various beliefs from Islam’s different forms. In Oman believers of other faiths are also allowed to practise their religion in churches and temples (Ministry of Information, 2012). In 1996, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos issued Oman’s constitution, which is called the Basic Law of the State. The Basic Law does not ascribe any ascendancy to any particular sect, but at the same time it provides for Islam as the foundation of the state. The Basic Charter protects the freedom to practise religious rites, in accordance with tradition, provided that those practices do not
breach public order, and the government generally respects this right in practice (Ministry of Legal Affairs, 1996).

Islamic religion influences the attitudes and behaviour of people in almost all aspects of life. For example, Omanis as they are living in an Islamic society measure identity and loyalty in terms of faith, whereas in the West it is measured in terms of nationality (Al-Haj, 1996). Indeed, Islam is not only a religious system, but a national symbol of Arab greatness and the history and glories of its civilization (Dadfar and Gutavsson, 1992).

Administratively, the social philosophy of the Islamic system is the base for the Islamic administrative theory. It suggests that individuals’ physiological needs must be satisfied to achieve organizational goals and that a balance should be achieved between spiritual and psychological needs. The theory is derived from the principles of hierarchical organizational structure, chain and unity of command, obedience and compliance to formal authority, planning of work, consultation among members of the organization, clarification of roles training, and development of employees (Jabnoun, 1994).

In Islam, leadership is defined as a process of inspiring and coaching voluntary followers in an effort to fulfil a clear as well as a shared vision. This vision is to implement Allah’s laws on earth, and not what the leader thinks and chooses nor what any groups’ wish (Altalib, 1991, and Chowdbury, 2002). Allah said in the Qur’an, “and We made them leaders guiding men by Our command and We sent inspiration to do good deeds, to perform regular prayers, and to practice regular charity; and they constantly served Us only” (Qur’an, 21:73).

The leader in Islam is called Caliph or Amir of Believers or Ruler (El-Wali). The Caliph is totally responsible for the welfare of his people before God. The followers should obey the orders of their leaders only if they are in line with God’s orders. The Qur’an attests, “O you who have believed, obey Allah and obey the Messenger and those in authority among you. And if you disagree over anything, refer it to Allah and the Messenger, if you should believe in Allah” (Qur’an, 4:59).

Muslim’s leaders extracted their leadership criteria primarily from the Qur’an and Sunnah, jurisprudence, and the biography of the Prophet Mohammad’s (PBUH) companions. Understanding that, Omani leaders as practising Muslims expect to believe that Islam’s teachings discourage the centralization of authority and power in one leader’s hands; however, Islam encourages distribution of responsibilities based on an individual’s qualities and sharing power
through delegation (Jabnoun, 1994). For example, Abu Dher Al Ghafari, who is one of the most decent, honest, and righteous companions of the Prophet Mohammed (PBUH). He asked Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) to assign him as a leader in one of the Islamic provinces, but the Prophet refused, saying, “Regardless of the fact that I like for you what I like for me, but you have a weak personality, you cannot be a leader in a group of two nor you can be responsible of the orphan’s money” (An-Nawawi, 1997). Therefore, the Omani leadership style should be centred on these teachings and expect leaders’ behaviours when dealing with employees to reflect them.

According to Aabed (2006), Islamic leadership has nine principles. As Muslims, Omani leaders are expected to demonstrate some of these principles – if not all of them – in the workplace. These principles are: dealing with others through an ethical and moral approach; articulating a clear vision; effective communication of the designed vision to generate strong commitment to achievement; creating and maintaining the organizational culture; playing a role of sustaining the organization over the long term; maintaining the unity and cooperation among followers in their organization and the momentum of their progress; providing space for and even inviting constructive criticism; initiating, guiding, and controlling change in order to achieve the stated objectives; and obtaining some leadership qualities.

To give an example for one of these principles, that is the morality of the Islamic leadership. Beekun (1997) defines ethics in Islam as the set of moral principles that distinguish what is right from what is wrong. Omani employees respect and admire their leaders based on the extent to which these leaders exhibit some of the Islamic ethical qualities. Following the Prophet Mohammad’s path, Omani leaders, in order to motivate their employees, need to develop and exhibit such honesty and truthful qualities. These qualities for instance will also have a self-reinforcing effect on leaders themselves (Aabed, 2006). The Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) said that truthfulness leads to righteousness, and righteousness leads to paradise. A man continues to tell the truth until he becomes a truthful person. Falsehood leads to wickedness, and wickedness leads to hell, and a man may continue to tell lies till he is written before Allah, a liar (Al-Bukhari, 1997).

Further, the Islamic religion has an effect on the Omani leadership style through the Islamic personal qualities. As indicated by Aabed (2006), Muslim leaders demonstrate ten essential personal qualities which are extracted from what the Holy Qur’an associates with the role of leadership. These qualities with the Arabic titles are as follows: conviction (Yaqin);
knowledge (Ma’refah); eloquence (Fasahah); justice (Adl); patience (Saber); enterprise (Iqdam); leniency (Leen); self-sacrifice (Tadhyah); humility (Taqwa); and mutual consultation in the decision-making process (Shura).

To exemplify one of those qualities that is the Shura process. In the decision-making process, Omani leaders are expected to follow the Islamic way of making a decision which is called Shura or mutual consultation. In fact, the nature of Islamic leadership is a participatory leadership, where the group develops a clear position on the issue discussed. Obviously, Muslim history includes many cases when Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) and his followers demonstrate Shura. Indeed, the process of Shura educates the leaders as well as the followers in how to develop their internal satisfaction while trying to reach the position nearest to the Qur’an and the Sunnah, which also serves and benefits the community (Altalib, 1991).

Among these famous cases of Shura is the case of Uhd’s battle. In deciding where Uhd’s battle should take place Prophet Mohammad consulted Muslims, and they came up with two different opinions: Prophet Mohammad and some followers’ figures preferred to defend the city and face the enemy within the city, taking advantage of using a war-of-the-cities strategy, whereas the majority of Muslims suggested facing the enemy outside the city. Since the majority preferred to face the enemy outside the city, Prophet Mohammad implemented Shura to make the decision. Since there was an Ijma (consensus) between Muslims to locate the battle outside the city, Prophet Mohammad accepted the decision that came out of the Shura process (Hamid, 1995). The Qur’an refers to this event, saying: “And consult them in affairs, then, when you have taken a decision, put your trust in Allah, for Allah loves those who put their trust in Him” (Qur’an, 3:159). This passage explains the process of Shura, which affirms that all matters are to be discussed by involving relevant people, and when proper consultation and debate has taken place and Ijma (consensus) has been reached, one should not delay the implementation of the decision (Ahmad, 2002).

Briefly, accepting the fact that all Omani leaders (as well as employees) Muslims therefore following Islam, Islamic leadership is assigned amongst those criteria that Omanis’ managers are demonstrating. Indeed, the Islamic leadership principles and personal qualities that are extracted from the Qur’an, Sunnah, jurisprudence, and the biography of the Prophet Mohammad’s (PBUH) companions have an effect on Omani leadership styles.
3.3.2 The Effect of Tribalism

According to the values theory – which states that what a person values the most tends to drive his/her behaviour (Pohlman and Gardiner, 2000) – Islam is the first aspect to influence Oman’s employees (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). The Qur’an is the first source of Islamic values. Allah (Almighty) says in the Qur’an: “O mankind, indeed we have created you as male and female and made you peoples and tribes that you may know one another. Indeed, the most noble of you in the sight of Allah is the most righteous of you. Indeed, Allah is Knowing and Acquainted” (Qur’an, 49:13). Like other Arab countries, Omani culture is built on a tribal structure, and this is steadfastly in agreement with what is written in the Qur’an. Al-Hamadi et al., (2007) argue that the tribe is the second top authority after Islam in setting, preserving and sustaining tribal principles and cultural traditions in Oman.

The tribal structure plays an indispensable role in the lives of Omani people, where the status of the individual is determined by his/her tribal or group affiliation and rarely by individual merits (Kazan and Frey, 1993). This is reflected, according to Darke (2010), in the use of prefixes in the name, where ‘Al’ means ‘family of’; ‘Bin’ or ‘Ibn’ means ‘son of’; and ‘bint’ means ‘daughter of’. Actually, Omani people see the tribe as the second main source of their identity after Islam, as opposed to Western countries, where nationality takes priority as an essential determinant of the identity and loyalty of citizens (Al-Haj, 1996, and Common, 2011).

The tribal structure in Oman consists of large tribes and small clans. Each small clan is attached and loyal to a specific large tribe which is headed by a sheikh (a leader). Most of the tribes in Oman have Majlis (an assembly place) where male members of the tribe gather on various occasions, such as funerals, marriage ceremonies, and tribal discussions (Al-Asmi, 2008).

Tribal leaders generally shoulder all the responsibility and centralize authority. They have intense loyalty to their “in-groups” and they consider themselves the protectors, caregivers, and fathers of their employees (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001). Indeed, those sheikhs still play the traditional role under the current regime in Oman. As stated by Al-Asmi (2008), in his habitual tours in various parts of Oman, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos meets with sheikhs who play a mediating role between citizens and His Majesty, in which they convey the citizens’ needs and requirements to His Majesty and vice versa.
Tribal systems in the Arab world have an influence on the local perceptions of management and leadership (Weir, 2000). Indeed, tribal culture profoundly influences Omani managerial styles and has a considerable impact on organizational practices and productivity, particularly in communication, selection, and reward systems. In Oman, senior managers in government organizations tend to play the role of tribal leaders (Sheiks). Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) demonstrate that junior employees yield to senior managers, and they are expected to speak to them in a modest and unassuming way. Junior employees do not strongly oppose their senior managers, and if the situation is likely to result in confrontation, they may choose to withdraw. Indeed, this way of interaction is similar to the ways that people deal with tribal leaders (Sheiks). Further, Al-Ghailani (2005) reveals that the use of social criteria for selection, recruitment, and promotion is still widespread in apparently modernizing institutions such as the civil service, which at the same time are attempting to operate good human resource management practice. For example, in public organizations nepotism is still practised, where tribal members or leaders will personally appeal to public officials in an effort to obtain employment for family members. According to Al-Asmi (2008), the relevant staff at the Ministry of Civil Service mentioned that nearly 50% of their working day was occupied by either personal visits or telephone calls from people from particular villages or tribes pleading for employment, for themselves or on behalf of relatives.

In actuality, to ensure that their needs are well served, people from all social positions develop network systems in various ministries and other significant organizations. It is frequently observed that newly appointed managers remove, distance, or freeze the in-group of their predecessors and appoint their own people. Thus, it is not uncommon to find in a specific ministry a considerable number of people who carry the same surname or tribe name as that of the senior manager or administrator (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001).

Apparently, Omani government culture produces a combination of two systems working in parallel: the first system is the formal one, which is built on the merit principle, while the other depends on social criteria, especially when making judgments about selection, recruitment, and promotion (Al-Ghailani, 2005, and Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). However, the influence of tribes is in decline in Oman since the government introduced laws and depends heavily on institutions. For instance, to control the recruitment process and protect it from any intervention, the Ministry
of Civil Service introduced the Human Resources Management System. The Ministry coordinates with other government units that apply the law of civil service to implement regulations and procedures for announcing vacancies and supervising the system tests and personal interviews. It aims to ensure that applicants are chosen based on their qualifications and competence, and according to the results of the assessment for the jobs advertised. Further, to control the recruitment process, individuals who apply for a job take online exams in Ministry of Civil Service labs. This exam is controlled totally by the computer system to eliminate human intervention.

### 3.3.3 The Influence of Political Leadership

On 23 July 1970 a new era in the history of Oman started when His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said came to the throne a few years after he returned from the United Kingdom where he undertook his military training at Sandhurst Academy (Clements, 1980). This turning point involved a fundamental shift in society, from stagnation and isolation to comprehensive development and good relations worldwide. National development became the major concern for the government, broadened to cover all areas and different walks of life in the Omani society (Al-Ghafri, 2002). According to Townsend (1977), Sultan Qaboos came to power with five key tasks: (1) the building of institutions of government; (2) the construction of a national security system; (3) the definition and realization of income generation; (4) the building of a social infrastructure; and (5) the building of an economic infrastructure.

His Majesty has been the Head of State since 1970. He is the head of the Ministers of Cabinet and rulings are issued and carried out in the name of His Majesty (Ministry of Information, 2012). Based on Article 44 of the Basic Statute of the State, His Majesty is responsible for proposing draft laws and decrees; looking after citizens’ interests; ensuring that citizens are provided with essential services; improving citizens’ economic, health, and cultural standards; defining general economic, social, and administrative development goals and policies; and proposing the means and measures required for the implementation of such policies in such a way as to ensure good use is made of the available financial, economic, and human resources (Ministry of Legal Affairs, 1996).
As mentioned, Oman’s economy was dependent on agriculture, fisheries, and commerce before oil production began in 1967; however, the oil revenue was not utilized properly. When His Majesty assumed power, Oman was almost completely cut off from the rest of the world and the majority of its population lived in poverty, with only three male elementary schools, two small hospitals, a few miles of paved roads, and numerous repressive petty restrictions on personal freedom (Clements, 1980).

In a rare study of leadership in Oman that was done by Neal et al., (2005), the study indicated that Omani leadership values are based on a combination of interaction, rational legal authority, and charisma. According to Bass (1985), charismatic and visionary leadership are considered a base and the main components of transformational leadership. He emphasized that charisma depends on the situation. It is more likely to be seen in times of stress and transition, when people need a hero or a saviour who appears in times of great distress. Further, Leithwood (1994) argued that transformational leadership is more effective when change is needed and reforms become a requirement. Thus, in 1970 His Majesty came to the throne of Oman with charisma, a vision, and strong-willed leadership. He aimed to transform Oman from a position of lacking development, political unrest, backwardness, and total isolation from the world into a modern country (Ministry of Information, 2012). Therefore, the following paragraphs illustrate the transformational leadership qualities of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos’s leadership followed by an explanation on how Omani managers could be affected by this political leadership style. It is worth mentioning that it is impossible to squeeze 41 years of remarkable achievements in Oman under His Majesty’s leadership into just a few paragraphs; so, the following paragraphs will only illustrate one or two examples that will demonstrate His Majesty’s transformational leadership style.

In line with the study’s proposed definition, transformational leadership is identified as a process in which a leader influences the organizational members toward the achievement of organizational goals by utilizing his social charisma and actions to encourage people in organization, articulating an inspiring vision for the future, creating an environment for creativity, and paying close attention to individuals’ needs and wants.

The first and the second dimensions of transformational leadership are the ability for the leader to demonstrate idealized influence (attitude and behaviour) through social and action charisma, so their followers will admire, respect, and trust him. It is leader ability to inspire
followers to reach the designed outcomes through his social charisma, where his charismatic actions are expressed when his actions speak louder than his words (Bass and Riggio, 2006, and Michel et al., 2011). Indeed, in all his speeches, His Majesty motivates and energizes the Omani citizens by encouraging them to believe that they are the valuable resources for Oman and are capable of achieving the country’s vision. Indeed, His Majesty has repeatedly stated that Oman’s most crucial resource is its citizens. In his address to the Council of Oman in 2001, he stated that: “nations are built solely by the hands of their citizens. Progress and prosperity can only be achieved through learning, experience, training and qualifications ... the real wealth of any nation is made up of its human resources. They are the power that achieves development in all walks of life” (Ministry of Information, 2002). Moreover, because he strongly believes in Oman’s human resources, his inspirational words translate into action. He was aiming for Oman to become self-reliant on national labour; thus the government undertook the first initiatives in giving preference to employing Omani nationals within government organizations while at the same time encouraging the private sector to accept Omanization as a national responsibility (Al-Moamary, 2000). Omanization is clearly defined by His Majesty as a gradual process of three stages: the basic education or preparation of Omani nationals; the establishment of suitably qualified candidates in posts; and their development and managerial support thereafter, so that they can effectively undertake responsibilities previously fulfilled by expatriates (Al-Farsi, 1994, and Al-Lamki, 2000). During the celebration of Oman’s 21st National Day, His Majesty emphasized the importance of Omanization, saying: “In addition to the steps already taken by the government towards Omanization, we must continue to substitute Omani foreign labour in both government and private sectors. But this must not be at the expense of qualification and performance” (Ministry of Information, 1991).

Inspirational motivation is the third transformational leadership behaviour that His Majesty has demonstrated. Transformational leaders practise inspirational motivation and energize their followers by articulating an inspiring vision for the future (Bass and Riggio, 2006, and Michel et al., 2011). Actually, with the complete absence of infrastructure, the poor economy, and the lack of a qualified indigenous workforce in Oman in 1970, an inspiring vision introduced by His Majesty promised to cause a revolution in educational, social, and economic sectors and transform Oman into a modern country. This vision was introduced by His Majesty in his first speech in 1970 when he said: “I promise you to proceed forthwith in the process of
creating a modern government. My first act will be the immediate abolition of all the unnecessary restrictions on your lives and activities. My people ... I will proceed as quickly as possible to transform your life into a prosperous one with a bright future. Every one of you must play his part towards this goal” (Ministry of Information, 1971).

The fourth behaviour of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation, which is referring to a leader’s ability to arouse within followers an awareness of their ability to be creative and provide a supportive environment for innovation (Bass and Riggio, 2006, and Michel et al., 2011). As has been illustrated, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos always emphasized the importance of developing citizens’ creative skills and encouraging government agencies to build a healthy climate which encourages creative performance, especially for the youth. For example, in his speech before the convening of the annual session of the Council of Oman in 2008, His Majesty said: “Giving attention to human resources, including the provision of the various tools required for enhancing their performance, incentives to develop their capabilities, diversifying their creative talents and improving their scientific and practical qualifications, is the basis of real development and the cornerstone in a structure which is based on solid foundations” (Ministry of Information, 2008). Also, in his speech at the opening of the Majlis Oman in 2011, he said: “The forthcoming stage will witness, with God’s will, significant attention and greater care to provide more opportunities for youth in order to consolidate their gains in knowledge, strengthen their talents in creation and production and increase their participation in the march towards comprehensive development” (Ministry of Information, 2011).

The last trait of transformational leadership is individual consideration, which refers to leadership behaviour that contributes to follower satisfaction by paying close attention to individual needs, acting as a mentor or coach, and enabling individuals to develop their self-actualization (Bass and Riggio, 2006, and Michel et al., 2011). Obviously, the annual tours that His Majesty the Sultan performs that cover all Omani regions demonstrate his individual consideration behaviour. The tours reveal His Majesty desires to be in touch with his citizens, holds face-to-face discussions, and sees first-hand how they live and what their needs and requirements are. Since they started, the tours have become a feature of Omani life (Ministry of Information, 2012). Indeed, during these tours His Majesty, accompanied by certain ministers and advisors, travels round the country and stops off in various places to meet local citizens, sheikhs (tribes’ leaders), and dignitaries. These meetings take place either at Royal Camp sites or
on the road in more spontaneous encounters (Ministry of Information, 2012). His Majesty commented: “During my tours of the country I listen to old and young, treating everybody whatever their social status with respect” (Ahmed, 2006). In fact, His Majesty’s tours provide a vital and highly personal channel of communication between the leadership and the people, where citizens can speak directly to the Sultan, and express opinions freely. His Majesty said: “I must admit that I greatly enjoy these tours I make around the country ... I meet the people face to face and listen to their demands, while they listen to my views ... Checking on the state of one’s subjects is not unusual in the history of Islam and is generally regarded as one of the duties of a leader. There are citizens whose situations do not allow them to knock on certain doors, so I come to them directly” (Ahmed, 2006). During the Royal tours decisions are taken and directives issued on the implementation of road, water, electricity, and other service projects, or on resolving obstacles causing delays to projects currently in progress. Since these projects are not covered by the General State Budget, the budget must be amended to accommodate them. For example, after his tour in 2005 His Majesty issued his orders to establish new projects based on his direct observations and the discussions with citizens. An additional budget was allocated for those new projects with a total of 331 million Omani Rial (Ministry of Information, 2012).

Actually, understanding the Omani political leadership style is extremely important when attempting to interpret the effect of this style on the leaders in government organizations. Political leadership in Oman is almost exclusively concentrated in the Sultan and extends to all social and economic life. The Sultan has “an enormous degree of discretionary power” over state and society (Lucas, 2004). Since His Majesty is the head of the Ministers of Cabinet, ministries have a direct interaction with His Majesty. They attempt to translate His Majesty’s orders and direction into actions. Hammer and Turk (1987) stated that there is empirical evidence which suggests that subordinates tend to emulate their immediate superior’s style, whether that style is directive or participative. Common (2011) argue that Oman appears to have a culture that is potentially supportive of participative leadership, and according to Burns (1978) participative leaders have participative subordinates. Participation cascades from leaders to followers and the leaders become models to be imitated by their immediate followers. Therefore, as illustrated in the previous paragraphs, there is supporting evidence that His Majesty’s leadership style exhibits characteristics of transformational leadership style. One of the most important behaviours that transformational leaders practise is that of a role model, where the followers attempt to emulate
them and behave like their leaders (Bono and Judge, 2004; Stone et al., 2003; Bass and Riggio, 2006). In his speech on the second national day in 1972, His Majesty motivated government leaders in the Ministry of Education to start breaking the chain of ignorance with the available resources. He said: “Education was my great concern, and I saw that it was necessary to direct efforts to spread education. We have given the Ministry of Education the opportunity and supplied it with our capabilities to break the chains of ignorance. Schools have been opened regardless; the important thing is that there should be education, even under the shadow of trees” (Ministry of Information, 1972). Inspired by His Majesty’s speech, managers in the Ministry of Education, which itself was established in October 1970, enthusiastically took the responsibility for translating His Majesty’s vision and directives into reality. Al-Ghafri (2002) describes the Ministry’s actions at that time: “tents, hired buildings and even the shade of trees were used for running schools. Textbooks were borrowed from brotherly Arab Gulf countries. Teachers were recruited by secondment and private contracts from brotherly and friendly countries. School accommodation was also used for two shifts, one during the morning time and the other in the afternoon.”

Tichy and Ulrich (1984) suggest that the top management’s vision of change required managers at all levels to adopt the style of leadership which helps in implementing the top management’s vision. Thus, since discussions demonstrate that the Omani political leadership style exhibits transformational leadership and the Omani top-level management attempt to emulate their political leader, the Omani middle-level managers would be expected to practise transformational leadership behaviours like their top managers and to achieve His Majesty’s vision to transform Oman for the new modern era. To explore this conclusion this study investigates the extent to which Omani managers implement the transformational leadership style. In addition to religion, tribalism, and political leadership, national culture and national institutions have a significant effect on Omani leadership style.

### 3.3.4 The Effect of National Culture

Undoubtedly, leaders’ as well as employees’ behaviours are affected by the national culture surrounding them (Mujtaba et al., 2010). Obviously, leadership styles differ among individuals as well as countries and cultures. For instance, American managers’ general leadership style tends to reflect a short-run orientation of their organizations, while Japanese managers tend to
have a long-run orientation. Omani managers, similar to other Arab managers, tend to have a philosophy that lies in between the long-term approach of the Japanese and the short-term approach of the Americans (Jones et al., 2003). In conformity with At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996) generally, Oman’s culture depends highly on family decisions. Age and seniority tend to be highly valued as decisions are often made from the top. Additionally, lifetime employment is a common occurrence for nationals of the country.

To intensively understand the effect of national culture on Omani leaders, this study will take advantage of the research done by Hofstede (1993), who studied values in many countries in the early 1980s. McElwee and Al-Riyami (2003) illustrate that while Hofstede was employed as a psychologist for IBM, he collected data on values and norms from over 100,000 IBM employees from 64 countries. Hofstede used this data to develop a model of national culture, which is widely accepted and used. Hofstede found that countries could be profiled on at least four variables (the original profile): individualism, power distance, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. The masculinity–femininity dimension has been renamed the achievement versus nurturing orientation to be more politically correct (Mujtaba et al., 2010). Also a fifth dimension added later, long-term versus short-term orientation (Hofstede, 1993).

Though Oman was not one of the countries studied by Hofstede, its scores on the various cultural dimensions are likely to be similar to those of other Arab Muslim countries like Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates, which were included in the study (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Based on that, Oman’s national culture would be categorized as high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, high on collectivism and low on the masculinity. The long-term versus short-term orientation dimension is excluded, as it was not examined in Hofstede’s study of the Arab countries due to this element being introduced recently. The following sections attempt to exemplify the effect of national culture on Omani leaders based on Hofstede’s classifications.

### 3.3.4.1 A High Power Distance Culture

Based on Hofstede’s study (1993), Oman can be grouped as a high power distance culture. In this kind of culture, hierarchy and inequality is expected between leaders and employees. The government units will present a strong vertical hierarchy and decisions will tend to be made from the top down by the most senior member. Therefore, under a higher power distance culture
Oman’s employees expect to accept unequal distribution of power, and thus leaders are expected and required to make decisions and tell employees what needs to be done and by when (Ringov and Zollo, 2007). Additionally, empowerment practices are unlikely to have an effect on Omani employees’ performance, since they may not assertively express their ideas to their leaders. Thus, Omani leaders will not give employees’ important tasks, and in contrast employees will expect clear guidance from their leaders (Bae and Lawler, 2000).

In such a culture, leaders blame employees, not the system, for things going wrong and act as a control mechanism. Omani leaders influence their employees more through sanctions and assertive reasoning compared to low power distance leaders, who influence more through bargaining and reasoning (Hofstede, 2001).

Omani culture values social status, which plays an important part in an organization’s day-to-day activities. Social status is based on factors such as age, seniority, wealth, and tribal relations (At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza, 1996). In fact, those people with high status have a high level of authority and power. Therefore, Omani employees who interact in a high power distance culture are more likely to tolerate class distinctions, are less likely to prefer democratic participation, and are more afraid of disagreeing with top leaders (Hofstede, 1984).

### 3.3.4.2 High Uncertainty Avoidance Culture

In a high uncertainty avoidance culture like Oman, lifetime employment is a typical characteristic for the Omani civil service sector. Thus, Omani leaders as well as employees would have a preference for loyalty to their organizations, prefer career stability, and seek longer employment durations (At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza, 1996). Ministry of Civil Service figures reported that in 2011 the number of Omani employees in the age group of 40 years and above was 26,825, which represented 24% of the total civil service employees, and the number of employees who were in the age group of between 30 and 40 years constituted 45% of the total Omani employees. The report concluded that those employees were expected to remain in service for a long period of time (Ministry of Civil Service, 2011).

As Omani culture ranks as a high uncertainty avoidance culture, leaders will be more tasks oriented and value more highly formalized management structures (Hofstede, 2001). They will prefer working in larger organizations with appealing technological capabilities and anticipate being involved in operational decisions. Omani leaders will put more emphasis rules.
and procedures compared with managers in low uncertainty avoidance cultures, who put stress on an attitude of tolerance of ambiguity and innovative behaviour (Dickson, 2012).

Indeed, in a high uncertainty avoidance culture like Oman, organizational performance would not be affected if the administration attempted to introduce such human resources management practices as providing opportunities to participate in decision making or applying flexible job descriptions (Blau et al., 2010).

**3.3.4.3 Collectivist Culture**

Like other Arab national cultures, Oman scores low on individualism according to Hofstede et al., (2010). Thus, Oman is described as a collectivist culture with close long-term commitment to the family or tribe, where loyalty is paramount and overrides most other societal rules (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). According to Jung et al., (1995), collectivistic cultures tend to be homogeneous, share a common responsibility for goal accomplishment, try to maintain a group harmony, and emphasize mutual interdependence in organizations.

In such a collectivistic culture, Omani leaders tend to act in the interest of their group rather than themselves. This group consideration extends to management hiring and promotion decisions and to considering a person’s family in making decisions (Triandis et al., 1993). For example, in human resources management decisions, family or tribal relationships may override considerations of merit (Mellahi and Wood, 2001).

As Oman is a collectivist society, employees expect their leaders to take care of them while employees are ready to identify with their leaders’ vision and demonstrate their loyalty (Bass and Bass, 2008). These characteristics could motivate leaders to exhibit a transformational leadership style easily. Actually, transformational leadership is more likely to emerge and have a stronger effect in a collectivist culture than in an individualistic culture (Bass, 1996, and Jung and Yammarino, 2001). Therefore, Omani leaders could easily become a source of admiration for their employees and this could elevate employees’ pride, loyalty, and confidence, because group members tend to be strongly attached to the organization and they hold a great respect and trust toward their leader (Bass and Yokochi, 1991, and Triandis, 1993).
3.3.4.4 Low Masculinity Culture

Omani culture was given a relatively low score in masculinity, which indicates that Oman is a feminine culture (At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza, 1996). The low score that Oman obtained in masculinity could be expected, since there is a dramatic increase in women entering the workforce and Omani people practise Islamic teachings. According to Hofstede (2001), the feminine or nurturing dimension focuses on being modest, having concern for quality of life, and employing more females. In keeping with Mujtaba et al., (2010), the high number of women entering the workforce has a positive influence on the feminine dimension. In fact, the notion that Omani women represent a large potential (untapped) human resource reserve has encouraged Oman’s leaders to employ more females (McElwee and Al-Riyami, 2003). Ministry of Civil Service figures from 2011 illustrate that during the last decade the number of women entering the Omani civil service workplace increased from 18,641 in 2000 to 48,751 in 2010, which represents an increase of 161.5%.

Moreover, Islamic values and beliefs reinforce Omani culture to be a feminine culture. People in an Islamic environment are encouraged to practise socialization with others. Islamic teachings guide them to take care of their neighbourhoods, participate positively in the community, respect and admire others regardless of their differences, and cooperate in sociality (At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza, 1996).

From an organizational-context point of view, Hofstede (2001) states that a masculine culture values competitiveness and the willingness to make tough decisions. In a feminine society like Oman, teams are nurturing, collaborations across and outside the organization are fostered, shorter work hours are preferred, and conflicts are resolved through compromise and negotiation. In a feminine culture, Omani leaders will exhibit more consultative and considerate features compared to those leaders who are in a masculine culture, who will need to practise a strong directive attitude (Dickson et al., 2012).

In conformity with Mujtaba et al., (2010), culture is considered to play an important role in the behaviours of its people, and it has a more significant effect on employees than their organization’s culture. Similar to other Arab Muslim countries such as Egypt, Kuwait, Lebanon, and Qatar, Hofstede’s study categorized Oman’s national culture as high on power distance, high on uncertainty avoidant, higher on collectivism, and low on the masculinity dimension (Hofstede et al., 2010). However, Mujtaba et al., (2010) claimed that over time, some values and practices
tend to change and that has an effect on the national culture. For example, recently Al Dulaimi and Sailan (2011) conducted a study to investigate the national values of Qatar and whether it differed from the Arab countries’ scores as described by Hofstede (1980–2001). The study found that the score of Qatar’s national culture was different from the scores of the Arab countries that were measured by Hofstede (1980). For instance, the results of the study indicated that Qatar culture is low power distance and low on collectivism, whereas the Arab countries’ culture is high power distance and high on collectivism. The researchers demonstrate that the new economic power, the country’s development strategies, and emphasis on investing in human resources are some of the reasons for this shift. Actually, Oman is experiencing the same development changes that are occurring in the region; therefore, it is not an exception and its national culture is expected to change.

3.3.5 The Effect of National Institutions

When His Majesty took power in Oman, the administrative body was being run by only 1,253 employees working in units that provided some basic services in the absence of laws and regulations for organizing public service affairs (Habib, 1991, and Shaiban, 1983). Since that time, the Sultan has taken it upon himself to build a modernized country managed by a qualified Omani government. To achieve this objective, His Majesty determined four main factors: the development of human resources, the development of natural resources, the establishment of infrastructure, and the establishment of a state of institutions (Al-Hamadani, 2005).

During the period of 1970–1974, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos formed a number of ministries and departments to run some of the country’s important affairs, such as the Ministry of Education, Health and Justice, along with departments such as Finance, Audit and Personnel Affairs (Fareed, 1980, and Al-Khateeb, 1980).

In the first phase of the development process and under the chairmanship of His Majesty, the Development Council was formed in 1975 to launch Oman’s first five-year developmental plan. From that time five-year development plans were issued consecutively to contribute to the development of the country. In 2011 the Ministry of National Economy launched the eighth five-year development plan (2011–2015). The plan’s objectives were formulated taking into consideration the main dimensions and objectives of the long-term development strategy (1996–2020), the follow-up and evaluation results of the performance of the seventh plan, together with
consideration for the new developments that might occur during the plan period. The plan awarded a special observance to enhance the development of human resources. For instance, the plan set 1,000 funded scholarships at a cost of R.O. 100 million to develop human resources and assigned R.O. 27.2 million to support the national training projects (Ministry of National Economy, 2011).

In his speech celebrating the 40th anniversary, His Majesty expressed his satisfaction with what has been achieved through the development plans, saying: “The attention we have paid to the development plans in order to build a community of prosperity, science and knowledge has been considerable and, praise be to God, a percentage of these development programs, in which we take pride, have been achieved in various parts of the Sultanate” (Ministry of Information, 2010b).

In the second phase of the development process and based on His Majesty’s instruction, the “Oman 2020 Vision” was set out for 25 years (1996 to 2020). One of the main objectives of the vision is the development of human resources and the enhancement of the Omani workforce’s skills. The vision attempts to reach this objective through upgrading the levels of education systems; promoting educational and vocational training; and developing labour market mechanisms aimed at increasing the level of the workforce’s participation in the economy (Ministry of Development, 1996).

Obviously, during the whole development process that Oman is going through, the development of human resources holds the most important elements that His Majesty’s government is concerned with. Human resource development has been identified as a main component of economic development in Oman, and His Majesty always gives the subject special attention in almost all of his speeches. In his last speech for the 42th anniversary, His Majesty emphasized that the development of human resources takes top priority in all government plans and programmes, as the human being is the cornerstone of every development structure and a pivotal component around which all types of development revolve (Ministry of Information, 2011).

Part of the human resources development process is enhancing the capabilities of those who are leading the development of Omani human resources. In the context of this study, leadership development refers to any process or activity aimed at equipping managers with the skills, competencies, and knowledge required to perform their current jobs, tasks, and
responsibilities, or to prepare them for future jobs (Abbott, 1993). This includes training for non-managers and managerial staff as well as development activities aimed at enhancing the performance of managers (Budhwar et al., 2002). The Omani government established the Administrative Development System to develop Omani human resources and implicitly enhance Omani leadership skills.

Since 28 October 2011, Oman has been divided into eleven governorates. Those governorates consist of a number of states with a total of 61 states called “Wilayat”. Each governorate has one or more regional centres and the total number of regional centres in Oman is 12 (Ministry of Information, 2012).

Administratively, the Oman Administrative Development System (ADS) comprises the Council of Civil Service, the Ministry of Civil Service, and the Institute of Public Administration (Shaiban, 1999). The Council of Civil Service has a legislative role, and is responsible for developing general policies that affect the civil service through formulating policies and issuing laws, rules, and regulations regarding terms, conditions, and benefits of employment in the civil service (Ministry of Information, 2012). Indeed, the two institutions that play a key role in developing leadership in Oman are the Ministry of Civil Service and the Institute of Public Administration. Both units contribute to developing capabilities and upgrading the skills of government employees through planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating training, consulting, and researching activities. The next paragraphs illustrate the participations of those bodies in developing human resources in general and address their role in the development of leadership capacity in Oman in particular.

In 1973 the Divan of Personnel Affairs was established to manage government personnel affairs. To meet the development and expansion in the civil service, the Divan of Personnel Affairs was replaced in 1988 by the Ministry of Civil Service. One of the Ministry’s objectives is to raise the performance level at civil service units by proposing plans and programmes that aim to develop human resources. According to its responsibilities, the Ministry of Civil Serviceformulates training plans to train public employees in cooperation with governmental units, both inside and outside Oman (Ministry of Civil Service, 2004).

Annually, the ministry prepares and implements training programmes for all government employees and monitors as well as oversees the training of government employees in collaboration with the Institute of Public Administration and the specialized training centres in
government units. Additionally, the Civil Services Law that was issued by Royal Decree number 120 in 2004 stipulated that the Ministry of Civil Service should establish standards and criteria for annual training programmes for all government ministers. These standards and criteria are developed as part of the Unified Training Strategy Projects. Each September as part of this project the Ministry of Civil Service distributes a training plan and provides standards that government ministries employ to design their training programmes. The ministries then determine the training needs of their employees and submit a proposal to the Ministry of Civil Service for discussion endorsement. Once training proposals have been approved, government ministries can proceed with the needed training. Further, the Ministry of Civil Service published a guide about the private training centres to help government bodies in dealing with them to fulfil their training needs (Gonzalez et al., 2008).

According to a Ministry of Civil Service statistical report, the number of employees who participate in training programmes has increased dramatically. In 1989, the number of employees who took training programmes was 2,334 employees, whereas in 2010 the number of Omani employees offered training was 55,116 employees, of whom 53,872 took internal programmes and 1,244 trained abroad (Ministry of Civil Service, 2011). Obviously, the increase occurred to cope with the natural development of the civil service and go along with the significant increase in the number of employees recruited.

Noticeably, the Ministry of Civil Service figures grouped all management and leadership training activities into one category called “administrative development”. In 2010 the Ministry’s report indicated that 6,075 employees participated in administrative development training programmes. The number of trainees who took administrative development training programmes inside Oman was 5,846, while 229 employees participated in overseas programmes. Further, the Ministry gave 475 employees the opportunity to train outside Oman utilizing grants training programmes offered by international countries. From those opportunities, 85 employees trained in administrative development training programmes.

In 1977 the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) was established as an independent body with its own administrative and financial autonomy under the chairmanship of the Minister of Civil Service. The institute was founded to: (1) raise the standard of performance and efficiency of Omani employees at different levels and to train them theoretically and practically through sustained training programmes; (2) increase administrative awareness necessary for
developing administrative standards and improving efficiency and raising productivity; (3) conduct theoretical and practical scientific researches and render consultancy services to ministries, public organizations, and public corporations with the purpose of helping them to solve their problems in the area of public administration; (4) strengthen relations in the field of public administration between Oman and other similar institutions at the regional, Arabic, and international levels; and (5) undertake the responsibility of publication, documentation, and collection of administrative information (Institute of Public Administration, 1994).

To achieve those objectives, the Institute of Public Administration annually prepares and implements training activities for all different administrative levels. Those short training courses, conferences, and seminars/symposiums are organized to provide public service employees with the latest knowledge and skills that are needed to accomplish their duties effectively and efficiently. According to the Institute statistics, until the end of December 2011, the IPA carried out 2,533 programmes with the participation of 47,408 employees (Institute of Public Administration, 2012).

In 2011, the institute conducted 179 training programmes and managed to train 3,741 employees at different administrative levels. Similar to the Ministry of Civil Service, the leadership training programmes were grouped under the “administrative development” activities. The administration development training programmes field attracted 2,955 trainees, representing 79% of total trainees, compared with other training fields such as written training, which attracted 786 trainees, representing 21% (Institute of Public Administration, 2012).

The distribution of training programmes at different management levels illustrates that the training courses focused intensively on the direct management level, followed by middle-level management, specialists and executives, and finally the top-level management. The Institute report demonstrates that 1,210 employees from the direct management level participated in 62 training programmes, which represented 38.4% of all the trainees. The figures also indicate that 53 programmes were offered to middle-level management employees and 845 managers participated, representing 26.8% of the total number of participators. Specialists and executives attended 32 programmes and 625 employees participated in those programmes, which represented 19.8% of the total. Top management participating in training activities reached 472 employees who attended 10 training programmes, which represented 15% of the total number of participants (Institute of Public Administration, 2012).
In its research role, the Institute of Public Administration is responsible for issuing publications, periodicals, researches, and studies related to administrative sciences. In 1979 the institute issued a periodical called “Aledary” (the Administration). It is a quarterly periodical specializing in publishing researches and studies, articles, book reviews, and reports, and summaries of MAs and PhDs that are related to public administration fields. Up until 2011 the Institute published 127 issues of “Aledary”. Further, by 2011 the Institute issued 84 different books, studies, and specialized researches and 51 guides for achievements. Unfortunately, from those 84 research works published, only three researches address the development of leadership.

To sum up, Common (2011) argues that since Oman’s administration system is a traditional (or highly centralized) bureaucratic system, it is unlikely that leadership development is on the agenda of the Omani government. As it is clearly seen, the Omani government continues to make great efforts to promote human resources in the country. Although the overall drive to develop human resources in Oman does not explicitly address leadership, the indicators that have been presented demonstrate that the development and strengthening of the leadership capacity of Omani employees is among the government’s efforts in enhancing the administrative capacities of public employees. However, this may change in the near future, which will increase the demand for leadership skills within Omani organizations for a number of reasons.

Firstly, the Omani government entered into partnerships with many international organizations; for example, in October 2000 Oman became a part of the World Trade Organization (WTO). These partnerships will demonstrate the need for qualified Omani managers with adequate leadership skills to effectively represent Oman globally. Secondly, during the last two decades the Omani government has moved towards a partnership between the state enterprises and the private companies. This intention shows the requirement for government managers to gain leadership abilities to deal with managers who are business oriented. Thirdly, there is a government trend to establish giant projects such as the industrial zones, airports, and ports, which will drive the need to have capable government leaders to direct such projects. Fourthly, the government’s privatization policy for some government services forces the government administration to enhance their managers’ leadership skills and change their mentality to be able to deal with the business environment. For example, Omantel, which is Oman’s national telecommunications provider, is a leading public enterprise that addressed the development of leadership competencies. This was for two reasons: to meet WTO requirements
regarding deregulation and move leadership onto its corporate framework to meet the change agenda; and to cope with market restructuring and the introduction of competition into the Omani market, which occurred in 2004 (Common, 2011). However, Omantel remains a bureaucratic organization where traditional approaches are still practised (Tremmel, 2007). Lastly, the future government trend will be to develop top-level management and enhance their leadership capacities, since indicators have shown that the focus in the development and training in government organizations is concentrated on direct and middle levels of management. Evidently, in 2011 the Board of Directors for the Institute of Public Administration signed two agreements between the Omani Institute and the Institute of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia and the National School of Administration in France to undertake a consultative study to evaluate and develop the Institute’s activities with the aim of expanding and diversifying the services that it offers to public organizations. The Board of Directors intended to enhance the quality of training activities the Institute offers and concentrate on providing professional programmes to top-level management (Institute of Public Administration, 2011).

3.4 Conclusion

Acknowledging that very little is understood about the concept of leadership in the Arab Gulf states and especially in Oman, this chapter considers the unique context of Omani culture and analytically assesses and elaborates factors that influence leadership in Oman’s civil service sector. Understanding these elements will provide a foundation for how leadership may be developed in Oman’s civil service sector. These factors are: religion, tribalism, political leadership, national culture, and the effect of national institutions.

The chapter demonstrates that Islam is the dominate factor that plays a vital role in Omani people’s daily lives. Thus, the government should take into consideration the influence of Islam when attempting to design human resources management policy. As Muslims, an Omani leader extract their leadership values primarily from the Qur’an, Sunnah, jurisprudence, and the biography of the Prophet Mohammad’s (PBUH) companions. The literature illustrates nine principles and ten essential personal qualities for Islamic leadership which Omani leaders seek to embrace.
Further, tribal structure plays an indispensable role in the lives of Omani people, where the status of the individual is determined by his/her tribal or group affiliation and rarely by individual merits. Although the Omani administration is trying to utilize good human resource management practice, the use of social criteria is still widespread in apparently modernizing institutions such as the civil service, and it has a significant effect on leaders’ behaviours. Actually, based on the chapter discussion, a good description of the Omani government environment is that it works under a combination of two systems: the formal one is built on the merit principle, while the other depends on social criteria.

The Omani political leadership style is found to have an effect on Omani leaders. Political leadership in Oman is almost exclusively concentrated in the Sultan and extends to all social and economic life. There is supporting evidence that His Majesty’s leadership style has elements of transformational leadership. One of the most important behaviours that a transformational leader demonstrates is role model behaviour. Thus Omani leaders would be expected to emulate His Majesty and exhibit transformational leadership behaviours.

Leadership behaviours are affected by the culture surrounding them and national culture has a great impact on Omani leaders. Utilizing Hofstede’s dimension for national culture, Oman culture is categorized as high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, higher on collectivism and low on the masculinity dimension. All those dimensions shape the ways that Omani leaders display their leadership style.

Finally, the chapter discusses the effect of institutional culture on Omani leadership. The Omani government evaluates the Administrative Development System to develop Omani human resources generally and, in particular, to enhance Omani leadership skills. The Ministry of Civil Service and the Institute of Public Administration are revealed as the most important units that play a key role in developing leadership in Oman. Both organizations contribute to developing capabilities and upgrading the skills of government leaders through planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating training, consulting, and researching activities.

In order to answer the research’s questions, the study builds on the previous two chapters (chapter two and chapter three) to identify a theoretical framework for the study. This framework concentrated on addressing the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creative performance. Thus, the next chapter illustrates the study’s analytical framework.
Chapter Four: Analytical Framework for the Study

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the analytical framework for this study, by synthesizing concepts from leadership and organizational creativity theories, especially from the componential model of individual creativity. The proposed framework was specifically developed from an in-depth review of literature examining the theoretical basis of the Full Range of Leadership model theory and its relationship to employees’ creative performance. Indeed, the Full Range model has gained significant academic attention over the last 25 years as a new paradigm for understanding leadership. The theory was introduced by Burns (1978) and further developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). In well over 100 empirical studies, the transformational leadership style from the Full Range of Leadership model has been found to be consistently related to organizational and leadership effectiveness (Bryman, 1992; Lowe et al., 1996).

Hence, the proposed analytical framework in Figure 4.1 attempts to illustrate the variables that are examined in this study. The arrows shown indicate the direct connection of the relationship between the variables, whereas the diagram below displays the study framework. In the following subsections each component of the framework is considered.

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**Figure 4.1:** The Research Study Framework.
Source: The Present Researcher (2012)
4.2 The Full Range of Leadership Model

The Full Range of Leadership model, also known as transformational/transactional leadership theory, was proposed by Burns in 1978. The theory was further developed by Bass (1985) and tested by various researchers. Based on Kirkbride (2006), the Full Range model is recognized as one of the most researched and validated leadership models in use worldwide today. Bass and Avolio (2007) argue that the Full Range of Leadership model comprises three leadership styles, which are: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership. In fact, Avolio (1999) states that the Full Range of Leadership model does not mean that it covers all the dimensions of leadership styles, but it is a model that ranges from passive/avoidant leadership to a highly encouraging charismatic role-model leader.

Many studies, such as those by Avolio et al. (1999) and Bass (1998), demonstrate that both transformational and transactional leadership types are more effective than passive/avoidant leadership. According to Nawaz and Bodla (2010), transformational leadership has been found to be positively related to subordinate outcomes such as intrinsic motivation, creativity, job performance, self-efficacy, justice perceptions, work engagement, and positive psychological capital. Likewise, Bass (1998) and Judge and Piccolo (2004) point out that transactional leadership is positively related to subordinate outcomes such as extra effort, organizational commitment, managerial satisfaction, and effectiveness. However, the passive/avoidant leadership style is found to have a negative relationship with some of the aforementioned outcomes (Bycio et al., 1995, and Judge and Piccolo, 2004).

For the purpose of this study and based on Bass and Riggio (2006), the three components of the Full Range of Leadership model are defined as follows:

**Transformational leadership:** a process where a leader influences the organizational members toward the achievement of organizational goals by utilizing his social charisma and actions to encourage people in the organization, articulating an inspiring vision for the future, creating an environment for creativity, and paying close attention to individuals’ needs and wants.

**Transactional leadership:** a transaction process between leaders and employees where leaders clarify the employees’ responsibilities and demonstrate the expectations that they have, the tasks that must be accomplished, and the benefits of compliance to the self-interests of the employees.
**Passive/avoidant leadership**: the process where leaders avoid responsibilities and are passive and inactive; do not make necessary decisions; fail to follow up on issues; delay actions; and do not make use of authority.

Based on the limitations of the existing literature as well as the need to understand the relevance of the theories of leadership and creativity in the Omani context, the study seeks answers to the following questions:

**Research Question 1**: To what extent do managers and employees in the Omani civil service sector perceive that Omani managers demonstrate the types of the Full Range of Leadership model, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership? And to what extent do they differ in their perceptions?

**Measurement**: The Full Range of Leadership model is measured using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. According to Avolio and Bass (2004), the measurement has been tested by many researchers (for example: Antonakis et al., 2003), used in over 20 countries, and translated into 12 languages. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) contains 45 items. Thirty-six items, which are employed in the study, focus on the nine subscales of the three independent variables, and the other nine items assess three leadership outcomes: extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction.

4.3 The Components of the Full Range of Leadership Model

As illustrated by Bass (1998), Bass and Riggio (2006), Nawaz and Bodla (2010), and Michel et al., (2011), transformational leadership includes five component behaviours: (a) idealized influence (attributed), which refers to the socialized charisma of the managers, whereby the employees feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect for the managers; (b) idealized influence (behaviour), which refers to charismatic actions of the managers that are centred on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission; (c) inspirational motivation, which refers to the ways managers energize, motivate, and inspire employees by articulating an appealing vision, providing meaning for focusing employees’ effort, modelling appropriate behaviours, and communicating to employees that the vision is achievable; (d) intellectual stimulation, which refers to the way in which managers question the status quo, appeal to employees’ intellect, stimulate them to question their assumptions, and invite innovative and creative solutions to problems; and (e) individualized consideration, which refers to managers’ behaviours that contribute to employees’
satisfaction by advising, supporting, encouraging, coaching, and paying attention to individual needs and wants, and thus allowing them to develop their self-actualization.

Transactional leadership consists of two factors: (f) contingent reward behaviour, which involves identifying employees’ needs, facilitating the achievement of agreed objectives, linking both to what the managers expect to accomplish, and rewarding employees if objectives are met; and (g) management-by-exception (active), which refers to managers’ behaviours where they are monitoring employees’ performance, anticipating any deviations from standards, and taking corrective action. The third type of the Full Range of Leadership model is the passive/avoidant style, which consists of two factors: (h) management-by-exception (passive), which refers to managers’ behaviours where they monitor employees’ performance, wait until mistakes are brought to their attention, and then take action; and (i) laissez-faire behaviours where managers avoid responsibilities, do not make necessary decisions, fail to follow up on issues, delay actions, and do not make use of authority.

To investigate those components in the Omani civil service sector, the study set the second research question.

**Research Question 2**: What is the relative significance of the components of transformational and transactional leadership of Omani managers from managers’ and employees’ perspectives?

**Measurement**: The study survey used the 36 items that were included in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to evaluate the Full Range of Leadership model (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Twenty items focused on transformational leadership as an independent variables, where each factor was evaluated by four items. Eight items focused on transactional leadership as an independent variables, where each factor was again assessed by four items. Another eight items focused on the passive/avoidant leadership as an independent variables, with each factor being evaluated by four items. However, based on the results collated from the pilot test, some items were added and others were changed and rephrased, as explained in the Methodology Chapter.

### 4.4 Employees’ Creative Performance

Organizational creativity scholars acknowledge that an organization’s ability to generate innovative ideas depends primarily on individual employees. Researchers recognize creativity as the first step toward innovation (Amabile, 1997; Eadie, 1997; and Higgins, 1995). According to Giugni and Kurson (2002), the strength of any organization depends on its people; if it gives
employees more freedom and fluency to express their imagination as individuals, there will be more opportunity to create as a group, which will raise the overall number of innovation outcomes.

Creative employees are those who tend to identify opportunities for new products or services, search for new uses of existing systems or equipment, generate novel and practical ideas, always seek creative solutions, and have the ability to develop adequate plans for the implementation of new ideas (Oldham and Cummings, 1996).

Indeed, creative employees produce novel and useful thoughts to develop organizational processes, procedures, and practices, as well as products and services. Moreover, these people might create a spillover effect by serving as role models to the rest of the organization, where new ideas to become transferable to other employees in the organization for the benefit of both individuals and the organization (Shalley and Gilson, 2004; Shalley et al., 2004).

The literature has confirmed that individual creative performance is essential to organizational innovation (Amabile, 1988; Woodman et al., 1993), which in turn is imperative for long-term organizational survival and success (Kanter, 1988; Tushman and O’Reilly, 2002; Utterback, 1994).

For the purpose of this study and consistent with Amabile (1988, 1996) and Hennessey and Amabile (1998), employees’ creative performance is defined as the ability for employees to produce new, novel, and useful ideas. This definition has been widely used in many researches and concentrates on practical outcomes of creative processes (for example, Scott and Bruce, 1994; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Farmer et al., 2003; Shalley and Gilson, 2004; Jaskyte and Kisieliene, 2006; Gong et al., 2009; and Munoz-Doyague et al., 2012).

Therefore, this study attempts to identify the Omani employees’ creative performance and provide a basis for decision makers to utilize this information specifically to support employees’ creativity and generally develop organizational innovation. Thus, the study’s third research question is as follows.

**Research Question 3:** To what degree do managers and employees think that employees working in the Omani civil service sector are creative? And to what extent do they differ in their perceptions of employees’ creative performance?

**Measurement:** The study will employ a 13-item scale developed by Zhou and George (2001) to measure employees’ creative performance. In developing the scale, Zhou and George (2001)
developed 10 items in the scale, and used other 3 items from Scott and Bruce (1994). As it is the case with leadership items, the 13-item scale will be developed based on the pilot test suggestions. Example items include: “This employee comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance” and “This employee is a good source of creative ideas”.

4.5 The Relationship between the Full Range of Leadership Model and Employees’ Creative Performance

In general, the literature demonstrates that transformational leaders put greater emphasis on creativity than transactional leaders (for example: Church and Waclawski, 2011; Howell and Higgins, 1990). According to Bass and Avolio (1990), transformational leaders enhance employees’ capacity to think on their own, develop new ideas, and question outmoded operating rules. Additionally, Elkins and Keller (2003) argue that transformational leadership behaviours closely match the determinants of innovation and creativity in the workplace, some of which are vision, support for innovation, autonomy, encouragement, recognition, and challenge. Further, Soisk (1997) found that computer-mediated groups with transformational leaders generated more original solutions, more supportive remarks, greater solution clarification, and asked more questions about solutions than groups with transactional leaders. Furthermore, Jung (2001) found that transformational leaders promote higher levels of creativity, as measured by the divergent thinking of group members, than transactional leaders. Moreover, a study by Jung et al., (2003) demonstrated that transformational leaders primarily encourage employee creativity and innovation by providing a climate that supports employees’ innovative efforts. Also, studies indirectly pointing to a positive relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ creative behaviour have found transformational leadership to be related to increased performance quality of research-and-development teams (Keller, 1992; Waldman and Atwater, 1994). This can be argued to be largely dependent on (but not equivalent to) creative behaviour. However, the relationship between creativity and transactional leadership was tested and found to be not significant. Pieterse et al., (2010) state that transactional leadership is negatively related to innovative behaviour because it is focused more on in-role performance and less on motivation of new activities, which will cause less creative behaviour because transactional leadership is perceived as controlling and encouraging behaviours.
Acknowledging the above discussion, the literature illustrates that a few studies reveal contradictory results regarding the relationship between transformational leadership and creative performance. While studies such as Boerner et al., (2007); Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, (2009), and Pieterse et al., (2010) found a positive relationship, others such as Basu and Green (1997) found a negative relationship and Moss and Ritossa, (2007) did not find any effects. Therefore, as the essence of leadership is the influence in terms of energizing and motivating employees (Yukl, 2009), specific attention as to whether transformational leadership is effective in engendering employees’ creative performance, and is more effective than transactional leadership, is essential. Thus, the fourth research question is:

**Research Question 4**: Is there a relationship between the Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creativity?

### 4.6 The Effect of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Components on Employees’ Creative Performance

Transformational leadership components closely match the determinants of employees’ creative performance. Through idealized influence attributes and behaviours, leaders attempt to build trust and confidence in their employees’ ability to successfully implement their competencies, which will enhance employees’ ability to develop new ideas, try new ways and question outdated operating rules, and exhibit their creative behaviours (Bass and Avolio, 1990). The inspirational-motivation component shows the leaders’ ability to provide employees with the encouragement needed to generate new ideas and thoughts (Bass and Avolio, 1995, and Sosik et al., 1998). Also, inspirational motivation contributes towards employees’ intrinsic motivation, and is recognized to be a powerful drive to search for creative ways of addressing changes in managerial processes, practices, or structures (Amabile, 1997). Indeed, intrinsic motivation is one of the most important sources of creativity (Hennessey and Amabile, 1998). In fact, empirical studies such as Tierney et al., (1999) and Jaussi and Dionne (2003) reveal that when employees are intrinsically motivated, they exhibit more creative performance. Through intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders encourage their employees’ imagination, questioning their assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways to generate new solutions. In fact, leaders who exhibit intellectual stimulation attempt to encourage synergies between their employees. They always seek differing perspectives when solving problems and challenge their
employees’ old ways of doing things to provide them with opportunities to grow and develop their skills and abilities (Bass and Riggio, 2006, and Yammarino and Bass, 1990). For individualized consideration, transformational leaders show empathy, consideration, and support for employees. They also pay special attention to each employee’s needs, abilities, and aspirations for achievement and growth by acting as a coach and mentor. Individualizedconsideration leaders delegate assignments and provide continuous feedback. Indeed, all of these behaviours should help employees to overcome their fears enhance the employees’ ability to challenge the status quo and lead to higher creativity (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1990; and Yammarino and Bass, 1990). For transactional leadership factors, Bass (1985) argue that contingent reward is the most active form of transactional leadership although they are less active than transformational leadership factors. However, researchers such as Boerner et al., (2007) and Moss and Ritossa (2007) found no relation between transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance, while others, such as Pieterse et al., (2010), found a negative relationship. This difference in findings in the literature guided the study to investigate this relationship effect, which led to the formulation of the fifth research question.

Research Question 5: What is the impact of transformational and transactional leadership components on employees’ creative performance?

4.7 The Influence of Managers’ Personal Characteristics on their Perceptions

Many studies, such as Howell et al., (2007), emphasize the significant role that personal characteristics play in shaping managers’ characteristics and personality. Researchers have examined the impact of managers’ personal characteristics on their preferred leadership styles. Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) used a multiple regression analysis to examine the impact of the respondents’ personal characteristics on their opinions of the traits/behaviours of successful leaders. The results revealed that the personal characteristics have little effect on the respondents’ views of the leadership traits/behaviours that facilitate or hinder leadership success. Further, Nguni (2005) conducted a study investigating the effects of transformational leadership on teachers’ job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviours. The study examined the influence of head teachers’ personal characteristics on their perception of demonstrating transformational leadership behaviours. The study found that age is the only personal characteristic that is associated with transformational leadership components.
Head teachers’ ages were found to correlate negatively with an effect of 21% on intellectual stimulation. That is, when head teachers become older, their ability to create and innovate declines.

Furthermore, evidence surrounding the role of gender in transformational leadership suggests that women might be more likely to engage in transformational leadership behaviours and be more effective transformational leaders than men. Eagly et al., (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of 45 studies of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles and found that female leaders were more transformational overall than male leaders. Specifically, women scored significantly higher than men on overall idealized influences (attributed and behaviours), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Female leaders also scored higher than male leaders on the transactional leadership dimension of contingent reward. Male leaders, on the other hand, received higher scores than female leaders on both passive and active forms of management-by-exception as well as on laissez-faire leadership.

Therefore, to enrich the literature, the study considers managers’ personal characteristics to clarify their effect on their perceptions toward managers’ use of transformational leadership and employees’ creative performance. The study set the sixth question, which is:

**Research Question 6:** To what extent are managers’ perception of their own transformational leadership and their perception towards employees’ creative performance influenced by their personal characteristics?

### 4.8 Conclusion

Based on the theoretical discussions, the framework used to guide this study examines the influence of transformational leadership behaviours (idealized influence attributed and behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), transactional leadership behaviours (contingent reward and active management-by-exception), and passive/avoidant leadership behaviours (passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire) on employees’ creative performance in the Omani civil service sector. Employees’ creative performance is defined as the employees’ ability to produce novel and useful ideas.
In the next chapter, the Methodology chapter, this study will discuss the methodology that the study follows to explore the degree to which Omani civil service managers are practising the Full Range of Leadership model to enhance employees’ creative performance.
Chapter Five: Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

In the broadest sense of the word, the definition of research includes two critical phrases, which are ‘systematic investigation’ and ‘generation or increase of knowledge’. Saunders et al., (2012) define research as something that people undertake in order to find out things in a systemic way, thereby increasing their knowledge. In simpler terms Anderson (2005) also defines research as a “systematic investigation to establish facts or principles or to collect information on a subject”. As supported by Saunders et al., (2012), the term ‘systematic’ indicates that research is based on a logical relationship and not just beliefs. It also means that there is a definite set of certain steps and procedures a researcher needs to follow in the research process which are always taken to get the most accurate and reliable results. The term ‘knowledge collection’ relates to the outcome of the research itself, which must have an aim or a set of questions that need to be answered.

Therefore, the aim of this study is to examine the degree to which Omani civil service managers perform the Full Range of Leadership model and to investigate its relationship with employees’ creative performance. Rost (1991) argues that leadership studies are a multidisciplinary academic field of study that focuses on leadership in organizational contexts and in human life. Leadership studies have origins in the social sciences (for example, sociology, anthropology, and psychology) and in humanities (for example, history and philosophy), as well as in professional and applied fields of study (for example, management and education).

Researchers who have explored the field of leadership have used almost all methodologies known in social science to study and gather data for their researches. As cited by Bass (1985), the early studies of leadership which focused on trait theories used tests and questionnaires to gather data. Later studies of interaction-based leadership theories used trained observers with behaviour checklists in experimental and field situations. Other methods in use are autobiographical and biographical analysis, case studies, evaluation of news records, memoranda, meeting minutes, speeches, communication patterns, observers’ logs, and ratings by others (including supervisors, peers, subordinates, and clients). In addition, there are also many studies which have used a combination of methods.

Likewise, scholars exploring the field of creativity have utilized a variety of methods. For example, individual ability and behaviours have been tested through creativity tests using personality tests, biographical inventories, and behavioural tests (Jung, 2001). The products of
creativity have also been judged in the organizational context, especially in research-and-development departments (Amabile, 1997). As well, the creative environment has been evaluated by many assessments such as the Organization Assessment Instrument, the Work Scale, Amabile’s KEYS tools, and Ekvall’s creative climate assessment tools (Moultrie and Young, 2009).

Acknowledging the research methods utilized in the leadership and creativity fields, this chapter discusses the methodology that the study followed to explore the aforementioned aim and objectives and to answer the study questions. The study follows and adopts the research layers of Saunders et al., (2012) as a methodology framework for this study.

5.2 Study Methodology Framework

According to Saunders et al., (2012), the research process can be symbolized as an onion. Several layers of the onion need to be peeled away before the central point and core of the onion, the data collection and data analysis, is reached. The contents of the layers are: philosophies, approaches, strategies, choice of method(s), time horizons, and techniques and procedures. In fact, the structure of this chapter is based on these layers as illustrated in Figure 5.1. The following paragraphs will adopt those layers for the study in order to describe the nature and purpose of choosing the study methodology.

![Figure 5.1: Research Process “Onion”.
Source: Adapted from Saunders et al., 2012](image-url)
5.2.1 Research Philosophy

The evolution of knowledge led scholars to develop philosophies that illustrate the nature of that knowledge. Creswell (2009) called these philosophies worldviews. He considered worldviews as a general orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher holds. Hence, the researcher adopts the research philosophy in a particular study to reflect important assumptions about the way in which he or she views the world. The researcher further asserts that these assumptions will underpin the research strategy and the methods chosen as part of that strategy. This means that there are many practical considerations influencing the choice of a specific philosophy, such as the researcher’s particular view of the relationship between knowledge and the process by which it is developed (Saunders et al., 2012). Therefore, a researcher who is concerned with numerical facts about specific organizational resources is likely to have a very different view on the way research should be conducted compared to the researcher who investigates the attitudes and behaviours of the employees towards their leaders in that organization.

Broadly speaking, Saunders et al., (2012) state that there are three major views about research philosophy: epistemology, ontology, and axiology. He emphasized that each view has four different philosophies (positivism, realism, interpretivism, and pragmatism) that influence the way in which the researcher thinks about the research process.

Epistemology is concerned with what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study, either facts or feelings. A factual researcher adopts a positivist view and will be concerned with the collection and analysis of facts, such as resources needed in the organization’s process, whereas an emotive researcher, who adopts an interpretivist view, will be concerned with the attitudes and behaviours of the employees towards their leaders in the same organization process (Saunders et al., 2012).

Realism is another branch of epistemology which is similar to positivism. It assumes a scientific approach to the development of knowledge. The theory of realism assumes that the mind has a quite independent reality. Actually, realism is opposed to idealism, the theory which believes that existence is only for the mind and its contents (Saunders et al., 2012). As stated by Saunders et al., 2012, realism has two types, namely direct realism and critical realism. The direct realism view believes that what individuals experience through their senses represents the world accurately, or, in short, what individuals see is what individuals get. The critical realism
view, on the other hand, considers that what we experience are sensations, the images of the things in the real world, not the things directly. Further, Saunders et al., (2012) stated that both positions are important in relation to the pursuit of management research. For example, the direct realist view would argue that the world is relatively unchanging where the organizational context is functioning at one level, either that of the individual or the group or the organization. In contrast, a critical realist view would recognize the importance of multi-level study that operates at the level of individual, group, and organization. Hence, Patton (2002) emphasized that the critical realist’s perspective, which suggests that the social world is constantly changing, is much more in line with the purpose of management research. It attempts to understand the reason for phenomena as a precursor to recommending change.

Ontology is the second consideration in research philosophy. In keeping with Saunders et al., (2012), if epistemology is concerned with what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study, ontology, on the other hand, is concerned with the nature of reality or being. It is about articulating the nature and structure of the world. Saunders and his colleagues illustrated two aspects of ontology: objectivism and subjectivism. They demonstrate that objectivism reveals the position which social entities exist in reality, external to social actors concerned with their existence. Objectivism is about facts which are objective and probably true; if no clear facts exist about a topic, a series of balanced opinions needs to be produced to allow the reader to make up his or her mind. The second aspect is subjectivism holds that social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of those social actors concerned with their existence. Subjective ideas are held by individuals and so are always biased. If unbalanced opinions are presented as if they are facts, they act as propaganda or persuasion. Therefore, an objective piece of information needs to be either the whole truth or at least unbiased or balanced, whereas a subjective point of view is biased because it is either not the complete picture or merely a viewpoint or expression of feelings.

Axiology is the third branch of research philosophy. According to Saunders et al., (2012), axiology is the philosophy that concentrates on the role that the researcher’s values play in all stages of the research process and how those values are critically important if he or she wishes to get credible results. Heron (1996) argues that individuals’ values are the guiding reason for all of their action. Therefore a researcher who demonstrates an axiological view will articulate their values as a basis for making judgments about what research he or she is conducting and how he
or she should go about doing it. Saunders et al., (2012) indicate that a researcher’s choice of philosophical approach is a reflection of his or her values, as is their choice of data collection techniques. Thus, if a researcher conducts a study that depends on interviews for data collection, his or her values in personal interaction with the respondents will be more highly expressed than their views expressed through survey data. In short, axiology philosophy is the researcher’s view of the role of values in research. (Patton, 2002)

Consistent with Saunders et al., (2012), the unavoidable debates on epistemology, ontology, and axiology are often framed in terms of a choice between either positivist or interpretivist research philosophies. Indeed, it is more appropriate for the researcher in a particular study to think of the philosophy adopted as a continuum rather than opposite positions (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988 and Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Furthermore, Guba and Lincoln (1994) emphasized that the process of choosing between one position and the other is somewhat unrealistic in practice and those who adopt this process are in the position of a pragmatist.

Pragmatism is a “philosophy arising out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions, as in postpositivism” (Creswell, 2009:231). There is a concern with applications (what works) and solutions to problems. Thus, instead of focusing on methods, researchers emphasize the research problem and use all approaches available to understand the problem (Creswell, 2009). Definitely, researchers perceive pragmatism as intuitively appealing, largely because it avoids them engaging in what they see as rather pointless debates about such concepts as truth and reality. It concentrates the researcher’s attention on the research problem and then uses pluralistic approaches to derive knowledge about the problem (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003).

In the light of the previous discussion, the current researcher believes that adopting the pragmatist view will be suitable for the study in order to deeply explore the leadership–creativity relationship area of study from different angles. In fact, Simpson (2009) point out that pragmatism is a philosophy of human conduct and practice that seeks to account for lived experience and it is part of what is called in the history of social science an ‘interpretivist turn’ dating from late in the twentieth century.

According to Creswell (2009), individual researchers who adopt pragmatism have a freedom of choice; in this way, researchers are free to choose the methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes. Creswell (2009) demonstrates
that pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity. Therefore, those who design research using mixed methods are following a similar approach to the pragmatist view. Accordingly, researchers are free to look to many approaches for collecting and analysing data rather than subscribing to only one way (for example, quantitative or qualitative).

Moreover, scholars claim that pragmatism had a profound influence on the origin of the field of public administration. Basically, public administrators are responsible for making programmes “work” in a pluralistic problem-oriented environment. They are responsible for the day-to-day work with employees. Public administrators see the pragmatist view as a tool, which helps administrators craft theories to resolve administrative problems (Shields, 2008, and Hildebrand, 2008).

Specifically in leadership studies, in the second chapter of his book entitled “Pragmatism in Leadership Studies”, Harter (2007) claims that pragmatism offers a suitable framework within which to understand leadership. Pragmatism is concerned more with certain relationships among things and phenomena, specifically between antecedents and consequences. Further, Harter (2007) emphasizes that the goal in leadership studies is not to find the one immutable truth about leadership; however, according to pragmatism, the goal is to make continual progress toward a more complete and realistic understanding that makes a difference.

### 5.2.2 Research Approach

The second layer of Saunders et al.’s research onion (2012) is defining the research approach. Saunders and his colleagues illustrated two types of research approach: the deductive approach and the inductive approach. The deductive approach concentrates on using the literature to identify theories and propositions by utilizing a research strategy specifically designed for the purpose of its testing. In contrast, the inductive approach involves collecting data and developing a theory as a result of your data analysis.

Indeed, the processes of the two approaches work conversely. The process of the deductive approach begins with a theory/hypothesis and ends with either confirmation or modification of the existing theory, whereas the inductive approach starts with the research objectives and ends with theory. Moreover, inductive research moves from the empirical to the abstract and from the particular to the general, which is the reverse of the deductive approach (Bryman and Bell, 2003).
Understanding the nature of the two approaches, the study design follows the deductive approach. The study uses the literature to test the Full Range of Leadership model and its relationship with employees’ creative performance. Adopting a deductive research approach allows the study to establish its objectives and questions using theory, links them to the model, allows data collection and information involving a surveying strategy and tests the corpus in order to answer the study questions and resolve the issues raised (Gill and Johnson, 2010).

5.2.3 Research Strategy

The third layer refers to the research strategy, where the researcher should justify which strategy is most suitable to address the study aims and answer its questions. This study will use the survey strategies which will allow the collection of large amounts of data from a large targeted population efficiently and economically. The survey sample is usually drawn from a known population and a structured questionnaire is used, complemented with interviews (Saunders et al., 2012). In the research method section the survey strategies used in of this study will be illustrated more deeply.

5.2.4 Research Time Horizons

At a certain point researchers need to ask themselves if they want their research to be a snapshot taken at a particular time or if they want it to be more akin to a diary or a series of snapshots and be a representation of events over a given period. The snapshot time horizon is called cross-sectional, while the diary perspective is called longitudinal (Saunders et al., 2012).

Certainly, this research is a cross-sectional study, which investigates the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance as a snapshot taken in 2011. Creswell (2009) argues that because of the time constraints for research projects undertaken for academic purposes, most of those researches will probably be cross-sectional research that examines a particular phenomenon (or phenomena) at a particular time.

5.2.5 Research Method

In light of the previous discussion concerning the research’s philosophy approach, and type based on time, the question regarding choosing a suitable research method for the study emerged. Punch, (2003) argued that every research is unique, has its own objectives, and can be tackled in
different ways; however, it should use suitable research methods to achieve its aim and objectives. The literature classifies research methods into quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods (Brannen, 2005; Punch, 2005; Bryman, 2004; Saunders et al., 2012; and Creswell, 2009).

The following paragraph attempts to show the justification behind choosing each of those methods in any research. This is followed by a paragraph justifying which methods the study selected and the reasons for choosing that method.

5.2.5.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Research
Quantitative research is a method that is concerned with the collection and analysis of data in numeric form. It belongs to the empiricist and positivist paradigms and tends to be used on relatively large-scale representative sets of data (Punch, 2005, and Brannen, 2005). This method of operation attempts to measure variables or count occurrences of a phenomenon. Accordingly, in order for researchers to reach their aim, they will use quantitative methods in a traditional orientation and look to reliable and valid non-human instruments of data collection and statistical analysis (Collis and Hussey, 2003, and Maykut, 1994).

According to Creswell (2009), quantitative inquiry has two strategies: survey and experiments. He argued that by studying a sample of a population, survey strategy provides a quantitative or numeric description of the trends, attitudes, or opinions of that population. The other quantitative strategy is experimental research, which seeks to determine if a specific treatment influences an outcome. This impact is assessed by providing a specific treatment to one group and withholding it from another and then determining how both groups scored on an outcome (Creswell, 2009).

Qualitative research, on the other hand, is concerned with collecting and analysing information chiefly non-numerically. It concentrates on the acquisition of data relating to experiences, feelings, and judgment. Such data are gathered from people directly involved in the environment under investigation, whether subjects or observers (Saunders et al., 2012).

Qualitative research draws on philosophies such as interpretivism, critical theory, and feminism (Brannen, 2005). Actually, qualitative research is a method aimed at understanding the social world through a test of the interpretation of that world by its participants. In reality, to gain an insight into social events, it is necessary to have knowledge of the perspectives, cultures, and
views of those involved (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Consistent with Creswell (2009), there are five ways to conduct qualitative studies, which are: ethnography, grounded theory, case studies, phenomenological research, and narrative research.

There are three main important differences that exist between the two methods. Those differences are in the way in which each tradition treats data (their use of variables); the way researchers using each methods position themselves during the collection and analysis of data (whether objective or subjective); and the way researchers using each methods select samples and rely on large or small numbers of participants to generate knowledge (the tension between generalization and representativeness) (Brannen, 2005; Bryman, 2004; and Saunders et al., 2012).

Theoretically, the quantitative researcher isolates and defines variables. These variables are linked together to frame hypotheses – usually before the data are collected – which are then tested using the data. In contrast, the researcher using qualitative methods begins with defining general concepts which, as the researcher progresses, may change in terms of their definition. This means that for the quantitative researcher, the variables are the vehicles or means of the analysis, while for the qualitative researcher, they may constitute the product or outcome (Brannen, 2005). Additionally, Saunders et al., (2012) emphasized that while the qualitative researchers are more likely to talk about eliciting accounts or personal histories and stories from informants, quantitative researchers rely on identifying variables that are appropriate for hypotheses testing.

Another difference to be concerned with is the researchers’ position during the data collection and analysis process. Based on Brannen’s explanation (2005), when utilizing qualitative methods, particularly in hermeneutic phenomenological studies, it is acceptable for the researcher to be subjective. He or she can make use of their own perception and intuitions while using the data collection instrument and during data analysis. But this may not be the case for medium or large interview-based studies. In the quantitative tradition, however, the instrument is a predetermined and finely tuned technological tool which allows for much less flexibility, imaginative input, and reflexivity (Bryman, 2004). In this case, researchers employing this methodology will be somehow distance themselves from their research subjects and the data (Saunders et al., 2012).
The third main difference between quantitative and qualitative methods lies in the scope for generalization or the representativeness of data. Quantitative researchers need sufficiently rigorously planned samples to generate statistically significant results. However, in qualitative research, the issue of generalizability does not arise, and as such the researchers can select a suitably small number of participants (often conveniently) to study a particular phenomenon in considerable depth (Brannen, 2005; Cohen, 2000; and Saunders et al., 2012).

Despite the above differences between quantitative and qualitative methods, scholars have also identified some similarities between them. For instance, Blaxter, Hughes, and Tight (2010) discovered that even though quantitative research is used mostly for testing theory, it can also be used for exploring an area and generating hypotheses and theories. Similarly, qualitative data often include quantification (for example, statements such as ‘more than’, ‘less than’, ‘most’) as well as specific numbers (Saunders et al., 2012). Also, quantitative approaches such as the large-scale survey can at times collect qualitative (non-numeric) data through open-ended questions (Cohen, 2000 and Saunders et al., 2012).

Acknowledging the previous discussion, Oppenheim (2000) argues that it seems that no single method can be claimed to be superior to another. Actually, both quantitative and qualitative methods endeavour to look at the research problem from different perspectives. Thus, to improve the quality of the study, researchers are encouraged to use multi-methods within a single study. Literature called the use of a combination of the two methods mixed methods or the triangulation method (Denscombe, 2003, and Saunders et al., 2012).

5.2.5.2 Triangulation Methods

Essentially, the philosophy that researchers adopt for their research will justify their decision regarding whether to choose qualitative methods that rely on case studies, observations, and description materials; to utilize the benefits of using statistical analysis; or to operate a combination of the two methods (Brannen, 2005, and Shipton, 2001).

As illustrated in the philosophy section, the research adopts a pragmatic position. Creswell (2009) states that the pragmatist worldview is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality. This applies to mixed-methods research in that inquirers draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research. Thus, for the mixed-methods researcher, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different
worldviews, and different assumptions as well as different forms of data collection and analysis. Therefore, the study will utilize the benefits gained from using triangulation methods in order to explore the study aims and objectives.

In fact, Burgess (1982) chose the term ‘multiple research methods’ to describe the use of diverse methods in tackling a research problem. More specifically, the widely used terminology found in the literature that refers to this strategy is ‘triangulation’. Literature shows that the term triangulation was originally borrowed from psychology reports and was developed by Denzin in 1989 (Denzin, 2009). In his original formulation of triangulation, Denzin (2009) saw the combining of research strategies as a means of examining the same research problem using different approaches, thereby strengthening the validity of the conclusions reached from the data (Brannen, 2005).

Whilst there are many advocates for the use of triangulation in research, much controversy also exists with regard to its use and suitability in all situations. One argument in support of merging both quantitative and qualitative data in a single research is that the two approaches will be complementary. As supported by Bryman and Bell (2003), integrating different methods and modes of analysis will diminish or overcome the weaknesses of a single approach.

Another advantage of using the triangulation approach is the enhancement of theoretical insights. Those who support this notion believe that the world in which we live is complex and multidimensional, as are most of the theories that have been developed to make sense of it. As such, blending quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study can lead to insights based on these multidimensional aspects that might be unattainable without such integration (Brannen, 2005).

A third argument in support of multi-method research lies in its potential for enhancing the validity of the study’s findings. Bryman and Bell (2003) believe that when a hypothesis or model is supported by conclusions inferred from multiple and complementary types of data, the researcher can be much more confident about the validity of the results.

Conversely, Fielding and Fielding (1986) argue that those who feel that combining approaches ensures validity are naive. This is simply because the difference between different data sets is likely to be as illuminating as their points of similarity.
The second argument against the use of triangulation is related to the difficulty of integrating both methodologies. Based on Brannen (2005), the use of multi-method approaches will face the difficulty in some cases that the whole substantive area may be driven by different methodologies, which do not lend themselves to an easy integration of the findings.

The third argument against triangulation is put forward by Jick (1979), who argues that there is no one truth, but that life is multifaceted. Consistent with their view, the discovery of what really happens is not the task of sociological investigation. However, advocates of the integration of methods assume that triangulation offers the opportunity to increase the ‘internal validity’ of the data.

In spite of the above arguments, triangulation is used widely and in various forms. As indicated by Denzin (2009), there are four types of triangulation, which are: theory triangulation; investigator triangulation; data sets triangulation; and methodological triangulation.

The first type is theoretical triangulation. According to Denzin (2009), theoretical triangulation is an element that few investigations achieve. Brannen (2005) describes the way this type of triangulation is achieved by stating that initial data analysis, together with insights from the research processes themselves, may generate a number of possible theories and hypotheses about the research problem in question. Alternatively, an examination of prior research may lead the researcher to test a number of plausible and possibly competing hypotheses on his or her findings.

Investigator triangulation is the second type, where the research is carried out by a partnership or research teams, rather than by one individual. Denzin (2009) supported the notion that different individuals bring different perspectives to the research and that depending upon the discipline they belong to, their theoretical and political persuasions and their gender and social background may also be different. Actually, even if each researcher uses the same research method, he or she is likely to bring a different viewpoint to the research, which may influence the way he or she views data (Brannen, 2005).

In the data sets triangulation type, the research results are achieved through the use of the same methods at different times and with different sources. This type of collection involves collecting data at different points in time and in a variety of contexts, situations, and settings (Denzin, 2009).
As for methodological triangulation, Denzin (2009) states that it could either be adopted either within methods or between methods. A within-method approach involves the same method being used on different occasions, in the hope of producing different assessments of the situation. A between-method approach, on the other hand, means using different methods in relation to the same object of study, substantive issues, etc. For example, participation observation in an organization setting may be combined with a questionnaire survey of employees and managers.

Whilst the above review explains how different forms of triangulation are employed in research, Creswell (2009) identifies three general strategies in which quantitative and qualitative approaches are usually combined: sequential, concurrent, and transformative.

The first strategy is the sequential mixed method. In this strategy the researcher seeks to elaborate on or expend on the finding of one method with another method. A researcher may start with qualitative interviews to establish which seem to be key variables, and then design a large-scale survey to test these variables. This means that both approaches have in common the fact that one method could be given precedence over the other, depending on the researched topic and the purpose and nature of inquiry (Creswell, 2009; Spicer, 2004).

A concurrent mixed method is the second strategy, which concentrates on providing a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. In this design, the researcher collects both forms of data at the same time and integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results. Additionally, the researcher may embed one smaller form of data within another larger data collection in order to analyse different types of questions. For instance, the investigators may use the quantitative method to address the research process while utilizing the qualitative approach to support the study outcomes (Creswell, 2009).

The third mixed-method strategy is called transformative. Conformity with Creswell (2009), in this method the researcher uses a theoretical lens as an overarching perspective within a design that contains both quantitative and qualitative data. This lens provides a framework for topics of interest, methods for collecting data, and outcomes or changes anticipated by the study. Within this lens could be a data collection method that involves a sequential or a concurrent approach can be adopted.

Guided by the above discussion, the study employs a concurrent mixed-method strategy to collect both forms of data at the same time and integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results. This concurrent mixed-method strategy attempts to obtain data in such a
way as to utilize the benefits of using questionnaires as well as in-depth interviews, where each of these methods complements the other in addressing the aforementioned aims and objectives. This was important in order to provide better validity and generalization of data, as well as to obtain a richer and deeper insight into the area of study.

Basically, Creswell (2009) divides the concurrent mixed-method strategy into three strategies: concurrent triangulation strategy, concurrent embedded strategy, and concurrent transformative strategy. This study uses a concurrent triangulation strategy where the quantitative method, specifically questionnaires, will be used to address the research’s main objectives, while the qualitative approach, namely semi-structured interviews, will be utilized to support the study outcomes. In the concurrent triangulation strategy the researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently and then compares the two databases to determine if there is convergence, difference, or some combination. Using this model will allow the study to benefit from the strengths of both methods—using separate quantitative and qualitative methods as a means to offset the weaknesses inherent within one method with the strengths of the other, or, conversely, the strength of one adds to the strength of the other. In keeping with Creswell (2009), in this method data collection for the questionnaires and the interviews is happening concurrently in one phase of the research study. Although the weight is equal between the two methods, often in practice priority will be given to the questionnaires method. The researcher endeavours to add the data obtained from interviews to the data collected from questionnaires to easily compare and support the findings. The details of the mixing of these two methods will found in the research results and discussion chapter.

As mentioned earlier, a mixed model is advantageous because it can result in well-validated and substantiated findings. In addition, the concurrent data collection results in a shorter data collection time period compared to one of the sequential approaches, because both the qualitative and quantitative data are gathered at one time at the research site. However, this model also has a number of limitations. For example, it requires great effort and expertise to adequately study a phenomenon with two separate methods.
5.3 Population and Sampling of the Survey

5.3.1 Study Population
In spite of the research methods used (quantitative or qualitative), the researcher cannot study everyone, everywhere, doing everything (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Thus, the researcher needs to select a small group to study and generalize the results to the whole population. Parahoo (2006) defines the population as the total number of units (individuals, organizations, events, objects, or items) from which samples are taken for measurement.

The population of this study is represented by all Omani civil service organizations that apply the law of civil service. Based on a statistical report issued by the Ministry of Civil Service in 2011, the total number of these organizations is 34. The study covers 34 organizations, which meant all of the civil service organizations were chosen as the population.

5.3.2 Target Population
The study targets two groups in the study’s population: the Omani middle managers (which include department manager and equivalents) and their employees who work in the Omani civil service organizations that apply the law of civil service. The statistical report produced by the Ministry of Civil Service indicates that at the end of 2010, the number of middle managers in the Omani civil service sector was 1,539. It also shows that the total number of civil service sector employees was 128,415, of whom 114,206 (or 88.9%) were Omanis. Excluding the middle managers and the top-level managers, the total number of employees was 111,447. As this study aims to investigate the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model among Omani managers and their employees’ creative performance, non-Omani managers and employees are excluded from the sample in this study.

5.3.3 Sampling Strategy
Data for this study will be collected from only a sample of the target population. Bordens and Abbott (2005) defines a sample as a set of respondents (people) selected as representative individuals from a large population, while sampling is defined as the act, process, or technique for selecting a sample (Moser and Kalton, 2001).
Essentially, researchers use sampling for several reasons. The first advantage of using a sample in research is obvious, in that studying a group(s) of units requires fewer resources and less time and is more practical than complete coverage (as with a full census). Furthermore, sample coverage often permits a higher level of accuracy than a full enumeration, possibly due to less time being required to conduct accurate checks and tests with small amounts of data (Moser and Kalton, 2001).

Researchers could choose between using probability-based methods, where the choice is by some “mechanical” procedure involving lists of random numbers, or the equivalent. Alternatively, the choice may be made by other methods, invoking some element of judgment. Methods involving judgment are sometimes referred to as purposive selection, judgment selection, or non-probability selection (Doherty, 1994).

The literature has illustrated that the probability sampling technique provides an equal chance for any case in the population to be selected. Therefore, every case in the population is chosen at random and has a non-zero chance for selection; accordingly the findings can be generalized to the whole population (Doherty, 1994; Bryman and Bell 2003; Patton, 2002). Additionally, Saunders et al., (2012) argue that probability sampling is associated with surveys.

Conversely, the researcher using the non-probability-based selection technique selects the sample based on their accessibility or by purposive personal judgment. Thus, the sample may or may not represent the entire population accurately. Therefore, the results of the research cannot be used in generalizations pertaining to the entire population (Doherty, 1994; Saunders et al., 2012; Bryman and Bell, 2003; Patton, 2002). Therefore, it is necessary to ensure that, the ultimate purpose of sampling will be to select a number of cases from the target population in such a way that descriptions of those cases selected accurately portray the total population from which the cases will be selected. The best way of ensuring that the sample to be drawn will be representative is to make sure that all cases in the target population have an equal (or at least known) chance of being included in the sample. This study applied the probability random sampling strategy, which, according to De Vaus (2002), is the surest way of obtaining samples that are representative of the population.
5.3.4 Sample Size

As the data for this study was collected from a sample of the target population, calculating the sample size according to Punch (2005) is important, since it affects the likelihood of statistical significance in tests including how the sample is drawn and how the data is interpreted. Saunders et al., (2012) indicate that the determination of sample size is governed by: the confidence the researcher needs to have in the data – that is, the margin of error the researcher can tolerate; the types of analyses to be undertaken; and the size of the total population from which the sample is being drawn.

Actually, there are numerous approaches, incorporating a number of different formulas, for calculating sample size, as well as many websites which can calculate the sample size (such as: http://www.raosoft.com/samplesize.html). One of the most commonly used approaches is Cochran’s formula (1963) for calculating the sample size for categorical data (as cited by Kasiulevicius et al., 2006). The formula incorporates the size of the population and the level of precision desired:

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + N(\epsilon)^2} \]

Where: (n) is the sample size; (N) is the population size; and (\epsilon) is the desired level of precision.

Actually, the level of precision (sometimes called the sampling error) is the range in which the true value of the population is estimated to be. For most business and management studies, researchers are content to estimate the population’s characteristics to be within plus or minus 3% to 5% of its true values (Saunders et al., 2012). Hence for this study the desired level of precision would be +/− 5%. The sample size is calculated based on Cochran’s formula (1963) as follows:

The sample size for managers’ population = 317 \( n = \frac{1539}{1+1539(0.05)^2} \); and the sample size for employees’ population = 399 \( n = \frac{111447}{1+111447(0.05)^2} \).

5.3.5 Response Rate

The response rate is the percentage of people who respond to a survey. Indeed, high survey response rates help to ensure that survey results are representative of the target population (Punch, 2003). Certainly, a survey must have a good response rate in order to produce accurate and useful results. Consistent with Cohen (2000), the response rate should be at least 90%,
although the common rate stands between 10% and 50%. The response rate of the study is illustrated in Table 5.1.

In terms of the managers’ sample, the researcher distributed 317 questionnaires and received back 273 questionnaires. Out of the returned questionnaires, 269 questionnaires were completed and valid. The response rate of managers was 85%, which is regarded as very high compared to similar studies.

For the employees’ sample, the researcher distributed 399 questionnaires and received back 380 questionnaires. Out of the returned questionnaires, 371 questionnaires were completed and valid. The response rate of employees was a very high rate of 93%, which is also very high compared to similar studies.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Table 5.1: Response Rate of Managers’ and Employees’ Survey</th>
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<td>Questionnaires Distributed</td>
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<td>Questionnaires Returned</td>
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<td>Questionnaires Valid</td>
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<td>Response Rate</td>
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5.4 Preparation of the Instruments

This study is a cross-sectional study. Saunders et al., (2012) argue that cross-sectional studies often employ a survey strategy. They may be seeking to describe the incidence of a phenomenon or explain how factors are related in different organizations, as is the case in this study, which aims to investigate the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance. However, they may also use qualitative methods. Many case studies are based on interviews conducted over a short period of time. Indeed, the survey (questionnaires) in this study will target Omani middle managers and their employees, complemented by in-depth semi-structured interviews which will be carried out with ministries’ consultants, advisers, general managers, middle-level managers, and heads of sections. In the following subsections a description of the study instruments is provided.

5.4.1 Questionnaires

According to Moser and Kalton (2001), a survey (questionnaire) is designed to obtain information from populations regarding the prevalence, distribution, and interrelationship of
variables within that population. The use of a questionnaire can be described as a method that seeks written or verbal responses from people to a written set of questions or statements (Jack and Clarke, 1999, and Oppenheim, 2000). The questionnaire is recognized to be an effective tool for collecting data in most research. If a researcher prepares a well design and organized questionnaire will lead him or her to investigate the relationships that may be established between the various elements within the research (Cohen 2000 and Fowler, 2008).

The main advantages of using questionnaires to gather data are that they can reach large numbers of people over wide geographical areas and collect data at a lower cost than methods such as interviews and observations. They also allow respondents to answer in their own time and at their own convenience without the presence of the interviewer, which may distort their responses (Parahoo, 2006). Additionally, as indicated by Verma and Mallick (1999), questionnaires give respondents control in answering the questions and allow them to express their opinions freely without being penalized or identified. Therefore, the removal of researcher bias in the actual physical encounter is valuable.

On the other hand, using the questionnaire method has negative aspects. In particular, using questionnaires removes the opportunity to ask respondents to elaborate, expand, clarify, or illustrate their answers. Respondents themselves have no opportunity to ask for clarification and so may not all interpret questions in the same way (Parahoo, 2006). Further, questionnaires do not suit everyone, in particular those who have difficulty in reading and comprehension and in articulating written responses. This may lead some respondents to confer with others or ask them to complete the questionnaires (Oppenheim, 2000). Therefore, to compensate for those weaknesses the study will complement the questionnaires with interviews.

For the purpose of this study, one questionnaire survey was distributed to collect data from managers and employees (the employees’ questionnaire was rephrased). The managers’ questionnaire aimed to assess the managers’ used of the Full Range of Leadership model (as a self-assessment) and their employees’ creative performance. The second employees’ questionnaire endeavoured to evaluate their manager’s use of the Full Range of Leadership model and their own creative performance (as a self-assessment). The questionnaire design is illustrated below.
5.4.1.1 The Questionnaire Design

The study questionnaire’s structure contains three parts: the demographic questions, the Full Range of Leadership model items, and the employees’ creative performance items.

In the first part, respondent demographic data was set in the questionnaire since they can be valuable to the study. Warwick and Lininger (1975), state that the inclusion of certain standard demographic information increases the usefulness of the study to the scholarly community and other interested stakeholders. The demographic items used for this study include: gender, age, educational qualification, and total work experience.

The second part utilizes the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to measure the Full Range of Leadership model, which includes three independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

Since the beginning, various versions of the MLQ have been used in over 20 countries and translated into 12 languages (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Originally, the survey included 73 items and was based on the original five factors identified by Bass (1985). Over the last 20 years, a number of factor models have been used by researchers and items have been changed, added, or eliminated. Today, the MLQ contains 45 items. Thirty-six items focus on the nine subscales of the three independent variables, and the other nine items assess three leadership outcomes: extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

The survey used the 36 items that evaluate the Full Range of Leadership model. Twenty items focused on the transformational leadership independent variable: four items evaluated idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Eight items focused on the transactional leadership independent variable: four items assessed the contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) subscales. Eight items focused on the passive/avoidant leadership independent variable: four items rated management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire subscales. However, based on the results collected from the pilot test, some items were added and others were changed and rephrased as explained in the “reliability and validity of the survey instrument” section.

The MLQ employs a five-point Likert-type scale for each item so that a respondent can select between five given choices – 1 = not at all; 2 = once in a while; 3 = sometimes; 4 = fairly often; and 5 = frequently, if not always – to judge how frequently a manager engages in the Full
Range of Leadership model.

The third part is the employees’ creative performance items. Actually, organizational creativity literature primarily focused on creative outcomes in evaluating employees’ creative performance. Shalley et al., (2004) argue that many researches evaluate employees’ creativity by multiple methods and judges, for example co-workers, supervisors, and self-assessment. Many studies reveal that supervisor ratings are often used to measure employees’ creative performance (for example, Jones, 1964; McDermid, 1965; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Scott and Bruce, 1994; Tierney et al., 1999; and Zhou and George, 2001). Essentially, George and Zhou (2001) emphasize that supervisors were very familiar with the performance of subordinates who were rating, and those who are invited to provide ratings should be in a good position to observe and be familiar with the target employee. Indeed, many studies have demonstrated convergence between supervisor ratings and objective measures of creativity (for example, Keller and Holland, 1982; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Scott and Bruce, 1994; Tierney et al., 1999). For example, Tierney et al., (1999) as well as Scott and Bruce (1994) found that supervisor ratings were significantly correlated with number of invention disclosures and relied on the supervisor ratings to test their hypotheses.

Therefore, in the third part of the questionnaires, the study utilizes a 13-item scale developed by Zhou and George (2001) to measure employees’ creative performance. In developing the scale, Zhou and George (2001) developed 10 items in the scale; the other three items were adapted from Scott and Bruce (1994). As was the case with the leadership items, a 13-item scale was developed based on the pilot test suggestions. Additionally, consistent with the MLQ scale, the employee creative performance 13-item scale was rated using the same five-point Likert type scale.

Once the questionnaire scale was decided, two permissions to use the scale were obtained: MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5x) short instruments and the 13-item scale developed by Zhou and George (2001) for measuring employees’ creative performance (see Appendix C and Appendix D). Further, the original instruments were written in English, and since the Omani employees in Oman’s civil service sector use the Arabic language, the instruments were translated into Arabic. In fact, the sponsor company that sells the MLQ measurement provides two Arabic versions. However, the researcher used three ways to translate the questionnaire into Arabic these were: self-translation, some Arabic references, and lastly the
5.4.2 Reliability and Validity of the Survey Instrument

The two most important and fundamental characteristics of any measurement procedure are validity and reliability. Whilst reliability relates to the accuracy and stability of a measure, validity relates to the appropriateness of the measure to assess the construct it purports to measure (Burns and Burns, 2008).

Validity is defined as the extent to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure (Patton, 2002). Researchers should be concerned with both internal and external validity. The internal validity is to show whether there are possible errors or alternative explanations to account for the results, while the external validity is to measure the ability to generalize findings from a specific sample to a wider population (Punch, 2005). The literature illustrates that there are several types of validity, for example face, content, criterion, concurrent, predictive, construct, and convergent validity. The most widespread and easiest are the face and the content validity which are also employed in this study. Face validity is established when an individual reviewing the instrument concludes that it measures the characteristic or trait of interest. It is concerned with how a measure appears. Content validity is a subjective evaluation of the scale for its ability to measure what it is supposed to measure. It is based on the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content (De Vaus, 2002; Punch, 2003; Burns and Burns, 2008; and Gill and Johnson, 2010).

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials. It is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters (Burns and Burns, 2008). A researcher can adopt three ways to handle the issue of reliability: test–retest reliability, equivalent forms reliability, and internal consistency reliability. For executing test–retest reliability, the same questionnaire is administered to the same respondents, in order to elicit responses in the two different time slots. In the case of considering equivalent forms reliability, two equivalent forms are administered to the subjects at two different times. A basic approach to measure internal-consistency reliability is the split-half technique. A common approach to deal with this problem is coefficient alpha or Cronbach’s alpha. Coefficient alpha or Cronbach’s alpha is a mean reliability coefficient for all the different ways of splitting the items.
included in the measuring instruments. In contrast to a correlation coefficient, coefficient alpha varies from 0 to 1, and a coefficient value of 0.6 or less is considered to be unsatisfactory (De Vaus, 2002; Punch, 2003; Burns and Burns, 2008; and Gill and Johnson, 2010). To test the reliability of this study’s measurement, Cronbach’s alpha test was utilized and it will be presented later.

Regarding the study, to test the clarity of the items used in the study questionnaire and their relevance to their scales, face and content validity for the questionnaire was tested using a designed questionnaire assessing form (see Appendix E). Copies of the questionnaire were distributed to ten specialized assessors, five from the Institute of Public Administration, two from the Ministry of Education, and one assessor from each of the following organizations: Sur College of Applied Sciences (Ministry of Higher Education), Sur Private University, and Human Resources Development Centre in Ministry of Regional Municipalities and Water Resources.

They advised that some items were irrelevant to the measured scale, some were ambiguous and might need to be deleted, and some other items needed to be added. Their comments resulted in a few changes. Specifically, regarding section two in the questionnaire, which measures the Full Range of Leadership model, the assessors suggested that the intellectual-stimulation behaviour needed to add more items to reflect its meaning. Based on their recommendation, four items were added (items 17, 18, 19, and 20). Similarly, the assessors advised adding another item to individualized-consideration behaviour to reflect the leader’s efforts to provide a learning-and-development environment for his/her employees. This item was added to the questionnaire in item number 22.

In section three of the questionnaire, which measures employees’ creative performance, two items (‘My employees are a good source of creative ideas’ and ‘My employees often have new and innovative ideas’) were advised to be deleted since they were similar to other items in the same section. Additionally, assessors recommended adding another item to the section which rates the employee’s ability to find new uses for existing methods or equipment. This item is shown in number 12 in the third part of the questionnaire. After, assessors’ suggestions were taken into consideration and modifications and changes were made accordingly. Items were then rearranged in a new sequence for the pilot study.

The researcher conducted a pilot study (pre-test) with the aim of ensuring the clarity of
items and instructions; deciding whether or not items yield relevant information; and measuring the time respondents take to answer the questionnaire. As the pilot should be small in comparison with the main phase of data collection, 30 questionnaires were administered to the targeted group (middle managers) as well as employees working in different civil service organizations. The pilot test study process was supported with a designed form (see Appendix F).

In fact, the participants of the pilot study provided very useful feedback and they were very cooperative. The average time taken to complete the questionnaires was 10–15 minutes. Many participants suggested that item number 36 gave an ambiguous indication and needed to be reworded. It was rephrased from ‘I show that I am a firm believer in “If it is not broke, do not fix it”’ to ‘I believe that things in my organization should not be changed unless problems occur’. Apart from that, most participants thought that the questions were, generally, clear and understandable.

After the validity and pilot studies were completed and the suggested changes were made, the data collected from the 30 participants was entered into the SPSS computer software package (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) using Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha test. The aim was to check the reliability of the instrument. The Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha test resulted in a high interaction between items with 0.95, which indicated that scale exhibited an internal statistical reliability. This version of the questionnaire was, therefore, used in the main study (see Appendix A). Table 5.2 shows the final structure of the study questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Leadership style</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Items Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>Demographic Questions</td>
<td>Gender, Age, Educational qualification and Total work experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>Idealized Influence (Attributed)</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Idealized Influence (Behaviour)</td>
<td>5, 6, 7, 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>9, 10, 11, 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Individual Consideration</td>
<td>21, 22, 23, 24, 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
<td>Contingent Reward</td>
<td>26, 27, 28, 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Management-By-Exception (Active)</td>
<td>30, 31, 32, 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Passive/Avoidant Leadership</td>
<td>Management-By-Exception (Passive)</td>
<td>34, 35, 36, 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>38, 39, 40, 41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>Employees’ Creative Performance</td>
<td></td>
<td>1–12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.4.3 The Interviews

According to Chew-Graham et al., (2002), the goal of qualitative research is to involve understanding a phenomenon (for example, leadership and creativity) from the point of view of the participants (for example, managers and employees), and in its particular institutional context (for example, the civil service). In one way or another, the qualitative interview is suggested as being the most widely applied technique for conducting a systematic social inquiry as used by social science investigation (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995). In-depth interviews are defined as informal dialogues or interactions aimed at obtaining thorough and deep information about a particular phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2012). Evidently, the interviewee is given the opportunity to talk relatively freely about events, behaviour, and beliefs in relation to the topic area (Bryman and Bell, 2003).

The literature categorizes qualitative interviews in a variety of ways, based on the type of questions and the freedom given to respondents. Interviews are divided into three types: structured, unstructured, and semi-structured. Actually, semi-structured interviews are often the sole data source and also the most widely used interviewing format for qualitative purposes. They are organized around a set of predetermined open-ended questions (the interviewer’s guide), with other questions emerging from the dialogue between interviewer and interviewee/s (Potter and Hepburn, 2005).

This study utilized in-depth semi-structured interviews, which contributed to the research through intensely investigating the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance. The qualitative data that has been collected complements the quantitative data that was gained from questionnaires, which were valuable in themselves but required further exploration.

5.4.3.1 Participants in the Interviews

The sampling strategies and sample size that have been discussed only apply to quantitative surveys and not necessarily to the qualitative type. Patton (2002) states that qualitative methods such as using the interview method do not follow any rules for the sample size; the researcher usually uses small groups or even a single case for collecting data for his or her study.

The number of participants in interviews amounted to 15 Omani key informants. They were chosen from 11 organizations in the civil service sector. These organizations were: the
Ministry of Higher Education, the Ministry of Manpower, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Education, the Institute of Public Administration, the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Regional Municipalities and Water Resources, the Ministry of Tourism, and the Ministry of Housing. The interviews covered: four ministries’ consultants, two ministries’ advisors, two general managers, four middle managers, and three heads of sections. Table 5.3 below shows the number of participants in interviews and their positions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Title</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consultant</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advisor</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director General</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Manager</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head of Section</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.4.3.2 The Interviewer’s Guide

To collect qualitative data from the participants in the interviews, a semi-structured questions guide has been designed and followed. In keeping with Saunders et al., (2012), the interview questions should be designed based on the study objectives and questions rather than the literature review of the study. Thus, the semi-structured questions guide consists of four main parts. The first part contains questions evaluating the managers’ use of the Full Range of Leadership model. In the second part, questions were asked to measure the employees’ creative performance, and in the third part questions were set to investigate the relationship between managers’ leadership style and employees’ creative performance. In the last part the interviewees were asked to express their general recommendations on how to develop the Omani managers’ leadership style to encourage employees’ creative performance. Drafts of the interviews’ guides that were employed in the study are illustrated in Appendix B.

### 5.5 The Study Procedures for the Collection of Quantitative Data

Conducting a field study in a culture such as Oman requires that the researcher considers the environment’s specificities. According to Blaxter et al., (2010), it is very important to consider
the context in which the study is being conducted and follow a suitable and realistic strategy to collect data. Essentially, the Omani cultural setting imposes a number of constraints and limitations. For instance, some government administrators are usually hesitant to participate in studies that particularly criticize the system or evaluate the behaviours of others. However, the best way to remove this concern is by obtaining written letters from the concerned authorities indicating approval. Additionally, Omani scholars such as Muharami (1993), Maawali (2000), and Al-Ghailani (2005) suggest that examining organizational issues in Oman from a position outside the organization is very difficult; therefore, a researcher should take advantage of his or her personal and informal contacts. They also advise that researchers should administer procedures in person to obtain good results; however, this will require more time and effort.

Therefore, the researcher firstly obtained an introductory letter from the University of Manchester indicating the importance of cooperation with the researcher to facilitate the field study process. In Oman, a supporting letter was obtained from the Ministry of Higher Education which indicated that the researcher had been given permission to conduct his field study and encouraged public agencies to cooperate. These letters were useful and were welcomed by officials’ organizations.

Considering ethical matters, a cover letter was attached to the questionnaires containing information about the researcher and the study. The cover letter included: information about the researcher together with his telephone number and email address; the title and the aim of the study; the purpose behind collecting data; the assurance to keep data confidential and restrict its use to the scientific research only; and an invitation to participate and fill in the questionnaire accurately and honestly.

Secondly, the researcher contacted the organizations and explained the kind of help needed. The distribution and collection procedures for the questionnaires were organized by the organizations’ “contact person”. Obviously, to facilitate the process the researcher identified one contact person in each organization where questionnaires were distributed. These people were mostly relatives, colleagues, and friends. They were individually briefed about what was required and were asked to follow up questionnaire collection.

Then, the follow-up process, through visiting and opening lines of communication with the contact person in each organization, aimed to encourage participants to complete questionnaires and allow them to be collected on time. This strategy yielded a response rate for
the managers’ sample of 93% and the employees’ sample of 85%. These rates are especially high.

5.6 The Procedures Undertaken for the Collection of Qualitative Data
As with the questionnaires, the interview process was supported with letters of cooperation and questions were carefully designed. The participators for the interviews were selected based on their experiences in relation to the study’s objectives to make sure the interviews would be useful. Interviews were carried out in respondents’ offices. In the first meeting, the researcher started by explaining the objectives of his study and its importance. Then, the researcher introduced the interview guide (the ethical issue was considered as it was with the questionnaire) and follow up requested. The aim was to give interviewees time to think about their answers. If this was not possible, the interview took place immediately.

The researcher asked the participators for their permission to record the interviews, outlining the difficulties of conducting interviews without recording. The participants were very helpful and agreed without restrictions. Obviously, in the session, the interviewee started the interview with a highly reticent manner and attempted to answer the question briefly and by being direct and to the point. At that time the researcher recognized the importance of establishing rapport and developing a positive relationship with the interviewee before the interview process started. Actually, establishing rapport involves trust and a respect for the interviewee and the information she or he shares. It is also a means of establishing a safe and comfortable environment in which the interviewee can share their experiences and attitudes as they actually occurred (DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree, 2006). Thus, the researcher started by asking a broad and open-ended question reflecting the nature of the study, which is the Omani leadership style. The literature reveals that the first question in a qualitative interview aims to get the interviewee talking (Potter and Hepburn, 2005). Later the interview moved away from surface talk to rich discussions of thoughts and feelings.

In total, 15 interviews were conducted immediately after the completion of the questionnaire. The interviews were done in Arabic and then translated into English by the researcher. Most of these interviews involved more than one meeting and were transcribed directly while the meeting remained fresh in the researcher’s mind.
5.7 Data Analysis Strategy

Essentially, the raw data that have been obtained from the data collection convey very little meaning before they have been managed and analysed. The usefulness of these data appears after they are processed and converted to information (Burns and Burns, 2008).

This study utilizes the benefits of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) to analyse the qualitative data that had been collected to answer the study’s questions. The study follows several methods to analyse the questionnaire survey data. The mean scores and standard deviations of the relevant variables were compared to measure the perceptions of managers and employees toward the components of the Full Range of Leadership model as well as employees’ creative performance. Independent-sample t-tests were employed to figure out the perceptions of the two groups toward the components of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. Further, multiple regression analysis was used to explore the relationships between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance, the effect of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours on employees’ creative performance, and the effect of managers’ personal characteristics on their perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours and employees’ creative performance.

In relation to interview data, Saunders et al., (2012) reveal that qualitative data has no single, standardized procedure for analysis however researcher after recording the interviews could analysis the data collected by transcribed the exact words as well as the sense of how it was said. Then, the transcribed data has to be classified into categories and connections between data categories need to be identified. The study conducted 15 interviews covering: four ministries’ consultants, two ministries’ advisors, two general managers, four middle managers, and three heads of sections. After all interviews were recorded and transcribed, ministry consultants, advisors, and general managers are grouped in one category to represent the top-level management views, while middle managers were categorized to represent the managers’ views and heads’ of sections opinions represent employees’ views, since they are supervised by middle-level managers. Moreover, the results of interviews were divided into three sections: the analysis of interviews that exhibit the extent to which Omani managers perform the Full Range of Leadership model: the analysis of interviews that demonstrate the extent to which Omani employees perform in creative ways; and suggestions for the enhancement of leaders’ behaviours that encourage employees’ creative performance.
5.8 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to discuss the study methodology and methods. Following relevant literature in leadership and creativity fields was reviewed, the study followed and adopted the research layers of Saunders et al., (2012) as a methodology framework to explore the study’s objectives and answer the study’s questions. The framework layers comprise: philosophies, approaches, strategies, choice of method(s), time horizons, and techniques and procedures.

The investigation of the study methodology has revealed that this study follows the pragmatist philosophy; uses the deductive approach; uses a survey method; and is a cross-sectional study that utilizes questionnaires, interviews, and secondary data techniques and procedures.

Indeed, the utilization of a triangulation technique through combining quantitative and qualitative methods is useful because of its advantages. To collect the quantitative data a questionnaire was designed that uses the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5-Short) to evaluate the Full Range of Leadership model and employs Zhou and George’s scale (2001) to assess employees’ creative performance. Additionally, the study utilizes in-depth interviews with some of the Omani civil service sector’s key figures to explore this relationship based on their daily experiences. The data obtained from these interviews attempts to complement the quantitative results.

The population of this study covers all Omani civil service organizations that apply the law of civil service. The study targets two groups: the Omani middle managers (which include department managers and their equivalents) and their employees. Further, the study uses the probability sampling method represented by the random sampling technique. Utilizing the benefits of SPSS, the study undertakes a range of methods to analyse the quantitative data such as comparison of the mean scores and standard deviation, independent-sample t-tests, and multiple regressions, while the interviews were manually analysed due to the small number of people who participated in the study. In the following two chapters the description and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data is illustrated.
Chapter Six: Description and Analysis of Quantitative Data

6.1 Introduction
This study aims to examine the extent to which Omani civil service managers perform the Full Range of Leadership styles to encourage employees’ creative performance. This chapter illustrates the descriptive results analysis for the quantitative data collected. The descriptive analyses are divided into four sections. The first section illustrates the personal characteristics of the study’s respondents, while the second section presents the respondents’ perceptions towards the Full Range of Leadership styles. The third section displays the respondents’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours, and the last section shows the respondents’ perceptions about employees’ creative performance.

6.2 Personal Characteristics of the Respondents
The population of this study covered all Omani civil service organizations that apply the law of civil service. It targeted the perceptions of two sample groups in this population: Omani managers and their employees. The following sections describe the personal characteristics of the two sample groups. A summary of those characteristics is shown in Table 6.1.

6.2.1 Gender
As illustrated in Table 6.1, the total size of the managers’ sample was 269 participants. A larger proportion of managers were male (231 participants), forming 85.9% of the sample, while there were 38 female participants, which represented 14.1% of the managers’ sample.

On the other side, the total size of the employees’ sample was 371 participants. As can be observed from Table 6.1, male employees represent 68.2% of the total sample, or 253 participants. There were 118 female participants, representing 31.8% of the employees’ sample.

Noticeably, the imbalanced distribution between the two sexes can be clearly seen in management positions. The low representation rate of female managers in the study is justified by the unequal distribution rate of female managers working in the civil service sector. Based on a Ministry of Civil Service Annual Report, there are 1,966 male managers, representing 91% of the civil service sector workforce, compared with 178 female managers, representing only 8%
(Ministry of Civil Service, 2011). However, the report also states that the women working at civil service units constituted 43% of the total number of employees.

It is worth mentioning that female participation in the workforce significantly improved during the last decade. The Omani government has made serious efforts to expand women’s opportunities in the workforce and ensure their participation at all management levels. Those efforts resulted in a dramatic increase in the percentage of females working in the civil service sector over the last few decades, from 6.3% in 1980 to 43% in 2010 (Ministry of Civil Service, 2011).

### Table 6.1: Summary of the Respondents’ Personal Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Characteristics of Respondents</th>
<th>Managers (N = 269)</th>
<th>Employees (N = 371)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>85.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 25 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 25 to under 35 years</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 35 to under 45 years</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>52.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 years and over</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational Qualification</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below high school certificate</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school certificate</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate college diploma</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>45.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Work Experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than five years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 years to less than 10 years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years to less than 15 years</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 years and over</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>63.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 6.2.2. Age

Regarding age, Table 6.1 shows that no managers aged under 25 years old participated in the study. Most Omani civil servants join the service at an average age of 23 years and would have to have 5 to 10 years’ work experience to occupy a management position (Ministry of Civil Service, 2011).
Furthermore, Table 6.1 shows that the largest managers’ age group was the middle category (25–45 years), which represented 75.5% of the total sample. The other portion was located in the 45-years-and-above group, with a percentage of 24.5%. Noticeably, the majority of the managers’ sample was in the middle age group. This can be attributed to the fact that participants are managers with experience stretching over a long period.

For employees, the majority of the sample was in the 25 years to below 45 years age groups, with a ratio of 87.8% of the total sample. Other portions were distributed between the groups of below 25 years (5.9%) and 45 years and above (6.3%). The results obtained are consistent with the civil service age structure, which indicates that 80.6% of Omani civil service employees are in the age group of between 25 and 45 years (Ministry of Civil Service, 2011).

### 6.2.3 Educational Level

Table 6.1 reveals the educational attainment of the sample, which was grouped into six levels according to the Omani categorization of the education system. The results demonstrate that almost half of managers (45.7%) had finished their bachelor degree and 17.1% had pursued their education to higher levels (Masters and PhD degree). Managers who held higher school certificates and below represented 22.7% of the sample, while 14.5% held diplomas.

If we combine the education levels in employees’ results, we can see that 239 (or 64.4%) of the employees’ sample had either a diploma or university education, while 96 employees (or 25.8%) had either higher school certificates or below. The employees who had pursued their education level to postgraduate and higher represented 9.7% of the total sample.

Obviously, there are three important notes we can trace from the results shown in Table 6.1. Firstly, the Ministry of Civil Service Annual Report indicates that 42.7% of the civil service workforce has a university degree, which supports the results obtained by this study, which indicates that 45.7% of managers and 39.6% of employees hold a bachelor degree.

Secondly, based on the Ministry of Education’s Annual Educational Statistics Report issued in 2011, the educational system and facilities in Oman started late. In 1970 there were only three schools in all of Oman and in 1973 the government sent 273 scholars to start their graduate study abroad. Actually, that was reflected in the education level of the workforce in the civil service sector, where most of the employees and even managers had a secondary school education or less. Thus, the findings demonstrate that the government has achieved significant
progress in employing, attracting, and retaining qualified employees in the civil service sector, where 62.8% of the managers’ sample and 49.3% of employees hold bachelor degrees or higher.

Thirdly, even though the level of educational qualification in itself may not give a true insight into the skills of those who hold them, having 22.7% of the managers’ sample and 25% of employees holding secondary school education or lower raises concerns about the resistance that those managers as well as employees could have to training, learning, and change.

6.2.4 Total Work Experience
As can be observed from Table 6.1, more than half of the managers (63.9%) have been working for more than 15 years, followed by 22.3% who have been working for 10 to 14 years. It also reveals that 13.7% of managers have been working for less than 10 years. Generally, we can notice that almost 86.2% of managers are those who have 10 years or more of experience, and that this is because employees need time before they are promoted to management positions, as mentioned before.

In contrast, employees’ results that are displayed in Table 6.1 demonstrate that all four categories of the work experience data are nearly the same. Employees who have been working for 15 years or more represent 29.1% of the total sample, followed by 26.7% of employees whose experience is less than five years. The results found that 23.7% of employees have 5 years to less than 10 years of experience, and 20.5% of the total sample has 10 years to less than 15 years of experience. This result shows that employees in this study were almost distributed equally across the four different work experience categories.

6.3 The Respondents’ Perceptions towards the Full Range of Leadership Model
To clearly describe the results for the perceptions of respondents regarding the leadership model, Table 6.2 gives an overview of the means and standard deviations of both managers’ and employees’ scores for all Full Range of Leadership model variables.
Table 6.2: The Means and Standard Deviations of Both Managers and Employees for the Full Range of Leadership Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Full Range of Leadership Model</th>
<th>Managers N = 269</th>
<th>Employees N = 371</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transformational Leadership</strong></td>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence (attributes)</strong></td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence (behaviour)</strong></td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Inspirational Motivation</strong></td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Intellectual Stimulation</strong></td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Individualized Consideration</strong></td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Mean and S.D.</strong></td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transactional Leadership</strong></td>
<td><strong>Contingent Reward</strong></td>
<td>4.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Management-By-Exception (active)</strong></td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Mean and S.D.</strong></td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Passive/Avoidant Leadership</strong></td>
<td><strong>Management-By-Exception (passive)</strong></td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Laissez-Faire</strong></td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Mean and S.D.</strong></td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Table 6.2, data show that managers perceive transformational leadership as having the highest average rating above the mid-point of 3 on the five-point scale ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Frequently, if not always) with a mean of 4.06 and a standard deviation of 0.50. Transactional leadership rated second (mean = 3.83, S.D. = 0.67), followed by passive/avoidant leadership (mean = 1.8, S.D. = 0.75). Based on these average ratings, it appears that managers had the perception that Omani managers are demonstrating the style of transformational leadership more often than either transactional or passive/avoidant leadership.

The transformational leadership results for managers show that the attributes of idealized influence had the highest means from the other five factors (mean = 4.19, S.D. = 0.97), while the intellectual stimulation factor rated lowest (mean = 3.91, S.D. = 0.90). For transactional leadership, managers rated contingent reward as much higher (mean = 4.04, S.D. = 0.91) than the active behaviour of management-by-exception (mean = 3.62, S.D. = 1.05). As can be noted from Table 6.2, passive/avoidant leadership factors had the lowest average ratings of all. The passive behaviour of management-by-exception (mean = 1.83, S.D. = 1.11) rated higher than laissez-faire (mean = 1.77, S.D. = 1.03).
Like managers, Table 6.2 reveals that the scores for employees’ perception of their managers were higher for transformational leadership style (mean = 3.26, S.D. = .82) than for transactional leadership (mean = 3.18, S.D. = .77) or passive/avoidant leadership (mean = 2.28, S.D. = .88). In other words, employees perceive that their managers are more transformational leaders than transactional or passive/avoidant leaders.

As can be observed from Table 6.2, the result of transformational leadership for employees showed that idealized influence (attributes) had the highest mean among the five factors (mean = 3.63, S.D. = 1.13), while the individualized-consideration factor rated lowest with a mean of 3.06 and a standard deviation of 1.22. Regarding transactional leadership, the results indicate that employees rated contingent reward as much higher (mean = 3.21, S.D. = 1.24) than management-by-exception (active) with a mean of 3.15 and a standard deviation of 1.16. As illustrated in Table 5.2, employees’ perceptions are in line with managers’ opinions that passive/avoidant leadership is demonstrated the least often of the three leadership types. The table also shows that the passive behaviour of management-by-exception (mean = 2.33, S.D. = 1.23) rated higher than laissez-faire (mean = 2.23, S.D. = 1.20) did.

6.4 The Respondents’ Perceptions towards Transformational Leadership Components

The results described above reveal that managers as well as employees perceived that their managers exhibit a transformational leadership style more often than either transactional or passive/avoidant leadership. The following subsections describe both managers’ and employees’ perceptions toward transformational leadership components. Table 6.3 presents means and standard deviations for managers and employees in relation to transformational leadership components, while Tables 6.4 and 6.5 show the percentages of managers’ and employees’ perceptions toward transformational leadership elements.
### Table 6.3: Means and Standard Deviations for Managers and Employees toward Transformational Leadership Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Factors/Items</th>
<th>Leaders N = 269</th>
<th>Employees N = 371</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence (Attributes)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Instil pride in others for being associated with me</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Act in ways that build others’ respect for me</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>0.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Display a sense of power and confidence</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Mean and S.D.</strong></td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence (Behaviour)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Talk about my most important values and beliefs</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>0.848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Mean and S.D.</strong></td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inspirational Motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Talk optimistically about the future</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Articulate a compelling vision of the future</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Express confidence that goals will be achieved</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Mean and S.D.</strong></td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intellectual Stimulation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Seek differing perspectives when solving problems</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Get others to look at problems from many different angles</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Encourage employees to apply new processes even if there is a risk of not succeeding</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Accept employees’ ideas even if they are different to my ideas</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Encourage employees to search for and apply new ideas to develop their work</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Encourage employees’ creativity through not publicly criticizing their mistakes</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Mean and S.D.</strong></td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual Consideration</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Spend time teaching and coaching</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Provide learning-and-development environment</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Help others to develop their strengths</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Mean and S.D.</strong></td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.857</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.4.1 Idealized Influence (Attributes)

The MLQ questionnaire measured idealized influence attributes using four items. As can be seen from Table 6.3, both managers and employees strongly believed that acting in ways that build respect for others is the most important feature for a manager to demonstrate in terms of idealized influence attributes (mean = 4.67; 4.21 and S.D. = .622 ;.976 respectively). As Tables 6.4 and 6.5 show, 73.2% of the managers and 50.1% of the employees thought that managers frequently if not always demonstrate this feature, while only 0.4% of the managers and 1.9% of the employees considered that managers are not practising this feature at all.
On the other side, managers considered that instilling pride in others for being associated with him/her was the lowest feature for idealized influence attributes (mean = 3.74; S.D. = 1.315), while employees saw the quality of going beyond self-interest for the good of the group as lower than other idealized influence attributes (mean = 3.17; S.D. =1.211).

Table 6.4: The Percentages of Managers’ Perceptions toward Transformational Leadership Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Factors/Items</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Once in a while</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Fairly Often</th>
<th>Frequently if not always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence (Attributes)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Insuil pride in others for being associated with me</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Act in ways that build others’ respect for me</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Display a sense of power and confidence</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence (Behaviour)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Talk about my most important values and beliefs</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inspirational Motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Talk optimistically about the future</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Articulate a compelling vision of the future</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Express confidence that goals will be achieved</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intellectual Stimulation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Seek differing perspectives when solving problems</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Get others to look at problems from many different angles</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Encourage employees to apply new processes even if there is a risk of not succeeding</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Accept employees’ ideas even if they are different to my ideas</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Encourage employees to search for and apply new ideas to develop their work</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>40.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Encourage employees’ creativity through not publicly criticizing their mistakes</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual Consideration</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Spend time teaching and coaching</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Provide learning-and-development environment</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 Help others to develop their strengths</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4.2 Idealized Influence (Behaviour)

According to Table 6.3, the results for the idealized influence behaviour component indicate that managers as well as employees believed that emphasizing the importance of having a collective sense of mission is the most important feature for a manager who applies idealized influence behaviour (mean = 4.38; 3.69 and S.D. = .863; 1.166 respectively). As Tables 6.4 and 6.5 illustrate, about 56.5% of the managers and 31.3% of the employees believed that managers frequently if not always exhibit this feature, while only 0.4% of the managers and 4.6% of the employees perceived that managers are not practising this feature at all.
In addition, both rated the managers’ ability to talk about their most important values and beliefs as the lowest behaviour from the four items of the MLQ questionnaire that measured idealized influence behaviour (mean = 3.67; 3.29 and S.D. = 1.053; 1.135 respectively).

6.4.3 Inspirational Motivation

As illustrated in Table 6.3, managers highly value the ability of managers to talk enthusiastically to their employees about what needs to be accomplished (mean = 4.26; S.D. = .777). Table 6.4 reveals that about 43.9% of the managers frequently if not always demonstrate this behaviour, while none of the managers rated that managers do not practise it at all and only 2.6% thought that managers show this behaviour once in a while.

Employees believed that managers who want to exhibit the inspirational-motivation component should communicate confidently with their employees and emphasize that they can achieve any ambitious goals (mean = 3.49; S.D. = 1.200), as indicated in Table 6.3. Further, Table 6.5 shows that about 23.7% of the employees felt that managers frequently if not always demonstrate this quality, while only 7.3% thought that managers do not show it at all.

Moreover, the results from both managers and employees indicated that the ability for a manager to articulate a compelling vision of the future was rated the least important (mean = 3.87; 3.02 and S.D. = .949; 1.154 respectively).

6.4.4 Intellectual Stimulation

As mentioned in the Methodology Chapter, the intellectual-stimulation factor contained eight items: four items from MLQ and another four items added to the questionnaire based on the pilot testing study to reflect intellectual-stimulation meaning. According to the results presented in Table 6.3, the managers’ perceptions illustrate that managers who encourage employees to search for and apply new ideas to develop their work are those who highly enhance employees’ intellectual stimulation (mean = 4.23; S.D. = .785). According to Table 6.4, about 40.1% of the managers considered that managers frequently if not always demonstrate this feature, while only 0.7% thought that managers are not showing it at all.

Employees believed that managers’ ability to encourage employees’ imagination to seek differing perspectives when solving problems is the most important item for managers in terms of stimulating employees’ efforts to be innovative and creative in the workplace (mean = 3.44;
S.D. = 1.087). As Table 6.5 indicates, about 32.1% of the employees thought that managers fairly often show this quality in the workplace, while only 4.9% thought that managers are not demonstrating it at all.

On the other side, both managers and employees rated the ability for managers to encourage employees to apply new processes even if there is a risk of not succeeding as the least important feature for managers in relation to intellectual-stimulation behaviour (mean = 3.33; 2.75 and S.D. = 1.025; 1.152 respectively).

**Table 6.5: The Percentages of Employees’ Perceptions about Transformational Leadership Components**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Factors/Items</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Once in a while</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Fairly often</th>
<th>Frequently if not always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence (Attributes)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Instil pride in others for being associated with me</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Act in ways that build others’ respect for me</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Display a sense of power and confidence</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence (Behaviour)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Talk about my most important values and beliefs</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inspirational Motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Talk optimistically about the future</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Articulate a compelling vision of the future</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Express confidence that goals will be achieved</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intellectual Stimulation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Seek differing perspectives when solving problems</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Get others to look at problems from many different angles</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Encourage employees to apply new processes even if there is a risk of not succeeding</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Accept employees’ ideas even if they are different to my ideas</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Encourage employees to search for and apply new ideas to develop their work</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Encourage employees’ creativity through not publicly criticizing their mistakes</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual Consideration</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Spend time teaching and coaching</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Provide learning-and-development environment</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Help others to develop their strengths</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.4.5 Individual Consideration

Individual consideration’s component contained five items: four items from MLQ and item number 22 added to the questionnaire based on recommendations gained from the pilot testing study to more closely reflect the meaning of individual-consideration behaviour.

Table 6.3 reveals that managers’ perceptions indicate that in order for managers to practise individual-consideration behaviour they should spend time teaching and coaching their
employees (mean = 4.32; S.D. = .784). As Table 6.4 shows, about 49.1% of the managers believed that managers frequently if not always demonstrate this quality at work, while none of the managers graded that managers are not applying it at all and only 3% thought that managers show this quality once in a while.

Employees thought that managers who behave in a way that considers an individual employee as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others was the most important feature for managers in terms of practising individual-consideration behaviour (mean = 3.22; S.D. = 1.211). Table 6.5 demonstrates that about 28% of the employees thought that managers are fairly often showing this quality in the workplace, and only 9.4% thought that managers are not showing this behaviour at all.

Both managers and employees agree that managers who “treat others as individuals, rather than as just a member of a group” as the least important feature from the five items of the MLQ questionnaire that measured individual-consideration behaviour (mean = 4.02; 2.97 and S.D. = .920; 1.244 respectively).

6.5 The Respondents’ Perceptions toward Employees’ Creative Performance

Generally, as illustrated in Table 6.6, managers’ perspective regarding employees’ creative performance has mean and standard deviation scores falling between mean = 3.67/ S.D. = 0.93 and mean = 3.31/S.D. = 0.90. The outcome proposes that on average managers perceived their employees as performing in creative ways, with an average mean of 3.49, which is above the mid-point of 3.0 on the five-point rating scale.

From employees’ point of view, Table 6.6 demonstrates that the mean and standard deviation scores concerning employees’ creative performance fall between mean = 3.98/S.D. = 0.85 and mean = 3.45/S.D. = 0.99. According to the data presented, employees on average perceived themselves as creative workers with an average mean of 3.65, which is above the mid-point of 3.

150
Table 6.6: The Means and Standard Deviations of both Managers and Employees for Employees’ Creative Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Managers N = 269</th>
<th>Employees N = 371</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean  S.D.</td>
<td>Mean  S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives</td>
<td>3.55  0.87</td>
<td>3.70  0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance</td>
<td>3.56  0.83</td>
<td>3.66  0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas</td>
<td>3.46  0.88</td>
<td>3.70  0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Suggests new ways to increase quality</td>
<td>3.52  0.93</td>
<td>3.74  0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Takes risks in terms of producing new ideas in doing job</td>
<td>3.59  0.89</td>
<td>3.85  0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Promotes and champions ideas to others</td>
<td>3.40  0.98</td>
<td>3.45  0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to</td>
<td>3.67  0.93</td>
<td>3.98  0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas</td>
<td>3.47  0.92</td>
<td>3.50  0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Comes up with creative solutions to problems</td>
<td>3.46  0.83</td>
<td>3.60  0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Often has a fresh approach to problems</td>
<td>3.31  0.90</td>
<td>3.50  0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Suggests new ways of performing work tasks</td>
<td>3.35  0.94</td>
<td>3.62  0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Finds new uses for existing methods or equipment</td>
<td>3.48  0.87</td>
<td>3.57  0.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average Means and Standard Deviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.6 reveals that from managers’ point of view, the ability for employees to exhibit creativity on the job when they are given the opportunity is the most important quality that contributes to employees’ creative performance (mean = 3.67; S.D. = .93). Table 6.7 shows that about 48.3% of managers believed that managers fairly often exhibit this quality, while only 2.2% of the managers perceived that managers are not practising it at all.

Table 6.7: The Percentages of Managers’ Perceptions about Employees’ Creative Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Once in a while</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Fairly often</th>
<th>Frequently if not always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Suggests new ways to increase quality</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Takes risks in terms of producing new ideas in doing job</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Promotes and champions ideas to others</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Comes up with creative solutions to problems</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Often has a fresh approach to problems</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Suggests new ways of performing work tasks</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Finds new uses for existing methods or equipment</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean scores for managers’ perceptions illustrate that the ability for employees to generate new approaches to solve problems is the least important feature in relation to employees’ creative performance (mean = 3.31; S.D. = .90). As the data in Table 6.7 indicates, about 41.6% of the managers believed that managers sometime exhibit this behaviour; however,
only 8.2% of the respondents perceived that managers are frequently, if not always, demonstrating it.

According to employees’ opinions, as presented in Table 6.6, employees’ mean scores indicate that employees had stronger creative identities when they were given the opportunity to exhibit their creative attitude (mean = 3.98; S.D. = 0.85) and this result is in line with managers’ opinions. As Table 6.8 shows, about 41.8% of the employees believed that managers exhibit this item fairly often, while only 0.8% of them perceived that managers are not practising this behaviour at all.

The ability for employees to promote and champion their new and novel ideas to others was valued as the least significant characteristic that contributes to employees’ creative performance (mean = 3.45; S.D. = 0.99), as seen in Table 6.6. Further, the results in Table 6.8 demonstrate that about 34.5% of the employees thought managers sometimes exhibit this behaviour, while 15.1% of the employees perceived that managers are frequently, if not always, demonstrating it.

Table 6.8: The Percentages of Employees’ Perceptions toward Employees’ Creative Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Once in a while</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Fairly often</th>
<th>Frequently if not always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>79.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Suggests new ways to increase quality</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Takes risks in terms of producing new ideas in doing job</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Promotes and champions ideas to others</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Comes up with creative solutions to problems</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Often has a fresh approach to problems</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Suggests new ways of performing work tasks</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Finds new uses for existing methods or equipment</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.6 Conclusion

This study aims to determine the degree to which Full Range of Leadership styles are being performed by Omani managers to enhance employees’ creative performance. This chapter has presented the descriptive results of the study, which are shown in four sections. The first section illustrates the personal characteristics of the study’s respondents. The results regarding gender show that a larger proportion of the participants were male: 86% of the managers and 68% of the
employees. As for age, the results demonstrate that the majority of managers and employees were aged between 25 years and 45 years. The educational level data indicate that almost half of managers (46%) had finished their bachelor degree, whereas more than half of employees (64%) had either a diploma or a university education. The total work experience outcome reveals that almost 86% of managers had 10 years or more of experience and that is because employees need time to be promoted to management positions. In contrast, employees’ results show that the employees who participated in this study were almost spread equally across the four different work experience groups.

Section two presents the respondents’ perceptions about the Full Range of Leadership styles. The results reveal that managers as well as employees perceived their managers exhibit a transformational leadership style more often than either transactional or passive/avoidant leadership. The managers’ data regarding transformational leadership shows that the attributes of idealized influence had the highest means among the five factors, while the intellectual stimulation factor rated the lowest. For transactional leadership, managers rated contingent reward as much higher than the active behaviour of management-by-exception. Passive/avoidant-leadership-type factors had the lowest average ratings of all. The passive behaviour of management-by-exception rated higher than laissez-faire. From the employees’ side, the data of transformational leadership exhibit that idealized influence (attributes) had the highest means among the five factors, and the individualized-consideration factor rated lowest. Regarding transactional leadership, the results indicate that employees rated contingent reward as much higher than management-by-exception (active). Further, the passive/avoidant leadership results show that the passive behaviour of management-by-exception rated higher than laissez-faire.

Section three shows the respondents’ perceptions toward transformational leadership components. For the idealized influence attributes, both managers and employees believed that acting in ways that build respect for others is the most important feature for a manager in terms of demonstrating idealized influence attributes. The outcome for idealized influence behaviour indicates that managers as well as employees believed that emphasizing the importance of having a collective sense of mission is the most important feature for a manager in relation to idealized influence behaviour. For inspirational motivation, the data illustrate that managers highly valued the ability of managers to talk enthusiastically to their employees about what needs
to be accomplished, while employees believed that a manager who wants to exhibit inspirational motivation should communicate confidently with their employees and emphasize that they can achieve any ambitious goals. For intellectual stimulation, the results reveal that the sample of managers believed that managers who encourage employees to search for and apply new ideas to develop their work are those who highly enhance employees’ intellectual stimulation, while employees believed that managers’ ability to encourage employees’ imagination to seek differing perspectives when solving problems is the most important item for managers in terms of stimulating employees’ efforts to be innovative and creative in the workplace. The data for managers’ perceptions of the individual consideration component demonstrate that managers believed that in order for managers to practise individual consideration, they should spend time teaching and coaching their employees, whereas employees thought that behaving in a way that considers an individual employee as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others is the most important feature for managers in terms of practising individual consideration.

Section four illustrates the respondents’ perceptions about employees’ creative performance. The outcome proposes that, on average, managers perceive their employees as creative. The data show that, from managers’ point of view, the ability for employees to exhibit creativity on the job when they are given the opportunity is the most important quality that contributes to employees’ creative performance. From employees’ point of view, the results demonstrate that employees on average perceived themselves as performing in a creative way. The results indicate that employees had stronger creative identities when they were given the opportunity to exhibit their creative potential; these results were in line with managers’ perception.
Chapter Seven: Results and Analysis of Qualitative Data (Interviews)

7.1 Introduction

This study aims to explore the extent to which Omani civil service managers are practising the Full Range of Leadership styles to enhance employees’ creative performance. Following the results obtained through questionnaires, leadership and creative behaviours require using in-depth discussions. Obviously, the in-depth analysis with respondents will be supported with day-to-day real-life examples which cannot be easily achieved by using the quantitative method only. Therefore, the researcher decided to make use of the qualitative method as a complementary measure. Thus, the data for this study was collected by using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

This chapter presents the results of fifteen interviews which were conducted during the summer of 2011, immediately after the completion of the questionnaire survey. The interviews covered: four ministries’ consultants, two ministries’ advisors, two general managers, four middle managers, and three heads of sections. For the purpose of this study, ministry consultants, advisors, and general managers are grouped in one category to represent the views of top-level management, while middle managers represent the managers’ views, which are the study unit of this research, and the heads of sections represent employees’ views, since they are supervised by middle-level managers.

All interviews were tape recorded and transcribed directly while still fresh. It is worth mentioning that the researcher found officials supportive and willing to move away from special talk to rich discussion.

The results of interviews are divided into three sections: the analysis of interviews that exhibit the extent to which Omani managers perform the Full Range of Leadership styles; the analysis of interviews that demonstrate the extent to which Omani employees perform in creative ways; and suggestions for the enhancement of leaders’ behaviours that encourage employees’ creative performance.

It is worth noting that, for the purpose of clarifying the link between the interviewees’ opinions and the study’s terms, the definitions of the study’s terminologies, which were explained in Chapter Two, are also included in this chapter.
7.2 The Exhibit of the Full Range of Leadership Model

7.2.1 Transformational Leadership Style

In conformity with Bass and Riggio (2006), this study defined transformational leadership as a process whereby a leader influences the organizational members about the achievement of organizational goals by utilizing his/her social and action charisma to encourage people in organization; articulating an inspiring vision for the future; creating an environment for creativity; and paying close attention to individuals’ needs and wants. Further, Bass and Riggio (2006) argue that transformational leadership consists of five components, namely idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. An examination of all interviewees’ opinions reveals that the Omani managers who work in Omani civil service organizations are practising all behaviours of the transformational leadership style. The following sections shown the opinions of interviewees regarding the extent to which managers perform transformational leadership components.

7.2.1.1 Idealized Influence (Attributes)

Idealized influence attributes are defined as the socialized charisma of the leader, whereby the employees feel admiration, loyalty, and respect for the leader. It is leaders’ ability to behave in ways that allow them to build confidence and trust. Trust is earned by the willingness to take personal risks and consistency in decisions. Leaders who exhibit idealized influence attributes are providing a role model that employees seek to emulate. Those employees view their leaders as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

7.2.1.1.1 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Consultants, Advisors, and General Managers

In response to a question about the extent to which Omani managers display idealized influence attributes, there was a general consensus that Omani managers shown idealized influence
attributes. The three groups (consultants, advisors and general managers) concentrate on three points: the importance of decision making, the effect of socialized charisma, and the sources of idealized influence attributes.

Firstly, the responses indicate that attributes such as admiration, loyalty, respect, and confidence are a result of managers’ ability to take decisions. Their points of view were varied as described below.

“Based on my experiences, I believe that to be a leader you must be a good decision maker and only by being that will employees respect, admire, and follow you. During my working life I have seen many Omani managers who are good decision makers. They have the wisdom in making decisions and they do not hesitate in taking them. Actually, I strongly believe that managers who are not able to take decisions cannot lead themselves, and those who cannot lead themselves cannot lead others.” (Consultant-4)

“Some of the characteristics that I have seen in some managers who are real leaders are: humility, having a strong personality, experience in the field of specialization, having the ability to instil belonging among employees, and have powerful decision-making skills. They trust any decisions they make. You will feel that in many situations they know for sure what will be the results of their decisions even before they make it. It is really an interesting talent.” (General Manager-1)

Secondly, it appears from the responses of the interviewees that the word leader is linked to the word charisma. The responses emphasize that real leaders are those who have the charisma that attracts employees to be around them and follow them. The responses also highlighted that this charisma is a result of leaders’ positive behaviours when dealing with employees. The responses of the interviews are shown below.

“A manager’s charisma is remarkable in employing ways of attracting people through respect and generating friends and even followers more than it creates enemies. Through my work experience, I have seen managers who desire and seek out opportunities to help others. They are givers more than takers. I saw managers who transcend their self-interest for the sake of other employees. I saw them accomplish some of their employees’ work when there is a heavy workload and a shortage in workers or when their employees are sick or having personal difficulties. I saw them
share their bonus to distribute it to their employees who did not get any rewards from the administration, believe it or not. Those are the real trusted leaders, not those who do hardly any work simply to reach their personal objectives.” (Consultant-2)

“I saw managers who have a socialized gift or you can call it an intelligent way of communication when dealing with their employees. Consequently their employees do whatever their managers ask. Actually, they do a lot of work for those managers outside office hours without asking for any overtime fees and they are happy to do it.” (Consultant-3)

Thirdly, the emphasis of interviewees on the existence of idealized influence attributes among Oman’s managers is gained from their background, which was shaped by the Islamic religion and the Omani culture. They argue that Islamic values and beliefs and Omani social systems, which are the tribal and family systems, help Oman’s managers to display idealized influence attributes. To illustrate, below are the statements of responses as spoken by the interviewees.

“Many Omani managers are driven by religion. All their decisions are made based on their fear of accountability to God. They believe that dealing with employees in such a good way is religion’s obligations.” (Consultant-3)

“Those values that shape the Omani managers’ character are gained from the Omani culture, which is influenced by Islamic values, customs, and norms, social background, and the Omani social systems, which are tribalism and the families system. I believe that the formal organization systems are new to Omani managers; thus they are combining what they learn from management organizational theories with their informal ways of dealing with people based on their cultural background in order to manage their organization.” (Advisor-1)

“As a general manager I realize that employees follow those managers who have charisma that attracts others to them. They are friendly, humble, and have powerful skills of persuasion. As we are Muslim, managers use verses from the Qur’an and Hadith [the collections of the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) and his companions’ actions and statements] as a very strong verbal way of both communication and persuasion. Those managers are role models for their employees.
where their employees want to emulate them. Thus, their employees will share the same mentality.” (General Manager-2)

7.2.1.1.2 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Middle-Level Managers

To investigate the existence of idealized influence attributes among middle managers, a question was set to highlight the extent to which Omani middle managers think that they perform idealized influence attributes. The opinions of respondents were focused on day-to-day qualities that leaders use to interact with employees, such as friendly, good communicator, conflict solver, tolerant, and committed to justice between employees. The respondents used different names to express the meaning of leadership, for example the respected manager and the change manager. In the following statements respondents illustrate the idealized influence attributes.

“I think employees respect and admire managers who are not position seekers. In fact, managers who admire and respect their employees, as a consequence, have employees who respect, admire, and trust them. Some managers have a strong personality when dealing with employees regarding tasks but they are friendly, good communicators, tolerant, and committed to justice between employees.” (Middle Manager-1)

“Those managers attempt to create an open communication environment. They are sending the message: if you have anything let’s talk about it. Those managers are always emphasizing the importance of trust between administrations and employees. They have the ability to solve conflicts that occur between employees and turn it into healthy conflict. They do not hesitate to take decisions and have the ability to cope with work stresses.” (Middle Manager-2)

“Respected managers are those who know their employees’ social needs. They appreciate and attempt to fulﬁl those needs. They are conﬁdent and powerful. Also, they develop trust and conﬁdence among employees. Respected managers are always smiling and speak quietly. They have a very clear vision of what they are going to do and what they will get. They are sending the message: ‘I believe that this is truly the right thing to do.’” (Middle Manager-3)

“Change managers are those who have the ability to change and are continuously suggesting new ways of development. They have the talents to attract employees
around them. These managers have the skills to manage their time effectively and efficiently. These managers are always smiling and create a happy atmosphere around them. They use a sense of humour in the departments to reduce workload stress. These managers attempt to create a family work environment in their departments. They direct their employees to accomplish their tasks strictly but they deal with them smoothly. All employees love them and respect them because they respect their employees.” (Middle Manager-4)

7.2.1.1.3 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Heads of Sections
To obtain employees’ opinions regarding the degree to which managers exhibit idealized influence attributes, heads of section were asked to describe their managers’ characteristics. Obviously, their answers concentrate on describing attributes of managers in their organizations and not their direct managers or recommending attributes that they hope their managers will have. From employees’ point of view, there was a general consensus that listening is the most important feature that employees seek from their managers. Further, managers from heads of sections should have the wisdom in making decisions and have the ability to solve problems and work under pressure. Other examples of managers’ attributes discussed during the interviews are illustrated below.

“I want to talk about my current manager because I think he is a leader. But it does not mean that my ex-manager was bad although he was more manager than leader. In fact, I am only going to mention one attribute that makes all employees love, respect, and admire him. It is the listening attribute. My current manager is an excellent listener. He listens with respect and appreciates what you say. One day I was asking him why he does that. He said it is my secret but let me share it with you. The effective manager must have two big ears and two large eyes to allow them to hear and see what is going on around them to manage their department perfectly. Manager’s charisma appears clearly with a manager who has the ability to communicate perfectly with others through listening to employees even when sometimes you are not interested in what the employee said. You should note that many employees who come to tell you their problems are not coming to seek solutions. In fact, they are coming only to find someone to listen to them and give
them emotional support. Now you have the secret do not disclose it!” (Head of Section-2)

“I will divide my answer into two parts. I will mention some attributes that my manager performs and I will talk about some general attributes for a successful leader. My manager uses humour in work and he is friendly. He is a good decision maker and a good communicator. Generally, I think a leader must have the ability to enhance employees’ loyalty by controlling disappointment and encouraging satisfaction among employees. The real leader is one who rejects the common circumstance that when good things happen the recognition goes to managers, and when things go wrong employees get punched. Effective leaders must have the wisdom in making decisions and have the ability to solve problems and work under pressure.” (Head of Section -3)

“The real manager that I saw (and believe me he is one from a few managers in government) had an aura around him. That aura creates his charisma and made him a star in the ministry and by the way he is now in a top-level management position. He was a good listener and had really strong self-esteem. He was very confident in what he decided and what he did. He was not slapdash in taking decisions.” (Head of Section -1)

7.2.1.2 Idealized Influence (Behaviours)

The idealized influence attributes refers to the socialized charisma of the leader. Idealized influence behaviours, on the other hand, refers to the charismatic actions of the leader. Idealized influence behaviour managers develop trust and confidence among employees. They are willing to take risks and make personal sacrifices in order to achieve set goals and meet the organization’s expectations. Leaders who demonstrate idealized influence behaviours avoid using power for personal gain and reveal high standards of ethical and moral conduct. They consider the ethical consequences of any decisions they make. They specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose and they empower long-term performance (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla (2010); and Michel et al., 2011).
7.2.1.2.1 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Consultants, Advisors, and General Managers

The respondents were asked to explain the extent to which managers demonstrate the behaviour of idealized influence. As they are in top-level management, the interviewees concentrated on the vital role for managers of building an environment of trust within their organization. They emphasized that trust is built on managers’ real actions in the workplace. It is what they do, not what they say. The comments of the respondents are illustrated below.

“I am not sure if managers are aiming to create an environment of trust in their organization. I mean, they are not planning to do so; however, they respect their job and do it honestly. Thus, they gain recognition from administration and their employees appreciate and trust them. Although it is unplanned, I think it is a strong way to grow trust and confidence in organizations through actions not words. I said that because I saw ministries spending money on training and seminars to enhance trust and confidence in their organization, but the effect was limited.” (Consultant-3)

“The respect and trust is only the result of how managers behave in the workplace. It is an exchange process. When managers walk around the workplace and monitor the work, they can see what employees do and they can measure their performances. They listen to them and appreciate their needs and requirements. When employees see all of that, they will respect and trust their managers because they respect and trust both the employees’ needs and the work requirements. As I mentioned it is an exchange process.” (Advisor-2)

“Employees feel confident in their managers based on how many successful decisions he or she has made. They appreciate those managers who look to problems from different angles before making any decisions and, when they make any decisions, study them carefully and realize the effects of those decisions firstly on their employees.” (General Manager-1)

7.2.1.2.2 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Middle-Level Managers

Middle-level managers were asked a question to determine the degree to which they perform idealized influence behaviours in their department. Their main point was focused on the morality of managers’ behaviour. The responses reveal that managers share and exchange their values and
beliefs during their day-to-day interactions with employees in the workplace. However, they also emphasized that since the Omani culture is social oriented, managers demonstrate their values, norms, and beliefs during the organization’s informal gatherings, such as barbecues, marriage celebrations, and condolences. It is worth emphasizing the fourth middle manager’s opinion about the ethical issue of exhibiting idealized influence behaviours to achieve personal gains. Those opinions are illustrated below.

“As you know, the Omani culture is a social culture. We interact with employees during work and personal events. We contribute when sad and happy events occur. We deal with employees as a big brother or as a father if we are older than them. We ask them about their family affairs and we give them personal advice. I see many male managers in our organization who do not hesitate to give their private mobile number to their employees and ask their employees to call them any time they need them. The result of this interactive informal relationship is obvious. I see many employees share and display their managers’ values and beliefs and they attempt to emulate their managers.” (Middle Manager-1)

“Sometimes the social environment within the organization directs a manager’s behaviours. Based on my experiences I work in an organization that creates a friendly-relation-oriented atmosphere. Thus, most of the managers appreciate values such as teamwork, cooperation, collaboration, and working as a family. They are interacting as a family during and outside work time. In the evening, we have our monthly regular gathering and we have our own soccer team. I always emphasized to my general manager that he could utilize the positive values that are shared and interchanged between managers and employees during these informal activities to reflect them in the workplace. However, I did not feel that the administration used positively that opportunity to develop and simplify work relations. It was just for fun and time spent together!” (General Manager-2)

“I want to get your attention about some managers who have hidden objectives and they present positive behaviours to gain their employees’ loyalty. They said they are supporting creating a social environment in the workplace. They participate in employees’ informal events such as barbecues, promotion celebration events, marriage celebrations, and condolences. Unfortunately, I saw some managers who
use this strategy to grow and achieve higher management positions. I was arguing with one of them and he said, ‘It is a win–win situation. I get the position that I seek and the employees under my supervision work happily and get the rewards that they deserve.’ As you see it is a matter of being honest with yourself before others.” (Middle Manager-4)

7.2.1.2.3 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Heads of Sections

The heads of sections were asked to highlight the extent to which they think Omani civil service managers are showing idealized influence behaviours. Their focus was on two main issues: the importance for those managers of walking the talk, where their actions should speak louder than their words, and the essential role of knowledge in shaping managers’ behaviours. The opinions of respondents are presented below.

“I spent three years with a manager who promised us that things would be better in future. I did not know what future she was talking about. One day I said to her that promises were not enough: we needed to see tangible rewards, not words. To me, successful managers are those who take actions in any things such as developments, rewards, training, promotions, etcetera, and do not just say what they are going to do – and then do nothing.” (Head of Section -2)

“I believe that managers without knowledge are like soldiers without weapons. Effective managers are those who are seeking new knowledge that relates to what they do and attempt to apply this knowledge in their workplace. In fact, employees will respect and admire those managers who have knowledge that gives them the ability to solve problems, deal with new technologies, develop new processes to simplify job procedures, and even teach them how to communicate effectively with their employees. Knowledge is very important. You asked me about managers’ behaviours and I said knowledge will shape managers’ personality, and it is the one that will improve their behaviours. Actually, employees measure managers’ ability to manage the department based on how much knowledge he or she has. If section heads feel that their managers have less knowledge than them – for example to deal with technology or to solve conflicts between employees – they will wonder why these
managers are given such positions, when they are much better than them. In the end those section heads will feel disappointed.” (Head of Section -1)

7.2.1.3 Inspirational Motivation
The inspirational-motivation dimension refers to the way in which transformational leaders energize their employees by articulating a compelling vision of the future. They behave in ways that motivate and inspire their employees by providing meaning and challenge to their work. They talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished and express confidence that goals will be achieved (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

7.2.1.3.1 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Consultants, Advisors, and General Managers
The respondents were asked to explain the degree to which Omani managers demonstrate the behaviour of inspirational motivation. The interviewees focused their attention on managers’ contribution to the organization’s vision. There was a general agreement between respondents that middle-level managers in the Omani civil service sector are not participating in setting the organization’s vision. They think that their only responsibility is to transfer the organization’s vision to their section heads and provide suggestions for long-term projects that are related to their department. The comments of the respondents are illustrated below.

“Unfortunately I can say that middle-level managers are not participating in setting the organization’s vision, but I saw some of them attempt to create sub-visions from the organization’s vision and they set objectives to achieve those visions within their departments. In fact, in many cases those sub-visions are unknown to the top-level management in these organizations.” (Consultant-2)

“I cannot say that managers participate in setting the organization’s vision, though managers contribute in providing top management with recommendations and suggestions for long-term projects.” (General Manager-2)

“Actually, they do not take part in setting their department’s objectives, so how can they participate in setting the organization’s vision?” (Consultant-4)
“First of all, ministries’ visions, missions, and objectives are set when they are established. However, when any ministry needs to develop or change their vision, it will create a committee to achieve this target. Usually the committee will include the ministry’s consultants, advisors, and general managers. I do not think it is middle managers’ responsibility to take part in setting the organization’s vision. Nevertheless, middle managers’ duties are to work hard and use their communication skills to translate and transform the organization’s vision to their section heads clearly and with enthusiasm.” (Advisor-1)

7.2.1.3.2 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Middle-Level Managers

Responding to the question about the degree to which managers are practising inspirational-motivation behaviours, middle-level managers replied that managers behave in ways which motivate and inspire employees by providing meaning and challenge to what they are doing. Interviewees also highlighted that managers should always encourage their employees to look to the future with a positive and optimistic outlook. Below are the statements of respondents illustrating those opinions.

“I believe that optimistic managers create an optimistic environment. I saw managers who achieved amazing goals in spite of their limited financial and human resources. For example, one of the managers in our ministry recommended a project that should save a lot of effort and money for the ministry. This manager led a team to accomplish that project for years and with very limited resources. I noted that this manager inspired their team’s members by speaking about the intangible benefits that could be gained from accomplishing this project. He is a very educated person. He used motivational words and phrases from books that he read to inspire them. Consequently, I saw their employees working with him at night and even at the weekend. In the end the project succeeded and gained high recognition from the minister and even gained an international award.” (Middle Manager-1)

“From what I have seen, the most important behaviour that a manager can demonstrate to motivate their employees is telling them that they should be proud of what they are doing because they are participating in the development of the whole country. This type of feeling will stimulate employees’ enthusiasm and will add
challenge and meaning to what employees are doing. I saw those employees increasing their effort and working with extraordinary power. Also, they are committed and loyal to both their organization and their manager.” (Middle Manager-2)

“Some of our managers have the ability to explore the hidden talents that their employees possess. They inspire their employees by putting them in challenging projects and motivate them by saying, ‘I know you have more than what you have shown me and I believe in you.’ They are optimistic and look to any setback as an excellent learning experience. They are always looking to the bright side in any problem they face. They deal with any setback as a good starting point for future success.” (Middle Manager-3)

“If you really want to motivate your employees you need to give them challenging tasks to do. That will inspire them to explore their talents and develop their skills. It is also an excellent way to let them learn from their mistakes under your supervision. I am always saying to my employees that anyone in the department can lead it in my absence. That gives them the confidence and makes them excited when they are accomplishing their tasks. That is what will make them become the future’s leaders.” (Middle Manager-4)

7.2.1.3.3 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Heads of Sections

In their response to the question related to the extent to which heads of sections think that managers are exhibiting inspirational motivation, their answers were different. One of them mentioned that managers use motivational words and phrases to inspire their employees to accomplish their tasks with enthusiasm. However, the other two respondents had a negative point of view regarding managers’ motivation. They thought that motivation from managers’ point of view will enhance and develop employees’ skills and capability. Thus, that could bring change in organizations and managers could lose their management position. Other respondents believed that some managers think that motivation needs a lot of financial resources and could have a negative influence on employees’ behaviours. Illustrations of the responses from the interviews are shown below.
“From what I saw, managers use motivational words as a very powerful tool to inspire their employees. I heard them saying, ‘That is excellent work’, ‘Those are my staff’, ‘I knew that you could do it’, ‘You are one of my rare resources’, ‘You are a genius’, and ‘I am proud that I am your manager.’ As a result I saw the happiness in employees’ faces, especially if managers motivated them in front of the top management. Believe me those employees become followers and achieve their work with enthusiasm and excitement.” (Head of Section -1)

“Unfortunately some managers are afraid of motivating their employees to become hard workers and be creative, because they believe that creativity will bring change and they are worried about their management position in their organization. Thus, they encourage employees to do the routine tasks and attempt to improve them.” (Head of Section -2)

“Sorry to say that motivation culture is missing in our managers’ minds. The word ‘motivation’ will translate to ‘financial rewards’. Our managers thought that non-financial motivations are ineffective in inspiring employees. Other managers believe that if they motivate employees their performance will decline! For example one manager says that I do not like to call any employee who has a new idea a creator, because the next day he or she will become selfish and arrogant.” (Head of Section -3)

7.2.1.4 Intellectual Stimulation

Transformational leaders stimulate their employees’ efforts to be innovative and creative by encouraging the imagination of employees, challenging the old ways of doing things, and looking for better ways to do things. Employees are encouraged to try new approaches and their ideas are not criticized because they are different from the leader’s ideas. Employees are not criticized in public when they make mistakes. They are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions. Leaders always encourage employees to be willing to take risks to apply new ideas and creative solutions (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).
7.2.1.4.1 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Consultants, Advisors, and General Managers

The intellectual stimulation component plays a great role in enhancing employees’ creative performance. The respondents were asked to state to what extent they think that managers in Oman’s civil service organizations demonstrate intellectual-stimulation behaviours. Commonly, respondents pointed out two main factors which managers practise to perform intellectual stimulation: the significant effect of managers’ attitude toward creativity, and the ability of managers to build an environment that supports creativity. Firstly, there was a general consensus that managers’ attitude toward creativity is a critical factor for demonstrating intellectual-stimulation behaviours. Respondents argued that some managers are creators. They introduce new ideas and thoughts; thus they serve as a role model for their employees and therefore their employees emulate them. However, other respondents believed that creativity culture is missing in Omani managers’ minds, and that prevents employees from producing creative works. The following statements illustrate interviewees’ points of view.

“What is good in our managers is that they are not just encouraging employees to be creative but they are themselves creators. When you ask me about intellectual-stimulation behaviour I remember what one of our managers did in our department. This manager reorganized unused office space in our department and introduced the idea of a monthly meeting for generating creative ideas. Yes, we started by only solving the department’s usual problems, but later he redirected the meeting to focus only on new development ideas. However, because one monthly meeting was very hard to reach, we changed it into a three monthly meeting. The result of this meeting was remarkable. I always remember him when he was not just encouraging the employees to generate new development ideas but also motivating them to be a role model for other employees in the ministry. He always motivated employees to be creative by saying, ‘Being emulated by others in the ministry is the real achievement that you could add to your career experiences.’” (Consultant-1)

“In our organizations many general managers made competitions between managers as well as employees to generate new ideas. At the end of those competitions, general managers will have dozens of new ideas, but the budget will be the problem in terms of implementing those new ideas. Thus, the problem is not with managers’ attitude
toward enhancing employees’ creativity. It is unfortunately with the organization’s ability to implement those ideas.” (General Manager-2)

“The general government trend to motivate and support new ideas shaped managers’ intellectual-stimulation behaviour. For example, in 2007 the government released E-Government Awards and later Excellent Government Awards prizes were launched to encourage government units to improve their performance. Those kinds of competitions inspired general managers to encourage their managers as well as employees to think creatively and generate new ideas to promote them to win those prizes.” (Consultant-3)

“It is exactly what you mentioned: a behaviour. Generally speaking, this kind of behaviour is not on our Omani managers’ agenda. So if managers are not creators or developers, how will they develop creative employees? I strongly think that if our managers believe in creativity, that should be reflected in their behaviours and we could see them building a creative environment.” (Advisor-2)

“The problem is how managers value intellectual-stimulation behaviours. Most of our managers prefer doing routine work because creativity brings change and needs more time and effort. So before we think how to enhance employees’ creativity, we should first work hard to change those negative values and beliefs in our managers’ minds regarding creativity. Unfortunately, some managers around us have talents in discouraging employees’ creativity and reshape their minds to follow only printed routine work.” (Consultant-2)

Secondly, respondents emphasized the importance of managers building a creative environment and establishing a healthy culture that supports innovation in the organization. The respondents emphasized the existence of such an environment, as shown below.

“In the main, I think the Omani managers are trying their best to build an environment that supports creativity with the very limited resources available. As an example, one of our managers is always encouraging employees to look at problems from many different angles and seek different perspectives when solving problems. In their meeting she always emphasizes that employees should not follow her ways of thinking, because that will not enrich the process of solving problems.” (Advisor-1)

“It is managers’ duty to establish a creative atmosphere for employees before asking them to produce creative ideas. For example, I worked with two different managers in
the ministry; they strongly believe that creativity is a cumulative and complementary process. They encourage employees to share creative ideas with others. When I asked them why they follow this strategy they mentioned some of the benefits that they gain, such as: this strategy inspires other employees to be creative and to emulate those creative employees; develops employees’ personality to be courageous to present and champion their new ideas; enables everyone to learn from those creators the steps and techniques that they used to produce those creative ideas; and, most importantly, yes, creative ideas can be introduced by one employee, but other employees could develop and enhance those ideas. That is because other employees will look to those new ideas from different angles and will fill the missing gaps in those ideas. Additionally, it will be easy in future to build teamwork to implement those new ideas.” (Consultant-4)

7.2.1.4.2 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Middle-Level Managers

Middle managers were asked a question to determine the degree to which they perform intellectual-stimulation behaviours in their department. Their main point was concentrated on the managers’ ability to empower their employees to produce creative performance. The respondents suggested that empowerment is the managers’ main responsibility. If managers implement empowerment in their department, managers and their employees will all benefit from it. However, some managers were afraid of empowerment because they think it will allow employees to make fatal mistakes and will slow work speed. The respondents’ comments are illustrated below.

“*In my opinion managers should understand that their responsibility is to assign tasks to employees based on their skills and abilities, and monitor the results. To be creative, employees need the freedom to accomplish their tasks. Actually, any time I do that, my employees finish their tasks on time and in excellent ways. Also they always bring me the accomplished task with new ideas and projects to develop the department’s processes and procedures.”* (Middle Manager-4)

“I strongly believe that both managers and their employees will gain from practising empowerment. Managers will trust themselves to be a risk taker by delivering tasks to employees which will enhance creativity within the department. At the same time,
employees will learn how to be responsible for finishing their tasks, and because they have the freedom, they will have the chance to think out of the box to surprise their managers with new ideas and projects.” (Middle Manager-2)

“Unfortunately, I can say that some managers are not supporting the notion of empowerment because they are afraid of employees making serious mistakes, and also they think that this idea will slow the work speed. As you can see it is a matter of trust, so I am not surprised that they are performing routine works.” (Middle Manager-3)

7.2.1.4.3 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Heads of Sections
To explore employees’ opinions regarding the degree to which their managers encourage creativity in the workplace, heads of sections were asked to what extent their managers exhibit intellectual-stimulation behaviours. Their answers concentrated on difficulties that creators face when introducing new ideas. They argued that organizations need to establish an internal protection system to protect employees’ creative ideas from being stolen by their managers. Also they emphasized that managers should not criticize any new ideas that come from employees because they are different from managers’ ideas. Respondents suggested that the worst thing that managers can do is to criticize those ideas in public because that will have a negative effect on employees’ overall performance. The responses from the interviews are shown below.

“Creators need a protection system within their organization because I heard many stories from employees and friends who told me that in dozens of cases their new ideas were stolen by their general managers. Now, I know some of them who have creative ideas but they do not know what to do. If they send those ideas directly to top management they will resend them to their general managers to follow the organization’s hierarchy and that will create problems with those managers. Those creative employees told me that they prefer to stop thinking creatively instead of someone else taking their creative work.” (Head of Section -1)

“One of the big problems that prevents employees from being creative is public criticism. Believe me, nobody will accept anyone criticizing him or her in front of their friends because he or she made an unintended mistake or recommended ideas that were different or not matching with the manager’s thoughts. It actually happened
to a head of section in our organization. Consequently, he stopped bringing any new ideas and he is now always keeping silent in our department’s meetings. He became careless and was not doing his job properly. Now he focuses on doing his private job during work time. Unfortunately, I feel that this problem started spreading and expanding to reach some other employees in other departments.” (Head of Section - 2)

7.2.1.5 Individualized Consideration

Individualized consideration is a trait whereby managers pay special attention to each individual employee’s needs, abilities, and aspirations for achievement and growth by acting as a coach and mentor. Managers who recognize and understand these differences reduce resistance and create an understanding environment in which employees can acquire new skills and take advantage of opportunities. Managers who demonstrate individualized-consideration behaviours provide opportunities to employees for self-actualization and personal growth. They delegate tasks as a means of developing employees. These delegated tasks are monitored to see if the employees need additional direction or support and to assess progress. Those managers are effective listeners and encourage two-way communication (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

7.2.1.5.1 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Consultants, Advisors, and General Managers

In their reply to a question related to the extent to which managers exhibit individual-consideration behaviours, interviewees concentrated on managers’ role in providing opportunities for employees to learn, develop, and grow. They strongly believed that individual-consideration behaviours are not only about caring for employees’ social affairs, but in fact about developing employees’ skills and knowledge. Interviewees emphasized that managers should invest time, money, and effort to build a supportive learning environment. Also, managers should spend time and effort to teach and coach their employees. The interviewees’ comments are presented below.

“I believe that managers should employ the term ‘job rotation’ in their department. That will create a culture which supports collaboration, where every employee has
the ability to do any task in the department. When I was a general manager the passwords for the computers’ department were known to any employee in the
department, so anyone was allowed to use them and finish tasks. Hence, in this kind of atmosphere individual-consideration behaviour could apply easily. For example, if any employees face any difficulty in attendance, other employees would recover his or her missing art, thus both the employees’ individual cases are recognized and work requirements recovered.” (Consultant-3)

“If employees make mistakes their managers should not directly search for ways of punishing them, but should work with them to repair those mistakes and let them learn from their mistake.” (General Manager-2)

“Managers should realize their employees’ strength points and utilize them and identify their employees’ weak points and solve them.” (Advisor-2)

“I think employees’ learning and development is the responsibility of both managers and employees. Firstly, managers should understand their employees’ abilities and skills, and then they should establish a supportive learning environment. However, what I did not see a lot of in our organizations is managers spending time on teaching and coaching their employees. Thus, the administrations should direct those managers to play this role. On the other hand, employees should not sit around and wait for the system or managers to develop them; they must go and grab the skills and knowledge needed.” (Consultant-1)

“One of my strengths as a general manager is to be able to motivate employees to learn continuously. I attempt to create what I call a self-developing system, where I keep encouraging employees to learn from anything and transfer that knowledge to other employees. One night I saw a television programme related to what we do in our department. I directly called one of the heads of sections to see it and learn from it. The next day I discovered that he had sent phone messages to other heads of sections and employees to see the programme. At the end of the day we discussed what we had learned from that programme.” (General Manager-2)
7.2.1.5.2 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Middle-Level Managers

Responding to a question about the degree to which managers demonstrate individual-consideration behaviours, middle managers’ answers focused on managers’ ability to treat their employees as individuals rather than just as a member of the department’s group. They stressed that managers should recognize their differences in terms of needs and desires through effective listening and by expressing appreciation. Then they should respond to those specific and unique needs. Below are the statements of respondents illustrating their views.

“Managers ought to understand that employees are humans; they are not machines. They are facing, like any other humans, social cases, family events, and financial problems. Those problems should be solved or at least appreciated; otherwise they will have a negative effect on employees’ performances. It is managers’ role to discover those problems and attempt to solve them. Those solutions could be training programmes; financial rewards; days off; changing work hours; or reducing workload.” (Middle Manager-2)

“As a manager, many employees ask for advice regarding problems related to personal needs and some of them are related to family issues. Believe it or not, in many cases employees are not seeking solutions to their problems. They only need someone to just listen to them and appreciate their problems. When they get out of your office you will feel that they are comfortable. In future you will see those problems disappear or at least their effects reduced.” (Middle Manager-3)

“Although there is not any formal social network system in our organization, we are performing individual-consideration behaviours. As we are from an Islamic culture and Arabic society, individual-consideration behaviours are in our deep values and beliefs. For example, our managers provide flexibility in attendance when employees have any social events such as funerals, illness, or marriage celebrations. Also, managers realize and consider employees’ different needs and abilities and distribute duties based on those differences.” (Middle Manager-3)

7.2.1.5.3 Results and Analysis of Interviews with Heads of Sections

Heads of sections were asked to express their opinions regarding the extent to which their managers show individual-consideration behaviours. Obviously, heads of sections stressed that
managers who want to apply individual-consideration behaviours should communicate effectively with their employees and should have good listening skills. Further, they highlighted that managers should balance between the requirements of work and fulfilling employees’ needs and wants. The responses of the interviews are shown below.

“There are two reasons why individual-consideration behaviours are missing from our organization: either managers are not considering the importance of this kind of behaviour or they do not have the time to think about it and practise it because of workload and limited human resources. If managers listen to their employees and let things get out, that could reduce work stresses and motivate employees.” (Head of Section -1)

“The more the managers have contact with and listen to their employees, the more those employees open their hearts to their managers. Thus, trust will grow between them. Managers will be capable of recognizing their employees’ needs, abilities, and ways of thinking and understand the ways they accomplish their work tasks. Based on that knowledge, managers could easily evaluate their employees’ performances and fulfil their needs and requirements.” (Head of Section -2)

“In general, managers understand employees’ differences. They know that some employees need more encouragement than others; some need more structure to accomplish their tasks and others need more freedom to finish their jobs. However, some managers spend a lot of time on solving the organization’s problems and monitoring work procedures. They forget to look to those humans who are doing the work. Unfortunately, in the long term I saw those managers lost both their employees’ trust and the work quality.” (Head of Section -3)

7.2.2 Transactional Leadership Style

In keeping with the definition by Bass and Riggio (2006), transactional leadership is described as a transactional process between leaders and employees where leaders clarify the employees’ responsibilities and demonstrate the expectations that they have, the tasks that must be accomplished, and the benefits of compliance to the self-interests of the employees.

Additionally, transactional leaders use positive and negative rewards when dealing with employees. For instance, they promote and give allowances to employees who perform well and
give penalties to those who do not do a good job. However, the effectiveness of transactional leadership depends on whether the leader has control of the rewards or penalties and whether employees are motivated by the promise of the reward and the avoidance of the penalties. Further, transactional leadership consists of two factors, namely contingent reward and the active management-by-exception behaviours (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

Investigating all interviewees’ opinions reveals that the Omani managers who work in Omani civil service organizations are engaged in few behaviours that are related to transactional leadership compared with transformational leadership behaviours. The following sections demonstrate the opinions of interviewees regarding the extent to which managers perform transactional leadership components.

7.2.2.1 Contingent Reward
Contingent reward is an interaction process between managers and employees where managers exchange promising rewards for good performance and recognize accomplishments. Contingent reward involves identifying employees’ needs, facilitating the achievement of agreed objectives, linking both to what the managers expect to accomplish, and rewarding employees if objectives are met. Contingent reward can be displayed in two ways: positively or negatively. Positive contingent reward takes three forms: giving rewards for work well done; giving recommendations for bonuses and promotions; and giving commendations for meritorious effort including public recognition and honours for outstanding service. Negative contingent punishment may take several forms, such as calling someone’s attention to his or her failure to meet standards, sending a report to top management, giving him or her a bad evaluation and stopping his or her annual allowances (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

The interviewees divided contingent rewards into two parts: intangible rewards and tangible rewards. In part one, respondents generally came to an agreement that managers exhibit adequate effort to explain to their employees what to do, actively monitor their achievements, and provide supportive feedback. They also agreed that managers express satisfaction when employees meet expectations and provide recognition once employees reach the agreed objectives. Intangibly, managers could also negatively reward their employees; for instance, they
could provide negative feedback, reprove the employee, or take disciplinary action to correct their failure to meet their commitments. The interviewees’ opinions are illustrated below.

“I see managers who build a good relationship with employees and use it to accomplish work tasks. So they exchange the relationship with work. Even though employees know this is an exchange process, they still respect and trust managers.” (Advisor-2)

“When projects are assigned, we put a lot of effort into clarifying the project’s objectives. We allocate duties to employees based on their skills and we discuss with them their responsibilities and authority. We also positively monitor employees’ progress and provide supportive feedback when needed.” (General Manager-3)

“As a manager, I know that I do not have the right to give any financial rewards because it is outside my authority; however, I can motivate my employees non-financially. Actually, employees need someone who can recognize their work, and when they make mistakes they need someone who can give them feedback and direct them to the correct path. What is good is that employees know my limits and appreciate what I do for them.” (Middle Manager-4)

“Managers generally are good at motivating employees verbally and I appreciate that they do not have the formal power to give rewards. I strongly believe that if they had the right to make decisions they would distribute financial rewards.” (Head of Section -2)

In part two, interviewees agreed that managers do not have the authority to give tangible rewards such as bonuses and promotions. They also do not have the right to give any employees promises that they will distribute bonuses. Negative tangible rewards also are not in managers’ hands. Managers do not have the power to issue any formal punishments for any low performance. Apparently, the only authority managers have is just to suggest to top management the positive and negative rewards that employees deserve. Interviewees mentioned that most of those suggestions are not considered; however, some of the managers who have a strong relationship with some top managers have the power to convince them to accept these suggestions. Their points of view were varied, as displayed below.

“Many employees think that it is administration’s problem not to give bonuses to employees; however, in many cases it is managers’ fault. Unfortunately, some
managers give promises to distribute rewards without knowing if administration has a big enough budget to keep those promises. They attempt to motivate their employees; however, when they ask administration for rewards, it rejects their suggestions because the rewards were not planned.” (Consultant-2)

“I think the notion of contingent reward is quite good if we look at it as a win–win situation. In this case employees do the work and are motivated, and managers have the job done and achieve their target. However, middle managers need to have more authority and powers to give some financial rewards to their employees; because if managers only depend on non-financial rewards, over time the effect of those rewards becomes weak.” (Consultant-4)

“... middle managers do not have the authority to give rewards, but believe me it depends on how managers fight to gain those rewards. It also depends on managers’ communication skills and how strong their relationship with administration is. For me, many recommendations for rewards that I suggested were accepted. Believe me, it is not enough to just send a reward recommendation letter or list to administration and wait for a response. You need to meet with them to negotiate and convince them of the importance of these rewards for employees’ achievements. Based on my experiences, in the end administration will accept your request.” (Middle Manager-1)

“Honestly, contingent reward is difficult to achieve in our organization, because rewards are limited and distributed only at the end of each year. Further, managers do not have the abilities to reward employees. Actually, the only authority that they have is the right to suggest a list of the names of employees who deserve rewards to top management. In reality, most of these lists are rejected or changed to other lists that are recommended by top management and frankly employees know this fact. Thus, the exchange process could be difficult to achieve in our civil service sector organizations.” (Middle Manager-3)

“Unfortunately, before projects have started we have heard a lot of promises that administration would allocate financial rewards once the projects are accomplished, but when everything has been done the rewards disappeared and only the promises remained.” (Head of Section -2)
7.2.2.2 Management-By-Exception (Active)

The second factor of transactional leadership is management-by-exception (active). It is pro-active behaviours that are trying to prevent mistakes. Active management-by-exception managers are monitoring employees’ performance, anticipating any deviations from standards, and taking corrective action (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

The responses of the interviewees reveal different views. Some of the respondents looked to the active management-by-exception behaviour as a good predictor mechanism, by which managers pay close attention to deviations, mistakes, or irregularities and take action to make corrections. However, some interviewees believed that the active management-by-exception behaviour could have a negative side if managers take it personally and attempt to search for employees’ mistakes to report them to top management. Those managers will create an atmosphere of fear and use this behaviour against their employees. The verified points of responses are illustrated below.

“I saw two types of managers who closely monitor employees’ performance. The first types of managers are those who attempt to discover any mistakes to use them against their employees. They try to present those mistakes to administration to prove that they are strict and they control their departments. The other type of manager monitors the work for development and helps employees to solve their mistakes and learn from them.” (Consultant-3)

“The good thing in our organization is that we have a good monitoring and evaluating system that aims to correct any errors and solve problems before they expand. This system helps and guides managers to keep tracking all mistakes and deviations from standards.” (Consultant-4)

“Truthfully, I cannot assign a manager to each employee to monitor their work. I think those who use this behaviour do not have self-confidence and also do not trust their employees.” (General Manager-1)

“As general managers, we always coordinate and cooperate with managers to concentrate on anticipating mistakes, complaints, and failures, and attempt to solve them. Actually it is our core role. I believe that the ineffective managers are those who do not take any action till problems become a disaster. If we do so, we will cost
some managers unfortunately are not monitoring all employees’ performances; they only focus on those who perform weakly.” (Middle Manager-1)

“I realized that managers who attempt to strongly and strictly monitor their employees’ performances and only try to find mistakes and errors will create an environment of fear. Thus, employees will not take any action till it is approved by their managers. That is because they will be fearful of reprimands and punishment.” (Middle Manager-3)

“If the monitoring is targeted to help employees to resolve their unintended mistakes, it is good, but some managers use it to limit the authority and powers for some heads of sections.” (Head of Section -2)

7.2.3 Passive/Avoidant Style

In line with the definition of Bass and Riggio (2006), passive/avoidant leadership is described as the process where leaders avoid responsibilities and are passive and inactive; do not make necessary decisions; fail to follow up on issues; delay actions; and do not make use of authority. The literature demonstrates that passive/avoidant style consists of two factors, namely passive management-by-exception behaviours and laissez-faire style. Both types of behaviour are passive and reactive (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

In general, the responses during interviews indicated that both behaviours of the passive/avoidant component are exercised infrequently by Omani civil service managers. The following sections reveal the views of all respondents regarding the extent to which managers exhibit passive/avoidant behaviour factors.

7.2.3.1 Management-By-Exception (Passive)

Passive management-by-exception suggests a hands-off leadership approach until the employee requests intervention. Thus, their intervention occurs only when problems become serious. Managers monitor employees’ performance, wait until mistakes are brought to their attention,
and then take action (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

The respondents’ views confirm that there are only a few managers who exhibit passive management-by-exception behaviours in Omani civil service organizations. They reveal that administrations in those organizations design training programmes to develop the managers who exhibit those behaviours. The following quotes illustrate examples of respondents’ views.

“They are few and we are investing in a lot of training programmes to develop their skills and abilities.” (Consultant-3)
“I do not think we have these kinds of behaviours with our managers, because managers realize that they are being monitored by the top managers, and if any mistakes occur, managers will get correction feedback.” (Advisor-2)
“I can say that most of our managers attempt to solve problems at the time they occur and they are not waiting till the problem becomes a crisis.” (General Manager-1)
“They are very few and most of them – if they do exist – are unknowledgeable managers.” (Middle Manager-1)

7.2.3.2 Laissez-Faire
The second factor of passive/avoidant style is laissez-faire. It is the avoidant or absence of leadership style. It describes managers’ behaviours in avoiding responsibilities, not making necessary decisions, failing to follow up on issues, delaying actions, and not making use of authority. Basically, laissez-faire demonstrates a lack of any kind of leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011).

Obviously, there was a general consensus between respondents that laissez-faire leadership is rarely displayed by Omani civil service managers. To demonstrate, below are the statements of responses as spoken by the interviewees.

“I saw only a few of those managers whom I call silent managers. You will see them sitting calmly most of the time, and when you ask them why they behave like that, they will answer that they prefer to listen more than speak. There is always an ambiguity in their decisions and when you ask them about something you cannot tell if they agree or not. They usually do not reject any new suggestions; however, those new
suggestions always need more time to be studied and discussed. But, honestly, they are rare in our work environment.” (Consultant-1)

“As you know, this kind of manager is there in any organization, but in our organization they are very few and far between and it is rare to see them.” (General Manager-2)

“Those managers are only avoiding making decisions that are not related to VIP people such as ministers, top managers, friends, and relatives. But frankly those kinds of managers are rare in our organizations.” (Middle Manager-1)

“I have seen some managers who were near the period of retirement avoid management duties and responsibilities, but honestly there are not very many of them.” (Head of Section -1)

7.3 Employees’ Creative Performance

One of the objectives for this study is to examine employees’ creative performance. As previously mentioned in chapter two, employees’ creative performance is defined as the ability for employees to produce new, novel, and useful ideas (Amabile, 1988 and Hennessey and Amabile, 1998).

The interviewees were asked to explain the degree to which they thought that employees working in the Omani civil service sector were performing in a creative way.

The answer to this question was twofold: firstly, the respondents demonstrated that employees have the ability to generate creative ideas; and, secondly, the interviewees revealed that the development process of enhancing employees’ creative performance is facing some obstacles.

Examining the results from interviews indicates that there is a general consensus that Omani employees have the ability to generate new ideas. They are searching for any new working methods, techniques, or instruments to develop the results of their tasks. They attempt to suggest new ways to enhance their performance, especially those ideas that relate to quality improvement. Additionally, the responses show that employees are trying to come up with creative solutions to solve their work’s problems. Further, some interviewees emphasize that personal characteristics of employees are not that important when we talk about creativity, since
they believe that “individuals” are creative regardless of their gender, age, management level, or education level. The responses of the interviews are shown below.

“In our organization we follow an open strategy when we seek solutions to problems. We usually send emails to all employees in the organization to give them the opportunity to give feedback on our decisions. You would be really surprised to see the huge creative ideas that our employees suggest. This strategy allows the decision-making process to be easy, effective, and efficient.” (Consultant-1)

“I realize that our employees have the potential to produce new ideas. Despite their creativity production being low, the effect of those few creative ideas is recognizable. Last year we conducted a meeting with general managers to find out ways to enhance employees’ performance, and we discussed the issue of employees’ creativity. We concluded that if we do not provide employees with the knowledge that is needed, we cannot blame them if they are not performing in creative ways. Thus, we designed training programmes to develop employees’ performance and especially creativity.” (Consultant-2)

“Our employees are creative, regardless of their gender, age, education level, or management level, but managers should believe in them. Managers should recognize that a creative idea could come from anyone in the organization regardless of his or her position. One of the good examples is the typewriter who suggested a creative way to develop a contract form. He made creative changes in the design of the contract form by using adjustment tools in Microsoft Word. That idea made the form simple and easy to use. The previous contract form was four pages long, whereas the new version was only two pages. I know that some managers could see this change as a very small one; however, this development idea saved a lot of effort, time, and money for our organization.” (Middle Manager-2)

“Based on what I saw, I strongly believe that our ‘individuals’ are creative, and I am calling them ‘individuals’, because creative ideas can be generated by male or female, manager or cleaner, old or young. However, what prevent them from demonstrating their creativity are job stresses and the shortage in human resources.” (Middle Manager-3)
“In our organization we have a lot of creative employees; however, the administration does not give them the trust to take the risk to explore their creativity. One day, an employee invented a program for retrieving data. He told the administration that he could make this program with limited resources. The administration accepted the idea of the program, but gave it to a private company to produce. The employee told me that if the administration had given him the opportunity to produce the program, he could have done it for less than a quarter of the price that the organization paid.” (Head of Section -3)

Appreciating opinions which indicate that employees have the ability to be creative, respondents also suggested that enhancing employees’ creative performance faces some obstacles. Based on interviewees’ perceptions, these obstacles could be divided into two views. The first one represents managers’ views, which were mentioned by consultants, advisors, and general managers. The respondents revealed that employees are not promoting their ideas effectively; therefore, the administrations are not taking these new ideas seriously. Interviewees highlighted that employees bring their new ideas to the administration verbally without any written proposal. Moreover, respondents believed that employees are not sharing their ideas with others so they can get support, and at the same time they could serve as good role models for creativity. They highlighted that employees need to learn how to mobilize support for their new ideas in order for administrations to accept and implement them. Thus, employees need to obtain communication skills to make important members of the administration enthusiastic for their creative ideas. The opinions of respondents in relation to the first obstacle are presented below.

“Employees as well as managers should understand that creativity is one of the employees’ duties and it is a cumulative process. Yes, it is started by one employee, but it develops and grows by others. In our units, if an employee suggests a new idea and top management accepts it, they will give him or her permission to do it without encouraging the creator to share his or her idea with others. This kind of culture should be changed in our organization.” (Consultant-1)

“Employees sometimes become selfish when they have creative ideas and do not want to share those ideas with others. They only search for ways to gain individuals’ benefits from them. Thus, it is the manager’s role to teach employees how to work for
the sake of the organization and at the same time look for rewards. Also it is their role to motivate the creative employee to be a model for creativity.” (Consultant-2)

“Managers should understand that it is not easy to transfer or reallocate some money from a scheduled project to a new one unless they work hard to convince some important people in top management about the new idea. It all depends on how good the creative employee and his or her manager are.” (Consultant-4)

“Employees need presentation and communication skills to present their new ideas. I saw many excellent ideas die because employees did not know how to market those ideas. For example, an employee brought to me a good idea in only one statement and when I asked him about any background information that could support his idea, he said, ‘I do not have it.’ Then I gave him time to bring me the idea’s background. To my surprise, he did not come and I discovered that he had told his friends the administration is not encouraging creativity!” (Advisor-2)

“You know if you want to sell any product you need to promote it. Unfortunately, our employees submit their creative ideas either verbally or on half a page of paper.” (General Manager-1)

“Unfortunately, when employees suggest a new creative idea, they bring it with a condition, saying, ‘If you do not implement my idea, I will not bring any in future, because you are not supporting creativity.’ Actually, they do not realize that administration is working with a limited budget and on scheduled projects.” (General Manager-2)

The second obstacle to enhancing employees’ creative performance is the weak creative environment. This view is representing the employees’ perceptions, which came from middle managers and heads of sections. Interviewees concentrated on a lot of factors that generate a weak creative environment. Respondents revealed that any new ideas face weak support from top management. They believe that the administration should judge any new ideas fairly and constructively. Further, the subordinates emphasized that managers are not playing a critical role in enhancing creativity in organizations, and they are the key to creating such an environment.

Further, the interviewees strongly agreed that any creative works need rewards and recognition. These rewards should be both tangible and intangible. Additionally, respondents highlighted the importance of implementing delegation mechanisms to stimulate employees’
creativity. They stated that managers should trust employees and give them the autonomy to decide what work to do and how to do it.

Moreover, the respondents suggested that if managers want to improve the creative performance of their employees, they should give them challenging works to explore their creativity. Resources are another issue that was mentioned by respondents. They highlighted that creative ideas need sufficient resources to emerge. They believed that employees will feel disappointed if the administration only appreciates and recognizes their suggested new ideas and does not implement them because of the organization’s limited resources. In fact, employees will wonder, if this is the case, why they are being asked to produce creative ideas. The respondents’ opinions regarding the weak creative environment are illustrated below.

“In many cases I felt sorry for employees who suggested creative ideas that I believed would develop the work but that were rejected by top management. So, I strongly believe that top management is the key for developing creativity in the organization.” (Middle Manager-4)

“I saw some managers who do not believe in the benefit of applying creativity in government organizations. They believe that ‘creativity’ is academic terminology and is only effective in the private sector, not in government agencies. Thus, I strongly agree that managers – or you can call them leaders, or you can call them decision makers – play a very critical role in encouraging or discouraging creativity within any organization.” (Head of Section -3)

“Believe me, I saw a silly idea become a national project, so the door should be open for any new idea, regardless of whether the organization has the ability to implement it or not.” (Head of Section -1)

“Recognition and financial rewards are very critical issues that influence employees’ creative performance. Thus, I recommend linking the yearly financial rewards with employees’ ability to generate creative ideas regardless of whether those ideas are implemented or not.” (Middle Manager-2)

“What we want is real delegation, where we have adequate flexibility and freedom to accomplish our tasks in the ways we think will produce new ideas. That will not only open the window for creativity but will also teach us how to be responsible for what we offer.” (Head of Section -2)
“Based on my experiences, I believe that managers must learn how to give their employees challenging work to explore their creativity.” (Middle Manager-1)

“In my organization I was planning to create an environment which supports creativity. Thus, I recommended building an audio and video resources centre; however, my suggestion was rejected by the top management because of limited financial resources. In fact, I strongly believe that employees need resources such as special equipment and information bases to come up with new ideas and innovations for the organization. Unless we provide those resources to employees, we cannot ask them why they are not producing creative ideas.” (Middle Manager-3)

**7.4 Suggestions for the Enhancement of Leaders’ Behaviours to Encourage Employees’ Creative Performance**

The respondents were asked to give their suggestions, if any, for enhancing leaders’ behaviours to encourage employees’ creative performance. Examples of such suggestions are stated below.

“From my point of view, if we look to the general government trends, we will find out clearly that our government is concentrating on developing Omani human resources, especially those employees who are managing the government activities. Of course I mean the government leaders. If we look to the strategy’s vision of Oman 2020, we will realize that the government is aiming to invest in Omani human resources during the twenty years. Moreover, the new fifth eight-year plan from 2011 to 2015 allocates a lot of financial resources to train the government employees and give them the skills and knowledge needed to accomplish their tasks in effective and efficient ways.” (Consultant-1)

“Obviously, individuals are promoted to a management position based on their relationship with top management, not based on individuals’ skills, knowledge, and abilities. Therefore, organizations should establish a recruitment system for choosing leaders in management positions. This system should build up an equal competition between managers to hold management positions. The recruitment system should be concerned with individuals’ knowledge, work experience, and personal attitudes and behaviours. In order for those managers to win these competitions, the administration should establish and prepare second line managers, by giving those managers the
opportunities to develop and grow. Thus, when competitions start, those managers will become ready to compete.” (Consultant-3)

“Administration should design leadership training programmes and make those programmes a requirement for any employee attempting to be promoted to a management position. Administration should force managers to attend those training programmes based on a long-term plan, and that is because most training programmes conducted in government organizations are attended by employees, whereas managers attend only conferences and seminars. Unfortunately, those conferences will not really develop managers’ management and leadership skills. On the other hand, training programmes will develop employees’ skills and over time employees will feel that they possess more skills and knowledge than their managers. Actually I have seen many cases like that, where employees wonder why those managers with low skills are directing them.” (General Managers-2)

Based on all the interviews conducted and the suggestions that were mentioned, we could summarize two things: firstly, the interviewees illustrated some of the reasons that impede the Omani employees’ creativity; and, secondly, participators suggested some recommendations on how to enhance leadership behaviours for Omani managers so that they can support creativity in their organizations.

Firstly, the following points sum up some of the reasons that were mentioned by interviewees regarding obstacles which Omani employees face in attempting to work in creative ways.

1. Some decision makers do not believe in the benefits of applying creativity in government organizations, and hence they are not supporting creativity.
2. There is a communication gap between top management and employees.
3. The increase in day-to-day tasks.
4. The shortage in human resources.
5. The effect of work stresses.
6. There is not any specific time for creativity.
7. The disappearance of any official written system that encourages creativity.
8. The creative production of employees is not included in employees’ appraisal items.
Secondly, the interviewees’ proposed some suggestions regarding how Omani managers could develop their leadership behaviour to stimulate employees’ creativity. Those suggestions are summarized below.

1. Design leadership training programmes for managers to develop their leadership skills. Those programmes should build on clear long-term objectives for those managers. Also, those programmes should be one of the measurement items when evaluating managers’ performance. At the same time, passing those programmes should be one of the requirements for appointing any employee to a higher management position.

2. Administration should concentrate on building second line leaders, by giving heads of sections real opportunities to develop and grow. This strategy for developing the second level of administrative leadership should be planning, monitoring, and evaluating by top management.

3. Administrations should work heavily to transform the government agencies into learning organizations, where knowledge is shared and managers learn from others. This will prepare the infrastructure for establishing a supportive environment for creativity.

4. Managers need adequate authority, autonomy, and resources to enhance employees’ creative performance.

5. Develop a new recruitment system for choosing leaders for management positions. The new recruitment system should concentrate on individuals’ knowledge, work experience, and personal attitudes and behaviours.

6. All government agencies need a unified system that encourages employees’ creative performance. The declaration of such a system should be consolidated by the top management. This system would make it easy for managers to encourage, reward, monitor, and evaluate employees’ creative performance; otherwise the development of employees’ creative performance will be only an individual effort and not a constant system.

7. Administrators should foster a creative culture in organizations and managers should lead the deployment of this new culture. The new creative culture could include for instance encouraging any new ideas, rewarding publicly the team members who
accomplish creative projects, and putting emphasis on searching for creative solutions to the department’s problems.

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter attempted to investigate the extent to which Omani managers practise the Full Range of Leadership styles to influence employees’ creative performance. The interview technique was utilized to answer this question, because leadership and creativity require using in-depth discussions with interviewees. Their explanations will be supported with day-to-day real-life examples which are difficult to understand by using the quantitative method alone. This chapter has presented the results of interviews with four ministries’ consultants, two ministries’ advisors, two general managers, four middle managers, and three heads of sections.

Generally, the respondents’ views demonstrate that Omani managers are practising the transformational leadership style more than the transactional style. Further, the interviewees’ opinions indicate that passive/avoidant-type management is rarely exhibited by Omani managers.

The interviewees indicated that Omani managers are practising idealized influence attributes through the utilization of their social charisma, which makes the employees admire and respect their managers. This charisma is a result of leaders’ positive behaviour when dealing with employees. Those behaviours include the ability for managers to listen, respect, and advocate for their employees. The participators in the interviews argued that the existence of idealized influence attributes among Oman’s managers comes from their background, which was shaped by Islamic values and beliefs and the Omani social systems, which consist of tribal and family systems.

The behaviours of idealized influence are also exhibited by the Omani managers based on respondents’ views. They argue that Omani managers attempt to build a trustful environment by focusing on matching their actions to what they said and promised. The responses reveal that Omani managers exhibit moral behaviour by sharing and exchanging their values and beliefs with their employees during their work interactions and in other informal organizational social activities.

The inspirational-motivation dimension is also recognized in Omani managers’ behaviours based on the respondents’ perceptions. They indicated that Omani managers behave
in ways that motivate and inspire their employees by providing meaning and challenge to what they do. They talk enthusiastically and encourage their employees to look to the future with a positive and optimistic outlook. The interviewees highlighted that Omani managers are good at using motivational words and phrases to inspire their employees to accomplish their tasks. However, the interviewees revealed that the Omani managers’ contribution to the organization’s vision is limited to only transferring that vision to their heads of sections. The only visionary participation for the Omani managers is to provide recommendations for long-term projects that are linked to their departments.

Regarding intellectual-stimulation behaviour, respondents argued that Omani managers are not only encouraging employees’ creativity but are themselves creators. The interviewees suggested that Omani managers are role models for creativity. They introduce new ideas and thoughts, and thus their employees attempt to emulate them. Respondents emphasized that Omani managers are using the limited resources available to create an environment that supports creativity.

Individualized consideration is a behaviour that interviewees argued that Omani managers are practising. The respondents stated that Omani managers recognize their employees’ differences in terms of needs and desires through effective listening and by showing appreciation. Based on that knowledge, they attempt to provide opportunities for employees to learn, develop, and grow. The interviewees highlighted that Omani managers try to balance the requirements of work with fulfilling employees’ needs and wants.

Regarding transactional leadership components, the interviewees divided contingent rewards into two parts: those that are linked to intangible rewards, and those that are related to tangible rewards. In part one, Omani managers make adequate efforts to explain to their employees what to do, actively monitor their achievements, and provide supportive feedback. In part two, interviewees’ opinions indicated that Omani managers have very little to say regarding promotions, allowances, and even penalties. It in fact depends on seniority and how strong the relationship is between managers and top management. That is, interviewees agreed that managers do not have the authority to give tangible rewards such as bonuses and promotions, nor can they issue any formal punishments for any low performance. The only authority that Omani managers have is just to suggest to top management the positive and the negative rewards that employees deserve. Interviewees mentioned that most of those suggestions are not considered;
however, some managers who have a strong relationship with some top management have the power to influence them to accept these suggestions.

Management-by-exception behaviour was viewed differently by the respondents. Some of the interviewees saw it as a good predictor mechanism where managers pay close attention to deviations, mistakes, or irregularities and take action to make corrections. However, other interviewees believed that the active management-by-exception behaviour could have a negative side if managers take it personally. Those managers will create an atmosphere of fear and use this behaviour against their employees.

The third part of the Full Range of Leadership theory is the passive/avoidant style. The respondents’ views confirm that very few managers in Omani civil service organizations display a passive management-by-exception style. In the few situations where this kind of behaviour could appear, administrations in those organizations designed training programmes to develop those managers who could exhibit this behaviour. Regarding the laissez-faire leadership style, there was a general consensus between respondents indicating that this leadership style very rarely occurs among Omani civil service managers.

The other main purpose of this study is to examine Omani employees’ creative performance. The interview results indicate that there was a general consensus that Omani employees have the ability to generate creative ideas. Employees are searching for any new work methods, techniques, or instruments to develop the results of their tasks. They attempt to suggest new ways to enhance their performance, especially those ideas that relate to quality improvement. Additionally, the responses show that employees are trying to come up with creative solutions to their work problems. However, interviewees illustrated some obstacles that enhance employees’ creative performance. Those obstacles display the opinions of two sides: firstly, the top management, who see that employees are not promoting and mobilizing their creative ideas in professional ways; and, secondly, employees, who argue that top management are not making sufficient efforts to build a creative environment.
Chapter Eight: Research Results and Discussion

8.1 Introduction
The purpose of this study is to determine the degree to which Omani civil service managers are practising the Full Range of Leadership styles to enhance employees’ creative performance. The population of this study is represented by all Omani civil service organizations that apply the law of civil service. It targets the perceptions of two sample groups in this population, which are the Omani managers and their employees. The total size of the sample of managers was 269 participants, whereas the sample of employees comprised 371 participants. To gain a deeper understanding, the quantitative results were supplemented with semi-structured interviews. Fifteen interviews were conducted with four ministries’ consultants, two ministries’ advisors, two general managers, four middle managers, and three heads of sections. For the purpose of this study, ministry consultants, advisors, and general managers are gathered in one group to represent the views of top-level management, while middle managers represent the managers’ views and heads of sections represent employees’ views, since they are supervised by middle-level managers.

Chapters six and seven presented the results of descriptive analysis and interview data, whereas the current chapter mainly analyses and discusses the study results. This chapter is organized to answer the six study questions and so, is divided into six main sections. The first section highlights the perceptions of managers and employees toward the components of the Full Range of Leadership styles. The second section demonstrates the different perceptions of managers and employees regarding transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. In the third section the data displays the perceptions of managers and employees toward employees’ creative performance. The fourth section presents the relationship between Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creative performance. The fifth section displays the effect of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours on employees’ creative performance. The sixth section shows the effect of managers’ personal characteristics on their perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours and employees’ creative performance.

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyse the data obtained from the questionnaires and attempts to answer the study questions. Comparisons of the mean
scores and standard deviations of the relevant variables were obtained by utilizing one-sample t-tests and independent t-tests. A correlation test was used to find out the strength and direction of the relationship between variables. Statistical significance was considered for all results with p values < 0.05.

8.2 The Perceptions of Managers and Employees toward the Components of the Full Range of Leadership Model

The literature has shown that the Full Range of Leadership model is divided into three types of leadership behaviours: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant Leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Nawaz and Bodla, 2010; and Michel et al., 2011). Therefore, the first question that this research attempts to answer is:

\[RQ1: To \text{ what extent do managers and employees in the Omani civil service sector perceive that Omani managers demonstrate the three types of the Full Range of Leadership model, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership? To what extent do they differ in their perceptions and what is the magnitude of the mean differences?}\]

The first question is divided into two parts. To answer the first part, means and standard deviations are determined to figure out how each managers’ and employees’ mean scores rank to the score of “3”, which is the cut-off point for determining whether or not managers demonstrate the styles of the Full Range of Leadership theory. The level of “3” or greater was chosen because it signified on the Likert-scale survey that the manager was at least “sometimes” exhibiting the Full Range of Leadership style. The level of “2” was graded as the manager exhibiting the relevant style “Once in a while”, and this was deemed not a sufficient level for a manager to be classified, for example, as a transformational leader (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Additionally, Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001) recommend that the individuals who have the composite score of transformational leadership should be greater than the average score for all the respondents exhibiting the transformational leadership style. Similarly, the transactional and passive/avoidant leadership styles could be measured by following the same criterion.
Table 8.1: The Means and Standard Deviations for both Managers’ and Employees’ Perceptions toward the Full Range of Leadership Model

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<th>Full Range of Leadership Styles</th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Employees</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive/Avoidant Leadership</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results illustrated in Table 8.1, the data show that, overall, both managers and employees perceived that Omani managers are more likely to perform transformational leadership (mean = 4.06; 3.26 respectively) and transactional leadership (mean = 3.38; 3.18 respectively) than passive/avoidant leadership (mean = 1.80; 2.28 respectively). Noticeably, the passive/avoidant leadership mean scores are below the score of “3”, which indicates that both target populations perceived Omani managers as infrequently exhibiting passive/avoidant leadership behaviours. Thus, we can conclude that, according to managers’ and employees’ perceptions, Omani civil service sector managers are more likely to demonstrate transformational leadership behaviours and transactional leadership behaviours than passive/avoidant leadership.

To find out to what degree the two groups vary in their perceptions and to answer the second part of question one, the independent-samples t-test technique was used to compare the mean scores for managers and employees regarding managers demonstrating the Full Range of Leadership styles. The results of the independent-sample t-test are shown in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2: The Results of the Independent-Samples T-test between Managers and Employees toward the Full Range of Leadership Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Full Range of Leadership Styles</th>
<th>Managers</th>
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<th></th>
<th>Employees</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>15.063</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>11.413</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive/Avoidant Leadership</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>-7.394</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

In general, Table 8.2 shows that there is a statistically significant difference for both groups for all Full Range of Leadership styles. According to the results, there is a significant difference in the scores for managers’ (mean = 4.06; S.D. = .50) and employees’ (mean = 3.26;
S.D. = .82; where $t(623) = 15.063, p = 0.000 < 0.05$ perceptions toward transformational leadership. The results suggest that managers’ opinions demonstrate that Omani managers are performing transformational leadership more than employees perceived. Similarly, the results reveal that there is a significant difference in the scores for managers’ (mean = 3.38; S.D. = .67) and employees’ (mean = 3.18; S.D. = .77; where $t(619) = 11.413, p = .040 < 0.05$) perceptions regarding transactional leadership. These indicate that from managers’ perspective, Omani managers exhibit transactional leadership more than employees perceived.

For passive/avoidant leadership, the results show that both target populations believed that Omani managers rarely practised the passive/avoidant leadership style. The results present a significant difference in the scores for managers (mean = 1.80; S.D. = .75) and employees (mean = 2.28; S.D. = .88; where $t(620) = –7.39, p = 0.00 < 0.05$) toward passive/avoidant leadership. The results indicate that employees’ views illustrate that Omani managers are performing passive/avoidant leadership very poorly more often than managers’ respondents believe.

Further, to find the magnitude of the mean differences between the two groups we will find eta squared ($\eta^2$). According to Pallant (2010), eta squared ($\eta^2$) can range from 0 to 1 and represents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent (group) variable. The formula for eta squared is as follows: $(\eta^2 = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (N_1 + N_2 - 2)}).$ The interpretation of eta squared will follow Cohen’s guidelines (1988) as cited by Pallant (2010), which indicate that if eta is between (.01–.05) the effect will be small, while if Eta is (< .06–.14) the effect will be moderate, and if eta is (< .15 +) the effect will be large.

The eta squared for our samples are: transformational leadership ($\eta^2 = .2623$); transactional leadership ($\eta^2 = .1695$); and passive/avoidant leadership ($\eta^2 = .0789$). The results indicate that the magnitude of the differences in the means was large in both transformational leadership and transactional leadership, while it was moderate in passive/avoidant leadership. In other words, 26% of the variability in the extent to which Omani managers perform transformational leadership and 17% in transactional leadership can be attributed to the difference in the two groups’ perceptions, which we can interpret as a large effect, while 8% of the difference in the degree to which Omani managers exhibit passive/avoidant leadership is explained by the differences in the two groups, which we can interpret as a moderate effect.

The findings of the study are consistent with many other studies that have investigated the Full Range of Leadership model. According to Kirkbride (2006), there is a large and growing
body of researches that supports the effectiveness of transformational leadership over transactional leadership and other components of the Full Range of Leadership model (Bass, 1985; Avolio et al., 1999; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006; and Bennett, 2009). For example, Bennett (2009) conducted a study that examined 150 IT subordinates’ perceptions regarding their managers’ Full Range of Leadership style and its effect on their extra effort, manager effectiveness, and satisfaction. They found that transformational leadership had the highest average rating, followed by transactional leadership and finally by passive/avoidant leadership. However, the results of this study were contrary to the findings of Jabnoun and Al-Rasasi (2005). Jabnoun and Al-Rasasi (2005) examined the relationship between transformational leadership and service quality in hospitals in the United Arab Emirates. The study analysed how hospital employees perceived the dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership of their leaders. The research found that hospital employees in UAE hospitals gave low ratings for their leaders in terms of transformational leadership.

The value of this study’s results is in their ability to provide supporting evidence to the literature on leadership to show the domination of the transformational leadership style over the other Full Range of Leadership styles from four different aspects, which are: the study revealed two groups’ perceptions; it utilized two different research methods; it was conducted in the civil service sector; and it represented the Omani culture.

Actually, the study findings are valuable since they represent the perceptions of two different groups and show the differences in their perceptions. Further, the study employs two different research methods, which is in fact different from other studies such as Chen et al., (2007) and Jung et al., (2003), who used a single perspective (managers or employees) and utilized a single research method (quantitative or qualitative). The study questionnaires’ outcomes are supported with quantitative data that are exemplified in chapter seven. Both results show that Omani managers are practising transformational leadership behaviours more than transactional behaviours. Both perspectives and methods illustrate that passive/avoidant leadership behaviours are rarely exhibited by Omani managers.

Many studies have examined the Full Range of Leadership styles in the private sector. Wart (2003) argues that leaders in public sector organizations may adopt different behaviours compared with leaders in private sector organizations because these organizations afford their managers different amounts of discretion. Thus, Full Range of Leadership styles need to be
examined in the civil service sector. The study confirms that managers in the Omani civil service sector are practising transformational and transactional leadership behaviours more than passive/avoidant leadership behaviours. These results indicate the dominance of the transformational leadership style over the other Full Range styles in the civil service sector, as in the private sector. However, Nawaz and Bodla (2010) found that transactional leadership is more motivating in public sector employees.

Moreover, culture is another important issue to be considered, since it has a significant effect on leadership behaviour. Indeed, leadership behaviour must reflect the culture in which it is found (Bolden and Kirk, 2009). Studies demonstrate that Omani leaders exhibit a combination of interactive, rational legal authority, charismatic (Neal et al., 2005), and participative leadership (Common, 2011). In conformity with Bass (1985), participative, charismatic, and visionary leadership are recognized to be the main factors of transformational leadership. Additionally, like other Arab national cultures, Oman can be categorized as a collectivist society (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). According to Bass and Bass (2008), employees in such a culture expect their managers to take care of them while employees are ready to identify with managers’ vision and demonstrate their loyalty. They emphasized that these characteristics could motivate managers to easily exhibit the transformational leadership style. Actually, the findings of this study, which indicate that managers and employees working in Oman perceived Omani managers as practising transformational leadership behaviours, are consistent with the previous researchers’ believed. The study also supports the studies of Bass (1999) and Jung and Yammarino (2001), who claim that transformational leadership is more likely to emerge and have a strong effect in a collectivist culture than in an individualistic culture.

Briefly, the study’s results found that Omani managers are performing transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. The study target populations perceived that Omani managers rarely exhibit passive/avoidant leadership behaviours. Furthermore, the results illustrate a variation in the perceptions of managers and employees, as managers considered that Omani managers perform transformational and transactional leadership behaviours more than employees perceived; however, employees perceived that managers are exhibiting passive/avoidant leadership more than managers believed.
8.3 The Perceptions of Managers and Employees toward the Components of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Behaviours

In line with the first findings of this study, which reveal that Omani managers are performing transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, the second question attempts to examine the relative significance of the factors of transformational and transactional leadership. Bass and Riggio (2006) confirm that transformational leadership consists of five factors: idealized influence (attributes and behaviours), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Transactional leadership has two elements: contingent reward and active management-by-exception. Hence, the second question that the study attempts to answer is:

_RQ2: What is the relative significance of the components of transformational and transactional leadership of Omani managers from managers’ and employees’ perspectives?_

Two independent-sample t-tests were employed for managers and employees to answer this question. The aim was to compare the mean scores for managers and employees regarding how managers exhibit the components of transformational and transactional leadership. The results of the independent-sample t-tests are presented in Table 8.3.

### Table 8.3: The Results of the Two Independent-Sample T-tests between Managers and Employees toward Transformational and Transactional Leadership Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Full Range of Leadership Styles</th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transformational Leadership Components</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence (Attributes)</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence (Behaviour)</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Consideration</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transactional Leadership Components</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent Reward</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management-by-Exception (Active)</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the results illustrated in Table 8.3, the data indicate that there are statistically significant differences from both managers’ and employees’ groups for all components of transformational and transactional leadership ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$) except for the active management-by-exception factor ($p = 0.543$). Managers’ mean scores are higher for all factors than employees’ scores, which indicate that, in general, managers thought that Omani managers are performing the transformational and transactional leadership factors more than employees perceived.

Generally, as can be observed from Table 8.3, the results for the transformational leadership factors show that both groups perceived that Omani managers exhibit the attributes of idealized influence more than any other transformational factor (mean = 4.19, 3.63 respectively). On the other side, managers rated the intellectual stimulation factor as the lowest (mean = 3.9), whereas employees saw individualized consideration as the factor of transformational leadership that is least frequently exhibited by Omani managers (mean = 3.06).

Regarding transactional leadership behaviours, the results indicate that both managers and employees rated contingent reward as much higher (mean = 4.04, 3.21) than the active management-by-exception factor (mean = 3.62, 3.15).

Indeed, to reveal the relative significance of transformational and transactional leadership components for Omani managers, the following subsections analyse the perceptions of managers and employees about the components of the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. To gain a deeper understanding, the results are supported with the findings from interviews.

### 8.3.1 Idealized Influence (Attributes)

As Table 8.3 illustrates, the results indicate that managers’ and employees’ perceptions exemplify that Omani managers are practising the attributes of idealized influence (mean = 4.19, 3.63; S.D. = .639, 1.13 respectively; $t (638) = 9.358, p = 0.000 < 0.05$). Computing the eta result ($\eta^2 = .1207$) suggests that 12% of the variability in the extent to which Omani managers perform the attributes of idealized influence can be related to the difference in the two groups’ perceptions, which we can interpret as a moderate effect. Accordingly, managers as well as employees revealed that Omani managers behave in ways that allow employees to build
confidence and trust. Omani managers are exhibiting socialized charisma, and hence their employees feel admiration, loyalty, and respect (Avolio and Bass, 2004; and Bass and Riggio, 2006).

These findings are supported by the information obtained during interviews. In response to the question about the extent to which Omani managers demonstrate idealized influence attributes, top-level management emphasized three important points that illustrate idealized influence attributes in Omani managers’ behaviours. Firstly, the interviews indicate that attributes such as admiration, loyalty, respect, and confidence are a result of managers’ ability to take decisions. Secondly, it appears from the responses of the interviewees that the word leader is linked to the word charisma. The respondents mentioned that real leaders are those who have the charisma that attracts employees to be around them and follow them. They also highlighted that this charisma is a result of leaders’ positive behaviours when dealing with employees. Thirdly, the interviewees emphasized that the existence of idealized influence attributes among Oman’s managers is gained from their background, which was shaped by the Islamic religion and the Omani culture. They argue that Islamic values and beliefs and Omani social systems help Oman’s managers to possess idealized influence attributes. Their views were varied, as illustrated below:

“Based on my experiences, I believe that to be a leader you must be a good decision maker and only by being that will employee’s respect, admire, and follow you. During my working life I have seen many Omani managers who are good decision makers. They have the wisdom in making decisions and they do not hesitate in taking them. Actually, I strongly believe that managers who are not able to take decisions cannot lead themselves, and those who cannot lead themselves cannot lead others.” (Consultant-4)

“As a general manager I realize that employees follow those managers who have charisma that attracts others to them. They are friendly, humble, and have powerful skills of persuasion. As we are Muslim, managers use verses from the Qur’an and Hadith [the collections of the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) and his companions’ actions and statements] as a very strong verbal way of both communication and persuasion. Those managers are role models for their employees
where their employees want to emulate them. Thus, their employees will share the same mentality.” (General Manager-2)

Also, Omani middle managers’ views focused on day-to-day behaviours that managers use to interact with employees and display idealized influence attributes. The interviewees use different titles to express the meaning of leadership, such as the respected manager or the change manager. The following statements illustrate an example of middle managers’ responses:

“Respected managers are those who know their employees’ social needs. They appreciate and attempt to fulfil those needs. They are confident and powerful. Also, they develop trust and confidence among employees. Respected managers are always smiling and speak quietly. They have a very clear vision of what they are going to do and what they will get. They are sending the message: ‘I believe that this is truly the right thing to do.’” (Middle Manager-3)

The employees focused on describing attributes of managers in their organizations and not their direct managers or suggesting attributes that they hoped their managers would possess. There was a common trend that listening is the most important feature that employees look for from their managers. An example of the view of one employee is illustrated below.

“I will divide my answer into two parts. I will mention some attributes that my manager performs and I will talk about some general attributes for a successful leader. My manager uses humour in work and he is friendly. He is a good decision maker and a good communicator. Generally, I think a leader must have the ability to enhance employees’ loyalty by controlling disappointment and encouraging satisfaction among employees. The real leader is one who rejects the common circumstance that when good things happen the recognition goes to managers, and when things go wrong employees get punched. Effective leaders must have the wisdom in making decisions and have the ability to solve problems and work under pressure.” (Head of Section -3)

### 8.3.2 Idealized Influence (Behaviour)

As Table 8.3 illustrates, the results signify that both groups believed Omani managers exhibit the behaviours of idealized influence (mean = 4.10, 3.46; S.D. = 0.92, 1.14 respectively; t (638) = 10.647, p = 0.000 < 0.05). Computing the eta result (\(\eta^2 = .1508\)) suggests that 15% of the
variability in the extent to which Omani managers perform the attributes of idealized influence can be related to the difference in the two groups’ perceptions, which we can interpret as a large effect.

In keeping with Avolio and Bass (2004); and Bass and Riggio (2006) views, this result indicates that managers as well as employees believed that Omani managers are developing trust and confidence among employees by utilizing their action charisma. Both groups thought that Omani managers are willing to take risks and make personal sacrifices in order to achieve organization goals and expectations. They avoid using power for personal gain and reveal high standards of ethical and moral conduct.

Supporting these results, top-level management interviewees emphasized the important role that managers play in building an atmosphere of trust. They highlighted that trust is built on managers’ real actions in the workplace. Trust is about how managers behave, not what they say. An example of their comments is provided below.

“The respect and trust is only the result of how managers behave in the workplace. It is an exchange process. When managers walk around the workplace and monitor the work, they can see what employees do and they can measure their performances. They listen to them and appreciate their needs and requirements. When employees see all of that, they will respect and trust their managers because they respect and trust both the employees’ needs and the work requirements. As I mentioned it is an exchange process.” (Advisor-2)

The perception of middle-level managers was focused on the morality of managers’ behaviour. The interviewees indicated that managers share and exchange their values and beliefs during their day-to-day interactions with employees in the workplace. However, they also emphasized that since the Omani culture is social oriented, managers show their values, norms, and beliefs during the organization’s informal gatherings, such as barbecues, marriage celebrations, and condolences. An example of those opinions is given below.

“As you know, the Omani culture is a social culture. We interact with employees during work and personal events. We contribute when sad and happy events occur. We deal with employees as a big brother or as a father if we are older than them. We ask them about their family affairs and we give them personal advice. I see many male managers in our organization who do not hesitate to give their private mobile
number to their employees and ask their employees to call them any time they need them. The result of this interactive informal relationship is obvious. I see many employees share and display their managers’ values and beliefs and they attempt to emulate their managers.” (Middle Manager-1)

“I want to get your attention about some managers who have hidden objectives and they present positive behaviours to gain their employees’ loyalty. They said they are supporting creating a social environment in the workplace. They participate in employees’ informal events such as barbecues, promotion celebration events, marriage celebrations, and condolences. Unfortunately, I saw some managers who use this strategy to grow and achieve higher management positions. I was arguing with one of them and he said, ‘It is a win–win situation. I get the position that I seek and the employees under my supervision work happily and get the rewards that they deserve.’ As you see it is a matter of being honest with yourself before others.” (Middle Manager-4)

The interviews conducted with employees emphasized two main issues toward idealized influence behaviours: firstly, the importance for those managers of walking the talk, where their actions should speak louder than their words; and, secondly, the essential role of knowledge in shaping managers’ behaviours. An example of their opinions is presented below.

“I believe that managers without knowledge are like soldiers without weapons. Effective managers are those who are seeking new knowledge that relates to what they do and attempt to apply this knowledge in their workplace. In fact, employees will respect and admire those managers who have knowledge that gives them the ability to solve problems, deal with new technologies, develop new processes to simplify job procedures, and even teach them how to communicate effectively with their employees. Knowledge is very important. You asked me about managers’ behaviours and I said knowledge will shape managers’ personality and it is the one that will improve their behaviours. Actually, employees measure managers’ ability to manage the department based on how much knowledge he or she has. If heads of sections feel that their managers have less knowledge than them – for example to deal with technology or to solve conflicts between employees – they will wonder why these
managers are given such positions, when they are much better than them. In the end those heads of sections will feel disappointed.” (Head of Section -1)

8.3.3 Inspirational Motivation

In Table 8.3, the results indicate that managers and employees perceived that Omani managers motivate their employees inspirationally (mean = 4.08, 3.22; S.D. = 0.88, 1.20 respectively; t (638) = 12.739, p = 0.000 < 0.05). Computing the eta result (\(\eta^2 = .2027\)) suggests that 20% of the variability in the extent to which Omani managers perform the attributes of idealized influence can be related to the difference in the two groups’ perceptions, which we can interpret as a large effect. In consonance with Avolio and Bass (2004); and Bass and Riggio (2006), from managers’ and employees’ perceptions, Omani managers behave in ways that motivate and inspire their employees by providing meaning and challenge to their work. They talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished and express confidence that goals will be achieved.

These quantitative results were supported by the interviews. When asked about the extent to which Omani managers demonstrate inspirational motivation, top-level management focused on managers’ contribution to the organization’s vision. There was a general agreement between top-level respondents that managers in the Omani civil service sector are not participating in setting the organization’s vision. They thought that managers’ only responsibility is to transfer the organization’s vision to their heads of sections and provide suggestions for long-term projects that are related to their department. Samples of the respondents’ comments are illustrated below.

“I cannot say that managers participate in setting the organization’s vision, though managers contribute in providing top management with recommendations and suggestions for long-term projects.” (General Manager-2)

“Actually, they do not take part in setting their department’s objectives, so how can they participate in setting the organization’s vision?” (Consultant-4)

Interviews with middle-level managers indicated that they believed Omani managers behave in ways that motivate and inspire employees by enriching their tasks and providing meaning and challenge to what they are doing. Interviewees also highlighted that managers should always encourage their employees to look to the future with a positive and optimistic outlook. Below is an example of one of the respondent’s views.
“I believe that optimistic managers create an optimistic environment. I saw managers who achieved amazing goals in spite of their limited financial and human resources. For example, one of the managers in our ministry recommended a project that should save a lot of effort and money for the ministry. This manager led a team to accomplish that project for years and with very limited resources. I noted that this manager inspired their team’s members by speaking about the intangible benefits that could be gained from accomplishing this project. He is a very educated person. He used motivational words and phrases from books that he read to inspire them. Consequently, I saw their employees working with him at night and even at the weekend. In the end the project succeeded and gained high recognition from the minister and even gained international awards.” (Middle Manager-1)

In the interviews, employees expressed different opinions regarding how managers demonstrate inspirational motivation. One of them mentioned that managers use motivational words and phrases to inspire their employees to accomplish their tasks with enthusiasm. However, other respondents had a negative point of view regarding managers’ motivation. They thought that motivation could threaten their management positions. Motivation could encourage employees to develop their skills, which could bring about change in organizations and managers could lose their management position. Other managers thought motivation needs a lot of financial resources and could have a negative influence on employees’ behaviours. Samples of the responses from the interviews are shown below.

“From what I saw, managers use motivational words as a very powerful tool to inspire their employees. I heard them saying, ‘That is excellent work’, ‘Those are my staff’, ‘I knew that you could do it’, ‘You are one of my rare resources’, ‘You are a genius’, and ‘I am proud that I am your manager.’ As a result I saw the happiness in employees’ faces, especially if managers motivated them in front of the top management. Believe me, those employees become followers and achieve their work with enthusiasm and excitement.” (Head of Section -1)

“Unfortunately some managers are afraid of motivating their employees to become hard workers and be creative, because they believe that creativity will bring change and they are worried about their management position in their organization. Thus,
they encourage employees to do the routine tasks and attempt to improve them.”
(Head of Section -2)

8.3.4 Intellectual Stimulation

According to Table 8.3, the results illustrate that both groups thought that Omani managers exhibit intellectual stimulation (mean = 3.91, 3.12; S.D. = 0.90, 1.20 respectively; t (638) = 13.643, p = 0.000 < 0.05). Computing the eta result (\( \eta^2 = .2258 \)) suggests that 23% of the variability in the extent to which Omani managers perform intellectual stimulation can be related to the difference in the two groups’ perceptions, which we can interpret as a large effect.

Consequently, this result shows that managers as well as employees believed that Omani managers are stimulating their employees’ efforts to be creative by encouraging their imagination, challenging the old ways that they are doing things, and looking for better ways to do things. Employees are not criticized in public when they make mistakes or because their ideas are different from managers’ ideas. Managers encourage employees to try new approaches and to be willing to take risks to apply new ideas and creative solutions (Avolio and Bass, 2004; and Bass and Riggio, 2006).

The information obtained during interviews was in line with the above results. In their answers to a question regarding the degree to which Omani managers practise intellectual stimulation, top-level management pointed out two main behaviours that managers demonstrate: the significant effect of managers’ attitude toward creativity, and the ability of managers to build an environment that supports creativity. Firstly, respondents argued that some managers are creators. They introduce new ideas and thoughts; as a result, they serve as role models for their employees, and therefore their employees emulate them. However, other respondents believed that creative culture is missing in Omani managers’ minds, which prevents employees from producing creative works. Therefore, the second point of the interviewees emphasized the importance of managers building a creative environment and establishing a healthy culture that supports innovation in the organization. The following statements are examples of interviewees’ points of view.

“What is good in our managers is that they are not just encouraging employees to be creative but they are themselves creators. When you ask me about intellectual-stimulation behaviour I remember what one of our managers did in our department.
This manager reorganized unused office space in our department and introduced the idea of a monthly meeting for generating creative ideas. Yes, we started by only solving the department’s usual problems, but later he redirected the meeting to focus only on new development ideas. However, because one monthly meeting was very hard to reach, we changed it into a three monthly meeting. The result of this meeting was remarkable. I always remember him when he was not just encouraging the employees to generate new development ideas but also motivating them to be a role model for other employees in the ministry. He always motivated employees to be creative by saying, ‘Being emulated by others in the ministry is the real achievement that you could add to your career experiences.’” (Consultant-1)

“In the main, I think the Omani managers are trying their best to build an environment that supports creativity with the very limited resources available. As an example, one of our managers is always encouraging employees to look at problems from many different angles and seek different perspectives when solving problems. In their meeting she always emphasizes that employees should not follow her ways of thinking, because that will not enrich the process of solving problems.” (Advisor-1)

In their responses in the interviews, middle managers concentrated on managers’ ability to empower their employees to produce creative performances. The respondents suggested that empowerment is the managers’ main responsibility. If managers implement empowerment in their department, managers and their employees will all benefit from it. However, some managers are afraid of empowerment because they think it will allow employees to make fatal mistakes and will slow work speed. A sample from the respondents’ comments is shown below.

“I strongly believe that both managers and their employees will gain from practising empowerment. Managers will trust themselves to be a risk taker by delivering tasks to employees which will enhance creativity within the department. At the same time, employees will learn how to be responsible for finishing their tasks and because they have the freedom they will have the chance to think out of the box to surprise their managers with new ideas and projects.” (Middle Manager-2)

The employees highlighted difficulties that creators face when they introduce new ideas. They argued that organizations need to establish an internal protection system to protect employees’ creative ideas from being stolen by their managers. Also, they emphasized that
managers should not criticize any new ideas that come from employees because they are different from managers’ ideas. Respondents stated that the worst thing that managers can do is to criticize those ideas in public, because that will have negative effects on employees’ overall performance. An example of the responses in the interviews is shown below.

“One of the big problems that prevents employees from being creative is public criticism. Believe me, nobody will accept anyone criticizing him or her in front of their friends because he or she made an unintended mistake or recommended ideas that were different or not matching with the manager’s thoughts. It actually happened to a head of section in our organization. Consequently, he stopped bringing any new ideas and he is now always keeping silent in our department’s meetings. He became careless and was not doing his job properly. Now he focuses on doing his private job during work time. Unfortunately, I feel that this problem started spreading and expanding to reach some other employees in other departments.” (Head of Section - 2)

8.3.5 Individualized Consideration
As illustrated in Table 8.3, the results indicate that managers and employees perceived that Omani managers are performing the behaviours of individualized consideration (mean = 4.12, 3.06; S.D. = 0.86, 1.22 respectively; t (638) = 16.452, p = 0.000 < 0.05). Computing the eta result ($\eta^2 = .2978$) suggests that 30% of the variability in the extent to which Omani managers perform individualized consideration can be related to the difference in the two groups’ perceptions, which we can interpret as a large effect. In line with Avolio and Bass (2004); and Bass and Riggio (2006), managers as well as employees revealed that Omani managers pay special attention to each individual employee’s needs, abilities, and aspirations for achievement and growth by acting as a coach and mentor. They provide opportunities to employees for self-actualization and personal growth. They are effective listeners and encourage two-way communication.

The responses in the interviews supported these findings. Top-level management interviewees concentrated on managers’ role in providing opportunities for employees to learn, develop, and grow. They strongly believed that individualized-consideration behaviours are not only about caring about employees’ social affairs, but about developing employees’ skills and
knowledge. Interviewees emphasized that managers should invest time, money, and effort to build a supportive learning environment. In addition, managers should spend time and make efforts to teach and coach their employees. A sample of interviewees’ comments is provided below.

“I think employees’ learning and development is the responsibility of both managers and employees. Firstly, managers should understand their employees’ abilities and skills, and then they should establish a supportive learning environment. However, what I did not see a lot of in our organizations is managers spending time on teaching and coaching their employees. Thus, the administrations should direct those managers to play this role. On the other hand, employees should not sit around and wait for the system or managers to develop them; they must go and grab the skills and knowledge needed.” (Consultant-1)

Middle managers focused on managers’ ability to treat their employees as individuals rather than just as a member in the department’s group. They highlighted that managers should recognize their employees’ differences in terms of needs and desires through effective listening and good appreciation, and then they should respond to those specific and unique needs. Below is an example of middle managers’ responses.

“Managers ought to understand that employees are humans; they are not machines. They are facing, like any other humans, social cases, family events, and financial problems. Those problems should be solved or at least appreciated; otherwise they will have a negative effect on employees’ performances. It is managers’ role to discover those problems and attempt to solve them. Those solutions could be training programmes; financial rewards; days off; changing work hours; or reducing workload.” (Middle Manager-2)

Further, employees emphasized that managers who want to apply individualized-consideration behaviours should communicate effectively with their employees and should have active listening skills. Moreover, they highlighted that managers should balance the requirements of work with fulfilling employees’ needs and wants. A sample from these responses is shown below.

“There are two reasons why individual-consideration behaviours are missing from our organization: either managers are not considering the importance of this kind of
behaviour or they do not have the time to think about it and practise it because of workload and limited human resources. If managers listen to their employees and let things get out, that could reduce work stresses and motivate employees.” (Head of Section -1)

8.3.6 Contingent Reward

As Table 8.3 shows, the results of the first factor of transactional leadership indicate that managers and employees perceived that Omani managers are practising the behaviours of contingent reward (mean = 4.04, 3.21; S.D. = .91, 1.24 respectively; \( t \) (638) = 12.736, \( p = 0.000 < 0.05 \)). Calculating the eta result (\( \eta^2 = .2027 \)) suggests that 20% of the variability in the extent to which Omani managers perform contingent reward can be related to the difference in the two groups’ perceptions, which we can interpret as a large effect. Actually, contingent-reward managers are those who exchange rewards for effort. They explain to the employees what to do if they want to be rewarded for their effort and arrange that the employees get what they want in exchange for achieving objectives. Bass (1985) argued that contingent reward is the most active form of transactional leadership but is less active than transformational leadership, because one manager can engage in contingent reward without ever being closely engaged with employees, for example implementing a pay-for-performance plan.

Analysing the information obtained from the interviews indicates that, in general, all the interviewees (top-level management, middle-level managers, and heads of sections) divided contingent rewards into two parts: intangible rewards and tangible rewards. With regard to the former, the interviewees agreed that managers exhibit adequate effort to explain to their employees what to do, actively monitor their achievements, and provide supportive feedback. Additionally, they agreed that managers express satisfaction when employees meet expectations and provide recognition once employees reach the agreed objectives. Intangibly, managers also negatively reward their employees; for example, they provide negative feedback, reprove employees, or take disciplinary action to correct failure to meet their commitments. Examples of the interviewees’ opinions are shown below.

“When projects are assigned, we put a lot of effort into clarifying the project’s objectives. We allocate duties to employees based on their skills and we discuss with
them their responsibilities and authorities. We also positively monitor employees’ progress and provide supportive feedback when needed.” (General Manager-3)

“Managers generally are good at motivating employees verbally and I appreciate that they do not have the formal power to give rewards. I strongly believe that if they have the right to make decisions they will distribute financial rewards.” (Head of Section -2)

In relation to tangible rewards, interviewees agreed that Omani managers do not have the authority to give tangible rewards such as bonuses and promotions. They also do not have the right to give any employees promises that they will distribute bonuses. Negative tangible rewards also are not in managers’ hands. In fact, interviewees demonstrate that Omani managers do not have the power to issue any formal punishments for poor performance. Apparently, the only authority that managers have is just to suggest to top management the positive and the negative rewards that employees deserve. Interviewees mentioned that most of those suggestions are not considered; however, some managers who have a strong relationship with some top managers have the power to influence them to take these suggestions. Examples of those views are displayed below.

“Many employees think that it is administration’s problem not to give bonuses to employees; however, in many cases it is managers’ fault. Unfortunately, some managers give promises to distribute rewards without knowing if administration has a big enough budget to keep those promises. They attempt to motivate their employees; however, when they ask administration for rewards, it rejects their suggestions because the rewards were not planned.” (Consultant-2)

“... middle managers do not have the authority to give rewards, but believe me it depends on how managers fight to gain those rewards. It also depends on managers’ communication skills and how strong their relationship with administration is. For me, many recommendations for rewards that I suggested were accepted. Believe me, it is not enough to just send a reward recommendation letter or list to administration and wait for a response. You need to meet with them to negotiate and convince them of the importance of these rewards for employees’ achievements. Based on my experiences, in the end administration will accept your request.” (Middle Manager-1)
8.3.7 Management-By-Exception (Active)

As Table 8.3 shows, there was no significant difference between managers’ and employees’ perceptions toward performing active management-by-exception (mean = 3.62, 3.15; S.D. = 1.05, 1.16 respectively; t (598) = 6.666, p = .543). Calculating the eta result ($\eta^2 = .0651$) suggests that 6% of the variability in the extent to which Omani managers perform active management-by-exception can be related to the difference in the two groups’ perceptions, which we can interpret as a moderate effect. These results suggest that Omani managers monitor employees’ performance, anticipate any deviations from standards, and take corrective action (Avolio and Bass, 2004; and Bass and Riggio, 2006). Responses of the interviewees reveal different views, where some of the respondents look to the active management-by-exception behaviour as a good predictor mechanism whereby managers pay close attention to deviations, mistakes, or irregularities and take action to make corrections. However, some interviewees believed that it could have a negative side if managers take it personally and attempt to search for employees’ mistakes to report them to top management. Those managers will create an atmosphere of fear and use this behaviour against their employees. Examples of respondents’ views are illustrated below.

“Truthfully, I cannot assign a manager to each employee to monitor their work. I think those who use this behaviour do not have self-confidence and also do not trust their employees.” (General Manager-1)

“If the monitoring is targeted to help employees to resolve their unintended mistakes, it is good, but some managers use it to limit the authority and powers for some heads of sections.” (Section Head-2)

In short, the study’s results reveal that there are statistically significant differences between the perceptions of managers and employees for all components of transformational and transactional leadership styles except for the active management-by-exception factors. The results show that both groups perceived that the attributes of idealized influence have the highest means among the transformational leadership factors. Managers rated intellectual stimulation as the lowest, whereas employees perceived the individualized-consideration factor as the least exhibited element. For transactional leadership behaviours, the study’s results indicate that both groups rated contingent reward as much higher than the active management-by-exception factor.
In general, managers ranked the transformational leadership components as follows: idealized influence attributes, individualized consideration, idealized influence behaviours, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation. Employees, on the other hand, ranked the transformational leadership components as follows: idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behaviours, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. For transactional leadership, managers as well as employees ranked the components as follows: contingent reward and active management-by-exception.

8.4 The Perceptions of Managers and Employees Regarding Employees’ Creative Performance

The literature reviewed indicates that factors such as the expansion of the global economy, the significant spread of technology, limited organizational resources, and increased awareness of improving customer service drive the change in the public sector towards the development of innovation and creativity (Potts, 2009; Robertson et al., 2002; and Rosenblatt, 2011). Many studies have suggested that individual creativity is the ultimate source of any new idea and provides the foundation for organizational innovation (Redmond et al., 1993; Woodman et al., 1993; and Shalley and Gilson, 2004). Thus, in order to enhance the chances of long-term survival, organizations should focus on supporting individual creative performance in the workplace (Amabile, 1988; Cummings et al., 1975; and Woodman et al., 1993). Therefore, the third question that the research attempts to answer is:

*RQ3: To what degree do managers and employees think that employees working in the Omani civil service sector are creative? And to what extent do they differ in their perceptions of employees’ creative performance?*

The third question also divides into two parts. To answer the first part, means and standard deviations are determined to figure out how managers’ and employees’ mean scores rank to the score of “3”, which is the cut-off point for determining whether or not employees exhibit creative performance. The level of “3” or greater was chosen because it signified on the Likert-scale survey that the employee was at least “sometimes” exhibiting creative performance, while the level of “2” was only graded as the employee demonstrating creative performance “Once in a while”. Table 8.4 presents the results for means and standard deviations.
According to the results illustrated in Table 8.4, managers and employees perceived that Omani employees perform in creative ways (mean = 3.49; 3.65 respectively).

To find out to what extent the two groups vary in their perceptions and to answer the second part of research question three, two independent-sample t-tests were used to compare the mean scores for managers and employees regarding employees’ creative performance. The general results of the two independent-sample t-tests are shown in Table 8.5.

The results in Table 8.5 indicate that there is a significant difference in the scores for managers’ (mean = 3.49; S.D. = 0.67) and employees’ (mean = 3.65; S.D. = 0.64; where t (638) = −3.246, p = .001 < 0.05) perceptions toward employees’ creative performance. Consequently, since employees’ mean score is slightly higher than managers’ score, employees considered that Omani civil service sector employees are performing in a creative way slightly more than managers believed. The magnitude of the differences in the means based on the previous Cohen (1988) guidelines was very small (eta squared = .016), which indicates that only 2% of the variability in the extent to which Omani employees perform in creative ways can be related to the difference in managers’ and employees’ perceptions.

To comprehensively understand the significant differences between managers’ and employees’ perceptions toward employees’ creative performance, two independent-sample t-tests were performed for each item, the results of which are presented in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6 illustrates that there are no significant differences in the perceptions of managers and employees toward employees’ creative performance for items 1, 2, 6, 8, and 12;
however, items 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, and 11 are significant, where \( p = 0.000 < 0.05 \). Additionally, the results reveal that from managers’ point of view, the ability for employees to exhibit creativity on the job when they are given the opportunity to do so is the most important quality that contributes to employees’ creative performance (mean = 3.67; S.D. = .933). The mean scores for managers’ perceptions illustrate that the ability for employees to generate a new approach to solve problems is the least important feature of employees’ creative performance (mean = 3.31; S.D. = .896).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Managers Mean</th>
<th>Employees Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>-1.962</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>-1.387</td>
<td>.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>-3.290</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Suggests new ways to increase quality</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>-2.811</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Takes risks in terms of producing new ideas in doing job</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>-3.516</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Promotes and champions ideas to others</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>-0.614</td>
<td>.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>-4.237</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>-3.93</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Comes up with creative solutions to problems</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>-2.032</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Often has a fresh approach to problems</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>-2.604</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Suggests new ways of performing work tasks</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>-3.745</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Finds new uses for existing methods or equipment</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>-1.245</td>
<td>.214</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Employees’ Creative Performance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to employees’ perceptions, Table 8.6 shows that employees have stronger creative identities when they are “given the opportunity to exhibit their creative attitude” (mean = 3.98; S.D. = 0.85); this result is in line with managers’ perceptions. On the other hand, the ability for employees to “promote and champion their new and novel ideas to others” was valued as the lowest characteristic that contributes to employees’ creative performance (mean = 3.45; S.D. = 0.99).

Employees’ creative performance is defined as “employees’ ability to produce new, novel, and useful ideas, processes, and procedures that benefit his or her organization” (Amabile, 1988 and Hennessey and Amabile, 1998). Theoretically, the creative performance of employees
provides the raw material needed for organizational innovation (Oldham and Cummings, 1996). The study found that Omani employees are recognized by both managers and employees as performing in creative ways. This was supported by qualitative data collected from interviews. The interviewees’ responses show that employees have the ability to generate creative ideas, but the development process of encouraging employees’ creative performance is facing some challenges.

Noticeably, there was a general consensus between interviewees that Omani employees have the ability to generate new ideas. Employees are looking out for any new working opportunities, techniques, or instruments to develop the results of their tasks. They attempt to suggest new ways to enhance their performance, especially those ideas that relate to quality improvement. Additionally, interviewees stated that employees are trying to come up with creative solutions to their work’s problems. Further, some interviewees emphasized that the personal characteristics of employees are not that important when we talk about creativity, since they believe that “individuals” are creative regardless of their gender, age, management level, or education level. The following statement presents an example of the interviewees’ views.

“\textit{I realize that our employees have the potential to produce new ideas. Despite their creative production being low, the effect of those few creative ideas is recognizable. Last year we conducted a meeting with general managers to find out ways to enhance employees’ performance, and we discussed the issue of employees’ creativity. We concluded that if we do not provide employees with the knowledge that is needed, we cannot blame them if they are not performing in creative ways. Thus, we designed training programmes to develop employees’ performance and especially creativity.}”
(Consultant-2)

With regard to the findings which reveal that Omani employees have the ability to be creative, interviewees suggested that enhancing employees’ creative performance is facing some obstacles. According to interviewees’ perceptions, these obstacles divide into two views. The first one represents the administrative point of view, which was mentioned by consultants, advisors, and general managers. The responses reveal that employees are not promoting their ideas effectively, and thus the administrations are not taking these new ideas seriously. Respondents emphasized that employees bring their new ideas to administration verbally without any written proposal. Moreover, interviewees believed that employees are not sharing their ideas
with others so they could get support and at the same time could serve as good role models for creativity. Interviewees highlighted that employees need to learn how to mobilize support for their new ideas for administration to accept and implement them. Thus, employees need to obtain communication skills to make important administration members enthusiastic for their creative ideas. In fact, this challenge could be supported by the study’s finding that the employees graded their ability to promote and champion their new and novel ideas as the lowest characteristic that contributes to their creative performance. Samples of the opinions of respondents for the first challenge are presented below.

“Employees need presentation and communication skills to present their new ideas. I saw many excellent ideas die because employees did not know how to market those ideas. For example, an employee brought to me a good idea in only one statement and when I asked him about any background information that could support his idea he said, ‘I do not have it.’ Then I gave him time to bring me the idea’s background. To my surprise, he did not come and I discovered that he had told his friends the administration is not encouraging creativity!” (Advisor-2)

“Unfortunately, when employees suggest a new creative idea, they bring it with a condition, saying, ‘If you do not implement my idea, I will not bring any in future, because you are not supporting creativity.’ Actually, they do not realize that administration is working with a limited budget and on scheduled projects.” (General Manager-2)

The second obstacle to employees’ creative performance is a weak creative environment. This view came from heads of sections and middle managers. Interviewees concentrated on a lot of factors that generate a weak creative environment. Respondents revealed that any new ideas face weak support from top management. They believed that administrations should judge any new ideas fairly and constructively. Further, interviewees’ opinions emphasized the critical role that managers play in enhancing employees’ creative performance within any organization.

Moreover, the interviewees strongly agreed that any creative works need rewards and recognition. Those rewards should be both tangible and intangible. Additionally, respondents highlighted the importance of implementing a delegation mechanism to stimulate employees’ creativity. They stated that managers should trust employees and give them the autonomy to decide what work to do and how to do it.
In addition, the respondents revealed that if managers want to improve the creative performance of their employees, they should give them challenging works so that they can explore their creativity. Resources are another issue mentioned by respondents. They highlighted that creative ideas need sufficient resources to emerge. They believed that employees will feel disappointed if administration only appreciates and recognizes their suggested new ideas without implementing them because of the organization’s limited resources. In fact, if this is the case, they will wonder why administrations are asking employees to produce creative ideas. Examples of those opinions regarding a weak creative environment are illustrated below.

“I saw some managers who do not believe in the benefit of applying creativity in government organizations. They believe that ‘creativity’ is academic terminology and is only effective in the private sector, not in government agencies. Thus, I strongly agree that managers – or you can call them leaders, or you can call them decision makers – play a very critical role in encouraging or discouraging creativity within any organization.” (Head of Section -3)

“Recognition and financial rewards are very critical issues that influence employees’ creative performance. Thus, I recommend linking the yearly financial rewards with employees’ ability to generate creative ideas regardless of whether those ideas are implemented or not.” (Middle Manager-2)

“What we want is real delegation, where we have adequate flexibility and freedom to accomplish our tasks in the ways we think will produce new ideas. That will not only open the window for creativity but will also teach us how to be responsible for what we offer.” (Head of Section -2)

Obviously, the challenges that are affecting Omani employees’ creative performance are supported by many researches. For example, empirical studies such as Jaskyte and Kisieliene (2006) and Politis (2005) argue that there is a need for organizations to create the organizational contexts that are most supportive to idea generation and creative thinking. Furthermore, researchers have indicated that rewards and bonuses (Amabile et al., 1996) and goal setting and the evaluation of new ideas (Egan, 2005) are necessary to encourage employees’ creativity and thus influence organizational innovation. Andriopoulos (2001) argued that there are several key factors that affect organizational creativity. Among these factors are organizational climate,
organizational culture, resources and skills, the structure and systems of an organization, and leadership style.

In short, the results of the third question illustrate that managers and employees believed that Omani employees working in the civil service sector are performing in creative ways; however, there are some individual and organizational challenges that need to be considered to influence employees’ creative performance.

8.5 The Relationship between Full Range of Leadership Styles and Employees’ Creative Performance

The literature documents the importance of leadership behaviours in enhancing employee creativity (Mumford et al., 2002; Jung, 2001; and Redmond et al., 1993). According to Bass and Riggio (2006), many studies have examined transformational leadership and performance in a wide variety of settings. The effect of transformational leadership on employees’ creativity is more than any other types in the Full Range of Leadership model. Therefore, the fourth study question attempts to investigate this relationship in the Omani civil service workplace:

RQ4: Is there a relationship between Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creative performance?

The fourth research question sought to investigate whether significant relationships existed between Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creative performance from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives. Multiple regression analysis was employed to explore these relationships and attempt to answer this research question. Tables 8.7 and 8.8 present those regression results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8.7: The Multiple Regression Results (the Model Summary and Anova) for the Effect of the Full Range of Leadership Model on Employees’ Creative Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model Summary</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), transformational, transactional and passive/avoidant leadership
b. Dependent variable: employees’ creative performance
Table 8.8: The Multiple Regression Results (Coefficients *) for the Effect of the Full Range of Leadership Model on Employees’ Creative Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Full Range of Leadership Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers’ Results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.356</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>3.783</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>0.504</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>0.381</td>
<td>6.736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
<td>0.261</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.260</td>
<td>4.405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive/Avoidant Leadership</td>
<td>−0.074</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>−0.083</td>
<td>−1.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees’ Results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.471</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>11.511</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.196</td>
<td>2.603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>2.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive/Avoidant Leadership</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.540</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent variable: employees’ creative performance

According to Table 8.7, the model summary indicates that the Full Range of Leadership model as a whole is a very effective predictor of employees’ creative performance (p = .000 < 0.05). There is a statistically significant pattern of relationships between managers’ use of Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creative performance from both managers’ (p = 0.000 < 0.05; F = 15.107) and employees’ (p = 0.000 < 0.05; F =11.441) perspectives. The results show that Full Range of Leadership styles explain 15% of the variance in employees’ creative performance from managers’ perspective and 9% from employees’ perspective (R² = .146; .086 respectively). The regression analysis reported in Table 8.8 shows that transformational and transactional leadership are making statistically significant contributions to employees’ creative performance from the perspectives of both managers and employees (sig. = .000).

As noted by Avolio and Bass (2004), a passive/avoidant leader delays decisions, is not accountable or responsible to others in achieving goals, and takes a “hands-off” approach to management. The regression results in Table 8.8 illustrate that from both sides, passive/avoidant leadership was not found to significantly predict employees’ creative performance (sig. = 0.176; 0.590 respectively).

The results of the beta values reveal that transformational leadership has the largest value, which indicates that it makes the strongest positive unique contribution to employees’ creative performance from managers’ perspective (beta = 0.38) and has a medium positive effect from employees’ perspective (beta = 0.196). As can be observed, transformational leadership has more impact than transactional leadership from both views (beta = 0.260; 0.154 respectively). In other
words, the Omani managers believed that the creative performance of the Omani employees is affected by 38% if the Omani managers practise transformational leadership behaviours, while employees thought that if their managers exhibit transformational leadership behaviours that will contribute 20% to their creative performance.

The results of this study correspond with the findings reported by many researchers that have demonstrated the positive impact of transformational leadership on employees’ creativity. According to Bass and Avolio (1990), transformational leaders are those who influence employees to question outmoded operating rules. They encourage employees to create new and practical principles by developing their ways of thinking. Elkins and Keller (2003) emphasized that transformational leadership behaviours closely match the determinants of innovation and creativity in the workplace, some of which are vision, support for innovation, autonomy, encouragement, recognition, and challenge. In addition, Reuvers et al., (2008) found a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership and innovative work behaviour from data gathered in four Australian hospitals. Actually, the effect of the components of transformational leadership on innovative work behaviour proved positive and significant for all components.

Additionally, Cheung and Wong (2011) found that the behaviours of transformational leadership influenced employees to enhance their creative performance in the service context. This is because transformational leaders give more discretion to act and more support for individual initiatives (Bass, 1985) and give enhanced feelings of responsibility (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Zhou and Oldham, 2001) as well as emphasizing the importance of subordinates’ contribution of ideas for building organizational success (Vera and Crossan, 2004). The results of the study also indicate that employee creativity can be enhanced by adequate support from leaders. Thus, creative employees can be led effectively if leaders are of the right transformational style and provide both task and relation support to the employees.

Essentially, the findings add further evidence to support the results in the literature. Indeed, there are three types of studies that have examined the relationships between transformational and transactional leadership and performance such as creativity. Many used ratings of leadership and outcomes collected from a single source, such as supervisors only or subordinates only, resulting in potential common-source-common-method bias (for example, Bycio et al., 1995). Fewer studies collected survey data on both leadership and outcomes from
multiple sources (for example, Keller, 1992). The smallest number of studies used multiple sources and multiple methods. These have typically involved questionnaire ratings of leadership and objective performance measures (for example, Avolio et al., 1988), or manipulating leadership and measuring outcomes (for example, Barling et al., 1996). So, the value of this study is that it investigates the Full Range of Leadership styles from two perspectives: a quantitative questionnaires method supplemented by a qualitative interviews methods.

Further, the interviewees’ responses exemplified that the second challenge which the employees faced in being creative is the availability of a creative environment. Indeed, Jung et al., (2003) found that transformational leaders primarily encourage follower creativity and innovation by providing a climate that supports followers’ innovative efforts. In Arab Gulf countries, Politis (2004) examined the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and the ‘stimulant’ and ‘obstacle’ determinants of the work environment for creativity in nine departments operating in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) in communications technology. The study found that transformational leadership is more strongly correlated than transactional leadership with the ‘stimulant’ determinants in building a corporate culture and work environment that stimulates employees’ creativity and innovation.

Evidently, the results of this study support the effectiveness of transformational leadership in enhancing employees’ creativity over a transactional leadership style. The study also illustrates the existence of this positive relationship in the Omani civil service sector from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives. However, Bass and Riggio (2006) point out that there is nothing wrong with transactional leadership. It can, in most instances, be quite effective.

Noticeably, the findings in question one and question four show that Omani managers exhibit transactional leadership less than they do transformational leadership and that it has a medium positive effect on employees’ creative performance (26% from managers’ point of view and 15% from employees’ point of view). Bass (1985) proposed a model for the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership. This model suggests that transformational leadership augments transactional in predicting effects on follower satisfaction and performance (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Indeed, the augmentation has been tested and confirmed by many studies (Bass and Avolio, 1990; Waldman et al., 1990; Curphy, 1992; Silins, 1994; Bycio et al., 1995; Koh et al., 1995; and Bass et al., 2003). Those studies indicate that transformational leadership does not replace transactional leadership. It increases transactional leadership in
achieving the goals of the leader, subordinates, team, and organization. The results of those studies indicate that there are different leadership styles appropriate to different situations and problems. Thus, leaders could be transformational and transactional at the same time; it depends on the situation. That is, in some situations the time is suitable for transformational leadership, while in another situation being transformational may not be appropriate. In these investigations, different subjective and objective performance criteria were used. In each case, transformational leadership added significantly to the prediction of performance, thus augmenting transactional leadership behaviours (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Specifically, Howell and Avolio (1992) reported that transformational leadership augments transactional in predicting levels of innovation, risk taking, and creativity. Therefore, the results of the current study add further support to Bass’s augmentation model.

In brief, the study indicates that there is an overall statistically significant relationship between managers’ use of Full Range of Leadership model styles and employees’ creative performance from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives. Additionally, the results show that transformational and transactional leadership are making a statistically significant contribution to employees’ creative performance according to the perspectives of both managers and employees, while passive/avoidant leadership is not making a significant contribution. Further, the study demonstrates that transformational leadership appears to be the appropriate leadership approach for enhancing employees’ creative performance. Also, this study support the Bass (1995) augmentation model, where Bass argues that transformational leadership augments transactional in predicting employees’ creative performance.

8.6 The Effect of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Components on Employees’ Creative Performance

In conformity with the results of many studies, such as Politis (2004) and Pieterse et al., (2010), the current study demonstrates that transformational leadership appears to be the appropriate leadership approach for enhancing employees’ creative performance. Also, the study found that transformational leadership augments transactional in predicting employees’ creative performance. Therefore, the fifth question attempts to investigate in depth the effect of transformational and transactional leadership components on Omani employees’ creative performance from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives.
**RQ5: What is the effect of transformational and transactional leadership components on employees’ creative performance?**

Multiple regression analysis was employed to explore the effects of transformational and transactional leadership components on Omani employees’ creative performance, and the results are presented in Table 8.9. Further, to give a general view, Table 8.10 illustrates the intercorrelations regression results of the whole components of the Full Range of Leadership styles on employees’ creative performance.

As Table 8.9 and Table 8.10 illustrate, Omani managers believed that individualized consideration (beta = .339), intellectual stimulation (beta = .309), and idealized influence (behaviour) (beta = .307) are the three most significant contributors to Omani employees’ creative performance. The employees’ results demonstrate that inspirational motivation (beta = .229), intellectual stimulation (beta = .217) and idealized influence (behaviour) (beta = .201) are the three most significant contributors to Omani employees’ creative performance.

The results for the transactional leadership subscales show that both managers and employees believed that contingent reward (beta = .280; .197 respectively) has more impact on employees’ creative performance than active management-by-exception (beta = .186; .191 respectively).

To put it differently, the Omani managers think that the creative performance of the Omani employees is affected by 34% if Omani managers practise individualized-consideration behaviour, followed by 31% for intellectual stimulation, 30% for idealized influence behaviour and 28% for exercising contingent reward facets of the transactional leadership styles. Employees, on the other hand, consider that if their managers exhibit inspirational motivation that will contribute 23% to their creative performance, followed by 22% for intellectual-stimulation behaviours, 20% for the behaviours of idealized influence, and 20% for contingent reward facets of the transactional leadership type.
### Table 8.9: The Multiple Regression Results (Coefficients ‘*’) for the Effect of Transformational Leadership Components on Employees’ Creative Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Full Range of Leadership Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transformational Leadership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers’ Results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.393</td>
<td>.312</td>
<td>4.465</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence (Attributes)</td>
<td>.314</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.300</td>
<td>5.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence (Behaviour)</td>
<td>.316</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.307</td>
<td>5.269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>.277</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.288</td>
<td>4.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>.364</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.309</td>
<td>5.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized Consideration</td>
<td>.364</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>5.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees’ Results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.139</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>21.107</td>
<td>3.864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence (Attributes)</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>2.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence (Behaviour)</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td>3.941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>.146</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>4.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>.155</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>4.280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized Consideration</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>3.602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transactional Leadership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers’ Results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.337</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td>9.641</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent Reward</td>
<td>.274</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>4.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management-By-Exception (Active)</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>3.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees’ Results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.242</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>9.641</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent Reward</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td>3.864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management-By-Exception (Active)</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>3.737</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Employees’ Creative Performance

Consistent with the results of this study, many researchers show that intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation are the components of the transformational leadership style that most enhance employees’ and organizations’ creativity and innovation. Jung et al., (2003) found that transformational leadership might affect creativity in two ways. Firstly, intellectually stimulating transformational leaders might encourage followers to think “outside of the box”; and, secondly, transformational leaders could increase followers’ intrinsic motivation, as opposed to the transactional leaders’ emphasis on extrinsic motivation.

Through intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders emphasize the importance of employees looking for new ways of doing things, encouraging synergies by working together, assigning employees to the tasks they are best suited for according to their skills, and encouraging employees to look for creative solutions by giving the task a meaning and employees the challenge to grow (Sosik, 1997, and Bass et al., 2003). According to Amabile (1997), inspirational motivation contributes towards employees’ intrinsic motivation, and is
recognized to be a powerful drive to search for creative ways of addressing changes in managerial processes, practices, or structures. Further, Hennessey and Amabile (1998) argued that intrinsic motivation is one of the most important sources of creativity. They stated that when an employee is intrinsically attracted to a task, he or she is more likely to focus on it and explore and experiment with it, and hence exhibit more creative behaviour. Indeed, empirical studies have also shown that when employees are intrinsically motivated, they exhibit more creative performance (for example, Tierney et al., 1999; Jaussi and Dionne, 2003).

Table 8.10: The Inter-Correlations Regression Results (Coefficients*) for the Effect of Transformational Leadership Behaviours on Employees’ Creative Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Idealized Influence</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Attributes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Idealized Influence</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.539**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Behaviours)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.465**</td>
<td>.592**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.472**</td>
<td>.593**</td>
<td>.596**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Individualized</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.470**</td>
<td>.562**</td>
<td>.582**</td>
<td>.691**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Contingent Reward</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.506**</td>
<td>.560**</td>
<td>.571**</td>
<td>.648**</td>
<td>.679**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Management by Exception (Active)</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>.284**</td>
<td>.332**</td>
<td>.363**</td>
<td>.368**</td>
<td>.396**</td>
<td>.529**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Management by Exception (Passive)</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>-.202**</td>
<td>-.237**</td>
<td>-.229**</td>
<td>-.232**</td>
<td>-.129*</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>-.104</td>
<td>-.259**</td>
<td>-.250**</td>
<td>-.250**</td>
<td>-.235**</td>
<td>-.159**</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.645**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Employees Creativity</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>.300**</td>
<td>.307**</td>
<td>.288**</td>
<td>.309**</td>
<td>.339**</td>
<td>.280**</td>
<td>.186**</td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Considering the importance of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation in enhancing employees’ creativity, the current study reveals that Omani managers believe that demonstrating individualized consideration will have more effect on employees’ creativity than other transformational leadership components. The study confirms in answering question two that Omani managers’ perceptions show that they exhibit individualized-consideration behaviours, and this finding is supported by interviewees’ opinions. Actually, through individualized consideration, managers develop employers’ abilities and skills by teaching and coaching, which will enhance employees’ self-efficacy (Bass and Bass, 2008). Based on Mumford and Gustafson (1988) and Redmond et al., (1993), individual feelings of self-efficacy
lead to higher creative performance. Employees with enhanced self-efficacy are more likely to be motivated to generate novel ideas and solutions. Moreover, since Oman is ranked as a culture that exhibits collectivist features (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007) and this study shows that employees value individualized-consideration behaviours, Omani managers are expected to have a moral responsibility to take care of their employees, to help them prepare a career development plan, to attend their birthday parties and funeral ceremonies, and to counsel employees about personal problems (Bass, 1990). In turn, employees in a collectivist culture have a moral obligation to reciprocate with unquestioning loyalty and obedience. Consequently, that will build emotional relationships, which might be another creativity-enhancing force, as emotional attachment is likely to lead to higher levels of creativity. That is, employees are more likely to respond to this leader’s challenge and support for innovation by exhibiting more creativity in their tasks, given their emotional ties with their leader (Zhang and Bartol, 2010b).

In short, the study illustrates that managers and employees believe that, out of the transformational leadership subscales, intellectual stimulation and idealized influence behaviour are the most significant contributors to Omani employees’ creative performance. However, Omani managers think that individualized-consideration behaviour is the most important of those two factors and has a critical contribution to employees’ creative performance. The results for the transactional leadership subscales show that both managers and employees believe that contingent reward has more impact on employees’ creative performance than active management-by-exception.

8.7 The Effect of Managers’ Personal Characteristics on their Perceptions Regarding Transformational Leadership Style and Employees’ Creative Performance

The literature demonstrates that managers’ personal characteristics play an important role in shaping their personality and have an influence on their behaviours. Studies show that managers’ level of performance is predicted based on their demographic variables (Howell et al., 2007; Hooijberg et al., 1997; and Hambrick and Mason, 1984). Therefore, the sixth question that this research attempts to answer is:

*RQ6: To what extent are managers’ perceptions of their own transformational leadership and employees’ creative performance influenced by their personal characteristics?*
The question is divided into two parts: the effect of managers’ personal characteristics (which are: gender, age, last educational qualification, and total work experience) on their perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours on the one hand and employees’ creative performance on the other.

In answering the first part, the study conducted multiple regression analysis to examine the effect of managers’ personal characteristics on their perceptions toward practising transformational leadership behaviours. The results are presented in Tables 8.11 and 8.12.

Based on Table 8.11, the results in the model summary exemplify that the managers’ background variables have an effect on managers’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours (R2 = .098, F = 5.746, p = 0.000 < 0.05). The results demonstrate that the managers’ personal variables account on average for approximately 10% of the variance in managers’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours.

Table 8.11: The Multiple Regression Results (the Model Summary and ANOVA) for the Effect of the Managers’ Personal Characteristics on their Perception towards Transformational Leadership Behaviours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>.314a</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>.48390</td>
<td>5.746</td>
<td>.000a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Last Educational Qualification and Total Work Experience
b. Dependent Variable: Transformational Leadership Behaviours

Table 8.12: The Beta Results of the Multiple Regression Results for the Effect of Managers’ Personal Characteristics on their Perception towards Transformational Leadership Behaviours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Characteristics</th>
<th>Transformational leadership</th>
<th>IIA</th>
<th>IIB</th>
<th>IS</th>
<th>IM</th>
<th>IC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>−.102</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>−.056</td>
<td>−.081</td>
<td>−.139</td>
<td>−.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>−.071</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last educational qualification</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td>.123*</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.215*</td>
<td>.117*</td>
<td>.143*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total work experience</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>−.087</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>−.020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig. p < 0.05

IIA: Idealized Influence Attributes; IIB: Idealized Influence Behaviours; IS: Intellectual Stimulation; IM: Inspirational Motivation; and IC: Individualized Consideration.

The regression analysis reported in Table 8.12 reveals that managers’ last educational qualification makes a statistically significant contribution to their perceptions towards transformational leadership behaviours (sig. = .05). The other results indicate that gender, age,
and total work experience do not contribute to managers’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours.

According to beta values, educational qualification has a medium positive effect on transformational leadership behaviours (beta = .201). In other words, the Omani managers’ perception toward transformational leadership behaviours is 20% affected by the level of their last educational qualification. That is, the higher the education level a manager has, the more that will affect his or her perception toward transformational leadership. Further, intellectual stimulation and the attributes of idealized influence seem to be the transformational leadership behaviours that are most affected by managers’ last educational qualification (beta = .215; .183 respectively).

The weak effect of managers’ personal characteristics on their perception regarding leadership style in general and transformational leadership behaviours in particular is supported by many studies’ findings. For example, in a study exploring leadership theory in two Arab Gulf states (Qatar and Kuwait), Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) assess the impact of the managers’ personal characteristics (for example age, education, and general and managerial work experience) on their perceptions of the traits/behaviours of successful leaders. The results show that personal characteristics have a minimal effect on the respondents’ perceptions of the leadership traits/behaviours that facilitate or hinder leadership success. Specifically, the results indicate that there are no significant main effects of all personal characteristics with the exception of one relationship. That is, the results indicated that after controlling for all other personal characteristics, age has a significant direct negative impact on the value assigned to traditional–tribalistic leadership as a determinant of leadership success. That is, the older the respondent, the more he sees a traditional–tribalistic style as an inhibitor of leaders’ success. Furthermore, Mujtaba et al., (2010) conducted a study examining the leadership tendencies of government employees in Oman toward task or relationship orientation based on age and gender. The study investigated 129 Omani government employees and found that gender and age did not produce any statistically significant differences in their perception toward leadership style regarding task or relationship orientation. Thus, the current study’s findings, which demonstrate that managers’ personal characteristics have a slight effect on their perception toward transformational leadership behaviours, add further support to the evidence in the literature
suggesting that Omani managers’ demographic characteristics have a minimal effect on their leadership style.

For transformational leadership style, Nguni (2005) conducted a study investigating the influence of head teachers’ personal characteristics on their perceptions toward demonstrating transformational leadership behaviours. The study results show that age is the only personal characteristic that correlates with transformational leadership components. Head teachers’ age was found to correlate negatively with an effect of 21% on intellectual stimulation. That is, when head teachers become older, their ability to create and innovate declines. Moreover, empirical evidence surrounding the role of gender in transformational leadership suggests that women might be more likely to engage in transformational leadership behaviours and be more effective transformational leaders than men. Specifically, women may be more likely than men to develop the kinds of relation-oriented and socio-emotional behaviours that are critical to the development of transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 2006).

In part two of the sixth study question, the study utilizes multiple regression analysis to examine the effect of managers’ perceptions toward employees’ creative performance. The results are illustrated in Tables 8.13 and 8.14.

The results of regression analysis as shown in Table 8.13 and Table 8.14 demonstrate that there are no significant differences among age, gender, qualifications, and experience for managers’ perceptions in relation to employees’ creative performance ($R^2 = .011$, $F = .594$, $P = .704$). Hence, we can conclude that Omani managers’ personal characteristics do not have any impact on their perceptions toward employees’ creative performance.

### Table 8.13: The Multiple Regression Results (the Model Summary and ANOVA*) for the Effect of Managers’ Personal Characteristics on their Perception towards Employees’ Creative Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>ANOVA*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Model Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>.106*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Last Educational Qualification and Total Work Experience  
  b. Dependent Variable: Employees’ Creative Performance
Table 8.14: The Beta Results of the Multiple Regression Results for the Effect of Managers’ Personal Characteristics on their Perception towards Employees’ Creative Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employees’ Creativity Performance</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.344</td>
<td>.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>–.025</td>
<td>.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last educational qualification</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total work experience</td>
<td>–.097</td>
<td>.078</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Employees’ Creative Performance

Supporting this finding, a study conducted by Reuvers et al., (2008) aimed to examine the moderating effect of managers’ and employees’ gender on their perception toward the relationship between transformational leadership and employee innovative work behaviour and found that neither the gender of the manager nor the gender of the employee have a significant direct effect on innovative work behaviour.

In general, the study finding suggests that there is a weak impact of managers’ personal characteristics on their perception toward transformational leadership behaviours and employees’ creative performance is supported by the opinions given in the interviews that this study conducted. For example, middle managers stated clearly that they believe creativity can be generated by any individual in the organization regardless of their differences in personal characteristics. In fact, these beliefs affected their perceptions toward employees’ creative performance and reflected no effect of their own personal characteristics on their views. Examples of their opinions are illustrated below.

“Our employees are creative, regardless of their gender, age, education level, or management level, but managers should believe in them. Managers should recognize that a creative idea could come from anyone in the organization regardless of his or her position. One of the good examples is the typewriter who suggested a creative way to develop a contract form. He made creative changes in the design of the contract form by using adjustment tools in Microsoft Word. That idea made the form simple and easy to use. The previous contract form was four pages long, whereas the new version was only two pages. I know that some managers could see this change as a very small one; however, this development idea saved a lot of effort, time, and money for our organization.” (Middle Manager-2)

“Based on what I saw, I strongly believe that our ‘individuals’ are creative, and I am calling them ‘individuals’, because creative ideas can be generated by male or
female, manager or cleaner, old or young. However, what prevent them from demonstrating their creativity are job stresses and the shortage in human resources.”

(Middle Manager-3)

In short, the study findings reveal that managers’ personal characteristics have only a slight effect on their perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours. This effect was only shown in managers’ educational qualification. The results demonstrate that Omani managers’ educational qualification has a medium positive effect on their perception toward transformational leadership behaviours. Intellectual stimulation and the attributes of idealized influence are found to be the transformational leadership behaviours that are most affected by managers’ last educational qualification. Further, the study illustrates that Omani managers’ personal characteristics (including age, gender, educational qualification, and total work experience) do not have any impact on their perceptions toward employees’ creative performance.

8.8 Conclusion

This study aims to determine the degree to which Full Range of Leadership styles are being performed by Omani managers to enhance employees’ creative performance. This chapter seeks to analyse the study’s findings and answer the six research questions based on the quantitative data that were collected. The quantitative results also supported the findings of the qualitative data that had been analysed.

The chapter was divided into six sections in order to answer the research questions. The study’s results show that Omani managers are practising transformational leadership and demonstrating transactional leadership behaviours. Both managers and employees perceived that Omani managers rarely practised the behaviours of passive/avoidant leadership. The study results reveal that managers believed that Omani managers demonstrate transformational and transactional leadership styles more than employees perceived.

Moreover, the results presented in this chapter have shown that there are statistically significant differences between managers’ and employees’ perceptions for all components of transformational leadership behaviours. Managers’ and employees’ opinions demonstrate that the attributes of idealized influence has the highest means among the components of transformational leadership style. Managers rated the intellectual-stimulation factor lowest, while
employees saw the individualized-consideration factor as the element of transformational leadership that is least exhibited by Omani managers. For transactional leadership behaviours, the results show that both managers and employees rated contingent reward as much higher than the active management-by-exception factor.

Additionally, the study confirms that managers and employees perceived that Omani employees perform in creative ways. Both target groups agreed that the ability for employees to exhibit creativity on the job when they are given the opportunity to do so is the most important quality that contributes to employees’ creative performance.

Likewise, the study has produced empirical results indicating that there is an overall statistically significant relationship between managers’ use of Full Range of Leadership styles and employees’ creative performance from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives. The results show that only transformational and transactional leadership are making a statistically significant contribution to employees’ creative performance. In addition, the results demonstrate that transformational leadership style appears to be the appropriate leadership approach for enhancing employees’ creative performance. Furthermore, the study found that transformational leadership augments transactional in predicting employees’ creative performance.

Regarding the effect of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours on employees’ creative performance, the study outcomes reveal that managers and employees believed that, out of the transformational leadership subscales, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and the behaviours of idealized influence are the most significant contributors to Omani employees’ creative performance. For transactional leadership subscales, the results illustrate that both managers and employees believed that contingent reward has more impact on employees’ creative performance than active management-by-exception.

Finally, taking into account the effect of managers’ personal characteristics on their perceptions, the study illustrates that managers’ personal characteristics do not have any impact on their perceptions toward employees’ creative performance and have only a slight effect on their perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours, and that effect was revealed in managers’ educational qualification.
Chapter Nine: Conclusion

9.1. Introduction

The study’s primary research interest is in the area of leadership and creativity. The aim was to enrich the leadership and creativity literature by investigating the degree to which the Full Range of Leadership styles influence employees’ creative performance. The Omani civil service sector was used as a case study and the aim was to investigate the degree to which Omani civil service managers practise the Full Range of Leadership types to enhance employees’ creative performance.

The study set six objectives which provided the foundation for the structure of the study and the way its research questions were formulated. To answer these questions, the study adopted a mixed-methods research approach by combining survey questionnaires with semi-structured interviews. This triangulation technique was utilized to enable more accurate investigation and allowed in-depth coverage of the issues examined. The probability sampling method as represented by the random sampling technique was adopted for this study and applied to the two groups of managers and employees. The total size of the managers’ sample was 269 participants, while the employees’ sample was 371 participants. In addition, 15 semi-structured interviews were conducted to supplement the quantitative results.

This chapter summarizes the study’s major findings and conclusion, illustrates the study’s contribution to knowledge, and reveals the practical implications of the study. Additionally, the chapter presents the limitations of this study and proposes directions for future researches.

9.2 Summary of the Major Findings and Conclusion

9.2.1 The Perceptions of Managers and Employees toward the Components of the Full Range of Leadership Styles

RQ1: To what extent do managers and employees in the Omani civil service sector perceive that Omani managers demonstrate the three types of the Full Range of Leadership model, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership? To what extent do they differ in their perceptions and what is the magnitude of the mean differences?
**Findings:** examining the perceptions of both managers and employees who work in the Omani civil service sector, the study results demonstrate that Omani managers are performing both transformational and transactional leadership styles, but they differ in the level of their practice. The results illustrate that both managers and employees believed that managers exhibit transformational leadership style more than transactional leadership. In addition, the results reveal that managers and employees both perceived that Omani managers rarely practised passive/avoidant leadership behaviours.

Further, the results display that in general, managers thought that Omani managers are performing the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours more than employees believed.

Evidently, this study adds further support to the literature regarding the domination of the effectiveness of transformational leadership over transactional leadership and other components of the Full Range of Leadership model as provided by many studies, such as Bass and Avolio (2004), Bass and Riggio (2006), and Bennett (2009). However, this study differs in that it used two methods of investigation (questionnaires and interviews), revealed the perspectives of two different groups (managers and employees), and was conducted in the civil service sector environment. Further, the study highlighted the Omani Islamic collectivist culture. While some studies such as Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001; Robertson et al., 2001; Shahin and Wright 2004; state that due to the hierarchically organized culture in the Middle East, which leads to the unwillingness of leaders to delegate and to consult their employees, transformational leadership may not work well. However, the study findings indicate this is not the case. The study’s results demonstrate that Omani managers are performing transformational styles. This supports the opinion that transformational leadership is a universally applicable, and not a culturally specific, concept (Bass 1997).

### 9.2.2 Managers and Employees’ Perceptions about the Components of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles

*RQ2: What is the relative significance of the components of transformational and transactional leadership of Omani managers from managers’ and employees’ perspectives?*
**Findings:** Essentially, the study’s results show that there are statistically significant differences from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives for all components of transformational and transactional leadership except for the active management-by-exception factor.

The findings demonstrate that the Omani managers as well as employees believed that attributes of idealized influence behaviours are the most commonly exhibited behaviour of managers’ transformational leadership style. Specifically, both groups strongly believed that a manager who “acts in ways that build respect for others” is the most important feature of idealized influence attributes for a manager to demonstrate. In contrast, managers thought that “instilling pride in others for being associated with him/her” is a lower ranked idealized influence attribute for managers to display as transformational leadership, while employees believed that managers’ quality of “going beyond self-interest for the good of the group” is less important than other idealized influence attributes. Regarding transactional leadership behaviours, the results indicate that both groups rated contingent reward as much higher than the active management-by-exception behaviours.

Therefore, it can be concluded that managers as well as employees value the ability of Omani managers to behave in ways that allow employees to build confidence and trust in them by practising socialized charisma. From their points of view, Omani managers are highly motivated, and thus they are influencing their employees. They serve as role models; therefore, their employees emulate them. By rating idealized influence attributes as higher among the transformational behaviours, both groups believed that Omani employees feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect for their managers.

### 9.2.3 Managers and Employees’ Perceptions about Employees’ Creative Performance

**RQ3:** To what degree do managers and employees think that employees working in the Omani civil service sector are creative? And to what extent do they differ in their perceptions of employees’ creative performance?

**Findings:** the study outcomes indicate that Omani managers as well as employees believed that Omani employees are creative. However, the results show that there is a
statistically significant difference for managers’ and employees’ perceptions toward employees’ creative performance. The study reveals that employees thought that Omani employees are performing in creative ways slightly more than managers believed.

The results indicate that employees’ ability to “demonstrate creativity on the job when they are given the opportunity to do so” is the most important behaviour that contributes to the Omani employees’ creative performance.

Essentially, the information gained from the interviews supports and complements the quantitative results as well as providing a deep investigation of the Omani employees’ creative performance. The interviews show that Omani employees continue to seek any new working methods, techniques, or instruments to develop their work tasks. They attempt to suggest new ways to enhance their performance, especially those ideas that relate to quality improvement. Additionally, interviewees indicated that employees are trying to come up with creative solutions to their work’s problems. Furthermore, some interviewees emphasized that personal characteristics of employees are not that important when it come to creativity, since they believe that “individuals” are creative regardless of their gender, age, management level, or education level.

In spite of the aforementioned results, the enhancement process of the employees’ creative performance faces some obstacles. From an administrative point of view, the responses reveal that employees are not promoting their ideas effectively, and thus the administrations are not taking these new ideas seriously. Respondents emphasized that employees bring their new ideas to administration verbally without any written proposal. Moreover, respondents believed that Omani employees are not sharing their ideas with others so they could get support and at the same time could serve as good role models for creativity. Interviewees highlighted that employees need to learn how to mobilize support for their new ideas in order for administration to accept and implement them. Thus, Omani employees need to obtain communication skills to make important members of administration enthusiastic for their creative ideas. In fact, this challenge was supported by the quantitative results, which show that the employees graded their ability to promote and champion their new and novel ideas as the lowest level characteristic that contributed to their creative performance.

The second difficulty is represented by the Omani employees, who mentioned that the Omani workplace environment is not supporting creativity. Interviewees revealed that any new
ideas face inadequate support from top management. They believed that the administration should judge any new ideas fairly and constructively. Additionally, interviewees emphasized the critical role that managers play and stated that Omani managers should put more effort into enhancing employees’ creative performance. Furthermore, they strongly agreed that any creative works need rewards and recognition. Those rewards should be both tangible and intangible. Respondents also highlighted the importance of implementing a delegation mechanism to stimulate employees’ creativity. They state that managers should trust employees and give them the autonomy to decide what work to do and how to do it. In addition, the interviewees explained that if managers want to improve the creative performance of their employees, they should give them challenging work that will enable them to explore their creativity. Further, they pointed out that those creative ideas need sufficient resources to emerge and to be implemented.

9.2.4 The Relationship between Full Range of Leadership Styles and Employees’ Creative Performance

*RQ4: Is there a relationship between Full Range of Leadership behaviours and employees’ creative performance?*

**Findings:** The evidence from this study indicated that there is an overall statistically significant relationship between Omani managers’ use of Full Range of Leadership styles and their employees’ creative performance from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives. Indeed, the results of this study have shown that transformational and transactional leadership are making a statistically significant contribution to employees’ creative performance from both perspectives, whereas passive/avoidant leadership is not. Specifically, the study demonstrates that transformational leadership appears to be the appropriate leadership approach for enhancing employees’ creative performance. Statistically, the Omani managers believed that the creative performance of the Omani employees is affected by 38% if the Omani managers practise transformational leadership behaviours, while employees thought that if their managers exhibit transformational leadership behaviours that will contribute 20% to their creative performance.

Further, the study’s findings add valuable evidence to the literature demonstrating that the transformational leadership style augments the transactional leadership style in predicting employees’ creative performance in civil service sectors. Hence, it can be concluded that Omani
managers should employ transformational leadership characteristics to build upon (or augment) transactional leadership characteristics in a way that provides a full range of skills that might be implemented daily in the workplace to enhance the Omani employees’ creative performance.

**9.2.5 The Effect of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Components on Employees’ Creative Performance**

*RQ5: What is the effect of transformational and transactional leadership components on employees’ creative performance?*

**Findings:** Unexpectedly, the literature shows that transformational leaders influence their employees’ creativity through intellectual-stimulation behaviour; however, from Omani managers’ and employees’ opinions, individual consideration and inspirational motivation are the most important behaviours that encourage Omani employees’ creative performance.

Thus, according to Omani managers’ perspectives, in order for Omani managers to encourage their employees’ creative performance, they should, for example: recognize their employees’ needs and desires; accept their differences on the basis of their talents and knowledge and treat them individually; and provide them with creative learning opportunities in a supportive climate. The Omani employees’ results demonstrate that for Omani managers to significantly contribute to the Omani employees’ creative performance, they should: motivate and inspire employees by providing meaning and challenge to what they do; talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished; and express confidence that goals will be achieved. Furthermore, the results for the transactional leadership subscales show that both managers and employees believed that contingent reward has more impact on employees’ creative performance than active management-by-exception.
9.2.6 The Effect of Managers’ Personal Characteristics on their Perceptions toward Transformational Leadership Behaviours and Employees’ Creative Performance

RQ6: To what extent are managers’ perceptions of their own transformational leadership and employees’ creative performance influenced by their personal characteristics?

Findings: Overall, the results of the study suggest that managers’ personal characteristics have a slight effect on managers’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours. The results show that the Omani managers’ personal characteristics account on average for approximately 10% of the difference in managers’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours.

Specifically, the study confirms that Omani managers’ last educational qualification makes a statistically significant contribution to their perceptions towards transformational leadership behaviours. That is, the higher the education level of the manager, the more that will affect his or her perception toward transformational leadership. Further, intellectual stimulation and the attributes of idealized influence seem to be the transformational leadership behaviours that are most affected by managers’ last educational qualification. Other results suggested that gender, age, and total work experience do not contribute to managers’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours.

Regarding employees’ creativity, the study illustrates that Omani managers’ personal characteristics (including age, gender, educational qualifications, and total work experience) do not have any impact on their perceptions toward employees’ creative performance.

9.3 Contribution to Knowledge
The study aims to bridge gaps in knowledge in different aspects. Actually, there are several areas to which this study adds value and contributes significantly to knowledge. In the global context, studies have indicated that leadership behaviour is basically one of the most significant factors that encourage employees’ creativity (for example: Amabile et al., 2004, and Mumford et al., 2002). Although the relationship between leadership and creativity has been studied by many researchers, scholars illustrate that research on the impact of specific leadership styles, such as
transformational and transactional leadership, on employees’ creative performance is very limited (for example: Amabile et al., 2004, and Mumford et al., 2002). Pieterse et al., (2010) found that there is insufficient literature investigating the role of the transformational leadership style in encouraging employees’ creativity. Therefore, in general, the results of this study add to the growing body of literature on the field of leadership and creativity. The study confirms that transformational and transactional leadership styles influence employees to perform in creative ways. The findings of the study have empirically demonstrated that individual consideration and inspirational motivation are the most important transformational leadership behaviours that influence Omani employees’ creative performance.

Parallel to the field research, the study attempted to fill in an existing gap in the Omani literature. Researchers who studied related topics (e.g. Tabook, 2001; Al-Mandhri, 2003; Al-Harmi, 2003; Al-Kalbany, 2007; and Common, 2011) confirm that the theme of leadership and its effects on creativity in the Omani context has received very little attention and needs a further and deeper investigation.

By investigating the Omani researches, the study concluded that most of those researchers examined leadership and creativity either separately (for example, Tabook, 2001, and Al-Mandhri, 2003); used a different leadership model to the Full Range of Leadership (for example, Al-Kalbany, 2007; Al-Asmi, 2008; and Mujtaba et al., 2010); studied the creative process, not the behaviour (for example, Al-Harmi, 2003); or were carried out in a specific field, for instance education (for example, Al-Mandhri, 2003, and Analoui et al., 2010). Therefore, what sets this study apart from others is that it intensively explores the role of the Full Range of Leadership model and its relation to employees’ creative performance in the Omani civil service sector environment. Indeed, the study widens the scope of investigation to include samples from several governmental sectors such as manpower, health, finance, education, tourism, and housing. In addition, with regard to the Omani government’s trend of continuous development, the results and recommendations suggested by this study provide valuable knowledge for Omani decision makers so that they can enrich their agenda in designing programmes to develop their managers’ leadership skills and enhance their employees’ creative behaviours.

Another contribution of this study is that it investigated leadership and creativity from two perspectives and employed two different research methods. The study evaluated the extent to which Omani managers exhibit Full Range of Leadership styles from managers’ opinions as a
self-assessment and from employees’ views as a subordinate assessment. In contrast, employees evaluated employees’ creative performance as a self-assessment and the degree to which their managers practise Full Range of Leadership styles as a subordinate assessment. In terms of methodology, this study adopted a mixed-methods research approach. The triangulation of survey and interview methods of data collection with the analysis of documentary data greatly adds to the reliability of the findings. It allows a more sophisticated understanding of the complex interplay between the various factors of leadership and creativity phenomena that has been investigated. The interviews conducted provided useful in-depth information and explanations for the results obtained from the questionnaires and gave the analysis strength and the findings extra reliability.

Moreover, the majority of studies in the literature available were undertaken in the private sector environment; however, those researches raised the question of whether there is a relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance in governmental workplaces. For example, according to Wart (2003), leaders in public sector organizations may adopt different behaviours compared with leaders in private sector organizations because these organizations afford their managers different amounts of discretion. Therefore, scholars such as Ackerley (2006) recommend that this relationship should be examined with different samples, such as government leaders and administrators. Hence, the strength of this study is that the results add to a growing body of literature on the role of transformational leadership in enhancing employees’ creative performance in the civil service sector, where organizational systems, regulations, and culture are different from other sectors.

Another contribution of the study is that it investigates the relationship between leadership and creativity in Omani culture. Jones et al., (2003) demonstrate that leadership styles differ among individuals as well as cultures and countries. However, Common (2011) point out that there are few studies of the concept of leadership in the Arab Gulf states in general and the Sultanate of Oman in particular, and that the area needs more investigation. This conclusion is also supported by Dorfman and House (2004), who argue that leadership studies in Oman are almost non-existent due to the inherent difficulty of conducting organizational research.

Actually, most empirical investigations on the effects of transformational leadership have been concentrated in Western countries rather than in for example the Arab world. This study thus continues and expands this line of inquiry by examining the influence of transformational
and transactional leadership on employees’ creative performance in non-Western societies and cultures by exploring the Omani culture. The results confirm Bass’s claims (1985 and 1998) about the universality of the transformational and transactional leadership paradigms across different nations and societies. Bass suggested that the same conception of phenomena and relationships can be observed in a wide range of organizations and cultures in different parts of the world. He argued that when exceptions to the generalizations occur, they are usually circumstances explained by the peculiarities of the organizations and cultures (Bass, 1996). The findings of the study add testimony to the fact that in spite of cultural differences across nations and continents, transformational and transactional leadership is not necessarily confined to the Western world.

Further, the study examined a body of literature that covers the various perspectives from some theorists and writers concerning the Omani leadership style. The purpose of this investigation is to understand the factors that shape the Omani leadership style to enrich the Omani leadership literature. Considering the unique context of Omani culture, the study reveals that there are five factors which shape the Omani leadership style in the civil service sector: the Islamic religion, tribalism, political leadership, national culture, and the effect of national institutions. For example, the study agreed with Al-Hamadi et al., finding (2007) that Islam is the first factor that plays a vital role in influencing human resources management in Oman. Muslim leaders extract their leadership criteria primarily from the Qur’an, Sunnah, jurisprudence, and the biography of the Prophet Mohammad’s (PBUH) companions. Understanding that, Omani leaders as practising Muslims expect to believe that Islam’s teachings discourage the centralization of authority and power in one leader’s hands; however, Islam encourages distribution of responsibilities based on individuals’ qualities and sharing power through delegation (Jabnoun, 1994). In fact, such a finding provides a basis for Omani management on how leadership may be developed and adapted in the Omani civil service sector workplace environment according to the characteristics of the Omani culture.

Finally, as mentioned earlier, no research studies have systematically examined the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance in the Omani civil service sector. Therefore, we now have at least some knowledge and we can utilize this information, which arises out of the findings of the study, to develop
general strategies for improving managers’ leadership training programmes as illustrated in the practical implications section.

9.4 Practical Implications of this Study

Besides adding knowledge to the existing body of literature, the results of the study have a number of practical implications. Essentially, the changes in the world affect the Omani civil service sector workplace; therefore, in order for managers to succeed in such a changeable environment, they require a high level of skills and new competences. According to Yukl (2009), as the need for new leadership skills and competencies increases, leadership training and development programmes are becoming more important than ever before. Hence, this study suggests that civil service sector policy makers should design leadership training and development programmes for Omani managers to develop their transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. However, policy makers who will be responsible for designing the programmes should consider the distinction between existing practising managers who are already well experienced in management, and the type of training programmes designed to prepare and train prospective and aspiring managers. Apparently, the existing practising managers would need more training in transformational leadership behaviours, which will add on to the already existing knowledge of transactional leadership, which is already known and being practised by these current practising managers. In contrast, prospective managers (or what the respondents called in the interviews “second line leaders”) would need extensive training in both transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. Therefore, training programmes for aspiring managers should be designed systematically in the sense that they start learning about transactional leadership behaviours first, followed by training in transformational leadership behaviours.

It is worth mentioning that for such leadership training and development programmes to succeed, policy makers in the civil service sector should consider three significant issues: firstly, those kinds of programmes should build on clear long-term strategies and development plans aiming to increase government managers’ leadership skills and develop their abilities to reach their maximum performance. Secondly, the policy makers should introduce the leadership programmes simultaneously with promotions and reward programmes, to encourage those managers to fully participate and get real benefit from such programmes. Thirdly, leadership
training and development programmes should have effective evaluation measurements. Thus, such programmes should link to the managers’ appraisal and be one of the measurement items in evaluating managers’ performance so that managers will take them seriously. At the same time, passing those programmes should be one of the requirements for promoting any employee to a higher management position. Therefore, the framework for leadership training and development programmes will be: future oriented, suitably designed, supported with rewards and promotions, and have real evaluation measurements.

Another implication for the study is that, according to the study’s results gained from the interviews, the Omani government should review and improve some of its policies and systems. For civil service administrations, the study demonstrates that managers in Omani civil service agencies have a very limited influence over their employees because of the limited power and authority that they have. According to the interviews, Omani managers do not have the authority to give tangible rewards such as bonuses and promotions. They also do not have the right to give any employees promises that they will distribute bonuses; thus, the policy of authority distribution needs to be re-evaluated and developed. The bottom line is that, without adequate authority, autonomy, and resources, managers will face obstacles in completing the organization’s objectives. Additionally, the government’s promotion and recruitment systems need improvement. The mechanisms and methods of selecting people in leadership positions must be reviewed and reassessed. The promotion process for leadership positions should follow specific concrete criteria, so that all candidates for the position enter a fair competition in which the most suitable leader will be chosen. Those criteria should concentrate on individuals’ knowledge, work experience, and personal attitudes and behaviours.

Certainly, training is not the only path to develop Omani leadership skills. According to some of the interviewees who were interviewed for this study, the government should work hard to transform its agencies into learning organizations. These views are supported by the findings of a study by Analoui et al., (2010), who argued that Omani senior managers ought to establish a learning environment to foster transformational leadership. Applying Senge’s definition (2006) of learning organizations, the Omani government should encourage their managers to continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where knowledge is sharing and managers learn from each other; where managers develop their ways of thinking; and where
people are continually learning how to learn together. This will prepare the infrastructure for establishing a supportive environment for both leadership and creativity.

The study additionally examines the Omani employees’ creative performance. It confirms that creative performance of employees is an important resource in the quest of the Omani civil service organizations to improve the quality of products and/or services, and, ultimately, to create and sustain competitive advantage. However, as we mentioned before, the development process of the Omani employees’ creative performance faces some obstacles. To fulfil those challenges, the study suggests two main practical implications for both Omani government and Omani organizations’ administrations interested in promoting employee creativity.

Firstly, administrations ought to foster a creative culture in agencies, and managers should lead the deployment of this new culture. The new creative culture could include, for instance, providing knowledge that influences and supports creativity, encouraging any new ideas, rewarding publicly the team members who accomplished creative projects, and emphasizing the importance of searching for creative solutions to department’s problems.

Secondly, the Omani government needs to develop a unified creative management system within and between all government agencies aiming to encourage employees’ creative performance. The declaration of such a system should be consolidated by the Omani policy makers. The creative management system aims to provide an efficient managing system directing and organizing the flow of creative ideas in the government organizations. Actually, the system would make it easy for managers to encourage, reward, monitor, and evaluate employees’ creative performance; otherwise, the development of employees’ creative performance will be only an individual effort and not a constant system.

9.5 Limitations of this Study

Despite the useful contributions of the study, it is clear that this research study had four limitations. Firstly, the scope of the study is limited to Omani organizations which follow the law of civil service. This means that organizations which come under a different law, or are private organizations were not included. The study does not include, for example, independent public corporations and enterprises or the military and police agencies. In the same context, the study does not investigate the Omani private sector, which has its own laws and regulations. Therefore, the study results cannot be generalized to other Omani public organizations or the private sector.
However, this limitation does not diminish the significance of this study, and that is because the results of the study substantiate the outcomes of most of the studies that investigate the relationship between leadership and creativity.

The second limitation is that not all agencies who participated in the survey participated in the interviews. However, the interview guides designed to include open-ended questions cover all the points investigated in the survey which, to some extent, compensated for this particular limitation.

Thirdly, although analyses provided support for the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees’ creative performance, the study design precluded the demonstration of any causal relationships. The study design was a cross-sectional survey design rather than an experimental design, so that causality could only be inferred. Because data were collected at one point in time, the direction of causality of the relationships examined in this study is not certain. However, this is a common issue in survey research and a limitation to acknowledge. An experimental design would have provided a more robust test of the hypothesized causal relationship, but such research in the leadership field is relatively rare (Lu, 2006).

Finally, the topic of this study was administratively sensitive because of the lack of survey culture in Oman, since it assesses the managers’ leadership skills and employees’ creative performance. That in turn necessitated a diplomatic and understanding approach from the researcher’s side, particularly in relation to gaining access and obtaining the appropriate in-depth data. Although the participants in the study contributed and interacted with the study’s instruments positively and seriously, care must be taken to interpret the study’s outcomes in a constructive manner if they are to be useful in reshaping policy and practice in the Omani civil service sector.

9.6 Directions for Future Research

Based on the results of the study, additional research is needed to enhance the understanding of the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance. Obviously, the scope of this study is limited in sector and culture. The participants were from only one sector in one country. Further research therefore needs to extend sampling to
other organizational sectors and cultural groups. Considering Oman as a case study, the study suggests that researchers examine the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance in the Omani private sector. Further researches could draw on the findings of this study as a basis for conducting a comparison study between public and private sectors in the same field. Also, investigating the literature, the study found five factors influencing the leadership style in Oman; therefore, further research needs to examine and analyse more factors. Future researchers could consider for instance the influences of socialization process, management administration system, expatriate workforce, social elite, and government regulations on Omani leadership style. Additionally, future research might focus on the effect of mediating variables that underlie the leadership and creativity relationship or could study factors that moderate this relationship. Researchers might examine some potential mediating/moderating variables such as psychological empowerment, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, organizational culture, the availability of resources, and gender on the relationship between the Full Range of Leadership model and employees’ creative performance. This would enable researchers to know the explanatory value of the mediating and moderating role of different variables in this relationship. For instance, data were gathered within four Australian hospitals by Reuvers et al., (2008), who found that employees report more innovative behaviour when transformational leadership is displayed by male managers in comparison with female managers. Thus, the researchers could investigate this moderating effect on other cultures, using other samples and working in other fields.

Furthermore, this study investigates creativity at an individual level; however, literature confirms that leadership is recognized to be one of the most important factors that affect organizational creativity (Andriopoulos, 2001, and Wang Casimir, 2007). Therefore, further research might examine the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership at the organizational level.

### 9.7 Overall Study Conclusion

This study aims to investigate the relationship between leadership – specifically the Full Range of Leadership model – and employees’ creative performance. Examining this relationship in different cultures and various fields is strongly encouraged by many researches and studies.
Accordingly, the study strategy and methodology were designed in a way that points towards the achievement of the study objectives. Taking Oman as a case study, the overall objective of this study, which was to determine the degree to which Full Range of Leadership styles are being performed by managers to enhance employees’ creative performance in the Omani civil service sector, has been achieved? The study found that Omani managers are performing transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. Examining the relationship, the study confirms that there is an overall statistically significant relationship between managers’ use of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours and employees’ creative performance from both managers’ and employees’ perspectives. The results show that only transformational and transactional leadership are making a statistically significant contribution to employees’ creative performance. Both managers and employees perceived that Omani managers are rarely practising passive/avoidant leadership behaviour and that it is not contributing to the employees’ creative performance. Further, the study reveal that Omani managers’ personal characteristics (including age, gender, educational qualifications, and total work experience) have a slight effect on managers’ perceptions toward transformational leadership behaviours and do not have any impact on their perceptions toward employees’ creative performance.
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The Holly Qur’an. *Chapter 4, Surat An-Nisa, Verse 59*.

The Holly Qur’an. *Chapter 21, Surat Al-Anbya, Verse 73*.


Appendices

Appendix A: The Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

May I please ask for your help by participating in a study that I am currently undertaking as part of my PhD thesis at the University of Manchester (UK). The study aims to investigate the relationship between the full range of leadership styles and employees' creativity performance in Omani civil service organizations. Your responses are important in enabling me to obtain as full an understanding as possible of this topical issue.

The questionnaire should take you about five to ten minutes to complete. Please answer all the questions based on the questionnaire scale provided. You will notice that you are not asked to include your name or address anywhere on the questionnaire. The answers from your questionnaire will be kept confidential and will be used as the main data set for my research.

I hope that you will find completing the questionnaire enjoyable. Please return the completed questionnaire to me. If you have any questions or would like to further information, please do not hesitate to telephone me on 95654415 or email me at mfx002@yahoo.com.

I look forward to your early response and would like to thank you for your kind cooperation.

Yours sincerely,
Mohammed Al-Araimi (Researcher)
Section One: Personal Information

Please indicate your answer with a tick (✓) based on the most appropriate choice to each of the following variables.

1. **Gender:**
   [ ] Male
   [ ] Female

2. **Age:**
   [ ] Below 25 years
   [ ] From 25 to under 35 years
   [ ] From 35 to under 45 years
   [ ] 45 years and over

3. **Last educational qualification:**
   [ ] Below high school certificate
   [ ] High school certificate
   [ ] Intermediate college diploma
   [ ] Bachelor degree
   [ ] Masters degree
   [ ] PhD degree

4. **Total work experience** (Since you have started your work life)
   [ ] Less than five years
   [ ] 5 years to less than 10 years
   [ ] 10 years to less than 15 years
   [ ] 15 years and over
Section Two: Full Range of leadership behaviours

Dear manager,

Please indicate to what extent do you typically engage in following behaviours? Please put (√) in the most choose that best represent your opinion from the following statements. The questionnaire using the following rating scale:

1 2 3 4 5
Not at all Once in a while Sometimes Fairly often Frequently, if not always

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<th>No</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I instill pride in others for being associated with me</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>I act in ways that build others’ respect for me</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>I display a sense of power and confidence</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>I talk about my most important values and beliefs</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>I talk optimistically about the future</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>I articulate a compelling vision of the future</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>I express confidence that goals will be achieved</td>
<td></td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate</td>
<td></td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>I seek differing perspectives when solving problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I get others to look at problems from many different angles</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I encourage employees to apply new processes even if there is a risk of not succeeding</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>I accept employees’ ideas even if they are different than to my ideas</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>I encourage employees to search for and apply new ideas to develop their work</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>I encourage employees’ creativity through not publicly criticizes their mistakes</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I spend time teaching and coaching</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>I provide learning-and-development environment</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>I help others to develop their strengths</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets</td>
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</table>
28 I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved
29 I express satisfaction when others meet expectations
30 I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards
31 I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures
32 I keep track of all mistakes
33 I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards
34 I fail to interfere until problems become serious
35 I wait for things to go wrong before taking action
36 I believe that things in my organization should not be change unless problems occur
37 I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action
38 I avoid getting involved when important issues arise
39 I am absent when needed
40 I avoid making decisions
41 I delay responding to urgent questions

Section Three: Employee Creativity Performance

The questions listed below ask you about your employee creativity performance as you perceive it. Please indicate how often the following statements characterize his or her performance. Please put (✔) in the most often that best represent your opinion from the following statements.

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>My employees suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>My employees comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>My employees searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>My employees suggests new ways to increase quality</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>My employees took risks in terms of producing new ideas in doing job</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>My employees promotes and champions ideas to others</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>My employees exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>My employees develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>My employees comes up with creative solutions to problems</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>My employees often has a fresh approach to problems</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>My employees suggests new ways of performing work tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>My employees found new uses for existing methods or equipment</td>
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Appendix B: The Interviewer’s Guides

Dear Manager,

May I please ask for your help by participating in a study that I am currently undertaking as part of my PhD thesis at the University of Manchester (UK). The study aims to investigate the relationship between the full range of leadership styles and employees' creativity in Omani civil service organizations.

As you are one of the key figures in the Omani Civil Service Sector, I believe that your knowledge and experience make a remarkable contribution in enabling me to obtain as full an as possible understanding of the real relationship between leadership behaviours and employees' creativity in the Omani Civil Service Sector.

Therefore, I seek your kind acceptance to an interview with you to benefit from your views and enrich my research. If you agree, please inform me when you would like to give me an interview appointment on 95654415 or Email: mfx002@yahoo.com

I look forward to your early response and would like to thank you for your kind cooperation.

Yours sincerely,
Mohammed Al-Araimi (Researcher)
Guiding Questions for Interviewing Session
(Participant Copy)

Part One: Questions regarding the Full Range of Leadership Model

Question 1: To what extent do you think that managers attempt to build confidence and trust and provide role modelling for their employee so they will seek to emulate him or her?

Question 2: To what extent do you think that managers are willing to take personal risks? And, are they consistent in their decision making and behaviour?

Question 3: To what extent do you think that middle managers inspire employees around them by providing meaning and challenge to their work?

Question 4: To what extent do you think that middle managers stimulate their employees' effort to be innovative and creative when solving their day to day problems?

Question 5: From your point of view, to what extent do middle level managers give personal attention to their employees, by treating their employees individually and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge?

Question 6: To what extent do you think that the relationship between managers and employees is an exchange relationship where the manager provides rewards in exchange for the employee getting work done?

Question 7: To what extent would you describe the relationship between manager and employee as the following: avoids responsibility, fails to make decisions, is absent when needed, or fails to follow up on requests.

Part Two: Questions regarding employee creativity performance

Question 8: What is your assessment of the creativity performance of the Omani employee working in the Omani civil service sector Organizations?

Part Three: Questions regarding the relationship between the manager’s leadership style and employee’s creativity performance

Question 9: Could you describe the relations between leadership style and employee creativity in Omani civil service Organizations?

Part Four: Questions regarding their general recommendations to develop the manager’s leadership style to encourage employee creativity performance

Question 10: Would you like to recommend any suggestions that may enhance and develop the Omani manager who works in the Omani civil service Organizations leadership style to enhance their employee creativity performance?

Thank you for your time and for taking part in this interview.
Guiding Questions for Interviewing Session
(Researcher Copy)

Part One: Questions regarding the Full Range of Leadership Model

벽 Transformational Leadership - Idealized Influence (Attributed) (IA)

Q1. To what extend do you think that managers attempt to building confidence and trust and provide a role model for their employee so they seek to emulate him or her?

- **Points to be covered**
  a. The middle manager instils pride in the employee for being associated with him/her
  b. The middle manager goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group
  c. The middle manager acts in a way that builds employee respect
  d. The middle manager displays a sense of power and confidence

벽 Transformational Leadership - Idealized Influence (Behaviour) (IB)

Q2. To what extent do you think that managers are willing to take personal risks? And, are they consistent in their decision making and behaviour? **Points to be covered**

- a. The middle manager talks about his/her most important values and beliefs
- b. The middle manager specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose
- c. The middle manager considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions
- d. The middle manager emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission

벽 Transformational Leadership - Inspirational Motivation (IM)

Q3. To what extend do you think that middle managers inspire employee around them by providing meaning and challenge to their work?

- **Points to be covered**
  a. The middle manager talks optimistically about the future
  b. The middle manager talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished
  c. The middle manager articulates a compelling vision of the future
  d. The middle manager expresses confidence that goals will be achieved

벽 Transformational Leadership - Intellectual Stimulation (IS)

Q4. To what extend do you think that middle managers stimulate their employees' effort to be innovative and creative when solving their day to day problems?

- **Points to be covered**
  a. The middle manager re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate
  b. The middle manager seeks different perspectives when solving problems
  c. The middle manager helps me look at problems from many different angles
  d. The middle manager suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments
e. The middle manager encourage employees to apply new processes even if there is a risk of failure
f. The middle manager accepts employees' ideas even if they are different to my ideas
g. The middle manager encourages employees to search and apply new ideas to develop their work
h. The middle manager encourage employees' creativity through not publicly criticizing their mistakes

Transformational Leadership - Individual Consideration (IC)
Q5. From your point of view, to what extend do middle level managers gives personal attention to their employees, and treat their employees individually and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge?

Points to be covered
a. The middle manager spends time teaching and coaching
b. The middle manager provides a learning and development environment
c. The middle manager treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group
d. The middle manager considers me to have different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others
e. The middle manager helps me to develop my strengths

Transactional Leadership - Contingent Reward (CR)
Q6. To what extent do you think that the relationship between manager and employee is an exchange relationship, where the manager provides rewards in exchange for the employee getting work done.

Points to be covered
a. The middle manager provides me with assistance in exchange for my effort
b. The middle manager discusses issues specifically with whomever is responsible for achieving performance targets
c. The middle manager makes it clear what I can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved
d. The middle manager expresses satisfaction after I've met his/her expectations

Transactional Leadership - Management-by-Exception (Active) (MBEA)
Q7. To what extend do you think that middle managers closely monitor employees' performance and keep track of mistakes?

Points to be covered
a. The middle manager focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards
b. The middle manager concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures
c. The middle manager keeps track of all mistakes
d. The middle manager directs my attention toward failures to meet standards
Passive/Avoidant Leadership - Management-by-Exception (Passive) (MBEP)
Q8. To what extent do you think that middle managers may not be aware of problems until informed by others and generally fail to intervene until serious problems occur?

Points to be covered
a. The middle manager fails to interfere until problems become serious
b. The middle manager waits for things to go wrong before taking action
c. The middle manager believes that things in my organization should not be changed unless problems occur
d. The middle manager demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action

Passive/Avoidant Leadership - Laissez-faire Leadership (LF)
Q9. To what extent would you describe the relationship between manager and employee as: avoids responsibility, fails to make decisions, is absent when needed, or fails to follow up on requests.

Points to be covered
a. The middle manager avoids getting involved when important issues arise
b. The middle manager is absent when needed
c. The middle manager avoids making decisions
d. The middle manager delays responding to urgent questions

Part Two: Questions regarding employee creative performance

Question 8: What is your assessment of the creativity performance of the Omani employee who works in the Omani civil service sector organizations?

Part Three: Questions regarding the relationship between manager leadership style and employee creativity performance

Question 9: Could you describe the relations between leadership style and employee creativity in Omani civil service organizations?

Part Four: Questions regarding their general recommendations to develop the manager’s leadership style to encourage employees creative performance

Question 10: Would you like to recommend any suggestions that may enhance and develop the Omani manager who works in the Omani civil service organizations leadership style to enhance their employee creativity performance?
Appendix C: Permission to Use MLQ

For use by Mohammed AlAralmi only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on January 13, 2011
Permission for Mohammed AlAralmi to reproduce 500 copies within one year of January 13, 2011

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Instrument (Leader and Rater Form)
and Scoring Guide
(Form 5X-Short)

by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Published by Mind Garden, Inc.
info@mindgarden.com
www.mindgarden.com

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Appendix D: Permission to Use the 13-Items Scale

Dear Mohammed,

Yes, you have my permission to use the scale in your study. Best of luck with your research.

Regards,
Jennifer George

Dear Jennifer M. George,

My name is Mohammed Al-Araimi; I am a PhD student in Manchester University School of Environment and Development, Institute for Development Policy and Management. I am investigating the relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ creativity in Omani civil service organizations: a field study of Omani civil service middle managers. I intend to use the 13- item scale that you and Zhou developed to measure creativity (as included in the following reference: George, J. M., and Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: An interactional approach. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86(3):513). It is my pleasure to ask your permission to reuse the scale in my study. Your acceptance will be valuable to my study.

With best regards,
Mohammed Al-Araimi
REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN ASSESSMENT OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleague,

I am writing to request your help in "assessing" the enclosed Questionnaire, which is part of a data collection pertaining to a PhD study that I am currently undertaking at Manchester University in the Institute for Development Policy and Management. The study aims to investigate the relationship between the full range of leadership styles and employees' creativity in Omani Civil Service organizations. This questionnaire is aimed at eliciting the views and opinions of both managers and their employees regarding the Omani managers' leadership style and its relationship with employees' creativity.

Prior to distributing the questionnaire to the participating sample, it is important, first of all, to test its validly and reliability. This is where your input is required, based on your experiences. Thus, I am writing to request your assistance and cooperation in participating in evaluating the included questionnaires to develop it to become an appropriate tool for achieving the study’s objectives. You are kindly requested to carefully review it and write your comments about it on the enclosed "Questionnaire Assessing Form".

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Mohammed Fayal Saleh Al-Araimi

- If you have any query regarding the questionnaire, please feel free to contact me:
  Mobile: 95654415 or Email: mfx002@yahoo.com
Questionnaire Assessing Form

Assessor Personal information
Before your start evaluating the questionnaire could you please kindly fill in your personal information details:

Name:……………………………… Qualification:…………………………
Workplace:………………………. Job title:……………………………

The questionnaire's sections

Section One: Personal Information
Please indicate your answer with a tick (√) based on the most appropriate choice to each of the following variables.

1. Gender:
   [ ] Male [ ] Female

2. Age:
   [ ] Below 25 years [ ] From 25 to below 35 years
   [ ] From 35 to below 45 years [ ] 45 years and above

3. Last Educational Qualification:
   [ ] Below high school certificate [ ] High school certificate
   [ ] Intermediate college diploma [ ] Bachelor degree
   [ ] Masters degree [ ] PhD degree

4. Total Work Experience (Since you have started your work life)
   [ ] Less than five years [ ] 5 years to less than 10 years
   [ ] 10 years to less than 15 years [ ] 15 years and over

Introduction:

This study investigates the relationship between the Full Range Model of leadership on employees' creativity in Omani civil service organizations. The Full Range Leadership' model comprises transformational leadership, transactional leadership and the dimensions of laissez-faire'. Transactional leaders are those who exchanged tangible rewards for the work and loyalty of followers, whereas transformational leaders are those who engaged with followers, focused on
higher order intrinsic needs, and raised consciousness about the significance of specific outcomes and new ways in which those outcomes might be achieved.

Transformational leadership in the Full Range Leadership model comprises five dimensions: Idealized influence (Attributed), Idealized influence (Behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, comprises three dimensions: contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). A third dimension is laissez-faire, which is described as 'non-leadership'.

1: The First Dimension: Idealized influence (Attribute): Which refers to the socialized charisma of the leader, whereby the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect for the leader.

- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept of Idealized Influence (Attribute).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I instil pride in others for being associated with me</td>
<td>Command/s: ..................</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group</td>
<td>Command/s: ..................</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I act in ways that build others’ respect for me</td>
<td>Command/s: ..................</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I display a sense of power and confidence</td>
<td>Command/s: ..................</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2: The Second Dimension: Idealized Influence (Behaviour): Which refers to the charismatic actions of the leader, where by individuals transcend their self-interest for the sake of the organization and develop a collective sense of mission and purpose; this dimension broadens the traditional leadership role into that of a ‘manager of meaning’.

- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept of Idealized Influence (Behaviour).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I talk about my most important values and beliefs</td>
<td>Command/s: ..................</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose
   Command/s:........................................................................

3. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions
   Command/s:........................................................................

4. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission
   Command/s:........................................................................

3: The Third Dimension: Inspirational Motivation: Which refers to the way in which
   transformational leaders energize their followers by articulating a compelling vision of the
   future, thus creating enthusiastic excitement, raising followers’ expectations, and communicating
   confidence that followers can achieve ambitious goals.

- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing
  with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept
  of Inspirational Motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I talk optimistically about the future</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.......................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.......................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I articulate a compelling vision of the future</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.......................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I express confidence that goals will be achieved</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.......................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4: The Furth Dimension: Intellectual Stimulation: Which refers to the way in which
   transformational leaders question the status quo, appeal to followers’ intellect, stimulate them to
   question their assumptions, and invite innovative and creative solutions to problems.

- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing
  with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept
  of Intellectual Stimulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.......................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I seek differing perspectives when solving problems</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.......................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. I get others to look at problems from many different angles
   Command/s:.................................................................

4. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments
   Command/s:.................................................................

5: The Fifth Dimension: Individualized Consideration: Which refers to leadership behaviour that contributes to follower satisfaction by paying close attention to the individual needs of followers, acting as a mentor or coach, and enabling them to develop and self-actualize.
- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept of Individualized Consideration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I spend time teaching and coaching</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>aspirations from others</td>
<td>Command/s:..................</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I help others to develop their strengths</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6: The Sixth Dimension: Contingent Reward: Which is defined as providing an adequate exchange of valued resources for follower support. The ‘Contingent Reward’ leaders clarify their expectations to the followers and rewards will be given as an exchange.
- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept of Contingent Reward.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:.................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved
Command/s:…………………………………………………………

I express satisfaction when others meet expectations
Command/s:…………………………………………………………

### 7: The Seventh Dimension: Management by Exception (Active)
Involves monitoring performance and taking corrective action. In this manner of leadership, the leader actively monitors performance and anticipates deviations from standards.

- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept of **Management by Exception (Active)**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards Command/s:…………………………………………………………</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures Command/s:…………………………………………………………</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I keep track of all mistakes Command/s:………………………………………………………………</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards Command/s:………………………………………………………………</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 8: The Eighth Dimension: Management by Exception (Passive)
Means leader intervention occurs only when problems become serious. In other words, leaders will wait until problems became serious before taking any action.

- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept of **Management by Exception (Passive)**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I fail to interfere until problems become serious Command/s:………………………………………………………………</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I wait for things to go wrong before taking action</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. I show that I am a firm believer in “If it is not broke, do not fix it.”
   Command/s:…………………………………………

4. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action
   Command/s:…………………………………………

9: The Ninth Dimension: Laissez-Faire: Which is the avoidance or absence of leadership and it is defined by avoiding leadership duties and responsibilities. Laissez-Faire is described as 'non-leadership'.

- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of leadership when dealing with his/her employees. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept of Laissez-Faire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I avoid getting involved when important issues arise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:…………………………………………</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I am absent when needed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:…………………………………………</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I avoid making decisions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:…………………………………………</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I delay responding to urgent questions</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:…………………………………………</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section Three: Employee Creativity Performance

Creative employees are those who tend to identify opportunities for new products. They may find new uses for existing methods or equipments, or generate novel but operable work-related ideas. These people not only are more likely to come up with creative solutions to problems and champion ideas to others, but also develop adequate plans for the implementation of new ideas. Shortly, creative employees produce novel and useful ideas about organizational products, practices, or procedures.

- The following statements are describing some of the attribute of employee's creativity. To what extent do you think those statements are apply the concept of employee creativity.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Related to the dimension</th>
<th>Clarity of the statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>My employees are suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>My employees are Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>My employees are Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>My employees are Suggests new ways to increase quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>My employees are Is a good source of creative ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>My employees are Is not afraid to take risks</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>My employees are Promotes and champions ideas to others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>My employees are Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>My employees are Often has new and innovative ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>My employees are Comes up with creative solutions to problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>My employees are Often has a fresh approach to problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>My employees are Suggests new ways of performing work tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Command/s:....................................................................................</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **General commands:**

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  ........................................................................................................................................

  298
REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN PILOT TESTING OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participator,

I am writing to request your help to participate in 'Pilot Testing' of the enclosed Questionnaire, which is part of a data collection pertaining to a PhD study that I am currently undertaking in Manchester University in Institute for Development Policy and Management. The study aims to investigate the relationship between the full range of leadership styles and employees' creativity in Omani Civil Service organizations. This questionnaire is aimed to elicit the views and opinion of both managers and their employees regarding the Oman managers' leadership style and its relationship with employees' creativity.

Prior to distributing the questionnaire to participate sample, it is important, first of all, to test its validity and reliability. This is where your input is required. You are kindly requested to attempt completing the questionnaire, after reading the guidelines below, and then to write your comments about it, in the enclosed "Questionnaire Pilot Testing Form".

Thank you for your kind cooperation.
1. **Guidelines for completing the questionnaire:**

1. You are strongly advised to read the "Questionnaire Pilot Testing Form" first, so that you have an idea of what comments you are required to give at the end.

2. Please ensure that you read and understand the question well before you give your answers. If in doubt, please do not hesitate to call me on 95654415 or e-mail me at: mfx002@yahoo.com

3. You are asked to note the time at the commencement of completing the questionnaire and again on completion. Please write the number of minutes it has taken you to complete the questionnaire at the bottom of last page.

4. Be careful to tick an (✓) in the appropriate box.

5. The questionnaire seeks your opinion only. Therefore, you are requested not to ask anyone else to fill in the questionnaire on your behalf.

6. Please express your honest opinion clearly and remember that your answers and the information you provide will be anonymous and will be handled with strict confidentiality by the researcher.

7. Upon completion please review the questionnaire to ensure you have not left any questions unanswered. After this, please complete the enclosed "Questionnaire Pilot Testing Form".

Thank you very much for your assistance and cooperation, it is very much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,
Mohammed Al-Araimi
The Researcher
2. Questionnaire Pilot Testing Form

Having completed and reviewed the questionnaire, you are kindly requested to take few more minutes of your time in order to answer the questions, below, about the questionnaire:

1. How long did it take you to complete the questionnaire?
   [ ] Minutes

2. Were the instructions clear? (Please tick)
   [ ] Yes [ ] No
   If "No", please comment and make suggestions for improvement:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Were any of the questions/statements unclear or ambiguous? (Please tick)
   [ ] Yes [ ] No
   If "Yes", please comment and make suggestions for improvement
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

5. Were there any questions that you felt uneasy or objected to answer? (Please tick)
   [ ] Yes [ ] No
   If yes, which one (s) and if possible please make suggestions for improvement:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

6. Was the layout/structure of the questionnaire clear? (Please tick)
   [ ] Yes [ ] No
   If no, please make suggestion for improvement
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Other Comments:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Thank you for your input... it is very much appreciated