The Extent to which Satisfaction is a Prerequisite
For Employee Motivation
To Enhance Productivity/Performance
In Lebanese Institutions of Higher Education
A Case Study
Of
Notre Dame University

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW of LITERATURE [PART I]

SATISFACTION: A PREREQUISITE for MOTIVATION

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW of LITERATURE [PART II]

LEADERSHIP and MANAGEMENT

CHAPTER FOUR

REVIEW of LITERATURE [PART III]

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSES and FINDINGS

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION of RESEARCH RESULTS

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY and CONCLUSIONS

List of Tables

The Researcher

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And help us to remember
   That the Key to Life and Living
Is to make each prayer a Prayer of Thanks
   And every day Thanksgiving.

<div align="right">*(Helen Steiner Rice)*</div>

Abstract

Job satisfaction encompasses the attitudes an individual has toward the organization, supervision, rewards, peers and the job (Longenecker & Pringle, 1984). Motivation is significant as a determinant of performance (Sullivan, 1988). Individual performance is generally determined by (1) motivation-the desire to act; (2) ability-the capability to do the job; (3) work environment-the tools, materials and information required to act (Griffin, 1996). Increasing job satisfaction is important not only for its financial benefits but also for its humanitarian value (Bavendam, 2000).

In the 21st Century, institutions of higher education need a spirit of openness and objectivity supported by leaders who excel in communication skills, initiative, decision-making, group dynamics and incentives. The objective of this study is to determine and specify effective and efficient leader-employee relationships and the extent to which satisfaction is a prerequisite for motivation to enhance performance and solicit productivity. Notre Dame University, the object of this case study, is a Lebanese institution of higher education that follows the American-credit system. In accordance to the research questions, the theoretical framework covered the pertinent issues of satisfaction and motivation, leadership and management, and human resource management. Responses to research instruments – questionnaires, interviews – secured a constructive flow of information to improve self-esteem and confidence.

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were utilized with a response rate of 83% with 233 questionnaires distributed and 196 returned. Through Chi-Square and Cronbach Alpha, the results showed direct measures of attitudes towards satisfaction, participation, and interaction. People at NDU are committed and believe that there is a friendly atmosphere, and democratic leadership; nonetheless, they are asking for more open communication, responsibility and involvement. Drawing from the findings, leaders at NDU should be more creative, caring, and impartial to instil the driving forces for increased satisfaction and output.

12

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Overview

It has always been a challenge to change the way people think, behave and implement tasks especially if a certain rhythm or style has been established. Now, in the 21st Century, however, it is crucial that changes take place. Driving forces for survival must be acknowledged and the need to create competitive advantage is so intense that the weaker case of a strong relationship between creativity and innovation must exist. People are the important source of competitive advantage; thus, it is the job of management to focus great attention on the attraction, retention, development and spirit of an organization's people. In other words, a critical evaluation is required-a change in strategic thinking, planning and implementation. To make a difference, businesspeople, leaders, managers, administrators–whatever the term employed–must adopt a unique tool that will always be at the heart of their goal — to enhance the performance of people and increase productivity by building high-performing workplaces to ensure practices that will constitute loyalty and commitment.

The term "lateral thinking" (De Bono, 1967) is based on the recognition of dominant polarizing ideas; the search for different ways of looking at concepts; the relaxation of the rigid controls of vertical thinking and the use of chance. The Oxford English Dictionary (1993) defines lateral thinking as a means of thinking which seeks the solution to intractable problems through unorthodox methods. It has contributed significantly (Koy, 1998) to management tools. Lateral thinking is a tool for creative thinking which is key for business survival (Evans, 1994). Edward De Bono conceived lateral thinking as a contrast to the more traditional type of thinking which he termed "vertical". "The difference between lateral and vertical thinking is that with vertical thinking, logic is in control of the mind, whereas with lateral thinking, logic is at the

service of the mind" (De Bono, 1967, p.14). An effective analogy to illustrate the difference (Ibid.) is "vertical thinking is like digging deeper into a hole to seek a solution, whereas lateral thinking involves digging alternative holes in different places." Lateral thinking is linked to managerial innovation and problem-solving (Ahmed et al., 1999). Many organizations (e.g., North Derbyshire TEC; Barnsley Business Innovation Center (SWORD); APTT [Advanced Practical Thinking Training Inc.]) relate lateral thinking to continuous improvement and innovation as the only means to develop a business. The ability to perceive issues differently and interpret them will continuously improve the process by which a business is run because new concepts are developed and fresh ideas generated (Monadnock, 2000; Brochure on Lateral Thinking and Serious Creativity).

Accordingly, the most effective enterprises operate within a consciously structured and flexible framework (Quinn, 1980). They tend to emerge from the iterative step-by-step process of probing the future. Organizations have to think beyond the traditional incentives, promotions and other competitive devices. They need to create value concepts that involve all members of the organization and at each of the echelons of the organization to secure effective channels of communication that will enhance productive interaction. Such value concepts can only be achieved and maintained through people. Leaders of truly successful organizations think of their role as systems architects, engaged in the critical task of building values, cultures, and a set of management practices that enable the recruitment, retention, development, and motivation of outstanding people. They realize that the engagement to build healthy work practices will ensure satisfaction of people, which in turn will lead to motivation and quality output.

Quality, discussed in Chapter Four, is the essence of a constructive organization that encourages input to produce excellent output. In Japanese, "Kaizen" means continuous improvement (Masaaki Imai, 1986) to which all or most employees can contribute. In addition, 'Innovation' (Ibid.) implies a significant breakthrough that is a level of progress achieved by only a limited number of trained professionals. Accordingly, individuals provide input into ways of improving existing processes and techniques, as well as new ways of looking at concerns, thinking about matters or digging holes in different places.

"Quality without creativity is a dead end. You may get better and better at something which doesn't need doing" (Evans, 1994, p.74).

It is this very quality production of goods or services and creativity that leaders can use to transform their organization into a high-commitment model of management. Three basic principles (Pfeffer, 1998), namely building trust, encouraging change, measuring performance-can develop and apply employee knowledge and competence. The adherence to these principles means taking an organization's values seriously and displaying fairness, integrity and social responsibility. Putting people first, or at least taking people issues seriously is more important than ever. Consequently, successful decisions about systems for recruiting, motivating, and developing people will ensure a talent necessary for developing an effective strategy and executing it.

The European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) is a model of excellence that was founded in 1988 by fourteen major European companies (Monadnock, 2000). The model through its nine criteria leads to effectiveness and efficiency. The first five are classified as enablers for they put organizations on the track to excellence and the last four are the results of achieving this excellence:

1. Leadership should inspire and drive total quality for continuous improvement;
2. The principles of Total Quality are used to formulate, deploy, review and improve policy and strategy;
3. Release the full potential of people;
4. Resources are deployed to support policy and strategy;
5. Identify, review and revise processes to ensure continuous improvement;
6. Satisfaction of external customers;
7. Satisfaction of people – internal employees;
8. Satisfaction of society, the needs and expectations of the community at large are met;
9. The Business Results are achieved by planned performance and objectives along with satisfying the needs and expectations of everyone with an interest in the organization.

Motivation, performance, and job satisfaction, discussed in Chapter Two, are intertwined to enhance this association and require a pivot-a leader. Motivation and inspiration energize people, not by escorting them in the right direction as control mechanisms do but by satisfying basic human needs for achievement that in turn will elicit a powerful response (Syrett & Hogg, 1993). Motivational needs are various and may be translated as economic motives, promotion, recognition and praise, relationships with management, job content, responsibility, achievement of motivation in the job and cooperation. There are various theories (Chapter Two) that seek to identify the categories of motivators. Many are based on extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and their interaction. Extrinsic motivators may be other people, situations, events, or environments while intrinsic motivators may be personal pride, love of the work itself, a strong work ethic, or a particular value system.

Good leaders motivate people in a variety of ways (Syrett & Hogg, 1993). First, they articulate the organizational vision in a manner that stresses the values of the audience. Second, they can support employee efforts to realize this vision and thereby allow for professional growth and enhancement of self-esteem. Thirdly, effective leaders can recognize and reward success that displays a sense of accomplishment and belonging. Leaders need to make a fundamental shift in style of thinking by overcoming the barriers and putting people first (Pfeffer, 1998). This means offering people mutual commitment and some long-term job security. In addition, it entails an investment in training, promoting and development. The channels of communication must always be wide and through shared information, people feel a deep sense of trust.

As democratic leaders (Discussed in Chapter Three) foster collaboration (Kouzes and Posner, 1997), the assessment of leader personal credibility, upward influence and workgroup esprit de corps increase as do the levels of employee satisfaction and commitment. Leaders must help to obliterate the barriers among people by encouraging interaction across disciplines and between departments (Ibid, p.158). As the complexity of issues increases, greater face-to-face communication (Chapter Two) is required to integrate differences (Van de Ven et al., 1976). Since the pioneering studies (Lewin,

Lippitt, & White, 1939; Coch & French, 1948), social scientists have been interested in studying the consequences of participative leadership and how it leads to motivation. Affirmative outcomes were observed in groups of various sizes (Pennington et al., 1958; French et al., 1966); in service-oriented organizations (Lawler & Hackman, 1969; Neider, 1980); and in manufacturing organizations (French, Israel & As, 1960; Safizadeh, 1991). Furthermore, participation and collaboration heightened academic professionalism and increased feelings of ownership, commitment and satisfaction (Jenni, 1991; Hallinger et al., 1992; Ovando, 1994).

Job satisfaction encompasses the attitudes an individual has toward the organization, supervision, rewards, peers and the job (Longenecker & Pringle, 1984). When the characteristics of a job are compatible with the needs of the individual assigned to perform that job, the individual is satisfied. In turn, positive effects appear on attitudes, motivation and behavior. Various researchers such as Herzberg, Locke and Vroom have confirmed that meeting employee needs is critical and enhances individual and organizational performance. These are the primary issues that the researcher will investigate and explore; elaboration will appear in the Review of Literature (Chapters 2, 3 and 4).

Job satisfaction also leads to motivation that operates within a framework (Griffin, 1996) which identifies a series of discrete steps: (1) a need (deficiency); (2) search for ways to satisfy the need; (3) choice of behavior to satisfy need; (4) evaluation of need satisfaction; (5) determination of future needs and search / choice for satisfaction. A person's motivation depends on the strength of certain needs and the perception that a certain action will help satisfy those needs. A basic view of motivation (US Army Handbook, 1973) allows the needs of people to coincide with the needs of the organization; rewards good behavior; sets the example; develops moral and esprit de corps; lets people be part of the planning and problem solving process; looks out for people; keeps them informed; makes jobs challenging, exciting and meaningful; and counsels people who behave in a way that is counter to organizational goals.

People tend to evaluate themselves according to what they have been able to accomplish. If their work / job is seen as a blockage of their full potential, there is a reduced level of involvement, decreased satisfaction, and a lowered desire for performance. In this sense, improved knowledge about motivational processes is a requisite not only for management but also for the employees themselves if all members are to contribute more effectively to the goals of the organization (Discussed in Chapter Two) and simultaneously receive greater personal satisfaction (Steers & Porter, 1991). Increasing job satisfaction is important not only for its financial benefit but also for its humanitarian value (Bavendam, 2000). A survey conducted by Bavendam showed that employees with higher job satisfaction believe that the organization will be satisfying in the long run; care about the quality of their work; are more committed to the organization; have higher retention rates; and are more productive.

A work environment that constantly raises an employee's self-esteem will yield high employee satisfaction (BRI, 1998-2000). Creating such an environment (Goleman, 2000) is the responsibility of all corporate or organizational leadership, but most critically it is the primary job of the direct supervisor of the employee. In today's competitive business environment, compensation must be well structured or it may be a source of dissatisfaction (BRI, 1998-2000). In 1998, William M. Mercer, Inc. surveyed 206 medium to large companies. Findings showed that in organizations with high turnover, compensation was the most common reason for dissatisfaction. However, in companies with very low turnover, 40% of the respondents perceived emotional factors as completely motivating their retention as compared to 21% attributing financial factors as completely motivating their retention. Work satisfaction, compensation, relationships chime with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. This involves not only the delegation of authority and responsibilities but also the rethinking of executive prerogatives and addressing the issue of fairness (Haasen & Gordon, 1997). In other words, the hearts and minds of employees should be captured by building upon trust, equality and sharing (See Chapter Four) to emancipate the action of every employee to increase performance (Harris, 1996).

In this overview, the researcher stresses that no matter what country, what type of

organization, what vision, mission etc. employees seek more or less the same thing – satisfaction of needs. The key "employee satisfiers" can be summarized as "RESULTS" (Blackman, 1999-2000):

- **R – Reward:** compensation, recognition, awards;
- **E – Environment:** comfortable work atmosphere;
- **S – Support:** from peers and management create sense of community, establish culture of inclusion; people like to belong;
- **U – Understanding:** listen to opinion, seek employee knowledge and input, empathize, trust;
- **L – Longevity:** offer opportunity, advancement;
- **T – Trade-off:** let people by valuable and productive contributors – promote balance;
- **S – Satisfaction:** encourage achievement, endorse risk taking, foster feelings of accomplishment – help others realize hopes, dreams and goals. Let people do what they love to do.

Another important element that is sensitive to people's needs and interests (Chapter Two) is trust (Kouzes & Posner, 1993) or credibility. These terms may be used interchangeably to demonstrate honesty, competence, ability to inspire, integrity and character (Robbins & De Cenzo, 1998). The five dimensions that underlie the concept of trust are integrity, competence, consistency, loyalty and openness (Schindler & Thomas, 1993). Trust is at the heart of fostering collaboration (Hosmer, 1995; Mayer et al., 1995; Stewart, 1996) and enhancing organizational effectiveness (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Without trust, people become suspicious of and unreceptive to proposals and goals, suggestions for reaching goals, definitions of criteria and methods for evaluating progress (Boss, 1978). Trust has been shown to be the most significant prediction of individual satisfaction within the organization (Driscoll, 1978; Hosmer, 1995; Mayer et al., 1995).

Three things generally determine individual performance: motivation (the desire to do the job); ability (the capability to do the job); and the work environment (the tools, materials, and information needed to do the job) (Griffin, 1996, p.475). If the problem is

lack of ability, the solution may be training or replacement. If the work environment is the problem, management may make the necessary adjustments. However, if motivation is the problem, management's task is a challenging one because individual behavior is a complex phenomenon (Pervin, 1985; Lee & Bobko, 1994). Consequently, motivation is an important determinant of performance and it has an intangible character (Sullivan, 1988). An increased knowledge of motivational processes is to improve both work attitudes and work performance. An awareness of the functions (Steers & Porter, 1991) served by work activities must be reached. In other words, work is important because it offers reciprocity or exchange rewards; serves several social functions – workers spend more time interacting with coworkers than with family; provides a source of status, or rank in society at large; and has a personal psychological significant meaning for the individual.

Furthermore, the organizational vision should be clear and sufficient to inspire employees to act. "To capture the hearts of our employees, it is essential that we tell them what we stand for and where we are going. Our vision must be compelling, understandable, and focused" (Harris, 1996, p.21). A shared mutual mission provides a better understanding of the organization as a whole, how the parts fit together and where each fits in the structure. Using open communication and providing company information will help establish a climate of trust and loyalty (Haasen, 1997). Employees will thus be continuously encouraged to develop and utilize their capacities, knowledge, skills and ingenuity for the success of the enterprise (McGregor, 1960). This motivation is triggered by a desire to contribute to an excellent final product (Kerr, 1997).

In general, to maximize motivation, management needs to think in terms of flexibility (Wixom, 1995, p.65). It has been suggested (e.g., Burack et al., 1994) that the implementation of participative management and employee involvement (Chapter Four) will lead to employee commitment and thus, enhanced organizational performance–the keys to flexibility and adaptability. Management gurus and practitioners (Peters, 1987; Kanter, 1994; Pasmore, 1994; Handy, 1995) argue that flexibility is required by every organization in order to respond to a wide variety of changes in the competitive environment in an appropriate and timely way. Specifically, flexibility develops the

roles and traits of various stakeholders such as employees (Rogers, 1983; Gatignon & Robertson, 1985). Flexibility in all interaction, specifically open communication helps leaders contribute to the continuing definition and articulation of the values of the organization (Levine & Crom, 1993; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Yukl, 1998) and this, in turn, will lead to the motivation of employees. A synopsis of the concepts that formulate the framework of this study are presented in Table 1A, p.37 and Table 1B, p.38. The researcher will now explain the focus of the study in the next section.

Focus of the Study

Faced with the challenges of the 21st Century, institutions of higher education have to fulfill their major responsibilities-to contribute to sustainable indigenous development in a spirit of openness, partnership, truth and objectivity (Haddad, 2000). Such responsibilities are supported (Smallwood, 1991) by leaders who excel in communication skills, consensus decision-making, group dynamics, initiative, motivation, patience and perseverance, coping with conflict, group process, and implementing change. In particular, educational excellence requires high motivation from all the members of the organization. Since the object of this study is institutions of higher education, universities must pursue truth and the advancement of knowledge by renewing faith in the capacity of the human mind (Gourley, 2000). Leadership binds people together by articulating their values, hopes and pains; weaving these hopes into an image of the future; and providing the strategy, energy and faith to realize the vision (Hiefetz, 1994).

This study focuses on the importance of keeping employees satisfied to result in motivation and the enhancement of productivity. The title is *The Extent to which Satisfaction is a Prerequisite for Employee Motivation to Enhance Productivity in Institutions of Higher Education.* The concern is with those leaders of higher education in Lebanese private institutions that pattern after the American credit system with the medium of instruction being the English language; Lebanon is dominated by Arab culture (Chapter Three) and traditions. In Lebanon, there are three such institutions,

21

discussed in the next section. The researcher belongs to Notre Dame University (NDU) and thus decided to conduct a case study as it poses an object of interest. NDU is a non-profit institution but whatever the nature (Santora et al., 1999) of the organization, human resources should be the interest of top management. In motivating people, leaders should be concerned (Everard and Morris, 1996, p.20) with the needs and potential of three parties: (1) the group being managed; (2) the individuals who make up that group; and (3) the clients of the school, college or other organization. Such knowledge will help administrators to introduce or enhance motivational strategies that will have maximum impact on employee performance.

One of the earliest attempts to characterize the culture of management in Arab countries is provided by Hofstede (1991), who has provided tools for intercultural comparisons. His typology identifies dimensions such as individuality, social interaction, social inequality and gender discrimination. Many factors that influence Arab leadership style and cultures of management such as lack of communication and autocracy, have been examined (Hickson & Pugh, 1995). The widespread impact of investment in education and the strong emphasis on management development permeates the Arab world (Weir, 2002). Leadership can be exerted (Ibid.) through charisma (Chapter Three), close supervision or culture. Leadership control through close supervision and an absence of delegation tend to inhibit effective performance. The relationship (Abbas Ali et al., 1985) between managerial decision styles and work satisfaction has been studied. Research (Abbas et al., 1985; Weir, 2002) reinforces the general finding that Arab managers prefer consultative styles and are unhappy with delegation. It is this very issue that the researcher is interested in since she has been with NDU since its inception in 1987, the study of NDU to either confirm or erase these inferences of Arab leaders being rigid in their ways and especially in educational institutions seemed intriguing. Even though the Arab world shares many problems and issues with the west, considerable evidence (Weir, 2002) shows that Arab management will present a "fourth paradigm".

One empirical research (Al Amine, 1996) highlighted the need for a revised management style of higher education in both the public and private sectors in Lebanon. In this, he argued that the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education must be reorganized to

implement a more structured and participatory style of management. Second, universities lack clear objectives and suffer from social integration that can damage the overall system. Third, even though they contribute to forming the elite, universities do not participate sufficiently in advancing social interaction and unification. Although historians have had problems in defining the actual emergence of the concept of the "university", in the Middle Ages, it encompassed all ecclesiastical institutions of secondary and higher education (Haddad, 2000). In addition, the term "university" finds its origin both in legal Latin "universitas", meaning "community" and in classical Latin "universus", meaning "totality", (Ibid). Thus, a contract of responsibilities and obligations between society and the University arises. It is only through this contact that the academic and administrative bodies can be enhanced (LAES, 1997). Consequently, this study sets out to provide more awareness and maybe evidence that if participation is offered to administrators, faculty and staff along a well-structured hierarchy and line of communication, people will be satisfied and motivated to enhance performance and productivity.

To bring about a revival of the Lebanese educational system (LAES, 1997), the growth of participation and work innovative programs such as quality circles, participatory management, and employee involvement lead to job satisfaction, elaborated in Chapter Four. The context of leadership is the process of influencing group activities toward the achievement of goals through dynamic interaction between leaders and employees (Morgan, 1989). It has been suggested (Schroeder, 2000) that the rate of improvement of overall quality service and productivity is directly proportional to the level of participation that is granted. Leadership predicates (Fiedler, 1967; Likert, 1967; Evans, 1970; House, 1971; Vroom-Yetton-Jago, 1973) within the individual an attribute or inherent characteristic of behavior, and implies further that this attribute functions with equal force in a variety of situations. Furthermore, leaders create and communicate a vision (Fuller, 2000) of what the organization should be like and they persist in the desired direction even under bad conditions.

The purpose of this study is to determine the qualities, styles and significance of leadership in institutions of higher education in Lebanon. Leaders must identify that the

people in the organization are a source of strength in the direction of achieving organizational goals. Educational institutions are communities of learners, (Barth, 1990) "where people are engaged as active learners in matters of special importance to them and where everyone is thereby encouraging everyone else's learning" (p.9). Although Barth was talking about secondary schools in USA, his comment is applicable to different types of institutions in different countries. This is justified in the literature review, Chapters Two, Three, and Four. Such communities "value the collective process of discovery and are sustained by a continued commitment to share this journey of exploitation with one another on matters that people care deeply about" (Ryan, 1995, p.280). Development (Javidan, 1992; Kim & Yukl, 1995) is learning how to utilize these strengths effectively and efficiently for the welfare of the organization. Specifically, it increases job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. The on-going challenge of management is to nurture a spontaneous synergy that will result is employee satisfaction. This can be achieved through shared values that reflect democratic principles (Barth, 1990).

Behavior is then an outcome of widespread commitment to a shared vision and set of goals. Individuals, respected for their unique talents and abilities, are free to make decisions consistent with the organizational vision and goals. Consequently, a strong bond (Barth, 1990) emerges and the people within the organization share mutual ideas and ideals with an end product of true collegiality and collaborative working patterns. Otherwise, demotivation and discouragement will lead to monotony and frustration that will be translated into low productivity. An educational environment should be akin to families that have moral connections and obligations toward others and their work (NSDC, 1996-97, p.1). Individuals that are "bonded together" by a complex web of personal relationships are bound to "a set of shared ideas and principles" (Sergiovanni, 1994, p.XVI). Moreover, an organization that acts as a community becomes more responsive to change, receptive to challenge, and conscious of an increasingly complex array of alternatives (Gozdz, 1993) for success. As a result, long-term viability and vitality are assured.

The researcher feels the urgency to probe the focus of this study. She has always been

an active member both academically and administratively. In 1989, the researcher was called upon to become a founding member and contributed to the establishment of the North Lebanon Campus (NLC), then known as NDU/OCP. The researcher became the Dean of Students of that branch and was a dynamic participant to enhance and facilitate the overall academic process. Despite the fact that the researcher proved to be competent and displayed excellent leadership skills, the opportunities for advancement and development were limited. Due to dissatisfaction that led to demotivation, the researcher decided to resign from NDU in 1998 for she was offered a position within her specialization. The researcher would like to mention that at that time, the NDU administration was reluctant to accept the resignation but she insisted. The researcher took on the challenging task of contributing to the initiation of the American credit-system at Universite Saint Esprit de Kaslik (USEK), a Lebanese private university that follows the French system of higher education. The researcher became the Chairperson of both the Management and English Departments. This particular chapter has been an extremely rewarding experience in the life of the researcher and she has no regrets. In August 2000, the President of NDU summoned the researcher to offer her the Directorship of the Admissions Office. She has had the challenging and arduous task of establishing a unit that required structure, a mission, objectives, and a network and quality staff ready to commit to this venture.

The last twenty years of the researcher's professional life have been spent in educational institutions in Lebanon with more than two-thirds of that period in institutions of higher education. There have always been both academic and administrative contributions. The researcher has held a variety of titles and the duties and responsibilities that accompany them. Among the positions have been Academic Coordinator, Program Coordinator, Coordinator of Human Resources, Financial Aid Officer, Public Relations Officer, Director of Institution, Chairperson of Management Department, Chairperson of English Department, Coordinator of Student Services, Dean of Students, Director of Admissions, Acting Director of Office of Tests, Measurement and Evaluation; the majority of these positions have been at NDU. In each of these situations, there was direct interaction with people at different levels. Being a 'people person' has given the researcher great pleasure and satisfaction in dealing with all the people involved in her path. The fact that people differ in behavior, attitude, and mentality was never

overlooked. As a result of this individual distinction, positive feedback and high productivity have always been witnessed.

However, the researcher has always experienced opposition with respect to her style of leadership. The researcher has always been an advocate of open communication and participative management and this has caused other administrators to disagree greatly. Unfortunately, their interpretation of leadership is simply to give orders and expect people to obey them unquestionably. Thus, there has been a clash of ideologies and styles of implementation with little constructive communication. Consequently, there was a rise of a hostile environment and dissatisfaction, which led to low productivity. Analyzing and understanding the different styles of leadership such as the autocratic, democratic, charismatic etc. can only clarify such actions and these are all discussed in Chapter Three. Traditionally, the leader is the decision-maker but surely there could be no harm in allowing people to voice their opinions and participate in the overall process. This will ignite a feeling of pride and self-confidence, which in turn, will enhance morale and output.

The issue of employee satisfaction and motivation enhancing performance and productivity in institutions of higher education has not been previously investigated in Lebanon. After reviewing the extant literature, the researcher has found no previous studies or surveys that explored the relationship at hand. It is a crucial matter; there is definitely an urgent need to explore the existing scenarios and ponder the consequences. This is due to the culture effect of the Middle Eastern mentality that is discussed in Chapter Three. In accordance to the positions that the researcher has held, most leaders use their positions unwisely. The gap, thus, between them and their people grows wider and wider. This has been experienced by the researcher and has been the cause of much dispute between her and other administrators at the institutions that she has been with; they have all been in Lebanon. Without generalizing, people in Lebanon are considered subordinates in the literal sense of the word and not in its practical context. The result is dissatisfaction and demotivation, morale is decreased and ultimately, productivity is negatively influenced. This is where the danger lies.

The researcher has a genuine concern where people matters are the issue–the focus of this study. As alluded to earlier, she has been with NDU since its inception and is fully committed and loyal to the institution. She is firm in wanting to discover the underlying issues that lead to ill behaviors and is also determined to offer suggestions for improvements, especially since it is a highly competitive educational environment in Lebanon. When the researcher commenced the present study in 2000, there were 35 officially licensed universities in Lebanon; today in 2003, there are 43. With the economy so fragile, students unfortunately seek low tuition fee-paying universities-without consideration of quality education. This original study has shed some light on causes of the problem and how to overcome them. Everyone who fell in the path of the researcher during the course of this study has expressed appreciation of the topic for they do feel that it is very important. Thus, this study has explored and unraveled this dilemma and furthermore, the findings have led to constructive recommendations.

The Organizational Background to the Study

The institutions of higher education in Lebanon that follow the American credit-system with the medium of instruction being English are: The American University of Beirut (AUB), The Lebanese American University (LAU) and Notre Dame University (NDU). There are three categories however: (1) the pure American credit-system; (2) the French system; (3) the French institutions that are introducing the credit-system. The institutions that are universities and fall under category one are the AUB, LAU and NDU. The size of each university in terms of student population, programs of study, faculty and staff are relatively similar considering the age of each. Even though NDU is not a large-scale study, the researcher believes that the results and findings of such a rigorously constructed small-scale study are intriguing; figures to show the comparative size of these institutions will be disclosed towards the end of this section. The transferability of this knowledge to the other educational providers will prove to be relevant. Thus, a brief history of AUB and LAU will be helpful for the reader before we move to NDU, the object of this case study.

The American University of Beirut (AUB) founded in 1866 is a private institution of higher learning that has an American educational character. In 1862, American missionaries to Lebanon and Syria, under the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, asked Dr. Daniel Bliss to withdraw from the Evangelistic work of the mission in Lebanon in order to found a college of higher learning that would include medical training (AUB Catalog, 2001). AUB is a teaching-centered research university, convinced that excellence in teaching and research go hand-in-hand. Its mission is to enhance the education of primarily the peoples of the Middle East, to serve society through its educational functions, and to participate in the advancement of knowledge. AUB bases its educational perspective and methods and its academic organization on the American model of higher education. The University believes in and encourages freedom of thought and expression enjoyed in a spirit of integrity and with a full sense of responsibility. The University has five Faculties: Arts and Sciences (which includes the School of Nursing); Engineering and Architecture; Agriculture and Food Sciences, and Health Sciences with programs leading to both the Bachelors and Masters degrees.

The Lebanese American University (LAU) is a multi-campus career-oriented institution, which prepares students for responsible living, fully aware of the rich heritage and multiple needs of their respective communities (LAU Catalog, 2001). It had modest beginnings becoming the American School for Girls in 1924 and providing a junior college curriculum. In 1927, The American Junior College for Women (AJCW) was born. In 1948-49, it expanded into a university-level institution and became known as the Beirut College for Women (BCW). In 1973, the name was changed to Beirut University College (BUC). Finally and according to a Board decision, BUC became a university in 1992 and in 1994 the name was changed to what is today known as The Lebanese American University (LAU). Its objective is to serve the educational needs of Lebanon and the Middle East by being a community that is intellectually stimulating and responsive to the dynamics of its environment. The Lebanese American University has four Schools: Arts and Sciences; Business; Engineering and Architecture and Pharmacy.

Notre Dame University-Louaize (NDU), the object of this study, is a non-profit Lebanese Catholic institution of higher education, which adopts the American system of education with English as the medium of instruction (NDU Catalog, 2001). NDU was founded by the Maronite Order of the Holy Virgin Mary, the first western-oriented ecclesiastical order in the Middle East. In 1978, the Order started the Louaize College for Higher Education (LCHE) in cooperation with Beirut University College. The legal finalization of this project was the promulgation of decree 4116, dated August 14, 1987 by the President of The Lebanese Republic granting the right to operate an independent university; thus, NDU was born. The Order called upon prominent persons and established the Board of Trustees of NDU to supervise the academic and administrative operations and to help in planning the development of the University. In October 1990, NDU established an Off Campus Program in North Lebanon in Chekka. In 1992, NDU established graduate programs recognized by the Lebanese Ministry of Education. In October 2001, NDU established a second branch in Deir El Kamar, Mount Lebanon.

The mission of the University is one of promoting universally accepted humanistic, ethical and spiritual values, of enhancing intellectual inquiry and of intensifying the awareness of human integrity and solidarity. NDU caters to the real needs of Lebanon and the region and believes in education as a means of protection and a dedication to freedom of thought and expression. These values and beliefs are espoused irrespective of color, creed. race, or gender. Today in 2003, NDU has six Faculties: Architecture, Art and Design; Business Administration and Economics; Humanities; Engineering; Natural and Applied Sciences and Political Science, Public Administration and Diplomacy. These faculties combined offer over eighty programs of study at both the undergraduate and graduate levels.

For the consistency and reliability of data collection across the institutions, the researcher will consider those Faculties or Schools that exist at all of the above mentioned institutions. For example, the AUB has a Faculty of Medicine that doesn't exist at NDU. Moreover, the LAU has a School of Pharmacy that is non-existent at NDU. In accordance to the 2000-2001 academic catalogs of each of the three institutions that constitute the population of this study, AUB has 335 full-time faculty and staff; LAU

(Beirut and Blat) has 210; and NDU (Main and NLC) has 266. Even though generalization may not be practical or feasible, the findings of this study will provide profound food for thought for sister institutions. The Organization Chart of Notre Dame University (Appendix 1) highlights the various Faculties and Departments at NDU. The hierarchy at NDU determines the channels of communication, span of control, unity and direction of command. The framework displays academic freedom and autonomy that enables NDU to fulfill its social responsibilities. Consequently, the next section will determine the significance of this study.

During the course of this study, the researcher was Director of Admissions and Acting Director of The Office of Tests, Measurement and Evaluation. Employee rotation was realized; at that time, the researcher's span of control was two. One employee was transferred to another unit and of course, a new member joined the Admissions Office. The remaining employee felt upset and demotivated. The researcher spoke to that employee and explained the benefits of rotation within an institution and that she would be training the newcomer and that she would also be a reference for the Director who was also a newcomer to this unit. This satisfied her ego; she felt indispensable and the researcher noticed a significant improvement in performance. The findings were quite intriguing. At times, the researcher felt that there was much contradiction or controversy with responses for many individuals were definitely dissatisfied but still took initiative and performed well.

The researcher's experience is consistent with previously reported findings that stress the effectiveness of management-by-objectives. Other administrators at NDU were against this and felt the researcher was being 'too good'. With much patience, diplomacy and flexibility, the researcher witnessed excellent results despite the fact that outside interference and peer pressure was a continuous impediment. A third person was recruited in February, 2001 and the original employee trained her. Thereafter, the unit kept growing and under the leadership of the researcher, everyone at NDU observed harmony and teamwork among the staff. In October, 2001 another seven employees were recruited; they all demonstrate effective and efficient output. As a result of the researcher's firm belief in participative management, the staff of the said unit are always

satisfied and committed to NDU. They are kept informed of what is happening and encouraged to take initiative and make decisions that fulfill the goals of NDU. Consequently, many employees have approached the researcher and asked to be transferred to her unit; the Admissions Office is growing and the span of control has reached ten.

Moreover, during the term of the researcher, a second branch of Notre Dame University was established in Deir El-Kamar in Shouf in mount Lebanon south east of the capital Beirut. The questionnaires had already been collected and the data analyzed. To complement the study, the researcher interviewed people concerned with that branch. In addition, observation played the larger role for input. The researcher appointed an Assistant Director of Admissions there and thus the span of management expanded. Because of geographic proximity, delegation was practiced with a clear job description. Through close supervision and coordination, the researcher has noticed the enthusiasm of the people at Shouf campus. They always show effective and efficient performance with high productivity as shown in various university reports.

Because the staff of other units are not kept abreast of what is happening at NDU, a feeling of insecurity is generated. This was especially apparent at the beginning of the academic year 2001-2002 when they were unaware of whether or not there would be rotation and in turn, rumor mills spread and productivity decreased. Furthermore, The Board of Trustees decided not to increase student tuition, which meant that all salaries were frozen. As Secretary of The University Council, the researcher knew this but other members of NDU didn't know why they had been deprived of the salary increase they were used to at the beginning of each academic year. What added to the dissatisfaction and demotivation was the choking economic situation that Lebanon was experiencing in addition to the decision of the Ministry of Finance to implement a VAT (Value Added Tax) of 10% as of February, 2002; hence, increasing the financial burdens on people in an economically now-defunct country. With all these, frustration and anger accumulated and people just didn't know what was going on.

31

The researcher reported these concerns to the administration. The President explained that he was against the decision to freeze salaries and an option for this year was being sought in light of the annual budget. The researcher strongly recommended that the faculty and staff be called to separate meetings or to a general assembly and informed of the Board of Trustees' decision and what the administration was contemplating. This happened just before the Christmas vacation, 2001; there was an open forum and voices were heard. Moreover, the President informed them that there would be generous merit-oriented bonuses for Christmas. The turnover in attitude was so clear not to mention the limitation of small talk.

The President has appointed various task forces and ad-hoc committees to study and investigate urgent issues and present solutions. In addition to the situations that have been mentioned earlier, the tasks have included the writing or rewriting of by-laws; the development of registration procedure; and the writing or rewriting of policies – scholarship, undergraduate admission, graduate admission, attendance etc.. Many of the projects have been implemented as of October, Fall semester 2001-2002. The registration procedure with crucial changes in the Business Office (payments are to be made at the bank) was enacted in February, Spring semester 2002. The students met this particular step with great resistance. Now that they had to pay at the bank, they could no longer delay and accumulate payments. As a result, the Student cabinet called for a sit-in and demanded that the administration reverse its decision. Faculty members became dissatisfied since it was end of semester and just before final exams; many faculty travel at semester break. The Student Affairs Office called for meetings with both students and parents and explained the benefits of these changes. This intervention resulted in an immediate call to stop the strike and classes were finished and entrance exams administered. At registration time, the procedure was implemented with minimum complications or disturbances.

As a result, the researcher witnessed a rational acceptance of the regular reports; this was translated into the relevant courses of action at Notre Dame University as described above. Basically, it showed that top management was willing and ready to do whatever was necessary to increase levels of satisfaction and improve performance. Even though

there was an eagerness to develop and enhance work conditions and the environment, top management needed to know exactly what was required by people at NDU. It is this very enthusiasm that the researcher saw as a challenge and thus decided to take NDU as the case study for this dissertation; the following section discusses those variables that are in tantamount value with the previous deliberations

Significance of the Study

There is a persistent need for educational institutions to be held by administrators who understand how to create quality change and who are not only self-empowered, but can also create a climate conducive to the motivation of others (Norris, 1994). This study will show that if a significant relationship exists between employee satisfaction and motivation, this will enhance productivity in institutions of higher education in Lebanon that can be treated as any business enterprise. The outcomes of this study may prove to be significant for higher education providers specifically those that follow the American credit system as explained in the previous section. With respect to the researcher, the uniqueness of NDU is related to the fifteen years of experience. The fact that top administrators are clergy opens the door for conflict of opinion and certain procedures and projects that are imposed. Due to her active interaction and participation at both the academic and administrative levels, the researcher feels that there are definitely noteworthy issues to report based on her intriguing observations. These findings may be applicable to other similar institutions.

If educational leaders allow their people to participate in goal-setting, decision-making and the system as a whole, the outcomes will be extremely rewarding at all levels of the organization. . Top management will benefit from the findings by understanding individual leadership styles and the impacts on the satisfaction and productivity of employees. The findings will offer educational leaders an insight on how to enhance and not impair performance. Leadership (Chapter Three) is a complex phenomenon in Arab organizations; the personalized concept of power leads to feelings of uncertainty and loss of autonomy (Al-Rasheed, 1994). The typical form of decision-making in Arab

organizations is consultative (Muna, 1980). Delegation is the least widely used technique. Loyalty is prized above all other organizational values, even efficiency. Loyalty can be guaranteed by surrounding executives with subordinates whom they can trust.

This is a pioneer study for the researcher found no record of previous research conducted in Lebanon. It will offer feedback on maintaining top quality staff for effective management; higher education lacks such knowledge. The findings will highlight and expose issues that have been taken for granted in the arena of institutions of higher education. The control of machine performance is an engineering operation (Howell & Costley, 2000); but with people, control is an emotional issue. If people are tied down by a rigid system, they will feel suffocated. At worst, they will give up; at best, they will find some way of manipulating the system to their advantage. On the contrary, if they are treated with flexibility and held accountable, they will feel more involved. People who are treated as units of labor feel little personal identification with the business and seek an outlet for their unused energies (Francis & Woodcock, 1975, p.11).

The significance of this research is that there is a gap, and educational leaders will become more aware of the needs of their people. The avenues and directions in which the qualification of their people should be channeled will be identified. The findings from this study will indicate strategies, methods and techniques for self-improvement and the enhancement of the educational environment with a distinct realization that participation is the key that opens the door to success. This study will determine if there is a relationship between leadership style and motivation. The outcomes may prove to be significant for educational administrators concerned with maintaining high quality employees and effective and efficient management practices. It may also aid in the correct placement of decision makers; that is, the appointment of qualified, specialized and experienced people is crucial. By making the proper job-person fit, people witness a flexible interpersonal process that will create a climate conducive to successful motivation. Thus, the awareness of different situations and cultures (Chapter Three) will improve skills and enhance the educational environment.

The findings are expected to make many valuable contributions. First, they should bring a clearer awareness among leaders at NDU on how to motivate their employees in order to achieve productivity. In addition, there should be a better understanding of issues and concerns at the university that relate to motivation and leadership styles as well as a grasp of which of these issues and concerns are capable of being addressed by educational decision makers at NDU. Moreover, the researcher expects the findings of her study to formulate a benchmark upon which leaders from other educational institutions in Lebanon can utilize in their endeavor to incept a course of motivation leading to productivity among faculty and staff members.

Research Questions and Objectives

"Research questions can be general or particular, descriptive or explanatory. They can be formulated at the outset or later on, and can be redefined or reformulated in the course of the fieldwork (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p.35)." In line with the theme of this study, the researcher will investigate the influence of leadership styles on the levels of motivation felt by employees and the identification of the factors that motivate educational administrators as "an essential key to improved education" (Crowther, 1991, p.31).

It is the concern of the researcher to secure a constructive flow of information that will improve the self-esteem of people by satisfying their needs and motivating them to become more creative and productive. The following research questions were formulated and will be addressed through the collection, analysis and interpretation of data from the Case Study (NDU) under investigation:

1. How does the satisfaction of employee needs become a motivator that influences performance?

2. What are the effects of leadership styles on employee attitude toward motivation as a result of participation?

3. How does leader-employee interaction affect motivation and consequently, productivity?

4. How does open communication influence employee performance?

The research questions were devised in such a manner as to support the accomplishment of the objectives that were stated in the previous section. For instance, the answers to research question one will help to meet objective four. It is the researcher's intention to tackle the institutions needs for motivation that consequently will promote positive alterations or radical changes. The following assumptions underlie the problem at hand:

1. The satisfaction if individual needs is imperative for employee motivation;

2. Effective and efficient leader-employee relationships are indispensable for enhanced performance and productivity;

3. The implementation of participative management in the workplace will witness productive outcomes for everyone concerned;

4. Open and constructive communication will allow employees to feel more involved and motivated.

Accordingly, the objectives of this study are:

1. To establish the importance of employee motivation and review what is known about the practice;

2. To inform leaders of higher education of the philosophy of participative management and its benefits;

3. To specify an effective and efficient leader-employee relationship;

4. To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity;

5. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer;

6. To identify the opportunities for and benefits of employee development;

7. To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people.

The research questions and research methodology should enlighten the researcher and

offer the feasible answers and confirmation of queries that exist. As was explained earlier, this is a pioneer study in Lebanon and the researcher hopes to relay the findings and interpretations that result from NDU to other educational institutions. She also aims to ensure the accomplishment of the above-mentioned objectives so that leaders in institutions of higher education in Lebanon can be more efficient and effective in the achievement of organizational goals. In addition, leaders can establish a team of homogeneous people who are loyal and committed to their workplace. Tables 1A & 1B show the relationship between the questions and objectives; the reader will be reminded of this throughout the dissertation.

Table 1 A

The Relationship

Research Questions	Objectives	Conceptual Framework
How does the satisfaction of employee needs become a motivator that influences performance?	To establish the importance of employee motivation and review what is known about the practice.	Chapter Two: Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation
	To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity.	
What are the effects of leadership styles on employee attitude toward motivation as a result of participation?	To inform leaders of higher education of the philosophy of participative management and its benefits.	Chapter Three: Leadership and Management
	To identify the opportunities for and benefits of employee development.	
	To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people.	

Table 1 B

The Relationship

Research Questions	Objectives	Conceptual Framework
How does leader-employee interaction affect motivation and consequently, productivity?	To specify an effective and efficient leader-employee relationship. To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer.	Chapter Four: Human Resource Management
How does open communication influence employee performance?	To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer.	Chapter Two: Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation

The research questions were formulated to meet and complement the objectives that the researcher presented in the previous section. In turn, the questions lead to the previously mentioned assumptions with the conceptual framework supporting the researcher's arguments. In addition, the findings and analysis of the data are structured around the research questions of this study. The analysis and interpretation of the data will aid in answering the questions and confirming the assumptions. Consequently, the objectives will be met. The Literature Review is divided into three chapters as the researcher explains in this chapter. They are all interrelated but the separation is simply to stress the association to each of the research questions, assumptions and objectives.

Chosen Research Approach

Educational research has such profound implications that no one single method of analysis would do justice. The researcher has chosen a case study for its practicality. Therefore, instead of using either quantitative or qualitative methods, triangulation that uses a combination of perspectives will be utilized (Chapter Five). The main research instruments are questionnaires and interviews. Triangulation and correlation techniques ensured the reliability and validity of the data. Blending methods of research will produce a more comprehensive final product that can feature the significant contributions of both to the field of education. "Qualitative and quantitative methods build upon each other and offer information that neither one alone could provide" (Sells et al., 1995, p.215).

Qualitative research designs are those that are associated with explorative, interpretative approaches from the informants' point of view rather than measuring discrete, observable behavior (Jones, 1997, p.3). Techniques range from interviews, observations, and fieldwork to archival research. On the other hand, quantitative designs show evidence of formal propositions, quantifiable measures of variables, hypothesis testing, and the drawing of inferences about a phenomenon from the sample to a stated population (Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991). All educational research must address the issues of reliability and validity (Bush, 1999). "Reliability is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions" (Bell, 1987, p.50). "Validity is the extent to which an indicator is a measure of what the researcher wishes to measure" (Sapsford & Evans, 1984, p.259). However, "if an item is unreliable, then it must also lack validity, but a reliable item is not necessarily also valid" (Bell, 1987, p.51). The best way to secure both the reliability and validity of the study is to triangulate (Cohen & Manion, 1995).

Triangulation compares the results from two or more different methods of data

collection. It may be seen as a way of ensuring comprehensiveness and encouraging a more reflexive analysis of the data rather than as a pure test of validity (Mays & Pope, 2000). The combination of methodologies can focus on their relevant strengths (Jones, 1997) where "qualitative data can support and explicate the meaning of quantitative research" (Jayaratne, 1993, p.117). The specifics of the methodology such as population, sampling, design techniques and instrumentation will be highlighted in Chapter Five - Methodology.

Structure of the Dissertation

The scope of any study is defined by the area within the limits of the investigation and identifies a space for action and thought; the scope of this study has been defined in this chapter and the framework will stay within these confines. As an inside researcher, discussed in Chapter Five, the researcher anticipates certain restrictions within the margins of the case study. The limitations will be discussed in detail in Chapter Five. This study has witnessed two Presidents. These short-term changes have promoted a feeling of insecurity. In addition, people are very conscious of the micro politics involved with such changes. This insecurity may cause respondents to present the researcher with inaccurate information or they may just say what they want the researcher to hear. Even though it's an educational institution, NDU still experiences nepotism and the "protégé" syndrome.

Moreover, the respondents will be employees at all echelons; there may be a language barrier since research instruments are all in English. There may be the "Leader Complex"; since all echelons will be respondents, they may feel they don't want to report to anyone. Furthermore, respondents may be hesitant to reply to specific questions for they may feel threatened despite the cover letter that stresses confidentiality. These limitations will be given careful consideration while reviewing the final results of this study and they will be specified in Chapter Five. As a result, this dissertation entitled *The Extent to which Satisfaction is a Prerequisite for Employee Motivation to Enhance Productivity in Institutions of Higher Education in Lebanon: A Case Study of Notre*

Dame University is comprised of eight chapters.

Chapter One, the Introduction presents an overview, the focus, the background of the study, the significance, the research questions, and the research approach. The Review of Literature is divided into three parts that will be covered in Chapter Two – Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation; Chapter Three – Leadership and Management; and Chapter Four – Human Resource Management.

Chapter Five focuses on the overall Methodology of the study by specifying the research methods, reliability and validity, ethics, limitations, instrumentation and procedures. Chapter Six discloses the findings of the study, analyses and interpretation.   The characteristics of the study and specifications of the data are also presented.

Chapter Seven discusses the outcomes, research questions and highlights the research results.   Chapter Eight draws conclusions from the research, gives suggestions for future research, and presents the implications and future recommendations for better productivity in academic institutions.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW of LITERATURE [PART I]
SATISFACTION: A PREREQUISITE for MOTIVATION

Overview

This chapter reviews the pertinent theoretical literature of satisfaction as a prelude to motivation. In particular, the chapter tackles the underpinning theoretical assumptions pertaining to work motivation, satisfaction and the various motivational approaches in organizations in order to establish and rationalize the objectives, research questions and methods used in the present study.

In fact, work motivation and work satisfaction continue to occupy a central position in organizational sciences because it is assumed that they exert important influence on action and behaviour in organizations. Key and kernel to motivation is the vision that motivates in order to achieve the desired goal of satisfaction. People who have a vision control their destiny and lifestyle; without a vision, people are doomed to have their loci of destiny and lifestyle controlled by others because they lack satisfaction as a drive. Motivation starts with the desire to be free, to live our own lifestyle and to explore our own ideas. Social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978) plays a fundamental role in the formation and development of these concepts at both the social and individual levels (Wertsch, 1985).

Work motivation and satisfaction are regarded as essential contributions to human resources in organizations in managing effectiveness and quality. As opposed to so-called hard factors such as hardware, costs and benefits, motivation and satisfaction are often referred to as soft factors (Büssing, 2002). These so-called soft factors constitute

hidden realities that cannot be measured in a direct and objective way. Work satisfaction is the most prominent result of work motivation. The various integrated approaches to motivation may substantially provide a clear prediction of work satisfaction, employee withdrawal or job performance (Ibid.). In other words, motivational concepts such as expectancy, valence, goal setting, self-efficacy, and self-regulation may identify a number of individual expressions relevant to organizational behaviour such as attitudes, perceptions, and emotions as expressed in work satisfaction, stress, turnover, absenteeism and performance.

The New York Stock Exchange conducted an extensive study (1982) of 49,000 U.S. companies employing 41 million employees. The study provided a comprehensive profile of the employee involvement effort for motivation taking place in America. The survey describes a movement in its developmental stage with enormous potential. Eighty-two percent of the corporation felt that participative management, discussed in Chapter Four, was a "promising new approach", compared to the 3% that felt it was "just a passing fad" (McKendrick, 1983). The report (New York Stock Exchange [NYSE], 1982) recommended improved workplace productivity through educational programs, better training and more employee involvement in decision making and financial gain sharing. Despite global differences, employees of the world speak the same language when it comes to their employers and work environment–they want to be treated fairly; they want employers to operate out of care and concern for them; they want a comfortable work environment; and they want to be trusted to do their job (Yukl, 1998). This will breed satisfaction, which will motivate them to perform effectively and efficiently.

A recent path-breaking study conducted by the Walker Information Global Network in collaboration with the Hudson Institute (2000) shows that only 34% of the world's employees are "Truly Loyal" to their employers. Global employees have stressed the cultural, political and economic differences but have overlooked the similarities; that is, people are people, driven by essentially the same desires. Employees that gain commitment by showing commitment will weave through the fabric of their workplaces a commitment that results from satisfaction. Such employers will reap the rewards by

learning that committed employees are also highly proactive employees. Conducted by Walker Information Global Network and the Hudson Institute, the 2000 Global Employee Relationship Benchmark Report represents the attitudes and experiences of employees throughout the world regarding their satisfaction with, and commitment to their current employers, and the factors that drive that commitment. Over 9,700 full and part-time employees participated in the study / representing business, non-profit and government organizations in 32 countries in Europe, the Middle East, Asia Pacific, North America, Latin America, Africa and Australia. Thus, regardless of their nationalities, people have needs, desires and wants and if they are satisfied, then this will positively affect their job performance.

Across the globe, employees are showing a general inability to commitment. Only six in ten express the values that indicate genuine commitment. This pattern (Walker Information, 2000) is consistent throughout the world, with Latin America posting the highest level, and America and Europe the lowest. The following are the most significant findings of the 2000 Global Employee Relationship Benchmark Report:

1. Developing countries like Colombia and Korea show extremely high employee commitment;

2. Highly industrialized nations like Japan, Greece, Hong Kong and Singapore showed the poorest employee commitment in the world;

3. The likelihood of world employees to feel they belong to their organization is 55%;

4. Only 34% of the world's employees are truly loyal "to their" organization;

5. The top five country ranking of "truly loyal" employees are Colombia, Korea, Cyprus, Puerto Rico and Saudi Arabia;

6. 31% of workers worldwide are "trapped" – they don't want to stay but they feel they have to stay – Hong Kong, Egypt, Indonesia, Taiwan, Greece, Italy and Singapore;

7. Twenty-seven percent of employees are "high risk" – they don't want to stay and don't plan to – Australia, Japan, Chile, Singapore;

8. The top-five ranking of High Risk and Trapped employees by region are Australia, Asia/Pacific, Europe, South Africa, Middle East and India (tie);

9. Sixty-eight percent of world employees are motivated to do work well;

10. Fifty-nine percent admit that their company has a good environment;

11. Sixty-three percent of employees work above and beyond the call of duty – the most likely are North Americans and Australians; the least likely are Middle Easterners and Asians;

12. Employees from the Middle East and Asia / Pacific rank their employers the lowest for providing fairness;

13. Europe, the Middle East and India rank their employers the lowest for care and concern for employees.

The above-listed findings are from business organizations; similarly, people want their needs to be met. Even though the focus of this study is educational in nature and scope, the following chapter will present that the outlook and requirements remain the same for they belong to the employee despite the nature of the organization. Employees throughout the world agree their commitment and loyalty is driven by fairness at work, care and concern, and trust, all of which enhance performance since employees feel that their desires and needs are satisfied (Walker Information, 2000). One intervention that can be utilized to make jobs more intrinsically motivating and attractive is job re-design. This involves examining each job's structure for possible improvements to make the job more rewarding (Schneider & Bowen, 1995). Once satisfaction is reached, employees find that their jobs are actually easier to enjoy than free time.

Like "flow" activities, jobs contain built-in goals, feedback, rules and challenges that encourage involvement and commitment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). A freak performance state of "flow" is a combination of challenges and autonomy that creates a perfect sense of balance and accomplishment (Haasen & Gordon, 1997, p.9). "Learning new skills bolsters people's self-confidence and leads to personal growth" (Ibid, p.41). Employee dissatisfaction leads to a high rate of turnover and thus could account for hard costs associated with the rehiring and retraining of new works. When an employee leaves a company, the company not only loses the investment it has made in that employee, but everything associated with that investment – job knowledge, skill mastery and organizational understanding. Other factors that influence motivation are diverse in terms of culture, power, politics and change to be discussed in Chapter Three. Authority

is only one element in the larger concept of power that is an individual's capacity to influence decisions (Kipnis, 1976; Pfeffer, 1981).

John French and Bertram Raven have identified five sources, or bases, of power: coercive, reward, legitimate, expert and referent (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985; Frost & Stahelski, 1988). Moreover, political processes can be used to maintain power (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977a). When major changes occur and the dominant coalition lacks the expertise to develop a strategy appropriate to the new challenges, the organization will become out of phase with the environment. As a result, the performance of the organization will suffer. Yet another factor that affects motivation is culture, discussed in Chapter Three. Individuals are usually attracted to organizations with structures and cultures that consider specific values and needs. Organizations have cultures that govern how their members should behave, that reflect patterns or systems of values, symbols, rituals, myths, and practices (Smirich, 1983; Schein, 1992). Organizational culture usually reflects the vision or mission of the organization founders. Culture, whether external or internal (across borders) (across organizations) plays a major role in shaping the overall effectiveness and long-term success of organizations (Griffin, 1996). These issues will be discussed in the coming chapters. They all contribute to satisfaction and motivation that are the key terms of the conceptual framework of this discussion, shown in Chapter One. This chapter will start by reviewing previous research on the organizational factors that influence motivation that is a result of satisfaction.

Satisfaction

The skills that the people in an organization possess set the direction of the organization and provide vision, purpose, and goal definition. Good organizations convey a strong vision of their future position. Leaders should promote a sense of trust in employees by keeping them satisfied so as to contribute to the attainment of the vision. This requires a lot of energy and a display of positive attitude that should be contagious. Leaders must

grasp the situation and ensure the proper implementation of plans and policies; this requires the supervision and inspection of accomplished tasks.

Work satisfaction is a "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1976, p.1300). Certain intervention studies (Katzell, Thompson & Guzzo, 1992) imply a comparably stronger link between work satisfaction and job performance since it can be interpreted as the interaction process linking people to their work situations. The researcher's objective is to add more links to this extraordinary chain. More recent studies (Büssing & Bissels, 1998; Büssing et al., 1999a) examined the dynamic notion of work satisfaction by incorporating the widely accepted comprehension as the degree of fit between the actual work situation and personal aspirations - Equity Theory, discussed later in this chapter.

A model (Büssing & Bissels, 1998; Büssing et al., 1999a) develops a four-step process that leads to six forms of work satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The four variables central to the model are the (1) differences between actual value of the work situation and personal aspirations; (2) perceived controllability; (3) changes in the level of aspiration; and (4) problem-solving behavior (coping). Control regulates cross-cultural activity (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995), governs person-work interaction and contributes significantly to processes of well being (Terry & Jammieson, 1999). The different forms of work satisfaction are displayed in Table 2 which identifies the characteristics that they breed to employees.

Employees benefit from supervisors (Lumsden, 1994; Anderman & Midgley, 1998) who are knowledgeable and experienced. However, over-supervision stifles initiative, breeds resentment, and lowers morale and motivation whereas under-supervision leads to miscommunication, lack of coordination, and the perception by subordinates that the leader does not care. In either situation, employees will be dissatisfied and thus, performance is hindered and this will lead to low productivity. As part of supervision, people want to be evaluated by judging the worth, quality, or significance of their ideas and actions.

Table 2

Different Forms of Work Satisfaction

Type	Characteristics
Progressive Work Satisfaction	Work satisfaction, high aspiration levels
Stabilized Work Satisfaction	Satisfied but few work incentives, maintain level of aspiration
Resigned Work Satisfaction	Indistinct work dissatisfaction, decreased level of aspiration to achieve positive state of satisfaction
Constructive Work Dissatisfaction	Work dissatisfaction, problem-solving attempts, tries to master goal orientation and motivation
Fixated Work Dissatisfaction	Work dissatisfaction, frustration prevents any effort for development
Pseudo-work Satisfaction	Work dissatisfaction, insoluble problems, frustrating work conditions, and denial result in pseudo-work satisfaction

Source: Büssing and Bissels, 1998; Büssing et al., 1999a

If performance is appraised accordingly, employees become more inspired to perform effectively and efficiently. Ensuring employee satisfaction is vital to long-term business survival and profitability. Statistics like the following (SPSS, 1996) underscore the need to satisfy current employees so they remain with the organization (Dinham & Scott, 1998):

1. The average person with a problem eventually tells nine other people;

2. Satisfied people tell five other people about their good treatment;

3. The cost of acquiring new people is usually five to seven times greater than retaining current ones;

4. The cost of hiring and training a new employee is up to ten times greater than retaining current ones.

The building of motivational factors into organizational roles, the staffing of these roles and the entire process of leading people needs to revolve around a sound knowledge of motivation (Bomia et al., 1997). The art of motivation starts by influencing the behaviour of individuals; through satisfaction, it can persuade, convince and propel

people to act. Motivation is the will to act by exerting high levels of efforts towards achieving organizational goals, conditioned by smart and efficient work and the ability to satisfy some individual needs. To motivate their subordinates, managers must act in such a manner as to satisfy the drives and desires of subordinates (Ibid.). Motivating others is the most important of management tasks. It comprises the abilities (Skinner & Belmont, 1991) to communicate, to set an example, to encourage, to challenge, to obtain feedback, to delegate, to involve, to develop and train, to inform, to brief and to provide a just reward.

The discussion of employee satisfaction and motivation should in no way exclude the mention of teacher satisfaction, motivation and commitment. When teachers, whether in schools or universities, are satisfied, then performance will be at its peak to offer quality education to the students who in turn will also be satisfied. A desire to find answers to these and other questions initiated the Teacher 2000 Project (Dinham & Scott, 1998). A theoretical framework for the afore-mentioned project was provided by earlier studies (Dinham & Scott, 1996a; 1996b; 1997a) and the 'two-factor theory' of occupational satisfaction emanating from various studies (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959; Sergiovanni, 1967). The results of these studies suggest that the factors contributing to occupational satisfaction are related to, but largely different from those giving rise to occupational dissatisfaction.

The Teacher 2000 Project–a comparative study of teacher satisfaction and motivation in Australia, England and New Zealand–found three broad domains (Dinham & Scott, 1998) of teacher satisfaction: (1) the 'core business' of teaching, centered on student achievement and personal professional self-growth, which respondents found highly satisfying; (2) the predicted extrinsic aspects of teaching, such as the status of teachers, educational change and social expectations, which respondents found uniformly dissatisfying; (3) a central domain of satisfaction factors which were either neutral or moderately satisfying/dissatisfying, such as leadership and decision making factors, infrastructure, community relations, reputation, communication, factors which showed variance from one institution to another with leadership being the key factor in the level of satisfaction experienced within the middle domain.

The links between motivation and satisfaction are complex for many believe they are synonymous concepts. Motivation refers to the drives and efforts to satisfy a want or goal, whereas satisfaction refers to the contentment experienced when a want is satisfied. Once this want is satisfied, motivation occurs. Consequently, internal or external stimulus (Dev, 1997; Brooks et al., 1998) acts as a carrier of either motivation or demotivation that in turn results in either satisfaction or dissatisfaction depending upon the existing circumstances. Thus, employee satisfaction leads to motivated people who are enthusiastic to accomplish organizational goals and believe in the vision.

The Nature of Motivation

The term 'motivation' was originally derived from the Latin word 'movere' that means 'to move'...; to move the various aspects inherent in the process by which human behaviour is activated (Steers & Porter, 1991). The common denominators that characterize the phenomenon of motivation are: (1) what energizes human behaviour; (2) what directs or channels such behaviour; and (3) how this behaviour is maintained or sustained (Ibid.). For instance, on any particular day, an employee may choose to work as hard as possible, to work hard enough to avoid a reprimand, or to do as little as possible. The goal of the manager is to maximize the occurrence of the first incident and minimize the occurrence of the last one. This goal becomes all the more important with a comprehension of how crucial motivation is in the workplace (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993).

Work motivation emphasizes the expectations and subjective evaluation of people with the consequences associated with alternative actions in the workplace (Kleinbeck et al., 1990; Kanfer, 1994; Locke, 1997; Leonard et al., 1999). There are three behavioural requirements (Katz & Kahn, 1978) of the people in an organization, they:

1. must be attracted not only to join the organization but also to remain in it;
2. must perform the tasks for which they are hired, and must do so in a dependable manner;

3. must go beyond this dependable role performance and engage in some form of creative, spontaneous, and innovative behaviour at work.

The Rubicon model (Gollwitzer & Bargh, 1996) connects motivation and volition in the attempt to link distal constructs such as needs, motives, dispositions and flow and proximal constructs of work motivation such as goal setting and self-regulation. The Rubican model identifies four phases relevant to action: (1) weighing (first motivational or choice phase); (2) planning (volitional phase); (3) acting (volitional phase); (4) evaluating (second motivational phase). In other words, Rubicon bridges the gap between weighing and willing, between motivation and intention. Such an integrated approach substantially contributes (Kanter, 1994) to a more accurate prediction of work satisfaction, employee withdrawal or job performance.

Table 3

An Environment for Motivation

Dimension	Keys
Qualities of employees	(1) Know qualities and abilities of employees and match them with the appropriate job
Nature of job	(2) Design jobs so require. Challenge employees and offer opportunity to excel
Quality of supervision	(3) Have a clear vision and make sure employees know it
	(4) Be honest, supportive, accessible, fair, open, compassionate and interested in well-being of employees
	(5) Recognize employees by praising them and provide constructive feedback and direction
	(4) Communicate information on company goals and progress and allow them to communicate ideas
	(5) Empower employees by sharing decision making, get them involved in management and incorporate their ideas and techniques
Company philosophy	(8) Share rewards with contributing employees
	(9) Put philosophies such as "Our employees are our greatest asset" into action by paying fairly, rewarding dedication and recognizing employees who go beyond "the call of duty"

Source: Wiley, 1992.

51

In order to create an environment that releases employee motivation, business managers can blend certain keys that correspond to specific dimensions that identify the characteristics of an effective and efficient workplace. Such a framework is illustrated in Table Three that designates nine keys and four dimensions for healthy corporate cultures; the link between culture and motivation is introduced in the next section and elaborated in the next chapter. High motivation levels among employees are the result of a good job done by the right person who works for a competent supervisor under the banner of a positive company philosophy (Wiley, 1992). More than ever employees need to know how they are doing in their roles, how the team is doing and how the organization is doing as a whole (Hutcheson & McDonald, 2000). Collaboration is a mutually beneficial relationship between two or more parties who work toward common goals by sharing responsibility, authority and accountability for achieving results (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). The findings from research surveys (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Kanter, 1983; Bradford & Cohen, 1984; Peters & Austin, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1987;) have shown that employee participation solicits more productivity, and enhances performance, loyalty and commitment.

Individual and organizational effort, the identification of organizational goals and the satisfaction of individual needs are the cornerstones of a meaningful, effective, and efficient workplace that houses loyal people. There are many qualities and characteristics that both the individual and the organization should possess for a flexible and effective work environment. Such features can act as keys (Terez, 2000) to enhance performance and productivity:

1. Mission Keys – purpose, direction, relevance, validation;
2. People Keys – respect, equality, informality, flexibility, ownership;
3. Development Keys – challenge, invention, support, personal development;
4. Community Keys – dialogue, relationship building, service, acknowledgement, oneness;
5. Me Keys – self-identity, fit, balance, worth.

Through the implementation and utilization of such guidelines, employees will achieve self-development to result in satisfaction that will result in a commitment to quality

performance within the organization. Many of these keys are the variables that the researcher presented in the instrument for the participants of this study.

Motivation in Organizations

Motivation, ability and the work environment are extremely important and generally determine employee performance. If an employee lacks ability, a manager can offer training or replace the worker. If the work atmosphere is the problem, a manager can make adjustments to promote higher performance. However, if motivation is the problem, a manager's job is more challenging for achievement orientation includes a set of related attitudes, values, and needs: need for achievement, desire to excel, drive to succeed, willingness to assume responsibility, and concern for task objectives (Wainer & Rubin, 1969; Stahl, 1983; Bass, 1990).

The concept of the organization has long symbolized the efficient, effective, and rational allocation of resources for task accomplishment that determines the growth and development of business, governmental, and educational institutions. High performing employees can make the difference between a marginal organization and a highly effective one. The set of factors that cause people to behave in certain ways is known as motivation (Steers & Porter, 1991). For an organization to be effective, its members must direct their behaviour toward high job performance in a strong, persistent manner. Motivation refers to (1) the direction of an individual's behaviour; (2) the strength of that behaviour; (3) the persistence of the behaviour (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). Thus, motivation is crucial because of its significance as a determinant of performance and because of its intangible character (Sullivan, 1988).

Motivation needs to be viewed as a social process. The responsibility of management is to make employees feel useful and important on the job, to provide recognition, and to facilitate the satisfaction of workers' social needs (Steers & Porter, 1991). While money is a primary motivational force, from a psychological point of view, motivation can be a

source of identity, self-esteem, and self-actualisation by giving employees a sense of purpose and value to society. The various approaches and theories of motivation are discussed in detail later in this chapter and they explain the relationships between job satisfaction and performance. These strategies emerged from such assumptions (Ibid.): it is the responsibility of management to make workers feel important; employees should know more about the organization through open communication channels and they should voice their opinions; since employees are stakeholders, they should be involved in the decision-making process; and incentive systems should be employed.

The Motivation Process

The motivation process begins with needs, or a deficiency – the content perspective. A need (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) means some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive (p.358). An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates drives within an individual. These drives generate a search behaviour to find goals that will satisfy the need and reduce the tension. Consequently, motivated employees are in a state of tension, which they relieve through effort. If this effort leads to the satisfaction of the need, it reduces tension and is directed toward organizational goals. Thus, individual needs must be compatible and consistent with the organizational goals. Furthermore, the motivation process progresses through a series of discrete steps that address content, process and reinforcement.

These steps are translated into a motivation framework (Griffin, 1996) that: (1) identifies a need (deficiency); (2) searches for ways to satisfy the need; (3) chooses a behaviour to satisfy the need; (4) evaluates the need satisfaction; (5) determines future needs and searches for satisfaction. Consequently, the motivational framework is built around variables on three levels that are discussed in detail in the next section; this is the framework within which the researcher will be working: (1) the individual (attitudes, interests, needs); (2) the nature of the job (control, responsibility); and (3) organizational environment (peer relations, supervisory practices, rewards, corporate culture).

Motivational Approaches and Theories

Both history and theory are important to the manager today. A theory (Griffin, 1996) is a conceptual framework for organizing knowledge and providing a blueprint for action. Management theories that build organizations and direct them to achieve their goals are grounded in reality (Drucker, 1994). Moreover, an awareness and understanding of historical developments are also important to contemporary managers (Wilkins & Bristow, 1987) for this provides a sense of heritage and helps managers to avoid the mistakes of others. Even though complex organizations have existed for several hundred years, managerial attention to the role of motivation in such organizations is a most recent phenomenon. Management ideology has been shaped by three sets of forces (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1993) – social, economic and political.

Social forces are the norms and values that characterize a culture. Employees are becoming more aware of liberty and justice in the workplace and in turn, organizations are becoming sensitive to the needs and values of workers (Scott, 1988). The evolution of such social forces has shaped theories of motivation, leadership, and human resource management. Another set is related to economic systems, conditions and trends and have affected environmental analysis, strategic planning, and organizational design (Donaldson, 1990). The political forces govern institutions and general governmental policies and attitudes toward business (Griffin, 1996) – planning, organization design, employee rights, and control.

The Approaches

The traditional approach to employee motivation is best represented by the work of Frederick W. Taylor (1911). The basic principles of scientific management (Ibid.) were concerned with improving individual performance. He introduced numerous innovations in how jobs were designed and how workers were trained. These, he believed, would

lead to a more efficient and productive workplace, improved employee morale, and higher-quality products. However, Taylor assumed that economic gain was people's primary motivation. Even though the role of money can't be dismissed, the traditional approach failed to consider other motivational factors.

Another is the human relations approach that grew from the Hawthorne studies conducted by Elton Mayo and his associates (Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). This movement proposed that workers respond to the social context of the workplace, including social conditioning, group norms, and interpersonal dynamics. A basic assumption of the human relations approach was that the manager's concern for workers would lead to increased satisfaction, which would enhance performance (Staw, 1986). Another assumption was that employees want to feel useful and important, that they have strong social needs, and that these needs are more important than money in motivating employees.

While the human relationists believed that contribution and participation enhanced motivation, the human resource approach goes one step further and assumes that these contributions are valuable to both the individual and the organization. Management must encourage participation and create a work environment that utilizes human resources to the fullest (Miner, Crane, & Vandenberg, 1994). This philosophy guides most contemporary thinking about employee motivation. The 1950s were a fruitful time for the development of motivation concepts. Three specific theories – hierarchy of needs, X and Y, motivation-hygiene – were formulated during this period. These theories are important (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) for at least two reasons:

1. They represent the foundation from which contemporary theories developed;
2. Practicing managers regularly use these theories and their terminology in explaining employee motivation;

Douglas McGregor proposed two distinct views of the nature of human beings: a basically negative view labelled Theory X, and a basically positive view labelled Theory Y (McGregor, 1960). The Theory X and Theory Y models best represent the essence of the human relations movement (Ibid.). Theory X (Griffin, 1996; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) is a pessimistic and negative view of workers consistent with the views of scientific management. McGregor's assumptions are that employees:

1. Inherently dislike work and they will attempt to avoid it;
2. Must be coerced, controlled or threatened with punishment to achieve desired goals;
3. Will shirk responsibilities and seek formal direction;
4. Will display little ambition and place security above all other work-related factors.

On the other hand, Theory Y (Griffin, 1996; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) is an optimistic and positive view of workers and represents the human relations approach. McGregor's assumptions are that employees:

1. View work as natural as play or rest;
2. Exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives;
3. Accept and even seek responsibility;
4. Have the capacity to be innovative in solving organizational problems.

An organization that is operated along Theory X lines tends to be authoritarian in nature. In contrast, a Theory Y organization can be described as 'participative', where the aims of the organization and of the individual in it are integrated. Individuals can achieve their own goals by directing their efforts towards the success of the organization. McGregor's implications about motivation are expressed in Maslow's framework that will be presented in a coming section. Physiological and safety needs dominate the Theory X individual whereas social and esteem needs are dominant in the Theory Y

individual. As a result, he proposed that participation in decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations would maximize work effort.

The Two-Factor Theory

Another popular content perspective on motivation that the researcher will investigate at NDU is the two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1987). It is also recognized as Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1982). Frederick Herzberg developed this theory by asking two hundred accountants and engineers to recall occasions when they had been satisfied with their work and highly motivated and occasions when they had been dissatisfied and demotivated. The findings led him to identify two continuums: one ranging from satisfaction to no satisfaction and the other ranging from dissatisfaction to no dissatisfaction.

Herzberg derived his theory based on the question "What do people want from their jobs?" The responses led him to the conclusion that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction. Herzberg stated that the presence of certain factors in an organization is natural, and the presence of the same does not lead to motivation. However, their non-presence leads to demotivation. Similarly, the absence of specific factors causes no dissatisfaction, whereas their presence has motivational impact. The hygiene factors or dissatisfiers are working conditions, policies and administrative practices, salary and benefits, supervision, status, job security, fellow workers and personal life. The motivational factors or satisfiers are recognition, achievement, advancement, growth, responsibility and job challenge. Herzberg's needs are specifically job related and reflect some of the distinct things that people want from their work.

Moreover, the factors influencing the satisfaction continuum (Griffin, 1996) – called motivation factors – are related specifically to the work content. The factors presumed to cause dissatisfaction – called hygiene factors – are related to the work environment. According to Herzberg, motivators are factors such as recognition and growth that

58

increase job satisfaction. The motivation factors are achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth. The hygiene factors are supervisors, working conditions, interpersonal relations, pay and security, company policies and administration. By providing hygiene factors at an appropriate level and giving employees the opportunity to experience motivation factors such as achievement and recognition, the result is predicted to be a high level of satisfaction and motivation. Furthermore, the enthusiasm for job enrichment, discussed earlier, can be attributed to Herzberg's findings and recommendations leading to motivation.

Individual Needs Theories

Need theories assume that people have different needs that can be arranged in a hierarchy of importance. Individuals' needs – internal states of disequilibria – are a critical determinant of what people want from the environment (Steers & Porter, 1991). Therefore, theories of human needs have been termed 'content theories' of motivation that attempt to answer questions of how motivation operates. A basic assumption of all need theories is that when need deficiencies exist; individuals are motivated to action to satisfy them. The researcher has a great interest in identifying how the satisfaction of human needs, discussed earlier, enhances performance at NDU with one of the research questions of the study dealing with this issue.

One of the earliest theories of needs was the 'manifest need theory' (Murray, 1970). Murray believed that needs are mostly learned rather than inherited and are activated by cues from the external environment. He identified a wide range of needs that people acquire through interaction with their environment. One group was classified as viscerogenic (primary) – the need for food, water, sex, urination, defecation and lactation. The second range was psychogenic (secondary) – the need for abasement, achievement, affiliation, aggression, autonomy, deference, dominance and power. These needs were derived from Murray's personal observations and clinical experiences and not from empirical research.

Leaders should interact with followers, peers, seniors, and other people because their support is required to achieve organizational objectives. To gain their support, it is crucial to understand what motivates them. To understand and motivate people, it is critical to know human nature. People behave in accordance to certain principles of human nature; these principles govern human behaviour. Human needs are a vital part of human nature. Abraham Maslow (Steers & Porter, 1991) was a clinical psychologist whose theory of motivation was part of a larger theory of human behavior. As a humanist who was deeply concerned about the dignity and worth of individuals, Maslow developed the hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1954) that identified five needs: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualisation; as each need becomes satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. These five needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance which Maslow called prepotency.

The hierarchy starts from the lowest-level basic needs through to the highest-order needs (Steers & Porter, 1991, pp.34-35):

1. Physiological needs – the most basic needs required for survival such as food, water, oxygen, sleep, sex and sensory satisfaction. Organization factors are pay, pleasant working conditions, and the availability of a cafeteria;

2. Safety and Security needs – a desire for security, stability, dependency, protection, freedom for fear and anxiety, a need for structure, order and law. Organization factors are safe working conditions, benefits and job security;

3. Social needs – the need for belongingness and love, emotional love, friendship, affectionate relationships. Examples of organization factors are cohesive work groups, friendly supervision and professional associations;

4. Ego and Esteem – the desire for self-respect, self-esteem and for the esteem of others. Internal esteem includes a desire for strength,

achievement, adequacy, mastery, confidence, independence and freedom. External esteem is a desire for reputation or prestige, status, fame and glory, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, dignity and appreciation. Social recognition, job title, high status job and feedback from the job are examples of organization factors;

5. Self-actualisation – the highest need in Maslow's hierarchy refers to the needs for self-realization and continuous self-development. Organization factors are challenging jobs, opportunities for creativity, achievement in work and advancement in the organization.

To achieve self-actualisation, there are the two cognitive and aesthetic needs to satisfy: (1) cognitive: learning for learning alone, ready to contribute knowledge; (2) aesthetic: at peace, more curious about the inner workings of all. Self-actualisation (Steers & Porter, 1991) was one of Maslow's most unique contributions to motivation theory. Self-actualisation refers to the process of developing true potential as individuals to the fullest extent, and expressing our skills, talents, and emotions in the most personally fulfilling manner. It is a process, not an end state. Over and above self-actualisation is the need for self-transcendence – a higher, psychic or spiritual state of development, level that emphasizes visionary intuition, altruism, and unity consciousness. According to Maslow, to motivate people, there should be an understanding of where that person is in the hierarchy and then a focus on satisfying needs at or above that level. Organizational development programs such as participative management and job enrichment have adopted Maslow's theory.

The ERG Theory

The ERG theory of motivation (Alderfer, 1972) suggests that people's needs are grouped into three possibly overlapping categories – Existence, Relatedness, and Growth. The ERG theory (Griffin, 1996; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) moves parallel to Maslow's hierarchy but divides it into three levels: existence needs correspond to the physiological

and security needs; relatedness needs focus on how people relate to their social environment; growth needs include the needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation.

If the gratification of a higher-level need is frustrated, the desire to satisfy a lower level need will increase. Alderfer identifies this phenomenon as the 'frustration and regression dimension'. The ERG theory also highlights that more than one need may be operative at the same time and that if a higher need goes unsatisfied, then the desire to satisfy a lower need intensifies. Although both Maslow and Alderfer assume that motivated behavior follows a particular hierarchy, the ERG theory (Griffin, 1996) has two distinct features:

1. More than one level of need can cause motivation at the same time;

2. If needs remain unsatisfied, individuals become frustrated, regress to a lower level, and begin to pursue those things again.

Some needs may be more important than others and people may change their behavior after any particular set of needs has been satisfied.

The Three Needs Theory

Another well-known need theory (Steers & Porter, 1991; Griffin, 1996; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) is the learned needs theory developed by David McClelland and his associates. This theory is based on the needs that are learned or acquired by the events people experience. In addition, it represents behavior that influences the way individuals perceive situations and how it motivates them to pursue a particular goal. McClelland and his associates, particularly John Atkinson, investigated three of Murray's needs: achievement, affiliation, and power. It has been labelled the three-needs theory (McClelland, 1961, 1969; Atkinson & Raynor, 1974).

The first is the need for achievement (nAch) (Steers & Porter, 1991; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998), which is the desire to excel, and behavior that is directed toward competition with a standard of excellence. Certain people have a compelling drive to

succeed and perform more efficiently every time every time they perform a task. High achievers differentiate themselves from others by their persistence to do things better (McClelland, 1961). They welcome responsibility for problem-solving situations, which will give them rapid and unambiguous feedback on their performance.

A laboratory study (Atkinson, 1998; 2001) showed that money didn't have a strong motivating effect on high-need achievers: they performed well with or without financial incentives. On the contrary, low-need achievers didn't perform well without financial incentives. High-need achievers have been identified (McClelland, 1961; 1969) as having a strong desire to assume personal responsibility for performing a task or finding a solution to a problem; they choose co-workers on their competence rather than their friendship. They also set difficult goals and take calculated risks. Moreover, they seek to know their level of performance, whether success or failure.

The second of the three-needs theory (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) is the need for affiliation (nAff), which is defined as the desire to establish and maintain human companionship and acceptance. Individuals with a high need for affiliation have a strong desire for approval and reassurance from others. These people have a tendency to conform to the wishes and norms of others when they are pressured by others whose friendship they value. In addition, they display a sincere interest in the feelings of others. Evidence (Chung, 1977) indicates that individuals with high nAff tend to perform better in situations where personal support and approval are linked to performance. The need for affiliation corresponds to Maslow's social need of belongingness.

The need for power (nPow) (Steers & Porter, 1991; Griffin, 1996) is the need to control others, to influence their behavior, and to be responsible for them. The need for power has received considerable attention as an important ingredient in managerial success (McClelland, 1970; Pfeffer, 1981; Cornelius & Lane, 1984). Individuals who possess a high need for power are characterized by: (1) a desire to influence and direct somebody else; (2) a desire to exercise control over others; and (3) a concern for maintaining

leader-follower relations (Steers & Porter, 1991, p.42). One study (McClelland & Burnham, 1976) revealed that mangers as a group tend to expose a stronger power motive than the general population and those successful managers have stronger power motives than less successful managers.

The Cognitive Theories

People are seen as reasonable thinking individuals who often ponder the anticipated consequences of their work-related activities. Cognition assumes that individuals engage in a certain kind of behavior that is directly related to the performance of their tasks. Thus, cognitive theories formulate models that reveal the various processes of thought that people experience when they decide to participate and perform in the workplace. In this section, the researcher will discuss three types of cognitive theories: (1) equity theory; (2) expectancy theory (also called valence-instrumentality-expectancy theory, or VIE); and (3) social learning theory. The researcher feels that it is imperative to acknowledge these theories and their contributions to satisfaction and motivation.

The Equity Theory

The concept of equity is usually interpreted (Goodman, 1977) in work organizations as a positive association between an employee's effort or performance on the job and the remuneration that is received in return. That is, the more employees contribute, the higher the amount of the reward they should receive; this is known as the "equity norm". Individual expectations about equity of "fair" correlations between inputs and outcomes (Adams, 1965) are learned during the socialization process (ex. in the home or at work) and through a comparison with the inputs and outcomes of others. Consequently, the equity theory of motivation, developed by J. Stacy Adams, contends that people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they receive for performance (Adams, 1963).

Outcomes include pay, recognition, promotions, social relationships, and intrinsic rewards. To receive these rewards, individuals offer inputs such as time, experience, effort, education, and loyalty (Griffin, 1996). In addition, the theory suggests that people consider their outcomes and inputs as a ratio and then this ratio is compared to the ratio of another person or system known as the referent (Ronen, 1986; School et al., 1987; Kulik & Ambrose,1992). As a result of this comparison, three conditions result – the individual may feel equitably rewarded, under-rewarded, or over- rewarded (Griffin, 1996; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998). If the two ratios are equal, employees perceive that their situation is fair and that justice prevails.

A state of inequity proposes (Goodman & Friedman, 1971) the following:

1. Given payment by time, over rewarded employees will produce more than equitably paid employees;

2. Given payment by quantity of production, over rewarded employees will produce fewer but high-quality units than equitably paid employees;

3. Given payment by time, underewarded employees will produce less or poorer-quality output;

4. Given payment by quantity of production, underewarded employees will produce a large number of low-quality units in comparison with equitably paid employees.

In other words, whenever employees perceive inequity, they will act to correct the situation (Dittrich & Carrell, 1979; Lord & Hohenfeld, 1979). Their plan of action may be one of various options:

1. They distort either their own or other's inputs or outcomes;

2. They behave in a way to induce others to change their inputs or outcomes;

3. They behave in a way to change their own inputs or outcomes;

4. They choose a different comparison referent;

5. They quit their job.

Basically, what managers need to retain from the equity theory is that if rewards are to motivate employees, they must be equitable and fair. In turn, if employees receive rewards as a result of their performance and these rewards are considered equitable, then the result is satisfaction that leads to the enhancement of performance and productivity.

The expectancy theory is another cognitive theory, which suggests that motivation depends (Griffin, 1996) on how much we want something and how likely we think we are to get it. For instance, people apply to jobs because they want them and because they presume that they have a reasonable chance of getting them (Woika, 1993). The formal expectancy framework (Vroom, 1964) assumes (Nadler & Lawler III, 1983) that:

1. Behavior is determined by a combination of forces in the individual and the environment;

2. People make decisions about their own behavior in organizations;

3. Different people have different types of needs, desires and goals;

4. People make choices from among alternative plans of behavior based on their perceptions of the extent to which a given behavior will lead to desired outcomes.

Motivation leads to effort that if combined with employee ability and environmental factors, results in performance (Griffin, 1996). Accordingly, performance leads to various outcomes, each of which has an associated value called its valence – this explains the use of the term Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (Reward-Belief-Performance) Theory also for Expectancy theory. Motivated behavior occurs if the following conditions (Griffin, 1996) are met:

1. The effort-to-performance expectancy must be greater than zero (the individual must believe that if effort is expended, high performance will result);

2. The performance-to-outcome expectancy must be greater than zero (the individual must believe that high performance will lead to certain outcomes);

3. The sum of the valences for the outcomes must be greater than zero (one or more outcomes may have negative valences if they are more than offset by the positive valences of other outcomes).

An interesting extension of the expectancy theory (Porter & Lawler III, 1968) suggests that there may indeed be a relationship between satisfaction and performance but that it goes in the opposite direction – high performance may lead to high satisfaction. They describe satisfaction as "...the extent to which rewards actually received meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of rewards" (p.31). This Porter-Lawler model holds many implications for the issue concerning the interaction of performance and satisfaction where Valence x Expectancy x Instrumentality = Motivation. For satisfaction to be a contributing determinant of performance, a number of conditions (Steers & Porter, 1991, p.153) must hold:

1. Satisfaction must leave people wanting to attain more of the same outcome(s);

2. Even if the reward maintains its valence, effort will result only if there is a belief that effort will lead to the reward;

3. For individual effort to result in performance, the ability to perform and the knowledge of how to perform must exist;

4. Performance must result in rewards that are equitable as the earlier discussion revealed.

Moreover, the Porter-Lawler model implies that performance can be a cause of satisfaction when high performance can be an immediate cause of intrinsic satisfaction. Performance can contribute to extrinsic satisfaction only if desired rewards are tied to that performance; a connection between the performance and the reward is seen; and the rewards for performance are equitable.

Although the expectancy theory is rational, it may be difficult to implement (Wanous et al., 1983; Miller & Grush, 1988). For effective results, managers must identify all the potential outcomes for each employee, determine all relevant expectancies, and then make an overall balance that will maximize employee motivation. A series of steps (Nadler & Lawler III, 1983) formulate a guide of action if managers:

1. Figure out the outcomes each employee is likely to want;

2. Decide what kinds and levels of performance are needed to meet organization goals; desired performance must be attainable; desired outcomes and desired performance must be linked;

3. Analyse the whole situation for conflicting expectancies and ensure that rewards are large enough;

4. Identify the total system; it must be equitable and fair to all.

The Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory (Meichenbaum, 1984; Bandura, 1988) is one of behavior that takes into account intra-personal and environmental determinants and states that people learn through observation and direct experience (Bandura, 1977). Social learning theory is an extension of operant conditioning (Skinner, 1971), which is a behavioural theory that argues that voluntary, or learned behavior is a function of its consequences. Reinforcement, thus, strengthens a behavior and increases the likelihood that it will be repeated and four processes (Bandura, 1977) determine the influence that a certain model will have on an individual:

1. Attentional processes–people learn from and pay attention to critical features such as attractiveness, importance and similarity;

2. Retention processes–the influence depends on whether the individual has a clear memory of the action long after it ends;

3. Motor reproduction processes–individuals observe a model and then demonstrate that they are able to perform the activity;

4. Reinforcement processes–individuals are motivated to exhibit a modelled behavior if positive incentives or rewards are given.

Both internal and external theories of organizational behavior have made contributions to understanding and managing employees. The management of employee behavior needs to take into account cognitive processes such as expectations and attributions in addition to internal states such as needs and satisfaction (Steers & Porter, 1991). In addition, behavior and its environmental cues and consequences should be considered. The concept (Skinner, 1971) of behavior modification (O.B. Mod.) is to make on-the-job behavior occur more or less often by systematically managing antecedent conditions (that serve to cue the target behavior) and/or by managing contingent consequences that

serve to encourage or discourage repetition of the target behavior. In other words, O.B. Mod. applies the concepts of reinforcement in organizational settings (Hamner & Hamner, 1976; Luthans & Kreitner, 1985).

O.B. Mod. has various strategies than can be implemented in the workplace to enhance employee motivation. Many organizations use a modified workweek – compressed workweek, or flexible work schedule, job sharing – to satisfy higher-level needs and provide opportunities to fulfil several needs simultaneously. By allowing such independence, managers are acknowledging and show 'esteem' for the employees' ability to exercise self-control (Cohen & Gadon, 1978). Another influential plan of action is changing the nature of work-related activities – job design – to improve employee motivation (Weed, 1971).

Furthermore, O.B. Mod. has encouraged human resources managers to handle issues they can see, record, and later use to measure progress. Also known as applied behavior analysis and organizational behavior management, O.B. Mod. (Steers & Porter, 1991) places emphasis on observable employee behavior and recognizes the impact that contingent consequences have on performance. It also recognizes that positive reinforcement is more effective than punishing employees and it demonstrates causal effect on the bottom-line performance of employees.

The Elements of Motivation

It is the manager's responsibility (Longenecker & Pringle, 1984) to provide an opportunity for willing and able subordinates to perform well. "In many work situations, persons who are both willing and able to successfully accomplish a task may be either inhibited in or prevented from doing so due to situational characteristics beyond their control" (Peters & O'Connor, 1980, pp.391-92). That is, a comfortable and supportive overall work environment should be offered. For instance, a facilitative corporate culture, efficient planning, scheduling of workflow, coordination of activities,

managerial support, and delegation of challenging and important tasks will allow individuals to realize their full potential (Tjosovold, 1995; Guntern, 1997) and thus, there is a likelihood of higher performance. In other words, if employees realize that there is a genuine concern for their well being, on a personal and organizational level, they will be encouraged to display their skills and competencies to the fullest (Gardner, 1995).

Because motivation is an unobservable concept, the individual's job performance can be observed but the reasons underlying the level of performance cannot. Various theories (Maslow, 1943; McClelland, 1965) have been developed to explain the motives that influence individual performance; these theories will be elaborated and discussed in coming sections. In this section, the systematic elements that enter into the motivational process and affect the usefulness of any particular motivational approach will be presented. The three general elements (Longenecker & Pringle, 1984; Barrett, 1995; Stewart, 1997) of a motivational system are (1) the individual, (2) the job, and (3) the work environment. The interaction of these three factors produces a motivational appeal to members of the organization. The researcher will investigate the framework that outlines these elements and the specifications that determine the details of these elements inside Notre Dame University will be revealed after data collection and analysis.

The Individual

Organizational members, whether managerial or nonmanagerial, differ in intelligence, ability, attitudes, and needs. The most prominent historical views of human nature were based on the assumptions that people are rational beings with conscious desires and capacities to fulfil these desires (Steers & Porter, 1991). Such desires may often stand in opposition to reason and can become strong forces within man. These ideas were central to the directions of ancient philosophers such as Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) and Plato (428-347 B.C). For man to make his desires obey rationality in action (Aristotle) is not a product of pure thought but a combination of desire and deliberation. To make this deliberation meant striving for happiness. A philosophical comportment (Plato) toward life would lead one to being just and, ultimately happy. Happiness, being more than

mere pleasure, is to fulfil one's function in harmony with the nature of man qua man (Aristotle). The inherent limitations on rationality and practicality are made clear in Aristotle's concepts of human nature and self-realization. Human nature involves the formulation of habits which depend on an individual's culture and repeated personal choices. All human beings (Aristotle, Plato) want 'happiness', an active engaged realization of their innate capacities; this goal can be achieved in a multiplicity of ways.

Human beings engage in motivational behavior that may be intrinsic discussed in the coming section about reward systems. Intrinsic motivation is based on the innate, organismic needs for competence and self-determination – the accumulated results of one's interactions with the environment, of one's explorations, learnings and adaptations. That is, intrinsic motivation infers the performance of activity (Steers & Porter, 1991) in the absence of a reward contingency or control. Moreover, intrinsic motivation has been associated with greater creativity (Amabile, 1983), flexibility (McGraw & McCullers, 1979), and spontaneity (Koestner et al., 1990). Consequently, the issue of whether subjects demonstrated high performance because of intrinsic characteristics or because of the reward –tangible or intangible- must be clarified. In addition to instincts, explanations for behaviour are related to the notion of needs; if the needs of employees are met, then they are satisfied and hence performance is enhanced. A need (Steers & Porter, 1991) is an integral state of disequilibria of deficiency, which has the capacity to energize or trigger a behavioural response (p.32). A basic assumption of all need theories which will be discussed in the coming section is that when need deficiencies exist; individuals are motivated to action to satisfy them.

The Job

The second element of the motivational framework is the job itself. Some routinized jobs become dull to many employees whereas challenging jobs become a source of enjoyment and pride; individual differences - that is, the needs and desires of individuals - interact with job design to determine job attractiveness. Job specialization is the division of the overall task into smaller components to improve productivity (Griffin,

71

1996). It provides benefits (Griffin, 1982) for organizational growth and can be extended to managerial and professional levels (Miner, 1987) in the organization. However, highly specialized jobs could cause boredom and dissatisfaction. Thus, to counter such mishaps, alternative approaches (Griffin & McMahan, 1991) to job design are job rotation, job enlargement, job enrichment, the job characteristics approach, and work teams. The objectives of these approaches are to achieve a better balance between organizational demands for efficiency and productivity and individual needs for creativity and autonomy.

Job rotation involves moving employees from one job to another within the organization to improve skills and avoid demotivation that may arise from no innovation or challenge. The second, job enlargement, involves giving employees more tasks to perform through delegation. If job enlargement is not sufficient enough to improve employee motivation (Herzberg, 1966), an alternative is job enrichment. This approach increases not only the number of tasks but also the control the worker has over the job. Employees tend to be committed to employers who help them actualise at work; that is, they are able to develop and use their skills to the maximum (Dessler, 1993). Job enrichment and worker empowerment should complement one another (Prickard, 1993). Empowerment means authorizing and enabling workers to do their jobs while enrichment gives employees more challenging jobs to do. The job characteristics approach shows that employees are more motivated to work and more satisfied with their jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) for it creates conditions that allow employees to experience critical psychological states related to beneficial work outcomes.

Enrichment takes into account the work system and employee preferences (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998; Yukl, 1998) along five core dimensions. First, skill variety identifies the number of things a person does in a job. The second dimension, task variety defines the extent to which the worker does a complete or identifiable portion of the total job. Task significance perceives the importance of the task. The degree of control over work implementation is autonomy. The final dimension is feedback, the extent to which the worker knows how well the job is being

performed. Enrichment overrides any trace of monotony that employees may feel and this can be dangerous for the outcome will not be satisfying for all involved.

Individuals have a need for growth. Skill variety is the degree to which a job requires different types of skills, abilities and talents (Nadler et al., 1979; Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). Employees are motivated when they are given the opportunity to develop new skills and abilities that enable them to advance within their organization. Task identity is the degree to which a person can do the job from beginning to end with a visible outcome (Ibid.); employees have a feeling of belonging and will perform better. Moreover, task significance is the degree to which the job has a significant impact on others, both inside and outside the organization. Skill variety, task identity, and task significance are part of a critical psychological state known as experienced meaningfulness (Nadler et al., 1979) that identifies the importance, value and worth of the job.

Another job characteristic is autonomy (Nadler et al., 1979; Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998) which determines the amount of freedom, independence, and discretion employees have in making decisions and determining how to implement the job. Autonomy is related to experienced responsibility (Nadler et al., 1979), which is the degree to which the employee feels personally responsible or accountable for the outcome of the work. The work team allows an entire group to design the work system it will use to perform an interrelated set of tasks. This will enhance motivation due to the level of autonomy. Feedback is the degree to which the job provides the employee with clear and direct information about job outcomes and performance (Nadler et al., 1979; Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). The manner in which employees understand how effectively they are performing is the critical state of knowledge of results (Nadler et al., 1979).

A job with characteristics that allow employees to experience all three critical psychological states provides internal rewards that sustain motivation. These rewards come from a job (Hackman, 1976) where people can learn (knowledge of results) that they have performed well on a task (experienced responsibility) that they care about

(experienced meaningfulness). Such a situation results in outcomes that are beneficial to the employer - high-quality performance, lower turnover and absenteeism, higher employee satisfaction and motivation.

The Environment

The third element of the motivational system is the work environment. Relationships with other members of the organization (Herzberg), depending on the circumstances, may stimulate or retard performance (Longenecker & Pringle, 1984) because of the individual's adherence to group norms or a desire to obtain peer approval. Culture (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Schein, 1992) – the set of values that helps people in organizations to understand what it stands for, how things are done, and what is considered to be important – plays a major role in shaping managerial behaviour. In other words, culture determines the 'feel' of the organization. By making clear the culture of an organization, a leader can indirectly influence the motivation and behaviour of its members. That is, the function of culture is to facilitate the understanding of the work environment and determine how to respond to it, thereby reducing anxiety, uncertainty, and confusion to enhance satisfaction, motivation and performance. Cultural leadership (Trice & Beyer, 1991; 1993) creates an impression of competence, articulates ideology, communicates strong convictions, communicates high expectations and confidence in followers, serves as a role model, and motivates follower commitment to the organizational objectives and strategies.

The Person-Job Fit

Job match or fit (Herbert & Greenberg, 1998) occurs when a person has the suitable attributes or dynamics to be a successful, productive, dependable employee. First, this person must possess the mental ability to learn and perform the functions of the job. Second, the person must have a desire or interest to do the job. The most productive people truly enjoy the work they do and approach it as a hobby. Third, one's personality

will determine job behaviour. Job match occurs when these three characteristics are right for the job. In other words, job fit is the right person doing the job well. Over the years, considerable research (Ford, 1969; Fein, 1974; Griffin & McMahan, 1994) has focused on job design and its contributions to enhanced employee motivation and performance. Specifically, work design stretches individual performance to increase a sense of competence and worth, thus, providing maximum motivational impact.

The Personality-job Fit Theory (Holland, 1985) suggests that when persons are being analysed, personalities shouldn't be overlooked. The logic (Ibid.) was that people are satisfied and perform well when they have the right talents and abilities to meet the demands of their jobs. Studies (Bowen et al., 1991; Sackett & Arvey, 1993; Bounds et al., 1995) to replicate Holland's (1985) conclusions have been almost universally supportive. The Personality-Job Fit Theory (Holland, 1985) created a typology of personality and congruent occupations. It identifies six personality types – realistic, investigative, social, conventional, enterprising, and artistic. The fit will lead to satisfaction and thus high productivity or turnover. Moreover, the implications of Holland's model are that (1) people have different personalities, (2) there are different types of jobs, and (3) when personality is congruent to job, people may be satisfied.

The concept of fit is defined as:

> The degree to which the needs, demands, goals, objectives, and structures of one component are consistent with the needs, demands, goals, objectives, and structure of another component (Hackman et al., 1977, p.93).

Most organizations are constantly involved in a 'matching process' of one sort or another: individual-organization, individual-task, task-organization, component-environment (Hackman et al., 1977). This is an on-going process as the elements of a motivational system disclosed earlier in this section. Specifically, the healthier the match between the individual and the task, the more enhanced is the employee performance (Barrett, 1995; Kristof, 1996; Cardy & Stewart, 1997).

To facilitate the match process, the concerned persons within the organization conduct a job analysis. A job analysis describes the procedure for determining the duties and skill

75

requirements of a job and the kind of person who should be hired for it (Clifford, 1994). In addition, the job analysis produces the job description (what the job entails) and a job specification (what kind of people to hire for the job). A job description lists duties, responsibilities, reporting relationships, working conditions and supervisory responsibilities. Moreover, a job specification identifies the human requirements, requisite education, skills and personality required for the job.

The hiring process–recruitment, selection, socialization (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998)–is the process of generating a pool of qualified candidates for a particular job and will ensure that the person-job fit is implemented. Recruitment (Walker, 1990) entails the announcement of a vacancy. This is the cornerstone of job analysis for people who feel they have the job specifications–knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs)–submit application forms and become applicants. Then files are examined, and interviews (Pulakos & Schmitt, 1995) conducted to determine if these applicants are qualified to become potential employees. This is achieved through screening that will scan to find the best person for the job (Dessler, 1997).

Employee selection is exercised through a variety of tests and selection techniques (Thatcher, 1993; Gatewood & Field, 1994). Selection is important (Schmidt et al., 1979; Guion, 1987) for three reasons:

1. The performance of the organization depends in part on the people;
2. People who don't have the right skills won't perform effectively and therefore the overall performance of the organization will suffer;
3. The time to screen out undesirables is before they are in the door, not after.

To retain and maximize the human resources who were so carefully selected, organizations must pay careful attention to socialization (Wanous et al., 1983), orientation and training. Orientation provides background information about the organization (Dessler, 1997). Socialization instils the values, attitudes, standards and patterns of behaviour that are expected by the organization. An appropriate training program ascertains that the most qualified person has been selected for the job according to the initial job analysis (Ibid.) and this should instill satisfaction in people.

How Organizational Behaviour Affects Motivation

Organizational behaviour emphasizes behaviour as related to jobs, work, absenteeism, employee turnover, productivity, human performance, and management. Organization behavior includes core topics such as motivation, leader behavior and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and processes, learning, attitude development and perception, change processes, conflict, work design, and work stress (Garcia & Keleman, 1989). An understanding of employee attitudes, personality, perception, and learning can predict and explain employee productivity, absence and turnover rates, and job satisfaction (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998).

A comprehension of employee needs, discussed in Chapter Four, can contribute to an understanding of employee behavior. Such needs stand behind the behaviors employees choose to engage in on the job. Behavior such as high job performance is associated with certain outcomes such as rewards, which, in turn, serve to satisfy employee needs (Aldag & Brief, 1979). However, satisfying employee needs is a difficult task because of individual differences, personal attributes that vary from one person to another (Griffin, 1996). This is an important issue that the researcher has not overlooked especially since the instruments will be distributed to people at all levels of the NDU hierarchy.

Personality and Job Attitudes

Attitudes have been at the core of social psychology since 1935, when Gordon Allport claimed "[it] is the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary social psychology" (Manstead, 1996). The area is still one of the most extensively researched topics in the field (Olson & Zanna, 1993). However, current literature (Olson & Zanna, 1993; Eiser, 1994; Eagly & Chaiken, 1992, 1993 as cited in Manstead, 1996) accepts that attitudes may be thought of in terms of a tendency to evaluate a stimulus with some

degree of favour or disfavour, usually expressed in cognitive, affective, or behavioral responses. One view of individual needs in organizations is represented by theories of personality trait. Personality (Pervin, 1985) is the set of psychological and behavioural attributes that distinguish one person from another. These attributes affect people's behavior in organizational situations and their perceptions of and attitudes toward the organization (Gallagher, 1994). Research (Buss, 1989; Ostroff, 1992; Barrick & Mount, 1993; Turban & Dougherty, 1994) has found that there are important relationships between personality and job performance.

One of the most widely used personality frameworks is called the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Briggs-Myers, 1980) that taps four characteristics and classifies people into one of 16 personality types. David Keirsey and Marilyn Bates based their work on the Myers-Briggs-Type-Indicator (MBTI), which is based on the work of Carl Jung. They found that personality is based on four temperaments. Although people have the capacity for all four, a basic attitude or predisposition for one is developed. They are described with the names of Greek gods of mythology, with whom they share preferences and behaviours. First, Dionysian (Artisan) seeks freedom, values, spontaneity, and resists constraint. The second is Epithean (Guardian) who has strong affiliation needs, a sense of duty, gets satisfaction from giving and has strong work ethics. Promethian (Rationalist) values competence; thrives on challenges and strives to control situations. The last, Apollonian (Idealist) sets extraordinary goals and is determined to meet them. For a well-rounded team, leaders need all four types of temperaments.

Leaders must balance their team members so as to approach problems and implementations from all sides of the spectrum. Each type identifies a specific way in which people interact and solve problems and also helps managers to select employees to match certain types of jobs (Robbins, 1996). Another personality framework is the Big-Five Model (Barrick & Mount, 1993) that includes extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. Studies (Digman, 1990; John, 1990; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Mount et al., 1996;) of the Big-Five Model

have disclosed direct relationships between these personality dimensions and job performance.

Managers are interested in job-related attitudes. The three most important and studied (Greene, 1972; Herman, 1973; Lawler III, 1973; Petty et al., 1984; Brooke Jr. et al., 1988; Ostroff, 1992; Becker et al., 1996) are:

1. Job satisfaction – an employee's general attitude toward the job;

2. Job involvement – the degree to which an employee identifies with the job, actively participates in it and considers the job performance important to self-worth;

3. Organization commitment – an employee's loyalty to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.

Attitudes are complexes of beliefs and feelings that people have about specific ideas, situations, or other people and also influence individual behavior in organizations (Griffin, 1996). Attitudes are affected (Locke, 1976) by variables such as working conditions, context, co-workers and leadership style. For instance, an employee may be very dissatisfied, withdrawn, and negative in one job setting but very satisfied, outgoing, and positive in another. Job attitudes consist of three (Steers & Porter, 1991) related parts: (1) beliefs about the job, (2) the attitude itself, and (3) the behavioural intentions that result from the attitude (p.257). One of the objectives that were stated in Chapter One, of this study is to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The satisfaction-performance relation is an illusionary correlation (Pfeffer, 1994) because it is logically or intuitively thought that they should interrelate; however, they may or may not. Nonetheless, certain studies (Siegel & Bowen, 1971; Jacobs & Solomon, 1977; Fisher, 1980; Lopez, 1982) relate high performance to satisfaction and motivation.

The behaviour of individuals is related to their personality and this can be identified and modified to reflect their differences:

> Behavior generally is predictable if we know how persons perceived the situation and what is important to them. While

people's behavior may not appear to be rational to an outsider, there is reason to believe it usually is intended to be rational and they see it as rational. An observer often sees behavior as nonrational because the observer does not have access to the same information or does not perceive the environment in the same way (Lawler & Rhode, 1976, p.22).

If the nature of individual differences is appreciation, then human behavior in the workplace can be understood as a contract. Specifically, it is a psychological contract, which is a set of expectations as to the contributions from the individual and the inducements from the organization (Shore & Tetrick, 1994). People may offer effort, skills, ability, time, and loyalty for example. In turn, the organization provides incentives such as pay, job security, benefits, status, and career and promotion opportunities. Individuals adjust their attitudes and expectations in situations to which they are committed (Steers & Porter, 1991). While enhancing organizational commitment is an ongoing process, it is probably most critical early in an employee's association with an organization to assure continued attachment.

The Psychological Contract

The investigation of psychological factors affecting people's performance on the job has a long tradition stemming from the Health of Munition Worker's report and The Industrial Fatigue Research Board during World War I (Hackman et al., 1977, p.75). A series of studies (Mayo, 1933; Lewin, 1943; Weber, 1947; Fayol, 1949; Hebb, 1949; Selznick, 1949; Dubin, 1952) have contributed to this phenomenon. The compilation (Rogers, 1950) of all the material and results from these previous investigations concluded that effective and high performing organizations fit the employee to the job, and the job to the employee. The conditions of the psychological contract, if they exist at NDU, will be specified by the researcher.

Employees have a specific set of needs that they want fulfilled and a set of job-related behaviours and abilities to contribute. If the organization can take perfect complete

advantage of those behaviours and abilities and exactly fulfil their needs, it will have achieved a perfect person-job fit (Chatman, 1989; Robinson et al., 1994). The interpersonal processes involved in management examine the topic of motivation and the related concepts of individual needs and job satisfaction. Motivation is the willingness to exert high levels of effort to reach organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) that justifies the researcher's argument that satisfaction is a prerequisite for motivation. High levels of effort are unlikely to result in high job performance unless the effort is channelled in a direction that benefits the organization (Katerberg & Blau, 1983).

The psychological contract is a mutual agreement between the individual and the organization and it refers to the beliefs (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974) about the employment arrangement. The person-job fit, discussed in the previous section, is such a match between the individual contributions and the inducements offered by the organization. The psychological contract develops within a dynamic environment where the individual often interacts with others who release a multiplicity of both verbal and non-verbal messages (Ibid.). Individuals will have different perceptions (Herriot, 1998) of their psychological contract even though the terms and conditions are the same. Such a contract is an employment relationship that embraces the promissory exchange of offers (Rousseau, 1989) by the two parties, and therefore the mutual obligation to fulfil these offers.

Even in the presence of a formalized contract, people develop their own psychological contract (Shore & Tetrick, 1994) for they believe that no formalized contract is fully comprehensive. The theme underlying this is the reduction of uncertainty with an increase in the degree of predictability. Many motivational theories, discussed in coming sections of this chapter, propose that predictability and control of the work environment are key factors in understanding individual behavior. A violation of the psychological contract arises when the organization doesn't respond to the individual as was expected. In such a case, the distinction (Rousseau, 1989) between violation of expectations and the violation of the psychological contract-perceived obligations- should be made. Unmet expectations lead to disappointment, dissatisfaction and frustration; perceived

contract violation leads to anger, moral outrage and resentment. Under such circumstances, these feelings linger and the individual's view toward the organization changes (Bies, 1987).

Research (Steers, 1977; Mowday et al., 1979; Angle and Perry, 1981) has found that the more committed the employee is to the organization, the greater the satisfaction and effort expended by the employee in performing tasks for the benefit of the organization. Commitment (Mowday et al., 1982, p.56) leads to various techniques and methods of motivation and depends on: personal factors as the employee's initial level of commitment derived from personal characteristics, the psychological contract and job expectations; organizational factors as initial work experiences, job scope, supervision, goal consistency and a subsequent sense of responsibility; and non-organization factors such as the availability of alternative job opportunities.

Techniques of Motivation

Motivation is that which energizes, directs, and sustains human behaviour; it gives direction to an individual's orientation that generates a tendency to persist; it is an internal drive that reflects the influences of internal and/or external stimuli (Steers, 1984; Bartol & Martin, 1991). Motivating employees is a management skill that is complex but a practical set of motivational guidelines (La Barre, 1996) includes:

1. Recognizing individual differences – people have different needs, attitudes and personality;
2. Matching people to jobs – people who aren't competent will not be motivated – the FIT;
3. Using goals – employees should have hard specific goals;
4. Ensuring that goals are attainable – communicate the goals, unachievable goals demotivate;
5. Individualizing rewards – according to performance;
6. Linking rewards to performance;
7. Checking the system for equity – inputs to outputs;

8. Not ignoring money – it's a major reason why people work.

Goal Setting & Work Design

Money alone is not always enough to motivate high performance; participation in decision-making, job enrichment, and behaviour modification and organization development are other incentives. Goal setting is a mechanism by which these incentives affect motivation (Latham & Locke, 1979; Pinder, 1984; Tubbs, 1986). Goals must be specific, measurable and reachable. The availability of support elements such as human and physical resources, policies, ability, knowledge, action plans and feedback are crucial; otherwise, motivation is futile (Ibid.). Like any other managerial tool, goal setting motivates employee performance when management offers support and good judgement.

Theory and empirical research (Locke et al., 1984; Earley, 1985a, 1985b, 1986; Erez & Arad, 1986) have generated significant relationships between commitment and employee performance. Moreover, if there is no commitment to goals – determination to reach the goal, then goal setting will be ineffective (Naylor et al., 1980; Erez & Kanfer, 1983; Erez & Zidon, 1984; Locke & Latham, 1984; Leifer & McGannon, 1986). The determinants of commitment are placed into three categories:

1. External influences – authority, peer influence, external rewards and incentives;
2. Interactive influences – participation, competition;
3. Internal factors – expectancy, internal rewards, self-efficacy.

Moreover, jobs have greater motivational value when they give individuals greater planning and control responsibilities through work design. The concept of job enrichment, discussed earlier in this chapter, is an important technique for improving the quality of work life, and indirectly, individual performance and organizational productivity (Campion & Thayer, 1989). According to the Five-Job Characteristics Framework that was also discussed earlier in this chapter, employees respond positively

to a job that is meaningful, valuable and worthwhile and when they monitor their performance. Job design as enlargement, enrichment and rotation that were discussed earlier, expose their significance as techniques of motivation.

Reward Systems

An organizational reward system (Griffin, 1996) is the formal and informal mechanisms by which employee performance is defined, evaluated, and rewarded. Employee satisfaction is influenced by how much is received and how much the individual thinks should be received. Employee satisfaction is affected by comparison to others. Rewards of others are often misperceived. Job satisfaction is affected by how satisfied employees are with both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards they derive from their jobs.

The most common extrinsic reward is money. However, if too little money can irritate and demotivate, it does not mean that more money will bring about increased satisfaction (Kerr, 1997) that leads to motivation. In relative terms, research (Schneider & Bowen, 1995; Kerr, 1997) tends to agree that in addition to concrete rewards, the job content, recognition and the accomplishment of challenging and meaningful goals may give rise to more effective extrinsic motivators which are important in determining employee satisfaction. When employees walk out the door, employers immediately conclude that it is an issue of money (Kelly, 2000). A study (EDP Staffing, 2000) that interviewed hundreds of job candidates to find out what their motivation was in looking for another job was eye opening (Kelly, 2000). The concerns included recognition for good work; care from the supervisor; an encouragement of self-development; the availability of materials and equipment; and a personal opinion of commitment to quality work.

Intrinsic motivation comes from the inside of a person. "It is an emotional preference for a task that gives us pleasure and enjoyment" (Haasen & Gordon, 1997, p.9). Intrinsic motivation tends to be more personal and deeper than extrinsic motivations (Kushel, 1994; Haasen, 1997). Whichever, the objective is to instil a desire in people to exceed

their previous level of job performance through shared visions, missions, leadership, authority and responsibility. Moreover, intrinsic motivation arises from having "a strong emotional interest in an activity and a sense of freedom and autonomy related to it" (Ibid, p.39). More specifically:

> Intrinsic motivation is itself the "outcome", the result of a work situation that people enjoy...because they are in charge, because they have the opportunity to acquire new skills and abilities to match a different challenge, or because they are part of a successful team. Intrinsic motivation leads to astounding creativity and productive energy that seems to have virtually no limit" (Haasen & Gordon, 1997, p.92).

The ways in which rewards are distributed and the type of rewards within the organization have considerable impact on the levels of employee motivation. Rewards may be job-based or performance-based. Employee attitudes contribute to absenteeism, affect turnover and establish organizational culture and are also influenced (Lawler III, 1981) by effective reward systems designed to: (1) meet the needs of individuals; (2) compare favourably with those offered by other organizations; (3) display equity and fairness; and (4) recognize that different people have different needs and choose different paths to satisfy those needs. Meeting the needs of employees and expressing concern for them as individuals with requirements for satisfaction will strengthen the bond between leader and employee for the welfare of the organization, discussed in Chapter Four.

Reward systems are clearly related to the expectancy theory of motivation that will be discussed later in this chapter. Employees are more likely to display extra effort if they know that performance will be measured, evaluated and rewarded (Hills et al., 1987). Pay-for performance programs are compensation plans that pay employees on the basis of some performance measure (Abbott, 1993; Dickinson & Gillette, 1994). Such plans (Sheridan, 1996) are piece-rate plans, gain sharing, wage incentive plans, profit sharing, and lump sum bonuses which reflect performance measures (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1996; Fenn, 1996) as individual productivity, team or work group productivity, departmental productivity or the overall organizational profits over a given period of time.

An extension of the pay-for-performance concept is the competency-based compensation. This program pays and rewards employees on the basis of the skills, knowledge, or behavior they possess (Lattoni & Mercier, 1994). Such competencies (Ibid.) include skills of leaders, problem solving, decision-making, and strategic planning. Furthermore, employee stock ownership plan (ESOP) improves and motivates employee performance. ESOP is a compensation program in which employees become part owners of the organization by receiving stock as a performance incentive. Research (Rosen & Quarrey, 1987; Kumbhakar & Dunbar, 1993; Lee, 1994) on ESOPs indicates that they increase employee satisfaction, motivation and productivity for they psychologically experience ownership and know that they will share not only the gains but also the losses. This becomes even more attractive when ideas are expressed articulately and line of communication is open.

Communication

It is difficult to think about affecting another person's motivation without considering communication (Steers & Porter, 1991). Therefore, communication either facilitates and increases motivation or interferes with and decreases motivation (Arredondo, 2000). The more varied the language tools, the greater the likelihood that a manager will influence employee motivation. Motivational language theory is based (Sullivan, 1988) on presuppositions:

1. What a manager says to an employee affects employee motivation;

2. Managerial communication has three kinds of speech acts: (a) those that reduce employee uncertainty and increase knowledge (b) those that implicitly reaffirm the employee's sense of self worth as a human being (c) those that facilitate the employee construction of cognitive schemas and scripts which guide the employee's work;

3. Motivation theories focus on uncertainty-reducing managerial speech acts;

4. Managerial influence on employee motivation through communication is a function of the variety of speech acts that are employed.

Communication is the exchange and flow of information and ideas from one person to another (Bennis, 2000). Effective communication occurs only if the receiver understands the exact information or idea that the sender intended to transmit. Communication, written or verbal, is the transferring and understanding of meaning. It involves seven stages (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998):

1. The communication source – the sender initiates a message by encoding a thought, which may be affected by skills, attitudes and knowledge;
2. The message – a purpose to be conveyed;
3. Encoding – converting the message into some symbolic form;
4. The channel – the medium by which a message travels;
5. Decoding – a receiver's translation of a sender's message;
6. The receiver – must be skilful in reading or listening;
7. Feedback – returns the message to sender to provide a check that the message has been interpreted correctly.

Anything that prevents the understanding of a message is a barrier to communication; these barriers may be physical or psychological filters that muffle the message. Such examples are culture, background, bias, physical setting, terminology, and stress. The best way to overcome this filter is through active listening and feedback. Noise is the disturbances that interfere with the transmission of a message and it can create distortion at any point in the communication process (Thoreau, 2001). Such a distortion influences the interaction and thus personal behaviour. Interpersonal skills such as empathy, social insight, charm, tact and diplomacy, persuasiveness, and communication ability are essential (Bass, 1990) to develop and maintain cooperative relationships with subordinates, superiors, peers, and outsiders. The researcher is a great advocate of open communication and strongly believes in its positive effects. If NDU also believes this will be shown in the findings for communication and its effects on motivation is the essence of one of the research questions.

Conclusion

It was necessary to elaborate satisfaction and motivation and to explore the nature of each. In so doing, the researcher was able to put forward all previous literature and what theorists have found and developed in terms of theories and approaches. A strong grasp of the theoretical aspect will enable the reader to comprehend and appreciate the research questions that have been formulated and presented in Chapter One. By drawing upon these theoretical perspectives, the researcher has created a conceptual framework, discussed in Chapter Five, within which to operate.

The four research questions cover the major aspects of the literature review. The key terms are covered in each of the three chapters of the literature review–Chapters 2, 3, and 4. The researcher is concerned with determining how performance and productivity can be enhanced through satisfaction, motivation, leadership styles, participative decision-making, the leader-employee relationship, and communication. Moreover, the research questions are in harmony with the objectives presented in Chapter One.

The review of literature has influenced the decision of the researcher to utilize a research design that will assure reliability and validity. Thus, the empirical research will implement triangulation, discussed in Chapter Five, because the quantitative and qualitative techniques will complement one another. This chapter has covered the various theories and approaches of motivating employees through reaching their level of satisfaction. Previous research proves that when an individual's point of satisfaction is quenched, then performance and productivity are enhanced. The next chapter is part two of the review of literature and will tackle the topics of leadership and management.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW of LITERATURE [PART II]
LEADERSHIP and MANAGEMENT

Historical Views

The study of leadership and management (Bass, 1990) can be found in Greek and Latin classics, the Old and New Testaments of the Bible, writings of ancient Chinese philosophers, and in early Icelandic sagas. The definitions are based (Yukl, 1989) on individual personality, traits, behavior, and response to behavior, interpersonal exchange relationships, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, task goals, organizational culture, and the nature of the work processes. A commonality has involved the degree of influence or inspiration (Stogdill, 1950; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Bryman, 1992), specifically noncoercive influence (Jago, 1982; Kotter, 1988). It must be pointed out that such influence may serve not only the interests of the team and organization but also self-interest (Howell, 1988; Hogan, Raskin & Fazzini, 1990; House & Howell, 1992). Managers need to be leaders; their workers need vision and guidance. Similarly, leaders need to be good managers of the resources entrusted to them.

From the 1950s to the mid-1980s, research on leader behavior was dominated by a focus on two categories of behavior: task-oriented and relations-oriented. Many studies (Fleishman, 1953; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Day & Hamblin, 1964; Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Latham & Saari, 1979; Sims & Manz, 1984; Porras & Anderson, 1981) have sought to determine how this behavior was correlated with criteria of leadership effectiveness such as subordinate satisfaction and performance. Researchers (Felfe, 2001; Natanovich & Eden, 2001; Schyns, 2001) have found a correlation between self-efficacy and transformational leadership behavior. Employees' self-efficacy is influenced by the possibilities a leader provides for the employee to execute certain

behaviors (Lewis, 2000), as well as by vicarious experience and the leader's verbal persuasions. The most significant research on leadership behavior has followed in the pattern set by the pioneering surveys of Ohio State University and the University of Michigan discussed later in this chapter.

Almost a century ago, Frederick Taylor (1903) defined management as "knowing exactly what you want [people] to do, and then seeing that they do it in the best and cheapest way" (p.21). However, management is much more than this simple definition states; it's a complex process (Kanter, 1989). Management is a set of activities (including planning and decision making, organizing, leading, and controlling) directed at an organization's resources (human, physical, financial, and information) with the aim of achieving organizational goals in an effective and efficient manner (Griffin, 1996). For success, organizations must display effectiveness - make the right decisions and successfully implement them – and efficiency – the use of resources wisely and in a cost-effective way (Luthans, 1988).

The earliest advocates of scientific management included Frederick W. Taylor (1856-1915), Frank Gilbreth (1868-1924), Lillian Gilbreth (1878-1972), Henry Gantt (1861-1919), and Harrington Emerson (1853-1931) (Wren, 1994). Taylor played the dominant role and introduced innovations in job design and employee training. These innovations resulted in higher-quality products and improved employee morale. Taylor believed that the workplace would be more productive (Taylor, 1911) if managers followed these guidelines:

1. Develop a science for each element of the job to replace the old rule-of-thumb methods;

2. Scientifically select employees and then train them to do the job as described;

3. Supervise employees to ensure they follow the prescribed methods for performance;

4. Continue to plan the work, but use workers to actually get the work done.

Administrative Management focuses on managing the whole organization. The primary contributors were Henri Fayol (1841-1925), Lyndall Urwick (1891-1983), Max Weber (1864-1920), and Chester Bernard (1886-1961). Nevertheless, Fayol (1930) expressed fourteen principles to systemize the practice of effective management by providing guidance and direction. These principles stress on the channels of communication within the organization and the distribution of authority for a more effective and efficient workplace. Ever since people started discovering the concepts of leadership and management, there has been the close association of the human element involved. In addition, satisfaction, motivation, decision-making, communication, attitude, leader-employee interaction are issues that have caught the attention of theorists as the historical overview shows. Today, in the 21st Century, these issues are still of great interest and in many instances pose as mysteries. The researcher will accordingly investigate them as they apply to the object of this case study–NDU. This historical insight into leadership and management lends itself to the identification of organizations covered in the next section.

Overview

The previous chapter has sought to review the theoretical literature of satisfaction as a prelude to motivation. In this chapter, emphasis will be shifted to the review of literature on leadership and management styles in the context of organizations, educational ones included. In fact, there has always been a sharp controversy as to how leadership relates to management, where the two overlap and whether the two are distinct processes or phenomena (Yukl, 1998). A specific interpretation (Kotter, 1990) conceptualizes management as dealing with complexity whereas leadership copes with change. Many paradigms (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Hosking, 1988; Taylor III, 1989; Dumaine, 1993; Drath & Palus, 1994) have been advanced and each involves studying the traits and characteristics of leaders and managers to explain their success. There is also focus on leaders and managers in their individual contexts such as what the contingency theory represents. Among the traits examined (House & Podsakoff, 1994) were physical characteristics, personality, social behavior and personal abilities and skills. In this chapter, the researcher will present a comparison/contrast of leadership/management and

develop each. Leadership styles are also an integral part of the study at hand. Research questions two and three are about the different styles and their impact on motivation. When employees are allowed to participate in decision-making, a more positive leader-employee interaction is stressed (Griffin, 1996).

Conceptually, management is more of an active process; on the other hand, leadership is an interactive process. Moreover, management is often considered and taught as a science while leadership is more of an art (Zaleznik, 1977; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kotter, 1988; Bass, 1990; Hickman, 1990). From the perspective of many researchers (Zaleznik, 1977; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kotter, 1988; Bass, 1990; Hickman, 1990) leading and managing may be viewed as distinct processes but it's not desirable to consider leaders and managers as different types of people (Gronn, 2000) although it is practical. Leadership and management focus on relationships and contacts from both inside and outside the organization (Kotter, 1988). However, research (McCall, Morrison, & Hannan, 1978; Luthans, Rosenkrantz, & Hennessey, 1985; Michael & Yukl, 1993) has revealed that managers are more dependent on people outside the organization and have more external contacts in their networks.

An organization (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) is a systematic arrangement of people brought together to accomplish some specific purpose (p.3). The common characteristics of an organization are: (1) goals; (2) structure; (3) people. To achieve goals, the organization requires managers or leaders – people with a vision and who are able to inspire the other members of the organization to have vision and motivate them to realize this vision. Managers are people who do things right (Bennis, 2000); that is, they get things done effectively and efficiently through and with other people. Leaders are people who do the right thing (Bennis, 2000); that is, they direct and motivate other people to reach organizational objectives.

Consequently, organizations need both leadership and management. Managers must be good leaders; leaders must be able to manage. The high performance management-leadership balance that things are managed whereas people are led. That is, high performing teams and organizations balance the discipline of systems, processes, and

technology management on a base of effective people leadership (Clemmer, 1995). Leadership deals with change, inspiration, motivation, and influence. Management deals with carrying out the organizational goals and maintaining equilibrium. Managers are transactors and leaders are transformers (Burns, 1978). "Management controls, arranges, does things right; leadership unleashes energy, sets the vision so we do the right thing" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p.21).

Educational organizations are no exception, they also require leadership; the relative properties of leadership and management will vary according to the post but the two elements are not mutually exclusive. Several researchers (Leithwood, Begley & Cousins, 1994; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995; Gurr, 1996; Telford, 1996) have investigated the extent and importance of values in educational leadership. However, leadership isn't enough to put visions and policies to practice. For extreme effectiveness, both leadership and management are necessary (Ramsey, 1999) no matter what the nature of the organization. The attributes of leadership (West-Burnham, 1999) are path making, doing the right things, and learning from the organization and those of management are path following, doing things right, and being taught by the organization.

Moreover, there is a need for systematic and functional management training for managers of educational institutions of higher education (West-Burnham, 1999). Similarly, there is a need for leadership development (Ramsey, 1999). According to Ramsey (1999) the functions of leadership are future, vision, big picture, change, inspiration and outcomes and those for management are present, plans, systems, implementation, feedback and objectives. Educational institutions don't improve just by being well managed but there is usually evidence of leadership as a higher order function (West-Burnham, 1999). Leadership requires more than efficiency and effectiveness, it needs to be the embodiment of values and to stand as an exemplification of its principles on which, and for which, it is built (Ibid.).

Through leadership, a manager secures the cooperation of others in accomplishing objectives. Managers at all hierarchical levels have a leadership role to perform just as

leaders at all hierarchical levels have a managerial role to perform. Leadership creates change; management achieves orderly results. Management in conjunction with leadership can produce orderly change; leadership in conjunction with management can keep the organization properly aligned with its environment (Griffin, 1996). However, there are researchers (Blanchard et al., 1985; Covey, 1990; Kotter, 1990) who have shown that management and leadership also display distinct constructs such as determining strategy, budgeting and monitoring.

One can be a manager, a leader, both or neither (Kotter, 1990). Both managers and leaders are appointed and given legitimate power that allows them to reward or punish. Their ability to influence is based on the formal authority inherent in their positions (Weber, 1864-1920). Max Weber was the first to discuss the term 'bureaucracy'; he analyzed it to mean 'one that fits his/her ideal type closely'. Hierarchy that determines the organization structure and channels of communication recognizes the need for different roles, different assumptions and different action. Leaders may either be appointed or emerge from within a group. Leaders can influence others to perform beyond the actions dictated by formal authority (Tichy & De Rose, 1995). However, "it is essential to stress that leadership is the activity of the many and not the status of the few" (West-Burnham, 1999, p.15; Gronn, 2000). If this concept is taken forward, then management/manager is the status of the few, which becomes more rarified as people go up an organizational hierarchy. Leadership is a quality that can be held by people at any level within a hierarchy, but they may not be able to assert it affectively unless they have access to sufficient authority.

Furthermore, leaders work on systems and do the right things; managers work in systems and do things right (Covey, 1991). Distinctions can be made between leadership and management by focusing (Ibid.) on set guidelines. Management focuses on urgency, speed, the bottom line, efficiency, methods, practices, and acting in the system. On the other hand, leadership focuses importance, direction, the top line, effectiveness, purpose, principle and acting on the system. Both management and leadership must exist for process and enterprise to be sustained while solutions are provided for the stakeholders in a radically changing universal community (Bennis & Nanus, 1997). Leadership is

both a process and a property (Jago, 1982). As a process, it utilizes noncoercive influence to shape the group's or organization's goals, motivate behavior toward the achievement of these goals, and define group or organizational culture (Yukl, 1995). As a property, leadership is the set of characteristics attributed to individuals who are perceived to be leaders. Thus, leaders are people who can influence the behaviors of others without relying on force; leaders are people whom others accept as leaders (Manfred, 1994).

In brief, the "leadership crisis" (Burns, 1978) is a widely used term indicating the urgent need for organizational restructuring. The multiple definitions of leadership (Richards & Engle, 1986; Hosking, 1988; Schein, 1992; Drath & Palus, 1994) have led to the ambiguity and confusion surrounding the notion of leadership itself. Factors underpinning this ambiguity include the confusion between leadership and management – an elusive understanding of the nature of relationships and influence within organizations and a lack of consensus about the specific variables that constitute leadership. Such factors contribute to the tendency in both research and practice to reduce "leadership to good management" (Rost, 1991, p.180). This vagueness is complicated by globalization and societal changes that have created an environment in which theorists and critics are calling for new perspectives on the leadership phenomenon (Immegart, 1988; Rost, 1991; Wheatley, 1992; Heifetz, 1994) while others are questioning orthodox organization (Senge, 1990; Capra, 1996; Morgan, 1997).

The rest of this chapter discusses to what extent an educational organization fits into such a conceptual framework and the organizational factors that influence motivation–a key term in this study. Thereafter, the concepts of leadership and management will be elaborated with an explanation of how decision-making is practiced. The theories, styles, approaches and behavioral patterns of each will be highlighted for a better understanding of how the findings of the study can be incorporated to meet with or part from previous research.

The Organization

Organizations, known as institutions or associations, are not a modern invention. The Pharoahs used organizations (Etzioni, 1964) to build the pyramids; the emperors of China used organizations a thousand years ago to construct great irrigation systems. In addition, the first popes created a large-scale organization, the Church, to serve a world religion. Today, such a diversity of organizations exists that a whole set of sub-organizations are needed to organize and supervise these organizations (Ibid.). In contrast to earlier societies, modern society, such as the Western, has placed a high moral value on rationality, effectiveness, and efficiency (Etzioni, 1964). The coordination of human actions results in the creation of powerful social tools to achieve organizational goals. The organization, thus, is successful when it combines its people with its resources and weaves together leaders, experts, workers, machines and raw materials (Ibid.). The researcher strongly supports this statement for it is only through the careful consideration of all the resources that an organization can function harmoniously to successfully achieve goals.

An organization is a consciously coordinated social unit, composed of two or more people that function on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals (Robbins, 1998, p.2). On the basis of this definition, manufacturing and service firms are organizations whether they are schools, hospitals, churches, universities, military units, retail stores, police departments and government agencies. The units within are the administrative offices, faculties, departments that need to coordinate on an on-going basis to ensure that quality education and satisfaction are the attained outcomes.

Organizations with people who share interests and visions are like communities (Sergiovanni, 1994). The practice of a learning organization identifies five core dimensions (Senge, 1990). First, systems thinking states that interrelatedness and connections must be constantly made. Second, personal mastery involves continuous individual self-development. Mental models determine how innovative ideas must be

surfaced. Fourth, shared visions highlight a common purpose to inspire all members of the organization to break down barriers and mistrust. Finally, team learning constitutes the microcosms of the organization. Thus, a learning organization continuously enlarges its capacity to determine its future (Senge, 1990). In other words, organizations must always think about the future so as not to stagnate in the present.

The members of an educational organization are encouraged to view each other as colleagues in a mutual quest for insight, not as antagonists seeking converts to their own viewpoint (Yukl, 1998, p.370); educational leadership is discussed later in this chapter. People within the organization should build on each other's ideas and improve them. To facilitate mutual understanding, improve problem solving, and increase team learning, advocacy should be balanced with inquiry (Senge et al., 1993). The following guidelines (Senge, 1990; Garvin, 1993; McGill, Slocum, & Lei, 1993; Schein, 1993a; Ulrich, Jick, & Von Glinow, 1993; Nadler et al., 1995; Cavaleri & Fearon, 1996) can increase flexibility and innovation within the organization in order to achieve optimum results:

1. Create an appreciation for flexibility and learning;
2. Encourage systems thinking;
3. Help people understand and improve their mental models;
4. Leverage learning from surprises and failures;
5. Encourage and facilitate learning by individuals and teams;
6. Encourage experimentation;
7. Acquire knowledge from outsiders;
8. Encourage innovation and entrepreneurial activity;
9. Facilitate diffusion of learning in the organization;
10. Reward learning and innovation.

The assumption that motivation and satisfaction influence the behavior of people in organizations (Porras & Silvers, 1991; Levin & Gottlieb, 1993; Persico & Tomasek, 1994) is not to be overlooked. Effective leaders are "employee-centered" and not "job-centered" (Lewin, 1951; Mayo, 1993). That is, such leaders regard their job as dealing with people rather than the work itself and consequently, consider communication and participation as significant rewards that obtain the commitment of people.

Most people spend much of their lives working, studying, playing, and praying in organizations (Presthus, 1962). The organization is (Presthus, 1958) "a system of structural interpersonal relations...individuals are differentiated in terms of authority, status, and role with the result that personal interaction is prescribed...anticipated reactions tend to occur, while ambiguity and spontaneity are decreased" (p.50). In other words, the organization is a process, which includes people who interact in a structured manner. Moreover, the actions of the people are justified by the rationale that participation within the organization will assist in meeting both organizational and personal goals (Busher, 2001). The recognition of the importance of developing interpersonal skills is closely tied to the need for organizations to recruit and keep high performing people (Meicester, 1996).

In general, the organization can be viewed (Hesselbein et al., 1996) as a hierarchy, a community, and an economy. These tools contribute to employee motivation and the leader's central role becomes that of contributing to the corporate culture and corporate institution that make freedom work and that create a freer society within the organization. This freer society will be based on values such as respect for all people and their opinions; freedom of choice, speech; fairness and justice (Ibid., pp.38-39). The university is a business organization with a specific purpose of offering quality education. Whatever the nature, the characteristics of all organizations (Robbins & De Cenzo, 1998; Coulter & Weins, 1999) are: (1) the distinct purpose expressed in terms of goals; (2) people make decisions, establish purpose, perform activities to achieve goals; and (3) systematic structure creates rules and regulations, gives supervisory control, forms work teams. A clear framework that includes these characteristics will result in effectiveness and efficiency.

A system (Ashmos & Huber, 1987) is also an interrelated set of elements functioning as a whole. By viewing the organization as a system, four basic elements (Hackman et al., 1977; Griffin, 1996) can be identified as:

1. Input (from the environment)-material, human, financial, and informational resources;

2. Transformation process (of inputs into outputs)-technology, operating systems, administrative systems, and control systems;

3. Output (into the environment)-products/services, profits/losses, employee behaviors, information outputs;

4. Feedback-environmental reaction to outputs.

To ensure effective coordination, the basic parts of an organizational hierarchy, despite its nature, were visualized (Mintzberg, 1979; Kaplan & Norton, 2001) as: (1) strategic apex-top management; (2) operating core-people who produce/offer services; (3) middle line-links the operating core to the strategic apex; (4) techno structure-assists middle line and strategic apex to perform managerial functions; and (5) support staff.

Organizational Structure

The "right" organizational structure (Mintzberg, 1991) is the one that best fits the needs of a situation with a sense of internal balance and order; the concept of 'the fit' was discussed in the previous chapter. It must also maintain a certain degree of consistency within the organization, an integration of the various functions and processes that allow people to act in the most effective and efficient way. Researchers (Daft, 1989; Bedeian & Zammuto, 1991; Jones 1995) have found that:

1. Organizations are social entities- groups of people interacting with each other to perform functions;

2. Organizations have identifiable boundaries-to delineate those things that are part of the organization from those that are not;

3. Organizations are goal oriented-with motivational properties that focus behavior and sustain high levels of effort (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham, 1981);

4. Organizations have deliberately structured activity systems-by subdividing tasks into units, departments & divisions, outcomes are more efficient.

Organizing requires a combination of differentiation and integration (Torrington et al., 1989). First, individuals' jobs must be appointed. Second, integration is achieved by

coordinating the individual tasks to attain a total satisfactory task that meets the organizational goals. Moreover, organizing is deciding how best to group organizational elements. There are six basic building blocks (Griffin, 1996) that formulate the elements of organization structure: designing jobs, grouping jobs, establishing reporting relationships, distributing authority, coordinating activities, and differentiating between positions. Others (Daft, 1995; Roher, 1995; Reynolds, 1999) confirm that these elements are feasible and reasonable to establish the conceptual framework of the organization. In other words, individuals know exactly what to do, how to do it, and whom to report to.

Job design determines an individual's work-related responsibilities (Griffin & McMahan, 1996) by determining the level of desired specialization. Even though job specialization benefits (Griffin, 1982) the organization by increasing proficiency and saving time, it may not offer challenges or stimulation; as a result, boredom and dissatisfaction arise. Thus, alternatives to specialization–job rotation, job enlargement, job enrichment, job characteristics approach, work-teams–allow a better balance between organizational demands for efficiency and productivity and individual needs for creativity and autonomy (Griffin, 1996). These substitutes presumably lead to high motivation, high quality performance, high satisfaction and low absenteeism and turnover (Herzberg, 1966; Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

The second building block of organizational structure is the grouping of jobs identified as departmentalization (Daft, 1995). The most common base for departmentalization is by function (Twomey et al., 1988), which is meant to facilitate productivity by implementing expertise and control. Activities can be grouped around products, customers, processes and defined geographical locations (Griffin, 1996; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998). The next element is establishing reporting relationships by clarifying the chain of command and the span of management. A chain of command determines a distinct line of authority among positions in an organization. The first component of such a chain is the unity of command that suggests that each person must report to one and only one boss; otherwise, employees will have to cope with conflicting demands or priorities (Roher, 1995). The second, called the scalar principle, suggests that the line should be clear and extend from the lowest to the highest position in the organization.

Another part of establishing reporting relationships is the span of management or control. This specifies the number of people who report to a particular manager (Griffin, 1996) for maximum effectiveness and efficiency. The span of control is determined by contingency variables (Van Fleet & Bedeian, 1977; Spreitzer, 1996) such as employee tasks, management information systems, and style of manager (Van Fleet, 1983). Span of control will lead to more efficiency for the leader will be directly responsible for a number of persons that must be supervised and in turn, the people know exactly to whom they report and are accountable .

Moreover, researchers (Gooding & Wagner III, 1985; Boschken, 1990; Robbins, 1990) have found that the contingency variables that affect organization structure are strategy, size, technology and the environment. These variables (Reynolds, 1999) are translated into the mechanistic organization or bureaucracy and the organic organization or adhocracy. A bureaucracy is an organization structure that is high in specialization, formalization and centralization (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998); on the other hand, an adhocracy is low in specialization, formalization and centralization. Studies (Worthy, 1950; Dalton et al., 1980; Van Fleet, 1983; Dumaine, 1991) have found that a flat structure leads to higher levels of employee morale and productivity because of more open lines of communication and flexibility.

The fourth element in organization design is the distribution of authority. Authority is power that has been legitimized by the organization; the issues to be considered are delegation and decentralization (Kahn & Kram, 1994). Managers help employees to get more involved by assigning portions of the total workload through delegation (Leana, 1986). Centralization is the process of systematically retaining power and authority with top management (Griffin, 1996). In contrast, decentralization delegates power and authority throughout the organization to middle and lower management. The amount of centralization or decentralization is determined by how managers will best implement their decisions toward organizational goals. However, the trend has been a movement (Meyer et al., 1987; Daft, 1994) toward more decentralization in organizations.

The final element of organizing is coordination, the process of linking the activities of the various departments to focus on the effective attainment of organizational goals. To maintain coordination among interdependent units, the managerial hierarchy, rules and procedures, liaison roles, task forces, and integrated departments (Galbraith, 1977) are used. The last building block of organizational structure is differentiating between positions. A line position is a position in the direct chain of command responsible for the achievement of organizational goals (Griffin, 1996); whereas a staff position provides expertise, advice, and support for line positions.

The Educational Organization

Notre Dame University, the topic of concern of this case study, is a non-profit organization. The job is the same (Rainey, 1989) in both profit and non-profit organizations. Although non-profit organizations may not be profitable enough to attract investors, they must still employ sound management practices if they are to survive and work toward their goals (Perry & Rainey, 1988). Basically, the organizational task is to make decisions, set objectives, create workable organization structure, hire and motivate employees, secure legitimacy, and develop internal political support to implement programs (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998, p.15). In brief, while there are distinctions among organizations-profit, commercial, educational, non-profit, financial- they are far more alike than different; they are all concerned with planning, organizing, leading, and controlling (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998) to achieve the stated goals and objectives of the organization. As non-profit organizations, educational organizations all stand to benefit from the efficient use of resources. All organizations-large, small, profit, non-profit-utilize some combination of inputs-human, financial, physical and information resources to achieve their goals (Griffin, 1996).

The educational system can be regarded as a 'complex social organization' (Katz, 1964). It is complex because it includes different people who interact in their performance of many different functions. In addition, it is social because people are interdependent and their actions are socially promulgated and enforced (Ibid.). "The most important thing to know about organizations is that they do not exist–except in people's minds" (Kelly,

1974, p.1). "Organizations are social units that pursue specific goals which they are structured to serve" (Etzioni, 1964, p.4). The educational system as a whole is 'an organization' and it possesses constituent 'organizations' at various levels (Harling, 1984). In other words, an organization consists of sub-organizations that form an inclusive community of responsive professionals who are committed to a service-oriented organization.

An organization of higher education specifically should articulate a mission and common vision, discussed in Chapter Two, to help all the members to define the purpose and direction. A university should pursue quality in the development and implementation of human resource practices (Vice-President, Johns Hopkins University). That is, being open in terms of sharing information will foster human talent to maximize contribution. The researcher agrees with this and will highlight the importance of human resource management and its connection to employee performance in Chapter Four. The VP of Johns Hopkins also believes that the utilization of effective and efficient practices will provide innovative, flexible and timely services. Challenge will offer opportunities for creativity, excellence and professional growth. Furthermore, the organization should recognize value and reward collaboration and provide for career advancement to give incentive and encourage employees to meet and achieve university goals.

Education is vital to the economic and social well being of most, if not all countries in the world. Research (Rutler et al., 1979; Mortimore et al., 1988) has shown that educational institutions represent an important value-added component to the education of children and young people; they have instrumental, social and moral purposes. They mediate the view of society, which the children they educate will form; help prepare them for the world of work and are dedicated to individual welfare. Basically, an educational institution provides access to knowledge (Day, 1995) and is indeed:

> The only institution in our society specifically charged with
> providing the young a disciplined encounter with all the subject
> matters of the human conversation; the world as a physical and
> biological system; evaluation and belief systems; communication
> systems; the social political and economical systems that make up
> the global village; and the human species itself. It is charged with
> enculturing the young into a political democracy. It is a major
> player in developing educated persons who acquire an

understanding of truth, beauty and justice against which to judge their own and society's virtues and imperfections...This is a moral responsibility (Goodlad, 1990, pp.48-49).

The responsibilities for improving educational opportunities are greater than those of the individual. "We need to understand that responsibility for the quality of education is...a matter for the school, not just for the individual teacher" (Grundy, 1994, p.24). The work of Baker and Proudfoot (1989) in New South Wales, Australia, found that the culture of the educational institution influences outcomes. Second, the structures, which support interactive social relationships, create a sense of ownership and commitment among employees. Third, the dynamics of improvement involve a process of change at individual and organizational levels. Finally, leading and managing change is a developmental, reflexive process involving knowledge of alternative models of schooling, technical skills and expertise, intuition as well as experience (cited in Grundy, 1994, pp.26-27). Furthermore, educational institutions of higher education – universities – search for theoretical explanations as how to offer quality services that are sensible and which permit predictions that are useful and reliable (Ogilvie, 1987). The crucial role of the university is research; its concerns are universal; its methodologies are unrestricted and include observation, experimentation, calculation, contemplation, speculation and discussion (Ibid., p.1).

The researcher believes that the university aims to mould people into intellectual, spiritual and moral citizens. To contribute to this process, people who belong to the university must also possess intellectual, spiritual and moral values. Being a professional and academic practitioner implies (Erant, 1994) that one must have a moral commitment to serve the interests of students by reflection on their well-being. One must have a professional obligation to monitor and review the nature and effectiveness of one's practice in order to improve the quality of management, pedagogy and decision-making. Futhermore, practitioners must develop their practical knowledge both by personal reflection and through interaction with others (Erant, 1993, as cited in Busher & Saran, 1995). In the light of the definitions and discussions of the organization that were presented earlier in this chapter (Presthus, 1958; Robbins, 1998; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998), the university is an organization. The function of education is to facilitate the

movement of people through the natural stages of development until they become self-actualised. Thus, the university is a market place where trademarked, certified information is sold by an oligarchy of privileged entrepreneurs to be consumed by a multitude of addicts (Ogilvie, 1987, p.11; Meister, 1998).

Organizational Factors that Influence Motivation

The Hawthorne Studies (1920s-1930s) increased the understanding of the social nature of organizations. These experiments demonstrated that organizations are social systems whose relationships among people are extremely significant in determining organizational behaviour. Influence is the essence of leadership. Leaders must sell their ideas, gain acceptance of their plans and policies, and motivate others to support and implement their decisions (Yukl, 1998). There are various organizational factors that explain the effectiveness of a leader in influencing people and motivating commitment to the task. A number of studies (Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl, Lepsinger, & Lucia, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) have identified influence tactics that are relevant for managers to influence the behaviour of employees. This is meant to be a positive activity and not to be translated into the manipulation of people. In other words, such influential tactics–power, politics, culture, and change–attempt to motivate people to carry out a request, perform a task, or support a proposal.

Power

The first organizational factor that the researcher will discuss is power and individuals can derive power (French, Jr.et al., 1959) from one or more of the following bases:

1. Reward Power...behaviour is influenced by rewards for cooperation;

2. Coercive Power...behaviour is influenced by fear of punishment for not cooperating;

3. Legitimate Power...behaviour is influenced by the position in the formal hierarchy;

4. Referent Power...behaviour is influenced by a charismatic personality and the desire to identify with the individual;

5. Expert Power...behaviour is influenced by individual expertise, skills, and knowledge.

Subsequent additions (Mechanic, 1962) to this list include:

1. Power derived from access to important individuals and information in addition to (Schilit & Locke, 1982);

2. Power through exchange such as ingratiation or praise;

3. Power by manipulation;

4. Power from persistence or assertiveness;

5. Power by banding together to form a coalition.

A strong need for power is relevant to managerial role requirements involving the use of power and influence (Yukl, 1998). Managers exercise power to influence (Gergen, 2000) subordinates, peers and superiors. Empirical research (Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; House et al., 1991) indicates that a socialized power orientation is more likely to result in effective leadership than a personalized power orientation. People with a strong need for power seek positions of authority and power (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982); they are likely to be more attuned to the power politics of organizations.

Micro Politics

Managers also engage in various forms of informal activity, described as 'political', to supplement the power of their organizational positions (Longenecker & Pringle, 1984) and more specifically known as the concept of micropolitics. That is, the organization is a political arena whose members engage in political activity in pursuit of their interests (Busher, 2001). The definition below incorporates the main elements:

> [Micropolitics] assume that in organizations policy and decisions emerge through a process of negotiation and bargaining. Interest groups develop and form alliances in pursuit of particular policy objectives. Conflict is viewed as a natural phenomenon and power accrues to dominant

coalitions rather than being the preserve of formal leaders (Bush, 1995, p.73).

Politics is a concept (Margulies & Raia, 1984; Pfeffer, 1981) related to power and refers to the way power is used to resolve uncertainty or dissension within an organization. Political activity is the manipulation of power. Only by understanding how power is distributed and deployed can members of organizations get things done (Torrington et al., 1989). Organizational politics is important for competition, performance measurement, job mobility, style of leadership, political context, and motivation (Ibid.). They are also important for building consensus and cohesion amongst staff and agreeing upon ways to implement successful action. An appreciation of organizational politics is an essential part of managerial effectiveness; some political behavior is required of every manager. Specifically, micro politics involves individuals wanting to have an impact on organizational decisions (Bolman & Deal, 1984) by the articulation of interests and the hope that those interests will be translated into institutional policy. Organizational politics arise when people think differently and want to act differently (Morgan, 1986). Politics is regarded as the conflict over whose preferences are to prevail in the determination of organizational policy (Wildavsky, 1968).

Consequently, the importance of understanding the political system contained within an organization is paramount to the successful planning, implementation and reinforcement of programmes (Johnson & Scholes, 1993). The political mechanisms within organizations include resources – human, physical, information, power groups, subsystems, and symbolism. Moreover, a political iceberg consists of overt and covert political mechanisms, where both are seen to influence the organization toward its goals for efficiency and effectiveness (James, 1996). Thus, the operation of the political iceberg is, with strategic empowerment, to ensure survival and competitiveness.

Culture is another factor that influences the motivation of the organization. National culture plays a major role in determining cultural values (Adler, 1997). In turn, these values interact with the needs, attitudes and norms of individuals and groups and result in behaviors that influence organizational effectiveness, or lack thereof. Organizational effectiveness relies on the extent that managers believe in this relationship (Punnett, 2002). Culture can refer to shared general beliefs and values that define what is suitable for one group (Kluckholm & Strodtbeck, 1961; Lane & DiStefano, 1988), or to social concepts such as the refinement of mind, tastes and manners (Heller, 1988). In addition, "Culture is a learned, shared, compelling, interrelated set of symbols whose meaning provides a set of orientations for members of a society. These orientations provide solutions to problems that all societies must solve if they are to remain viable" (Terpstra & David, 1985, p.5). The elements of this definition provide insight (Punnett & Ricks, 1992) into the relationship between cultural issues and high performance management.

Cultural values that are typical of a particular society can influence what is effective and efficient in terms of the management process (Hofstede, 1980). The culture of a group is dependent on many variables that include (Harvey & Brown, 1988) language, dress, patterns of behaviour, value systems, feelings, attitudes, interaction and the developed group norms of the members. Norms can provide an outward emanation of enforced behaviours (Schein, 1985). Group culture (Harvey & Brown, 1988) must achieve goals as well as satisfy the needs of members in order for the group to be effective. Culture that transforms individual behaviour is unique to each group and develops internally.

A specific organizational culture is collegiality. Studies (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; 1994; Hopkins et al., 1994; Gray et al.,1996) on educational improvement and effectiveness have shown an open acceptance of collegial management styles as one of the keys to the enhancement of educational institutions in different cultures and societies. The knowledge that employees can contribute to the success of the educational organization (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Shulman, 1988) is in itself enhancing not

only to the employee but also to the organization. On the other hand, the professional isolation of teachers (Fullan, 1982; Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990) doesn't articulate a belief in shared management procedures. Many definitions (Lortie, 1964; Smyth, 1991) have been given but the most rigorous is:

> Collegiality assumes that organizations determine policy and make decisions through a process of discussion leading to consensus. Power is shared among some or all members of the organization who are thought to have a mutual understanding about the objectives of the institution (Bush, 1995, p.52).

The management of educational institutions has shifted towards flatter organizational structures and decentralized authority (Schulman, 1989). This will instill trust and confidence which translates itself into higher productivity. Collegiality and collaboration are not just a necessity for the enhancement of morale and teacher satisfaction but are crucial if the educational institution requests performance and productivity of the highest quality (Ibid.). Accordingly, collegial organizations:

> ...encourage, enhance, and help to define shared beliefs and values. It is only through such a shared 'vision' that realizable objectives can be brought about which will lead to genuine improvement operationalized through "joint held beliefs and values" (Campbell & Southworth, 1993, p.66).

Such collegiality emphasizes participative systems of management that exaggerate conformity based on aspects of human relationships (Hargreaves, 1994). Such intervention through the educational system constructs new methods of motivation among employees (Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990). This not only espouses a genuinely collegial environment but also adopts micro-politics, discussed earlier, to achieve desired outcomes in educational settings (Blasé, 1988).

By changing or strengthening the culture of an organization, a leader can indirectly influence the motivation and behaviour of its members (Yukl, 1998). A major function of culture is to provide an understanding of the internal and external environment and to determine how to respond to them (Schein, 1992). Objectives and strategies cannot be achieved effectively without cooperative effort and reasonable stability of membership in the organization. Leaders must articulate a consistent vision and act consistently to reinforce it; otherwise, the organization may develop a dysfunctional culture that reflects inner conflicts (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984).

All organizational cultures are located within national or macro-cultural contexts which influence the ways in which they are likely to develop. The researcher feels that it is worth noting the various facets and attributes of Arab culture at this point since the object of this study is located in the Arab world. The Arab culture is "more than any other culture …it is a condensation of history" (Khalid, 1977, p.126). There are certain dimensions of culture that affect work values and differentiate them from one society to another. These cultural dimensions can influence behavior leading to variances in productivity, job satisfaction, misunderstandings, disagreements, and conflicts (Erez & Earley, 1993; Gibson et al., 1997). The firmly established traditional value system in the Arab society has been running into opposition with the modern imported systems.

The conflict between these two systems has given way to the current Arab culture. The medieval Arab value system was characterized by dynamism, flexibility, and tolerance (Hajazi, 1979). However the current value system "has, in some areas, become a taboo, tribal, submissive and fatalistic one" (Ali, 1986-87, p.95). Whether male or female, work (Ali, 1988) is:

> … an obligatory activity and a virtue… [which] enables man to be independent and is a source of self-respect, satisfaction, and fulfillment. Success and progress on the job depend on hard work and commitment to one's job. Commitment to work also involves a desire to improve the community and societal welfare. Society would have fewer problems if each person were committed to his work and avoided unethical methods of wealth accumulation (p.577).

A major empirical study that was published is *The Making of Gulf Managers* (Muna, 1989). A total of 140 managers were interviewed in fifty-three different organizations and five main ingredients for success among managers in the Gulf states were identified: a good educational head-start; early exposure to successful role-models; early responsibility in the home or around it; the importance of an ethical system which puts a high value on hard work and commitment; and the need to take one's own initiatives in self-development. Another empirical research (Dadfar, 1993) in Syria, Saudi and the Gulf States developed a sophisticated model in line with the Bedouin structure and termed 'Bedouocracy' or 'Sheikhocracy'. The field studies generated 112 socio-cultural variables including macrocosmic and microcosmic perceptions, familism, practicality,

determinism, time horizon, Western lifestyle, Western techniques and technology, male/female equality.

A noteworthy finding is that Arab personality types create a profile that identifies (Dadfar, 1993) eight managerial behaviors and systems:

1. Tribeocrats refers to a leadership system where tribalism values predominate. Leaders have unlimited power, words are rules and loyalty is given to top management;

2. Tribeotheocrats are dominated by tribal values and authority;

3. Tribeo-Westernized managers wish to adopt Western lifestyle, technology and techniques while disliking Western democracy and the corresponding aspects of management behavior;

4. Theotribalized managers are prone to adopt a charismatic leadership style and a patriarchal approach;

5. Theo-Westernized managers may have been educated in Western countries but they do not adopt Western lifestyles but stick to their own values;

6. Western tribalized managers prefer a functional structure of management but give priority to tribe members;

7. Western theocratic managers attempt to blend the Western and Eastern values;

8. Fully Westernized managers tend to be pragmatic, flexible and participative

Arab managers are adept to working in multinational environments (Weir, 2002). They revel in work cultures that foster effective interpersonal skills and the techniques of establishing rapport. They believe in shared values based on ethical principles. Many are even prepared (Medhat Ali, 1998) to embrace such contemporary practices as TQM.

Change

There are many organizational factors that influence performance; however, the last one that will be discussed in this section is the element of change. The researcher finds it is imperative to mention change since many administrative changes took place during the course of this study. Without a doubt, these changes disturbed the flow of

communication and the morale of people, discussed in Chapter Two. Change is an alteration of an organization environment, structure, technology, or people (Hammonds, 1991; Ciampa, 1992). Change involves the design and construction of new patterns, or the restructure of old ones, to produce innovative, and hopefully more productive actions (Kanter, 1983). Barriers to effective change include micropolitics, individual and group cultural dispositions, the organizational model of management and the sense of whether the change is being imposed or voluntary
(James, 1996).

An organization with an inflexible strategic plan may find itself unable to respond to change because of a particular commitment. In this case, the organization may continue devoting resources to an activity of questionable evaluation (Brockner, 1992). The essential role of top management is to formulate an integrating vision and general strategy, build a coalition of supporters who endorse the strategy, and then direct and coordinate the process by which the strategy will be implemented (Nadler, 1998, p.12; Yukl, 1998, p.448).

People tend to resist change for many reasons such as mistrust, doubts about the need for change, fear of economic loss, fear of losing status and power, fear of personal failure. These individual states will affect the overall performance of people. The following guidelines (Beer, 1988; Connor, 1995; Nadler et al., 1995; Kotter, 1996) describe how best to deal with change in organizations and are based on theory, research findings, and practitioner insights: create a sense of urgency for change; prepare people to adjust to change; help people deal with the pain of change; keep people informed about the progress of change; demonstrate continued commitment to change; and empower people to implement the change.

Leading change and understanding the change process and methodologies are critical skill sets and competency requirements for leaders (Egan, 1988; Covey, 1991; Oakley & Krug, 1991; Kotter, 1996; Eadie, 1999). Leadership learning is a lifelong endeavour. Leaders must address their needs and requirements in terms of education, training and

development activities regardless of what type of organization or institution they belong to. Ultimately, they must feel comfortable in their roles as well as have the competencies to play these roles.

Leadership

In the overview, the concepts of leadership and management were summarized. However, each concept will be discussed in detail by referring to previous research. Leadership is a complex process (Bennis, 2000; Green, 2000; Landsberg, 2000) by which a person influences others to accomplish a mission, task, or objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. Leaders carry out this process by applying such leadership attributes as beliefs, values, ethics, character, knowledge and skills. Trust, confidence and effective communication are reliable predictors (Bass, 1990) of employee satisfaction. With such traits, leaders build but do not command excellence.

Leaders who want to be trusted and communicate a vision of where the organization is going must gain insight into certain principles (US Army Handbook, 1973) by knowing themselves and seeking self-improvement, being technically proficient, seeking responsibility and taking responsibility for actions. In addition, they can make sound and timely decisions, know their people and look out for their well-being. Moreover, keeping their people informed will develop a sense of responsibility. Furthermore, by ensuring that tasks are understood, supervised and accomplished, and training, leaders ensure full utilization capacities within their organization. Leadership behavior (McGregor, 1967) is a function specified by certain characteristics such as knowledge, skill, motivation, attitudes and environmental factors. Occasional challenges (Lakomski, 1995) and evidence (Hallinger, 1992; Bullock & Thomas, 1994; Gurr, 1996; Webb & Vulliamy, 1996; Donaldson, 2001) have shown a change in the enduring features of the role of leadership in educational institutions (Beare, Caldwell & Millikan, 1989; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Hayward, 1993; Hallinger & Murphy, 1991, 1992; Caldwell, 1993).

Accordingly, research (Gurr, 1996) has categorized the role of a leader in educational institutions as four-fold. The first is learning and teaching; supervising instruction, subordinate support, wider knowledge and decision making can offer quality-learning opportunities. Another role is that of symbolic and cultural awareness. Leaders must possess values such as equity, social justice, empowerment, encouraging participation, commitment, people orientation, fairness and respect, which surely influence the leadership style. The third is future orientation; a shared vision that is communicated to all ensures a consensus on the goals and the priorities arising from the shared vision. Finally, accountability for one's own performance and for that of subordinates is within the leader's span of control. This can be achieved through appraisal programs and formal and informal monitoring of delegated tasks.

The leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision involves being forward-looking and inspiring (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). By challenging the process, leaders enhance the perception that they are dynamic. Moreover, a set of values is clarified and they become an example for others in the organization. This consistent application of values is a behavioral way of demonstrating honesty and trustworthiness. Educational leaders should be conscious of how their behavior shapes the impressions their followers have of them. If this is done with sincerity and integrity and without unethical manipulation, then their credibility establishes the foundation upon which visions for the future can be built (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, pp. 29-30).

Leadership skills, like management skills, can be learned and improved (Farr, 1999) for this reflects rigorously on personal practice. Learning leadership means facing the inevitable discomfort of negative feedback, the discipline of trying new approaches and the awkwardness of new behaviors (Ibid). In other words, people will follow if they are convinced with the vision, style and direction or else there will be resistance. Farr (1999) suggests that leaders should learn to incorporate three types of leadership into their thinking process. Directional leadership, strategic leadership, is about determining where the organization should go. Implementation leadership determines how the

organization will reach its goals. Interpersonal leadership involves human resources in organizational goals and objectives.

"All leaders have the capacity to create a compelling vision, one that takes people to a new place, and the ability to translate that vision into reality" (Bennis, 1990, p.46; Mason, 1991). Success depends on the notion of 'shared vision'. Many studies (Manasse, 1986; Murphy, 1988; Westley & Mintzberg, 1989; Sandmann, 1995) indicate that if personal vision is shared with members of the organization, then this may differentiate true leaders from mere managers. Vision is defined as "the force, which molds meaning for the people of an organization," (Manasse, 1986, p.50).

This is visionary leadership and there are four levels (Manasse, 1986). Organizational vision identifies the complete picture and the interrelationship of the components. Second, a future vision will position the internal functions of the organization in its environment for the future. The third, personal vision, translates the leader's personal aspirations and links the organization with the future vision. Finally, strategic vision connects the reality of the present (organizational vision) to the future (vision) in a unique way (personal vision).

The qualities appropriate to educational outcomes might include wisdom, compassion, spirituality and humanism (West-Burnham, 1999). Each of these qualities constitutes a complex range of skills, knowledge, experience and personal understanding. The five fundamental practices that enable leaders to get things done and prove themselves are challenging the process; inspiring a shared vision; enabling others to act; modeling the way; encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 1997; Green, 2000). The practices have been developed into the ten commitments (Kouses & Posner, 1995) of leadership and are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Ten Commitments of Leadership

PRACTICES	COMMITMENTS
Challenging the Process	1. Search out challenging opportunities to change, grow, innovate & improve.
	2. Experiment, take risks & learn from the accompanying mistakes.
Inspiring a Shared Vision	3. Envision an uplifting & ennobling future.
	4. Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to their values, interests, hopes & dreams.
Enabling Others to Act	5. Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals & building trust.
	6. Strengthen people by delegating power away, providing choice, developing competence, assigning critical tasks and offering visible support.
Modeling the Way	7. Set the example by behaving in ways that are consistent with shared values.
	8. Achieve small wins that promote consistent progress and build commitment.
Encouraging the Heart	9. Recognize individual contributions to the success of every project.
	10. Celebrate team accomplishments regularly.

Source: Kouses and Posner, 1995

Leadership is to nurture the willingness to work with zeal and confidence (Tjosovold, 1995). It involves setting up high but realistic performance goals and finding out ways to improve operations and procedures and striving for total quality in all areas. Leadership-subordinate interaction ranges (Heller, 2000) from no influence to prior consultation to joint decision-making to semi-autonomy to delegation, discussed in the next section. The major ingredients (Richards & Engle, 1986; Moon et al., 2001) of the leadership concept are:

1. The ability to use power effectively and in a responsible manner;
2. The ability to understand that different people have different motivational forces at different times and in different situations;
3. The ability to inspire people to perform towards a preset objective;
4. The ability to develop a climate conducive to building a positive attitude in the organization.

Leadership is also a multi-dimensional function, requiring knowledge and understanding of many organizational needs. Leaders must master various roles (Pfeffer, 1977; Heindl et al., 1985; Barrick et al., 1991) that are required to handle different people and different situations with skill and efficiency. A key role of the leader is that of an administrator who carries on the day-to-day activities and who is expected to be creative, and to devise processes to ensure smooth implementation and increased efficiency. As a strategist, a leader can focus on the issues that affect the performance of the team. A strategist is also expected to make predictions and draw conclusions to maximize the benefits of the organization. Another role of the leader is that of a good communicator and this demands an impressive persona and an aura that distinguishes a leader from the rest. The final role (Ibid.) is that of an agent of change to ensure future successes by creating a favorable environment to overcome resistance.

There has been argument (Dimmock, 2000) that a more general perspective should be adopted to enable cultural differences to be recognized across the field of educational

management. With Hofstede's (1991) work in mind, Dimmock formulates six dimensions that enable leaders to identify their own frameworks:

1. Distribution of power: concentrated or distributed;
2. Personal orientation: self or group;
3. Behavior: consideration or aggression;
4. Attitudes to life: proactive or fatalistic;
5. Innovation and change: generative or replicative;
6. Nature of relationships: limited or holistic.

Educational leadership is seen as a moral exercise in that educational leaders should focus not only on effective and efficient use of resources, but also on what is worthwhile such as the values of quality, equity and choice (Evers & Lakomski, 1991; Greenfield, 1991; Evers, 1992; Hodgkinson, 1993; Grace, 1995; Aspin, 1996; Duignan, 1996; Sergiovanni, 1996; Jones, 2000). The focus is not on products or services but on the human mind and thus, the heart of leadership is the emphasis on ethics. Most leadership decisions have an ethical dimension; educational leaders should be appraised morally (Evers, 1992, pp.39-41) through the:

1. Promotion of a problem solving culture;
2. Encouragement of growth of knowledge through the promotion of differing points of view to question and challenge current thinking;
3. Focus on democratic reform through the use of informed participative feedback to stimulate and provide for change;
4. Concern to ensure everyone has the freedom to participate;
5. Promotion of approaches to learning based on dialogue, conjecture and reputation;
6. Decisions made with respect to the provision of long-term learning.

The Significance of Leadership

The challenges of today's leaders are significant. Effective leadership requires paving the way and equipping potential leaders with the skills to respond to global economy, technological advancement, instability, all of which create a host of complex challenges

(Covey, 1991). Effective and efficient organizations owe their success to those individuals who possess leadership competencies and who are willing to pass them on to the next generation of executives and managers (Hickman & Silva, 1984, p.23). Leaders develop visions, create the environment and make things happen (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Atkinson, 1997). Leaders also design and build institutions; they are the architects that plan the future of an organization (Nanus, 1992). Competencies defined (Atkinson, 1997) as "a set of skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviors that are observable and measurable (p.250)" are required at three levels: (1) leading at the top, (2) leading at all levels, (3) leading from within. This case study involves these very competencies and the way they develop to expand into motivational techniques.

When leadership takes place at the top of the echelon, leaders such as the CEO and others in executive positions create vision and set direction by envisioning the future and inspiring a shared vision and providing direction (Senge, 1990; Covey, 1991; Kouses & Posner, 1991; Hall, 1994; Maxwell, 1998). They also focus on 'what might be' by constantly searching for ways to satisfy customers, challenging the status quo, fostering innovation and creativity (Quinn, 1988; Senge, 1990; Kouses & Posner, 1991; Hall, 1994; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996). In addition, leaders at this level think strategically by working priorities and taking advantage of the right timing to achieve vision and goals (Covey, 1991; Hall, 1994; Maxwell, 1998).

Leaders at all levels inspire, influence and persuade others to follow by motivating others toward a common vision, instilling commitment through involvement, and possessing passion, credibility, integrity and competence (Senge, 1990; Covey, 1991; Kouzes & Posner, 1991; Hall, 1994; Maxwell, 1998). By acting decisively, they encourage debate to improve the quality of decisions, resolving conflicts and solving problems (Hall, 1994; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996). These leaders also create an environment that allows and cultivates the achievement of the vision or mission and desired outcomes and results. This is accomplished by empowering, encouraging talent, potential and creativity, identifying, developing and managing resources (human, financial, technical, physical), building trust and respect, maintaining accountability and positive relationships, and

exercising interactive communication (Quinn, 1988; Senge, 1990; Covey, 1991; Hall, 1994; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996).

Moreover, leaders at all levels lead strategically, effectively and by best practice through adjusting management style to the situation, moving the organization forward through strategic and realistic planning, goal setting, strategic budgeting, sound financial management, resource stewardship, and effective organizing (Senge, 1990; Covey, 1991; Hall, 1994; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996). They also build and develop a competent, diverse and empowered organization by embracing diversity in people and ideas, attracting talent and selecting personnel who are the 'right fit', in addition to investing in others, fostering succession planning within the organization (Quinn, 1988; Senge, 1990; Covey, 1991; Kouzes & Posner, 1991; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996; Maxwell, 1998). Furthermore, such leaders model the way by leading through principles, honoring commitments, practicing integrity, values and ethics (Covey, 1991; Kouzes & Posner, 1991; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996). They also possess self-knowledge, accept responsibility and exhibit emotional maturity by motivating themselves, taking responsibility, managing their emotions and recognizing those of others (Covey, 1991; Goldman, 1994).

Leading from within requires competent leaders to translate vision, mission and strategy into action by instilling a sense of belonging and commitment through creativity, innovation and entrepreneurial approaches (Covey, 1991; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996). They also align systems, structures and processes with strategy by ensuring that the critical organization parts (processes, structure, people, information, decisions, rewards) are designed well and work in concert with one another without impeding progress or work (Quinn, 1988; Covey, 1991; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996). From within, leaders maintain focus by ensuring quality performance, establishing credibility, listening to and understanding individual requirements (Covey, 1991; Hall, 1994). Moreover, they possess the ability to follow as well as lead by means of accepting, mastering and living with change, demonstrating flexibility, and supporting the decisions of leadership (Quinn, 1988; Covey, 1991; Hall, 1994; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996). The researcher

wants leaders within NDU to be aware of the significance of their role to enhance the performance of people.

Whether it is leading at the top or at all levels or from within, leadership asserts a set of standard competencies such as decision-making, problem solving, managing power and influence and building trust to expand and enhance the future of the organization (Maxwell, 1995). Such skills are not only used in pure business organizations but they are also appropriate in educational organizations. Without leaders, constituents have no energizer to ignite their passions, no exemplar to follow, no compass by which to be guided (Willis, 1994) and leadership skills, abilities and charisma must always be put to effective use (Koestenbaum, 1991).

As an art, leadership mobilizes others to want to fight for shared inspirations (Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Maxwell, 1995). In this definition, the stress is on the words 'want to'. The significance of the meaning is altered without the acceptance of this phrase for choice, internal motivation and inner desire disappear. The truly successful leader realizes that acquiring and keeping good people is their most important task (Maxwell, 1995; Atkinson, 1997). An organization cannot increase productivity, but people can; the truly appreciative asset within an organization is people. "Leaders can create the conditions and a climate of challenge, expectations and opportunity; they can remove the barriers, unearth the buried gifts and release the world renewing energies" (Gardner, 1990, p.161). There are differences between enlisting support and giving orders, between gaining commitment and commanding obedience. Consequently, leaders sustain the trust of their followers (Kouzes & Posner, 1991; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Atkinson, 1997; Giber et al., 2000) by challenging, inspiring, enabling, modeling and encouraging

Leaders within departments "exhibit quite distinctive social norms along the lines of commitment and inclusion, and these social styles of interaction are translated directly into political modes of governance" (Siskin, 1994, p.134). Siskin characterizes departments as four types. First, Bonded Departments (Collaborative Leader) identify

high commitment, high inclusion leadership, consensus and shared decision-making. Bundled Departments (Administrative Leader) practice low commitment, high inclusion leadership, and competence- based decision-making by department head. The third, Split Departments (Dictatorial Leader) demonstrate high commitment, low inclusion, and leadership in power struggle. Fragmented Departments (Non-Leader) show low commitment, low inclusion, and leadership by default.

As a result, Sergiovanni (1984b) determines that the effective educational department leader works ... to achieve department educational objectives (educational leadership)... through people who identify with and are committed to these objectives (supervisory leader)... within a department and organizational structure that supports the objectives and facilitates implementation (organizational leader)... over an extended period of time (administrative leader)... in cooperation with other department leaders from the top of the hierarchy down (team leader). Sergiovanni (1984b) reminds leaders that they are not "god" in their department (p.47) and:

> ...what you stand for, the purposing you provide to daily activity, the meanings and significance communicated to the people with whom you work, and your ability to bring together your department members into a spirited common cause are even more important than technical and instrumental skills. The development of a culture of purpose, meaning and commitment is the secret to quality leadership (p.502).

Accordingly, the continuous development of leadership is crucial for it concerns change. It is about transferring people from where they are now to a place where they need to be (Tichy & Cohen, 1997). Furthermore, leadership is about challenging the process, questioning the status quo, being innovative, seeing over the horizon and changing the way things are (Kouzes & Posner, 1991; Nanus, 1992; Kotter, 1996). Consequently, organizational renewal (Margolis & Bell, 1989) is "the process of initiating, creating and confronting needed changes so as to make it possible for organizations to become or remain viable, to adapt to new conditions, to solve problems, to learn from experience (p.6)."

The Leadership Styles and Decision Making

Leadership is a feature of decision making that is significant (Butler, 2002) for it explains decisions in terms of the individual characteristics of someone who is particularly adept at guiding the processes. The functions of leadership and effective organizational decision making are many and varied depending on the problem at hand so the appropriate dimensions (Butler, 1993) must be identified. The type of leadership style is dependent on the leader's basis of power as was discussed earlier in this chapter. Many leaders may make use of a combination of the types of power (Lippitt, 1940; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973; Bass, 1981). Understanding the role and function of leadership is one of the most important intellectual and practical tasks of this generation (Fairholm, 1998) for it helps shape lives. Authoritarian leaders, for example, may use a mixture of legitimate, coercive and reward powers, discussed in the previous section, to dictate the policies, plans and activities of a group. In comparison, a democratic or participative leader would mainly use referent power, involving all group members in the decision-making process.

Decision making is central to managerial activity (Butler, 2002). That is, leaders must choose a course of action under conditions of uncertainty and ambiguity. In other words, decision making happens within an organizational context that sets a timeframe for the definition of problems, solutions and participants. As discussed in the overview, whether managers are leaders or not will continue to be debatable. Nevertheless, the personal characteristics are the relatively stable set of psychological and behavioral attributes that distinguish one person from another (Pervin, 1985; White, 1998). Personality, risk taking propensity and the need for achievement are all factors, which have been proposed as having an effect upon decision making (Nutt, 1993). The persons involved and the situational approach leads to appropriate leader behavior that varies from one situation to another (Hersey & Blanchard, 1974; Muczyk & Reimann, 1987; Blank et al., 1990; Lucas et al., 1992).

The style of leadership is determined by the favorableness of the situation (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; Fiedler, 1987). The style can either be effective or ineffective, depending upon the chosen behavior in certain situations. Whatever the style, leaders display leadership behavior within one of four frameworks (Bolman & Deal, 1991):

1. Structural Framework: the effective leader is a social architect whose style is analysis and design; the ineffective leader is a petty tyrant whose style is details; the focus is on structure, strategy, environment, implementation, experimentation and adaptation;

2. Human Resource Framework: believe in people and communicate that belief; leaders are visible and accessible, they empower, increase participation, support, share information and move decision making down into the organization;

3. Political Framework: assess distribution of power and interests, use pervasion first, and then use negotiation and coercion only if necessary;

4. Symbolic Framework: use symbols to capture attention, they frame experience by providing plausible interpretations of experiences, they discover and communicate a vision.

Leaders are more successful when they use a range of styles, especially when these styles are contingent on the situation in which they find themselves Whatever the leadership style, it should include technical, human and educational forces that "provide that critical mass needed for basic competence; otherwise, effectiveness is not likely to occur" (Sergiovanni, 1990, p.87). When Sergiovanni (1990) refers to the 'three E's' of value-added leadership, he is stressing 'Empowerment, Ennoblement and Enhancement' (pp.104-106). Similarly, Sergiovanni (1992) refers to educational leaders as 'leaders of leaders' or as a type of 'leaders of followers' claiming, "without follower ship, there can be no leadership" (p.85).

The various leadership styles are concerned with the leader-follower relationship. What makes leaders significant is the way in which they handle situations and the influence they have on people to motivate them to achieve organizational goals. In determining a differentiation among the various leadership styles that will be discussed in this section, a distinction between the ideals of long-standing bureaucracy and the more innovative

concepts of a professional structure (Bailey & Adams, 1990, pp. 21-28) can be identified as:

1. <u>Stability</u> –focus on predictability, consistency and regularity v/s <u>Activity</u> – focus on more trials at innovation;

2. <u>Intention</u> – a goal based behavior that places intent ahead of action v/s <u>Distinction</u> – a retrospective interpretation of what actually works;

3. <u>Accountability</u> – holding people accountable is asking for compliance through control mechanisms v/s <u>Efficacy</u> – making people feel good about themselves is promoting their self-efficacy;

4. <u>Regularity</u> – providing reliability through rules, policies, job description and operating procedures v/s <u>Variability</u> – encouraging cooperative decision-making and 'product champions';

5. <u>Intervention</u> – reflects the hierarchical constructs of bureaucratic functioning; leaders establish goals, monitor operations and evaluate outcomes v/s <u>Facilitation</u> – presumes a skilled and committed population and that decision-making, problem solving and innovation are best handled closest to the point of action;

6. <u>Control</u> – keeps the leaders in charge v/s Empowerment – leaders multiply the points at which action can be initiated;

7. <u>Holism</u> – characterized by tightening control, intervention, accountability and regularity v/s <u>Disaggregation</u> – leaders promote loose coupling which leads to novelty and flexibility.

Autocratic v/s Democratic Leadership

One of the first studies of leadership behavior was conducted at The University of Iowa (Lewin & Lippitt, 1938) and thereafter various leadership behaviors or styles were explored such as the autocratic, democratic, charismatic, transformational, transactional, educational, and the distributed, all of which are discussed in this section. The autocratic leader centralizes authority, dictates work methods, and makes unilateral decisions and limits employee participation (Bass & Avolio, 1990a; Newstrom & Davis, 1993). It is irrational to implement the autocratic style of leadership into the notions of educational or transformational leadership (Blasé & Anderson, 1995). Also referred to as

collaborative leadership, transformational leadership encourages creativity (Gardner, 1995; Guntern, 1997) and invites participants to share in the decision making process. This spells out the characteristics of a democratic leader and not those of an autocratic leadership style. On the contrary, the democratic leader is one who involves employees in decision making, delegates authority, encourages participation in deciding work methods and goals, and uses feedback to coach employees.

On the other hand, the laissez-faire style describes a leader who gives employees complete freedom to make decisions and to complete their work in whatever way they find suitable. Studies (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973; Landsberg, 2000) have concluded that the laissez-faire style is ineffective when compared to the performance criterion of the autocratic and democratic styles. In most cases, the quantity of work done was equal with both autocratic and democratic leaders; however, work quality and group satisfaction was higher in democratic groups.

Another leadership style is the charismatic. Charisma is a Greek word that means 'divinely inspired gift'. The sociologist Max Weber (1947) used the term to describe a form of influence based not on tradition or formal authority but rather on the follower perception that the leader is endowed with exceptional qualities. The key characteristics of charismatic leaders (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Howell & Higgins, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Bryman, 1992; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Fiol et al., 1999) are self-confidence; future vision; the ability to articulate the vision; strong conviction about the vision; extraordinary and unconventional behavior; change agents; and environmental sensitivity. However, charismatic leaders may make several attempts in an effort to perpetuate their influence on the organization after they depart, but it will not be easy (Trice & Beyer, 1986; Bryman, 1992). Consequently, charisma is viewed as the result of follower perceptions and attributions influenced by actual leader traits and behavior, by the context of the leadership situation, and by the individual and collective needs of followers (Yukl, 1998, p.299).

Transformational leaders inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organization and are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers. An early conception (Burns, 1978) of transformational leadership says "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation (p.20)." It produces employee performance that is much more effective than that that would occur with a transactional approach alone (Tepper, 1994). A transformational leader is more than charismatic. "The purely charismatic leader may want followers to adopt the charismatic's world view and go no further; the transformational leader will attempt to implant in followers the ability to question not only established views but eventually those established by the leader" (Avolio & Bass, 1985, p.14).

Researchers (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kirby et al., 1992) have found that transformational leadership goes beyond individual needs, focusing on a common purpose, addressing intrinsic rewards and higher psychological needs such as self-actualization, and developing commitment with and in the followers. Transformational leadership, sometimes called cultural leadership is best described as a process in which leaders and followers raise one another to high levels of morality and motivation. In addition, these leaders raise the consciousness of followers by appealing to higher moral values such as liberty, justice, equality, peace and humanitarianism, not to arouse emotions such as fear, greed, jealousy or hatred (Winston, 1995, p.202).

Further research (Avolio & Bass, 1998; Klein & House, 1998; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999) on transformational leadership has emphasized and identified exceptional behavior, such as individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence and inspirational motivation. In addition, assumptions (House & Shamir, 1993; Weierter, 1997; Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman et al., 1999; De Vries, Roe & Taillieu, 1999) state that transformational behavior of leaders is a reflection of the leaders' charismatic attributes. They specify seven behaviors: (1) visionary behavior, (2)

image building, (3) empowering, (4) risk-taking and self-sacrifice, (5) intellectual stimulation, (6) support, and (7) adaptive behavior.

As a result, transformational leadership can be categorized into four behavioral patterns (Bass, 1996) that are highly intercorrelated and jointly interact to influence changes in followers. The first idealizes influence (charisma) that arouses strong follower emotions and the leader's mission and vision are respected. Individualized consideration provides support, encouragement, and coaching to followers on a one-to-one basis. Next, inspirational motivation includes communicating the vision and using symbols to increase awareness and understanding of mutually desired goals. Finally, intellectual stimulation increases alertness of problems and influences a new perspective of doing things.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is a process of gaining compliance from associates through contracts with the leader who specifies their task and its requirements. There are many significant transactional behaviors (Bass, 1996). First, contingent reward involves a positively reinforcing interaction between leader and follower and the clarification of the work required to obtain contingent rewards through incentives to influence motivation. Second, active management by exception includes the monitoring of subordinates and corrective action to ensure that the work is carried out effectively. Third, passive management by exception includes the use of contingent punishments and other corrective action in response to deviation from acceptable performance standards; leaders wait for things to go wrong before taking action. Fourth, laissez-faire leadership describes passive indifference about the task and subordinates; it is sometimes termed avoidance leadership for there are neither transactions nor agreements with followers.

Since the object of this research is an educational institution, it is imperative that the researcher presents some facts about educational leadership. Educative leadership (Jones, 2000) fosters transformational or collaborative leadership. The framework envisages the incorporation (Mortimore, 1993; Hargreaves, 1994; Busher & Saran 1995; Telford, 1996) of shared values, beliefs and collegiality discussed earlier. The persistence is that a collegial style of leadership (Stoll & Myers, 1998) will offer the staff of an educational institution the opportunity to experience empowerment and participative decision making that will in turn enhance morale and promote loyalty.

Educational leadership is momentous to this study and the researcher's aim is to disclose the basis of interaction between leaders and employees at NDU so as to keep satisfaction and motivation at their peak. High levels of motivation and commitment are also required on the part of administrators, staff and faculty in educational institutions. It is only through effective leadership and management that this can be achieved. Vocational commitment in schools and colleges can be enhanced if these institutions are analyzed as communities (Sergiovanni, 1994) discussed in the introduction of this chapter, instead of looking at them as contractual organizations. It has also been found (Busher & Saran, 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998; 1999) that support staff is just as concerned with the vocational issues as are administrators and faculty.

Socio-psychological effects result in organizational change and improved organizational outcomes (Leithwood et al., 1996) in educational settings. Schools and colleges targeted for reform (Leithwood, 1994; Yukl, 1994) operate under conditions fundamentally similar to the transformational approaches to leadership. In addition, transformational practices contribute (Yammarino et al., 1998) to the development of capacity and commitment and thus, assumed to result in heightened performance and increased productivity (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992).

Educational leadership is a process (Leithwood, 1994; Law, 2000) of building vision and goals; providing intellectual stimulation; offering individualized support; symbolizing professional practices and values; demonstrating high performance expectations; and developing structures to foster participative decision making. Each of the previously mentioned dimensions is associated with specific leadership practices utilized by transformational leaders (Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995). "Transformative leadership is the ability of a person to reach the souls of others in a fashion which raises human consciousness, builds meanings and inspires human intent that is the source of power (Dillard, 1995, p.560)." Furthermore, transformational leadership represents the transcendence of self-interest by both leader and led (Kowalski & Oates, 1993) and paves the road to a relationship (Hipp & Bredeson, 1995) between leadership behaviors and the efficiency of the staff of an educational institution and may even develop into charismatic leadership (Gronn, 1996).

Evidence (Leithwood, 1994; Ogawa & Bossert, 1995; Hallinger & Heck, 1998) has identified four conditions through which leadership may exercise its influence in schools or colleges: (1) purposes and goals; (2) structure and social networks; (3) people: and (4) organizational culture. All the members of the organization must understand both the explicit and implicit purposes and direction. The meaningful goals and shared vision will reflect educational values if they are perceived to be clear, meaningful, useful, current and congruent with directions (Stringfield & Slavin, 1992; Reynolds et al., 1996; Hallinger & Heck, 1998). The organizational culture also contributes to effectiveness. The content of the norms, values, beliefs and assumptions depends on the extent to which they foster collaborative work. These elements determine a learning environment or ethos (Reynolds et al., 1996) and a consensus for cooperative planning (Creemers & Reetzig, 1996; Scheerens, 1997).

Structure and organization determine the network of relationships established among people and groups in an educational institution (Hallinger & Heck, 1998, p. 173) for it is this network that comprises the organization system. Structure and organization also contribute to school or college effectiveness when they facilitate staffs' work, professional learning, and the opportunities for collaboration. In addition, the framework

consists of information collection, which reflects the importance attached to monitoring student progress (Mortimore, 1993; Reynolds et al., 1996). As a result, there will be extensive support for organizational effectiveness of employee participation and satisfaction (Lawler, 1986; Conley, 1993).

Basically, educative leadership (Law, 2000) concerns policies and procedures that should emanate in all directions to involve administrators, faculty and staff who should work in harmony for ultimate performance that will extend to the student and will be translated as quality education (Tichy & Cohen, 1998). Continuous professional growth among staff should be encouraged with the allocation of resources to school or college priorities without stifling initiative which will result in significant contributions (Mortimore, 1993; Creemers, 1994). Thus, educational institutions will have high expectations, consistency and control.

Distributed Leadership

Leaders of the 21st Century must consider two sets (Falk & Kilpatrick, 2000) of resources as they interact to develop the social capital of modern communities. The first is knowledge about the people and common resources that facilitate action through interactions. The second is about using relevant available resources to foster people's identity to promote self-confidence and risk taking for mutual purposes. The nature of the social capital depends on various quantitative and qualitative dimensions of the interactions such as the quality of the internal-external relations, trust, shared values and norms. In other words, leadership is normally distributed, dispersed and diffused rather than concentrated in one or few hands. Not only are leaders heavily dependent on followers, but also, followers can become leaders.

One of the most congruent findings from recent studies (MacBeath, 1998; Day, Harris & Hadfield, 2000; Harris, 2002) of effective leadership revealed that authority need not be focused on the person of the leader but can be dispersed in between and among people in

the organization. That is, leadership is separated from person, role and status and is fixed on the relationships and interactions among individuals. This underlines the groundwork for collaboration and collegiality that was discussed in Chapter Three. This leadership is premised upon power redistribution, moving from hierarchical control to peer control (Rosenholtz, 1989; Hopkins, 2001). Thus, the power base is diffused and the authority is dispersed or distributed within the community to encompass mutual trust and support (West et al., 2000). Similarly, outcomes are more likely to improve (Silns & Mulford, 2002) where leadership sources are distributed throughout the organization.

Moving away from the traditional top-down management will allow people to take responsibility and to accept levels of accountability (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Enhanced productivity and improved performance will occur (Gronn, 2000; Jackson, 2000) in educational institutions when people are stakeholders in the overall development. The researcher is a strong advocate of distributed leadership and she has witnessed increased loyalty and commitment by people in her unit because of such practice. People appreciate the trust placed in them and they want to prove that they deserve it.

Leadership Theories and Behavior

As an extension of the historical development presented at the introduction of this chapter, the researcher will elaborate leadership theories and behavioral patterns that are mostly considered. There have been many experiments conducted to expose those characteristics that contribute to employee performance. Extensive research (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Larson, Hunt & Osborn, 1976; Misumi, 1985; Fisher & Edwards, 1988) has found that an active leader achieved high employee satisfaction and performance more frequently than leaders that were low on either initiating structure, consideration or both. Some employees may not be used to being treated with respect so when they are, their reaction may be unpredictable.

There have been many attempts to explain leadership in terms of behavior (Day, 1971; Herold, 1977); yet, a consistent relationship between leadership behavior and successful employee performance hasn't been identified. Certain leader styles can't be applied in all situations. Hence, situational factors that influence success or failure are often overlooked. No one style of leadership is associated with every situation. Successful leaders should identify the clues and adapt their leader behavior to meet the needs of their followers and those of the particular situation. To be effective, leaders must know their group in terms of knowledge, ability, desire and willingness (Griffin, 1996). The Contingency Theory or 'Situational Leadership' postulates that the solution to a managerial situation is contingent on the factors that impinge on the situation.

One well-known experiment is The Ohio State Studies that identified independent dimensions of leader behavior (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998). First, initiating structure refers to the extent to which leaders define and structure their roles and those of employees in the search of goal attainment. Such a leader assigns particular tasks, expects standards of performance to be maintained, and emphasizes deadlines. However, this may suffocate certain employees because of the routine involved and thus will result in dissatisfaction. The second dimension is consideration. That is, the leader's relationships are characterized by mutual trust and respect for employees' ideas and feelings. Consequently, there is great concern for followers' comfort, well being, status and satisfaction (Ibid).

Moreover, the Michigan Studies located two dimensions of performance effectiveness that were labeled employee-oriented and production-oriented (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998). The employee-oriented leader emphasizes interpersonal relations, takes a personal interest in employee needs and accepts individual differences. In contrast, the production-oriented leader emphasizes the technical or task aspects of a job, is concerned with task accomplishment and simply regards group members as a means to accomplishing goals. Research (Taylor & Bowers, 1972; Bowers, 1975) has found that employee-oriented leaders are associated with higher job satisfaction and productivity.

Furthermore, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1984) developed a two-dimensional view of leadership behavior that combined the findings of both the Ohio and Michigan Studies. The Managerial Grid is based on the 'concern for people' versus the 'concern for production'. With nine possible positions along each axis, the grid creates eighty-one positions of leader style. This managerial leadership grid offers no final solutions but only a framework for conceptualizing leadership behavior. The grid shows that managers perform best (Blake & Mouton, 1984) using a 9,9 style; that is, team management that involves participation by both leaders and employees; however, there is little evidence (Larson et al., 1976) to support this theory.

The first comprehensive contingency model for leadership was developed by Fred Fiedler (1967). The Fiedler Contingency Model proposes that effective group performance depends upon the proper match between the leader's style of interacting with employees and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader. This match is measured through what Fiedler called the 'least preferred co-worker (LPC)' score. The LPC contains sixteen pairs of contrasting adjectives such as friendly-unfriendly; efficient-inefficient; rejecting-accepting. Co-workers are rated on a scale of 1-8 for each of the sixteen pairs. The interpretation of the LPC score considers three aspects of the situation. First, leader-member relations determine the extent of subordinate support and loyalty. Second, position power shows the extent to which the leader has authority. Third, task structure explains the extent to which there are standard operating procedures. Consequently, a high LPC leader is people-oriented whereas a low LPC leader is task-oriented.

In addition, the contingency model developed by Robert House (1971) was labeled the Path-Goal Theory. House extracted key elements from the Ohio State studies as well as the expectancy theory of motivation that was discussed in Chapter Three. The Path-Goal theory was further refined by various writers (Evans, 1974; House & Dessler, 1974; House & Mitchel, 1974; House, 1996). It stipulates that a leader's behavior is motivational to the degree that it (1) makes employee need-satisfaction contingent on effective performance and (2) provides the coaching, guidance, support, and rewards that are necessary for effective performance. As a result, four leadership behaviors were

identified (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998). One is the Directive - employees are told what is expected of them; work is scheduled and guidance given (this correlates to the Ohio State dimension of initiating structure). Another is the Supportive where the leader is friendly and shows concern for the needs of employees (this is parallel to the Ohio State dimension of consideration). The Participative emphasizes that employees are consulted before decisions are made. Finally, the Achievement-oriented leader sets challenging goals and employees are expected to perform at their highest level.

In addition to these leadership styles, the path-goal theory proposes two classes of situational or contingency variables that moderate outcomes in terms of level of satisfaction and performance (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998). The first identifies employee contingency factors (personal characteristics). That is, these variables focus on the locus of control-behavior and the consequences that are directly related to them, experience and the perceived ability of the employee. Second, the environmental contingency factors revolve around task structure, formal authority system and work groups. Despite its limitations (Osborn, 1974; Yukl, 1989; House,1996), the path-goal theory has provided a conceptual framework to identifying potentially situational variables such as insufficient resources that affect leadership behavior.

Another significant contingency theory is the Vroom-Yetton-Jago (VYJ) model. The VYJ model determines how much decision-making participation a leader should allow subordinates. The model was first proposed by Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton in 1973 and was revised and expanded in 1988 by Vroom and Arthur G. Jago (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988). The model is actually a decision tree with five leadership styles and a final twelve contingency variables (relevant to making yes-or-no choices) that range from sharing the problem with the group to the leader making an individual decision. Thus, the VYJ model has become known as the leader-participation model. However, a major shortcoming of this model is that it is far too sophisticated for the typical manager to use regularly. In fact, Vroom & Jago (1988) devised a computer program to guide managers through all the decision branches. In brief, just as House did in his path-goal theory, Vroom, Yetton & Jago argue against the notion that leader behavior is inflexible; a leader can adapt to different situations.

From the foregoing discussion, it would seem that no best leadership style exists. The major distinction is made between whether the leader is people-oriented or task-oriented. For total effectiveness, a leader mustn't be one or the other. Leaders need to be aware of their own behavior and their influence on others; individual differences of group members; group characteristics; task structure; environmental factors; and situational variables and accordingly adjust their leadership style and management techniques.

Management Perspectives

This section will also offer an extension of the historical views on management covered at the beginning of this chapter. A manager is someone whose primary responsibility is to carry out the management process (Griffin, 1996) oriented towards the day-to-day activities associated with administering and implementing specific programmes. For extreme outcomes, managers must possess (Miller, 2002) three traits: (1) knowledge about how to perform a job more effectively and efficiently; (2) skill acquisition and sensitivity for working in one or more areas of technical expertise; and (3) perspective to increase motivation to enhance performance. A crucial component of any manager's job is to effectively manage human resources. This will be discussed in Chapter Four to determine the importance of Human Resource Management as a contributing factor to required feedback and attainment of organizational goals with motivated and committed employees.

A revision of what management is all about is essential before the researcher continues. The management process (Dessler, 1997) states that:

1. Planning establishes goals and standards and develops rules and procedures;
2. Organizing delegates authority and establishes channels of authority and communication;
3. Staffing selects and recruits employees, sets standards, evaluates performance, compensates, trains and develops employees;
4. Leading directs employees, maintains morale and motivates;

5. Controlling sets standards and checks to see how actual performance compares with these standards to take correct action.

It is the task of management to organize, motivate, equip and direct people to perform at their highest possible levels. In the flexible organization – where goals, circumstances, organization structure, staffing, and activities are constantly changing – managers play an especially important role in helping employees understand what is expected of them, helping them meet these expectations, evaluating performance and providing feedback, and providing meaningful recognition and rewards (Walker, 1992, p. 257). Employee development involves appraising and managing performance, training the work force, and developing careers. Management's responsibility is to provide workers with feedback of present performance and coach them to achieve their potential and display higher levels of performance in the future. Moreover, managers can encourage employees to perform effectively in three ways (Walker, 1992)-job design, empowerment, and coaching. This includes the manner in which managers and employees design work for the highest motivation and utilization of talent. Managers also empower employees to manager their performance in support of business objectives. The third technique of encouragement is to personally coach and support employees to manage their performance.

One specific perspective speaks about classical management and consists of two distinct branches – scientific management and administrative management. Each of these schools focuses on ultimately finding the right employees with the necessary skills to effectively and efficiently perform required tasks and to achieve organizational goals. Scientific management is concerned with improving the performance of individual workers. Even though the Classical Management Perspective laid the foundation for improving employee performance at both the individual and group levels, its limitations shouldn't be overlooked (Griffin, 1996). First, it may not be appropriate for today's dynamic and complex organizations such as educational institutions. Second, it proposes universal guidelines that may not fit every organization. For instance, Fayol's principle of centralization wouldn't be feasible in those organizations that believe in empowerment.

On the other hand, the Behavioral Management Perspective places more emphasis on individual attitudes and behaviors as well as on group processes and recognizes the importance of behavioral processes in the workplace. One advocate, Hugo Munsterberg (1863-1916) established that psychologists could make valuable contributions in the areas of employee selection and motivation (Munsterberg, 1913). Another advocate of the behavioral approach to management was Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933) who recognized the human element in the workplace and believed that organizations should be more democratic in accommodating employees and managers (Wren, 1994).

Individual and social processes play a major role in shaping worker attitudes and behavior (Yorks & Whitsett, 1985). Thus, employees are viewed as valuable resources instead of mere tools. However, the complexity of individual behavior often makes prediction of behavior difficult. Consequently, observation will be practiced to monitor the reactions, behavior and feedback of employees in specific situations. With respect to this study, both qualitative and quantitative research methods will be utilized and this will be discussed in Chapter Five.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the success of building networks relies on establishing trust among people. Likewise, sharing information is fundamental to triumphant outcomes. The leadership style will be an indicator of sound process and enhanced levels of commitment to a community of common purpose. In other words, the leadership structure can be specified after situational analysis. Similarly, courses of action can be woven from the diverse and complementary threads of the overall organization fabric. The continuation of this insight determines part of the conceptual framework that contributes to leadership and management and the analysis of the relevant data.

The researcher has presented the specifics of leadership and management and highlighted the theories and approaches pertinent to each. These terms are extremely important for

the reader to understand. They shed light on how an effective and efficient leader/manager can persuade his people to share the organization vision and motivate them to contribute to the attainment. It was previously stated that leader and manager are used as synonyms. Leaders can meet challenges when they understand and appreciate not only their own strengths and needs but also those of their employees. By displaying an authentic enthusiasm, leaders will succeed in motivating people who appear to maintain a certain level of satisfaction.

Moreover, the researcher has revised the various leadership styles to exhibit that flexible and open channels of communication will enhance interpersonal relations. Due to the significance of this matter, this is even the theme of one of the research questions. The researcher thus aims to show that the more flexible and democratic the style, the more influential as a motivator the leader will be. The next chapter will cover the third part of the review of literature about human resource management. The researcher aims to disclose the previous research that shows that there is a connection between management style and employee performance.

CHAPTER FOUR

REVIEW of LITERATURE [PART III]
HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Overview

The term 'Human Resource Management (HRM)' has been commonly used and provides the theoretical underpinning for 'Personnel Administration'. The latter emerged as a clearly defined field by the 1920s and was concerned with the technical aspects of hiring, evaluating, training and compensating employees (Lawler, 1999). It did not focus on the employment practices of the overall organizational performance. On the other hand, human resource management contributes to the attainment of goals; thus, it is closer to the strategic apex of an organization than personnel administration. That is, HRM opens the door for constructive interaction that encourages employee commitment. Strategic human resource literature (Schuler, 1988; Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994; Jain et al., 1998) envisions HR managers with tools of HRM methods that can be crafted into an overall HR system of which HR development is an integral part and is discussed in a coming section.

Evidence (Ichniowski, 1990; Ichniowski, Shaw, & Prennushi, 1993; Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Delery & Doty, 1996; Huselid, Jackson, & Schuler, 1997) also supports the views that high-involvement HRM strategies have superior effects as high-performance characterized by performance-based pay, an emphasis on training, and employee participation. In this chapter, the researcher presents the nature of Human Resource Management and how it influences the performance of employees. One of the research questions concerns leader-employee interaction and its relationship to motivation and consequently its effect on performance. In other words,

the effective and efficient outcomes of proper HR management have a major impact on the productivity of people.

Human resource management is comprised of various key activities (Legge, 1991; Legge, 1995; Mabey & Salaman, 1995) that contribute to an effective and efficient end product. HRM strategy formulates approaches that set clear directions for long-term development of all resources. Organization, discussed in Chapter Three, helps with restructuring as well as the redesign of jobs to fit projected changes. In addition, managing employee commitment to the organization introduces communication, participation and performance management systems designed to increase identification with the organization's aims and values and to develop behavior and attitudes, which support their achievement. With flexibility, a wider range of skills can be applied and the abilities of people will result in effective teamwork and increased motivation.

HRM refers to the practices and policies that are needed to implement the people aspects of the management job (Dessler, 1997), which include recruiting, screening, training, motivating, rewarding and appraising. The management of people is so delicate to the success of any institution, more so in an institution of higher education, for the proper management of people is like a chain. If the first link is sturdy, then the chain is mighty from the top echelon down. Notre Dame University is the case study of this research; the President of NDU stresses the importance of administrators, faculty and staff harmonizing their efforts in order to provide students with the highest academic standards. NDU believes in the value of people and in his messages printed in the NDU Catalog, 2000-2001 and 2001-2002, Reverend Father Boutros Tarabay says:

> All of us at NDU are going forward with our mission, our philosophy, our curriculum and our university spirit. We are all members of one large university family, working together and learning from each other with worthy ambition, commitment and enthusiasm. The moral and spiritual task of NDU is to build a fully formed, well-rounded personality with a clear value system confirming a sense of human dignity along with the active role of a creative and analytical mind. We need a university culture that is genuinely humanistic, in the sense that culture must correspond to the human person and his rights. We will never compromise on essential human values (p.4).

The University of Waikato, New Zealand formulated 'The University's Philosophy and Values about the Management of People' in October 1998. It states:

1. Human resource management policies and systems must be linked coherently and consistently with the University's overall strategic plan, thus minimizing the need for piecemeal and ad hoc interventions in response to specific problems;

2. Employer and staff share a mutual interest in the University's organizational goals and their achievement;

3. The University is one employer. Even though individuals may properly identify with a particular part or activity of the University, an attitude of commitment to corporate rather than sectional interests should be fostered and reinforced;

4. There should be openness and cooperation between all participants in the University to meet common strategic goals. Open communication builds trust and commitment;

5. People are capable of growth in terms of skills, values, commitment, and the work environment should encourage this;

6. Staff is the University's most valuable strategic asset. In the right work environment, they add value to the organization;

7. To identify the needs of the University's customers should be clearly defined and communicated so that staff can move towards a better appreciation of the importance of their individual and collective roles in meeting those needs and in dealing with internal and external clients in a way which projects a culture of "excellence";

8. Employees will be well motivated if they know they are working towards goals that they understand, and if they feel some ownership of them. People who participate in defining problems and solutions will become committed to the new directions that result from the process of participation;

9. A careful balance needs to be maintained between a participative and consultative style of management, and a style which leads to conclusive, decisive, and timely outcomes; this balance of styles should apply at all levels.

The above-stated philosophy stresses the importance of satisfying individual needs to lead to motivate employees to achieve goals and mission. In brief, it supports the framework that the researcher is working within for this study.

The Nature of Human Resource Management

The concept of Human Resource Management (HRM) caused a tempest within the management world during the 1980s and has represented a significant change of direction. Where personnel management is workforce centered, HRM is resource centered and directed mainly at the management needs for human resources to be provided and deployed (Torrington & Hall, 1998, p.12). People have the right to considerate treatment while at work and they will be effective in as much as their personal career and competence needs are satisfied within a context of efficient management and a mutually respectful working relationship (Ibid., p.13).

The organization as it was defined in Chapter Three specifies that without people, an organization cannot exist or function. Different terms are used to describe these people such as employees, associates, personnel, human resources. All of these terms have been used in this dissertation. Managers are people who are in charge of other people and who are responsible for the correct execution of actions that promote successful performance (Gomez – Mejia et al., 1998). Moreover, effective Human Resource Management (HRM) is a crucial component of any manager's job. HRM is also described as Employee Relations, Human Relations and Personnel Relations. Irrespective of the naming, the function is to provide services related to recruiting, selection, placement, training, labor and employee relations, pay, benefits, and others (Walker, 1992). In addition, HRM develops systems, procedures, and policies to ensure careful application through monitoring and control.

Whether organizations produce goods or offer services, their goal is to maximize profit at minimal costs yet to maintain quality and satisfaction among people both inside and

outside the organization. The people at all levels of the hierarchy – top management, middle management, lower-level management – are employees but differentiated as line or staff. A line employee is directly involved in producing company good(s) or delivering service(s) whereas a staff employee supports line employees to accomplish goals. A human resource strategy is the grand plan by which an organization ensures the effective allocation and use of its people to accomplish its mission and gain competitive advantage (Butler et al., 1991). A human resource tactic is a particular policy or program that helps to advance a strategic goal. Strategy precedes and is more important than tactics (Berstein, 1995). If the needs of both the organization and the individual can be satisfied, the organization will benefit from improved performance with a more committed work force and the employee from a richer, more challenging career (Bolton & Gold, 1994).

Employee performance needs to be evaluated regularly to validate selection devices for the assessment of training; to aid administration in making decisions about pay rises and promotion; to help employees improve their present performance and to plan future careers (Griffin, 1996). Content validation shows that appraisal systems accurately measure performance on important job elements and doesn't measure traits or behavior that are irrelevant to job performance (Kiechel III, 1987; Campbell & Lee, 1988). Moreover, developmental use of appraisal that is geared toward improving employees' performance and strengthening job skills includes counseling employees on effective work behaviors and sending them for training (Gomez–Mejia et al., 1998).

Performance appraisal is the identification, measurement and management of human performance in organizations (Carroll & Schneir, 1982). Identification determines the areas of work the manager should be examining and this is based on job analysis which was discussed in Chapter Three. With job analysis comes a guideline for the matching process and the person-job fit that ensure higher productivity. Measurement entails making managerial judgments of employee performance; thus, the organization must have a rating scale to maintain and compare standards with other similar organizations (Banks & Roberson, 1985). Among the various methods are the graphic rating scale, alternation ranking, paired comparison, MBO, forced distribution, critical incident,

Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS), Behavior Observation Scale (BOS) and appraisal interviews (Dessler, 1997).

Human resource strategy (Wright & Snell, 1998) involves a central philosophy of the way that people in the organization are managed, and the translation of this into personnel policies and practices that are integrated to make a coherent whole (Torrington & Hall, 1998, p.23). The philosophy of HRM involves many beliefs (Whipp, 1992; Tyson, 1995; Thomas & Ramaswamy, 1996). One is that employees are valued assets and that sustainable competitive advantage can only be achieved through people. Another belief is that the strategy and image of the organization are important and this can be reflected in the long-term management of people and the development of the corporate image. Emphasis on commitment rather than on compliance is a third belief (Ibid.) of the HRM philosophy. In other words, the optimum utilization of human resources will be achieved by developing consistent and comprehensible policies that promote full employee commitment in addition to creativity and the energies of the workforce, thus leading to enhanced performance. A final principle is the stress on the major role of line management who alone has the responsibility of managing their staff.

Aims delivered directly from a certain philosophy (Blyton & Morris, 1992; Boxall, 1992; Hall et al., 1996) of HRM are:

1. To enable management to achieve organizational objectives through its workforce;

2. To utilize people to their full capacity and potential;

3. To foster commitment from individuals for the success of the company through the quality of their performance and that of the whole organization;

4. To integrate human resource policies with business plans and reinforce an appropriate image;

5. To develop an understandable set of personnel and employment policies which jointly reinforce the organization's strategies for matching resources to business needs and for improving performance;

6. To establish an environment in which the creativity and energy of employees will be optimized;

7. To create conditions in which innovation, team working and total quality can develop;
8. To enable the company to make the best use of developments in information technology;
9. To encourage willingness to operate flexibly in the interests of the adaptive organization;
10. To maintain a healthy and safe working environment.

The above points are very much in accordance with the objectives of this study stated in Chapter One.

Human Resource Development

Employee development has traditionally been viewed simply as an extra organizational expense rather than an investment but with today's rapid changes, the notion is rectified. Many (Constable & McCormick, 1987; Handy, 1988; Harrison, 1993) argue that a causal link can't be made between employee development and organizational performance. There are so many underlying factors related to the verification of this evidence. For example, is performance better because of increased employee development, a clearer set of organizational objectives, better employee skills, or greater motivation (Torrington & Hall, 1998)? Nonetheless, organizations consider development issues to be part of this competitive strategy and contribute to maintaining competitive advantage (McClelland, 1994). The researcher believes that development is integral to promote and enhance a sense of self-esteem by allowing for improved knowledge and the opportunity to voice opinions. During the course of this study, the NDU administration initiated workshops and seminars for staff members after which they were awarded certificates of appreciation. The feedback has been extremely positive for this step has displayed concern and has allowed for creativity and the development of leaders from within.

A strategic approach to development differs from a tactical one (Mabey & Iles, 1993) because it is identified with a common skills language and skills criteria related to the overall business objectives. The decision between recruiting required skills or developing them internally reflects on the positioning of the organization and its strategy. Development activity can be utilized in a strategic way to enhance motivation and commitment. Organizations can reinforce skills and competencies by appraising them. The approaches to and methods of development must be the most effective in achieving the skills and competencies that are required to attain the objectives of the organization.

The objective of development is to encourage innovation, creativity and a holistic organizational perspective (Torrington & Hall, 1998). In deciding the exact approach to be adopted (Raskas & Hambrick, 1994), business strategy, culture, skills required and individual characteristics must be considered. Thus, a contingency approach to employee development strategy is essential. In 1987, the world's quality management standards were amalgamated into the BS EN ISO 9000 series of standards that are constantly being revised and updated. These models for quality assurance range from ISO 9001 (design/develop products) to ISO 9004 (quality management and quality system elements). Thereafter, 'Investors in People (IiP)' was initiated. Iip isn't a standard; nevertheless, its importance is increasing. Iip offers a national standard based upon extensive research into the best employer practice in developing all people to achieve quality goals (Keen, 1993).

Iip is an example of a successful HRM approach of quality and has four key principles (Cheeseman & Tate, 1993; Investors in People, 1994; Caulkin, 1995) that can be implemented in any institution and in any country. First, there should be a commitment to developing people. Second, the organization should review the training, development and education needs of all staff concerned with quality. Next, the organization should take relevant action to meet those determined needs. Finally, they should evaluate outcomes in order to ensure that staff is developed effectively and that this development

helps the organization to secure its business goals. The underlying philosophy is that the development of people should be at the heart of any management strategy (Caulkin, 1995) and this is exactly what the researcher is calling for. The above-mentioned principles emphasize commitment, satisfaction of needs and accomplishment of organizational goals and highlight HRM theory as it has been presented.

Researchers (Frost, 1995; Hillage, 1995; Moralee, 1995; Spilsbury, 1995) have also clarified Cheeseman and Tate's interpretation of IiP. Consequently, a Quality Management System (QMS) that focuses on the way that people behave as IiP purports to do, may be more readily acceptable to labor-intensive organizations like institutions of higher education. In other words, quality performance at all levels of the institution is crucial if the ultimate outcome – to provide quality education – is to be achieved. Even though Iip is not an instant panacea (Rix et al., 1994), there are five noteworthy benefits (Cheeseman & Tate, 1993) that may be applied to any institution:

1. Provides a framework for the revision of HRM strategy and development priorities [this is agreeable to labor intensive organizations like universities whose main expenditure is on staff];
2. Brings coherence to existing processes that may have evolved independently from other initiatives;
3. Can prove to be a catalyst for changing existing management structures;
4. Can act as a counterbalance to an inevitable focus on budgetary controls and financial management;
5. Can bring credibility to an organization and national recognition in terms of HRM.

Training is-another process of development that provides employees with specific skills, knowledge, changing attitudes or behaviors or helps them to correct deficiencies in their performance (Gomez – Mejia et al., 1998; Robbins & De Cenzo, 1998). The training process has three phases: (1) needs assessment; (2) development and training; (3) evaluation (Gomez – Mejia et al., 1998). The assessment phase involves identifying the needs of the organization, the task and the person (Goldstein, 1986; Mirabile, 1991). Training approaches are governed by location, presentation, and type (Swink, 1993;

Psotka, 1995; Gupta, 1996; Hall, 1996). The evaluation phase determines whether the training program has been effective to meet the organization's objectives (Stamps, 1994). Training and development are distinguished along four dimensions: (1) focus–current versus future job; (2) scope–individual versus group or organization; (3) time frame–immediate versus long term; (4) goal–fix current skill deficit versus prepare employees for future work demands.

Employee development should not be confused with training. The goal of training is to improve employee performance; the goal of development is to enrich employee skills and knowledge (Gomez – Mejia et al., 1998). Career development is an ongoing organized and formalized effort that recognizes people as a vital organizational resource (Liebowitz, 1987). By encouraging and supporting employees to improve the quality of their work lives and giving them the opportunity for self-growth, organizations are contributing to the enhancement of performance (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Hall, 1986; Russell, 1991). In an increasingly competitive and global business environment, an organization must make career development a key business strategy (Koonce, 1991) for competition will focus on worker's knowledge, skills and creativity rather than on labor costs or manufacturing capacity (Steele et al., 1990). Thus, managers should strive to help employees perform effectively and to give them an environment for personal growth and satisfaction.

Education and training courses are key features in a formal program of human resource development and these are offered by experts or in-house members developed for specialist needs. A familiar five-step training and development process (Carolan, 1993) consists of:

1. Needs analysis that identifies specific job performance skills needed to improve performance and productivity. It also ensures that the program suits the individual levels of education, experience, skills, attitudes and personal motivation;

2. Instructional design gathers the instructional objectives, methods, example and activities and organizes them into a support program for development;

3. Validation introduces and validates training with revision to ensure effectiveness;

4. Implementation focuses on presentation knowledge and skills with training content;

5. Evaluation and follow-up assess the success of the program according to the cycle of reaction-learning-behavior-results.

Techniques that Encourage Development

Self-development involves individuals in analyzing their strengths, weaknesses and the way they learn (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). Accordingly, individuals can plan their development goals and the way in which they will achieve these, primarily through development opportunities within the job (Torrington & Hall, 1998). A logical extension of employee development (Burgoyne & Germain, 1984) involves career planning in which individuals can identify their career goals, the ways they learn and their development needs, collaborating with their supervisor to check assumptions, share information and receive assistance. Developing employee skills enables them to feel better about themselves and to realize that management cares and wants to allow for the maximization of potential implementation. Consequently, performance is enhanced with increased commitment to the accomplishment of organizational goals.

One method of development is the performance appraisal that allows for motivation because of equal opportunity and fair compensation. Performance appraisals ideally serve management by providing a concrete basis for the analysis of an employee's work-related performance that should positively serve employee morale. A performance appraisal is made up of three stages (Dessler, 1997). First, by defining the job, both employee and leader agree on the duties and job standards. Second, the actual appraisal is a comparison between actual employee performance and the standards that have been set by the organization and there could be a discrepancy. Third, performance appraisal is only effective through feedback where progress is discussed and future plans are made. Performance appraisals are multi-purpose (Wagel, 1987; Carlton & Sloman, 1992). That is, they provide information upon which promotion and salary scales can be determined.

They also provide an opportunity for both parties to review the employee's work-related behavior and thus, develop a plan for correcting any deficiencies that are apparent. Basically, the appraisal is central to the review of career plans in light of exhibited strengths and weaknesses.

Target setting also promotes development and Management-by-Objectives (MBO) is a process of collaborative goal setting by the manager and subordinate, specific performance objectives are jointly determined, progress toward objectives is periodically reviewed and evaluated, and rewards are allocated on the basis of subordinate performance and progress (Griffin, 1996; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998). In addition, MBO makes objectives operational by devising a process by which they cascade down – overall organizational objectives, divisional objectives, departmental objectives, and individual objectives. The result is a linking of the objectives from one level to another in the hierarchy. Studies (Latham, Mitchell & Dossett, 1978; Rodgers & Hunter, 1991) have shown that MBO induces individuals to establish more difficult goals and increases employee performance and organizational productivity. However, one of the most vocal critics of MBO was the late W. Edwards Deming (Deming, 1986). Deming felt that employees tend to focus on the goals by which they will be judged, thus they may direct their efforts toward quantity of output (what's being measured) and away from quality.

Nonetheless, this could be overcome (Carson & Carson, 1993) by ensuring multiple goals for employees, all of which have a quality component. The motivation of workers to sustain their performance is a challenge that continues to elude both practitioners and scholars (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Mitchell, 1982). Both the content and process perspectives that were discussed in Chapter Three explain why people choose certain behaviors to satisfy needs and how they evaluate the equity of the rewards they receive for their behavior. Reinforcement perspectives explain the role of those rewards as they cause behavior to change or remain constant over time (Griffin, 1996). Such behavior is translated as constructive and productive contribution to the organization. Furthermore, reinforcement gives incentive for development. The Reinforcement Theory (Skinner, 1974; Stolz et al., 1975; Kazdin, 1989), referred to as operant conditioning theory, behavior modification, or applied behavior analysis, identifies ways to secure the

continued cooperation of workers. Of the three aspects of motivation – initiation, directing, and maintaining performance – reinforcement theory (Cofer & Appley, 1964; Steers & Porter, 1987) is specifically related to maintaining performance on an ongoing basis.

Surveys (Andrasik, 1979; O'Hara et al., 1985; Merwin et al., 1989; Komaki et al., 1990) on whether or not positive reinforcement results in improvements of job performance displayed a success rate of 92.2%; the positive results are consistent with reviews of literature. The results of these surveys show improvements in both quantity and quality of productivity (Nordstrom et al., 1988); an increase in attendance and punctuality (Hermann et al., 1973); a decrease in absenteeism (Pedalino & Gambea, 1974); and improved quality of service (Komaki et al., 1987). Moreover, the subjects included bus drivers, factory workers, supervisors, and hospital staff (Prue et al., 1980). The settings ranged from manufacturing or service industries in the private sector to social service agencies or educational institutions in the public sector (Zohar & Fussfeld, 1981; Anderson et al., 1982). Different types of consequences were used. Examples of positive evaluation of behavior are social consequences (Brown et al., 1981) such as compliments and recognition; informational consequences (Fox & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1987) like feedback notes; and organizational consequences (Haynes et al., 1982) such as promotions, pay raises and job safety.

A positive reinforcement program (Steers & Porter, 1991) includes four steps. The first is to specify desired behavior according to the objectives of the organization. The second is to measure desired performance. Next, frequent contingent and positive consequences must be provided. Finally, it is critical to continuous improvement that we evaluate the effectiveness of the job. By analyzing the consequences for performance, an understanding of the motives for certain behavior can be reached. Certain principles (Miller, 1980; Luthans & Kreitner, 1985) explain the course of behavior that workers take. Positive reinforcement strengthens behavior with rewards or positive outcomes such as a bonus or a promotion after a desired behavior is performed. Negative reinforcement or avoidance is used to strengthen behavior by avoiding unpleasant consequences (termination of contract) that would result if the behavior were not

performed. Punishment by application (demotion) or by withdrawal (slashing of budget) is used to weaken undesired behaviors by using negative outcomes or unpleasant consequences when the behavior is performed. Extinction is used to weaken undesired behaviors by simply ignoring (little management recognition) or not reinforcing that behavior.

Consequently, the upper echelons of an organization can utilize reinforcement theory to the benefit of the organization. The reinforcement principles can satisfy the demand of successful leaders (Scott & Podsakoff, 1985; Luthans et al., 1988). Effective supervision is based on reinforcement; the major keys for motivating others are monitoring and providing consequences (Komaki, 1986; Komaki et al., 1989). In addition, effective managers provide feedback and allow workers to know how they are progressing. Thus, by interacting with their subordinates through reinforcement, leaders contribute to enhanced improvement of the functioning of the organization as a whole. Enhancing performance means that managers ensure that jobs are structured appropriately, that employee talents and energies are utilized efficiently, and that employees have the training, information, systems, and other resources they need. In addition, managers play a more specific role to help employees understand what is expected of them by establishing performance objectives that meet these expectations and to evaluate and provide feedback, recognition and rewards.

Managing Employee Performance

According to the previous section, managing employee performance is crucial to the success of the business. In the way that modern businesses are managed, there is a need to depend on employee commitment to provide responsive and creative solutions that corporate success today requires. Such changes are influencing the HR methods being used. In particular, employees are increasingly utilizing techniques like quality improvement programs and flexible work arrangements. These aim at eliciting the best that employees can offer by treating them responsibly and offering them more discretion and the opportunity to use their problem-solving skills at work.

Today, there is a great focus on a holistic approach to the relationship within the work environment. There is an attempt to formulate work practices that develop a less formalized employer-employee relationship. Such an agenda includes employee involvement through participative management and total quality management. The position that management adopts on employee involvement is the most profound of all strategic issues (Torrington & Hall, 1998) with ethical, social and political dimensions; "People will support that which they have helped to create (p.503)." Without involvement, there will be no commitment and motivation (Ramsay, 1991). A justification for employee involvement (Marchington et al., 1992; Marchington et al., 1993) is that it is the straightforward, legal and moral obligation of any employer to treat employees decently and with respect. This includes providing information, explanations of management decisions, training and career opportunities, and opportunities to complain and to suggest improvements. Two common approaches to HRM are participative management and total quality management discussed next.

Participative Management

Participative management is a framework within which an organization can implement the various techniques of staff development, discussed earlier. It includes aspects such as power sharing, empowerment, and reciprocal influence processes, discussed in Chapter Three. It also includes aspects of leadership behavior such as consulting with people to get their ideas and suggestions and the specific behaviors used to delegate authority (Yukl, 1998, p.122). Among the terms used to refer to participative management are consultation, joint decision-making, power sharing, decentralization, and democratic management (Chapter Three). Theorists (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Heller & Yukl, 1969; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Strauss, 1977) acknowledge consultation, joint decision and delegation as distinct and meaningful. Making decisions is one of the most important functions performed by leaders. Participative decision-making involves contributions by the leader to encourage and facilitate participation by the subordinates in making decisions that would otherwise be made by the leader alone

(Yukl, 1998). Ultimately, the subordinates are the stakeholders, thus involving them in the decision-making process is a necessary part of the political process for getting decisions approved and implemented (Ibid). The management of employee performance is one of the key engines for introducing change as discussed in Chapter Three.

The overall effectiveness of a decision depends on decision quality and decision acceptance by the people expected to implement the decision. The quality of a decision increases when participants have information and knowledge that the leader lacks and they are willing to cooperate in finding the best solution to a decision problem (Yukl, 1998, p.124). Moreover, the opportunity to have influence over a decision usually increases commitment to it; the greater the influence, the greater the commitment. Several explanations (Maier, 1963; Mitchell, 1973; Anthony, 1978; Forester, 1999) have shown that people who have considerable influence in making a decision tend to identify with it and become committed and this increases both the quality of the decision and their motivation to implement it successfully.

Even though the terminology–empowerment, decentralization, and delegation-may vary, the basic concept is to give human resources more information and more control over how they perform their jobs in the organization; this will enhance satisfaction and motivation. Because of the complexity and changing nature of many jobs, a boss is transforming into a coach–a manager who motivates, empowers and encourages employees (Bennett, 1990). Consequently, quality, productivity and commitment will improve by redesigning jobs to increase the decision-making discretion of employees; this is known as empowerment. In fact, the need for quick decisions by those who are most knowledgeable about the issues requires the pushing down of decision-making authority to the lowest levels of an organization known as decentralization (Hodson, 1996; Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998).

Decentralization is thus a process of systematically delegating power and authority to middle and lower-level managers throughout the organization. In other words, it is an act of assigning responsibility, granting authority and creating accountability. The major

aspects of delegation (Weber, 1981; Kerka, 1995; Sherman, 1996;) include the variety and magnitude of responsibilities, the amount of discretion or range of choice allowed in deciding how to carry out responsibilities, the authority to take action and implement decisions without prior approval, the frequency and nature of reporting requirements, and the flow of performance information discussed earlier.

Empowerment provides the kinds of opportunities that the future worker and organization need to advance. It is an outgrowth of the revolution in information technology, which has eliminated much supervision and control (Losey, 1995). It has been found (Blasé, 1993) that participative strategies such as shared decision-making, influence people's affective, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions of work involvement. However, the use of power/influence to control behavior, thoughts, or values (Blasé, 1991a; Dunlap & Goldman, 1991; Kreisberg, 1992; Brown, 1994) does very little to enhance a sense of empowerment (Maeroff, 1988; Leiberman, 1990; Glickman, 1993).

A process characterized by varying degrees of reciprocity, co agency, negotiation, sharing and mutuality to achieve educational goals can be referred to as a 'power-through' (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991) or 'power-with' (Kreisberg, 1992) approach to leadership. The centrality of such factors as trust (Martin, 1990; Lindle, 1991; Clift et al., 1992), respect (Etheridge & Hall, 1991; Lindle, 1991; Clift et al., 1992), support for development (Kasten, Short & Jarmin, 1989), praise (Kasten et al., 1989), vision (Kasten et al., 1989), support of employee decisions (Clift et al., 1992), listening (Clift et al., 1992) and providing adequate time for implementation (Kasten et al., 1989) reveal the essence of participative management in any of its given names. Quantitative data will be gathered by the distribution of a questionnaire at NDU to investigate if the above-mentioned factors exist.

Total Quality Management (TQM) can be regarded as one of the biggest developments in the management of employee performance over the latter part of the 20th Century. Initially, TQM was an engineering approach concerned with procedures (Sewell & Wilkinson, 1992). However, TQM is now seen to give more attention to the social factors such as employee commitment, self-control and trust (Guest, 1992). As a result, a logical link can be identified between the needs of HRM and the opportunity of TQM. TQM is intended as a holistic approach and:

> ...a philosophy of the way an organization is managed. TQM is a much broader concept than the initiatives that have gone before, encompassing product, service and process quality improvements but also those relating to costs, productivity and people involvement and development (Dale & Cooper, 1992).

According to Dale & Cooper, TQM relates to enhancing productivity through employee development and involvement and this is in concert with the researcher's argument. Involving employees (Foley & Clifton, 1990) in the process of quality improvement is the key, whether this is through suggestions, schemes, team based quality meetings, or involvement in cross-function project teams. TQM is two-fold (Honeycutt, 1993): (1) TQM has a 'hard' statistical strand which depends on statistical quality control to make sure there are no faults in production and process control that analyzes the production process; (2) TQM has a 'soft' people-centered strand which emphasizes empowerment, participation, skill development, open communication, involvement and generates commitment to the quality objectives of the organization.

Total Quality Management (TQM) is not a passive description term but an energetic activity... that of continuous improvement (Sherr & Lozier, 1999). Atkinson (1990) says that TQM is an organization-wide commitment to getting things right and to do this, there is a need for human resources. Since TQM affects everyone in the organization, then everyone, without resistance must accept it. TQM is an approach to improving the effectiveness and flexibility of business as a whole (Oakland, 1989). TQM requires a cultural revolution in the way management responsibilities, philosophy, customer

satisfaction, training and education, and communication are handled in an organization. Thus, building a quality organization takes a shared commitment, a common language and a workable blueprint (Butler, 1998). This research is concerned with determining if NDU is such a quality organization.

TQM contributes to the enhancement of productivity through participative management. With a clear mission determined by objectives/goals (Cook, 1991), well-structured strategy, distinct job descriptions, open communication, allocation of resources for implementation and top management support, performance will improve. Consequently, the organization will witness quality productivity from one echelon to the other. Without clear and consistent quality leadership, quality can't hope to succeed (Sheehy, 1994). Quality leadership should materialize as a strategic objective (Feigenbaum, 1993). This can be achieved through motivation by the delegation of authority where implementation of the plan is based on trust and confidence. The process is monitored and feedback is analyzed. Leaders can then exercise their power in accordance with performance and outcome as explained in the Deming/Shewhart Cycle which says 'Plan, Do, Study, Act.'

In other words, quality-oriented leaders ensure that their planning processes are effective by securing and emphasizing staff involvement using physical, human and financial resources and effectively implementing them. According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, the need 'to belong' and that of 'self-esteem' must be satisfied to ensure quality results. These can be met through empowerment, regular meetings, open communication and the welcoming of suggestions for improvements. As a result, employees are motivated and become more committed to their organization. The researcher wants to investigate if NDU is an advocate of TQM; since TQM requires a high investment in education and training, educational institutions seem to be the perfect place to start.

Strategic Aspects of Employee Performance

The traditional HR management approach to enhancing individual performance has centered on the assessment of past performance and the allocation of reward (Walker, 1992). The secret was seen to lie in the interplay between individual skill or capacity and motivation. The change in perspective that rewards are provided in exchange for performance has been influenced by the industrial relations history, as trade unions have developed the process of collective bargaining and negotiation (Torrington & Hall, 1998). The prime objective of the union has been to offer some opportunity for improvement in productivity or performance in exchange for improvements in conditions (Mueller & Purcell, 1992).

Management is becoming more aware that a scope for integration that was previously not feasible (Torrington & Hall, 1998) now exists. We can now not only say 'performance is rewarded' but also 'performance is a reward'. The long-standing motivational ideas of job enlargement and job enrichment that were discussed in Chapter Three become more convincing when employees can observe the satisfaction of their needs and the performance in the job. Among the various strategies to influence employee performance are goal setting, the Japanese approach and the consideration of performance variables.

Goal Setting

Goal setting is used to communicate the mission and strategic objectives, and determine the guidelines and their contributions to the framework of the whole organization. This ensures that all employees will work in harmony for the welfare of the organization. For effectiveness, the goals (Torrington & Hall, 1998) are translated into strategic objectives for each echelon of the organization. In other words, objectives are determined at the functional level, which in turn determine objectives at the department level, the group level and then the individual level. The overall effectiveness of the cascade will depend

159

on how these objectives are communicated as has been highlighted in Chapter Two. It is more practical that this be done in a two-way manner so as to encourage interaction and feedback. This will allow employees to gain commitment to the objectives via involvement.

Goal setting bears resemblance to both the Expectancy Theory (Chapter Two) and the Porter-Lawler extension of the expectancy theory (Tubbs and Ekeberg, 1991). Goal setting suggests that managers and subordinates should set goals for the individual on a regular basis (Locke, 1968). That is, goal difficulty, specificity, acceptance, and commitment combine to determine an individual's goal-directed effort. Such effort, if complemented by organizational support and individual abilities and traits, will result in enhanced performance. In turn, performance is considered to lead to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, discussed in Chapter Two, which increase employee satisfaction. These rewards should meet individual needs, clarify expectancies, maintain equity, and provide systematic reinforcement.

Moreover, the goals set should be specific and challenging, yet reachable enough to expose employee self-confidence and ability (Steers & Porter, 1991). Goal setting, when implemented by supervisor and subordinate will lead to acceptance and commitment; this is the essence of the MBO process that was discussed in the previous section. It will also promote cooperation and team spirit. Goal setting is a simple straightforward and highly effective technique for motivating employee performance (Steers & Porter, 1991). The technique of behavior modification is mainly goal setting plus feedback presented in academic terminology.

The Japanese Approach

Another strategic aspect of employee performance can be related to the Japanese organization whose total success has triggered an exploration and adoption of the Japanese ideas and practices to enhance performance. The objectives of personnel

policies in Japan (Thurley, 1982) are performance, motivation, flexibility and mobility. Such are called type 'J' organization and are characterized (Delbridge & Turnbull, 1992) by commitment, effort and company loyalty. The key theme in Japanese thinking is people development and continuous improvement known as 'Kaizen' and recognized as TQM-discussed in the previous section. The Japanese approach is more of a motivational philosophy (Griffin, 1996) for it is an extension of the human resource perspective. The underlying principle is to bring management and workers together as partners (Ibid.) to enhance productivity through participation and open communication. The Japanese organization is significant (Ouchi, 1981; Sullivan, 1983) because of lifetime employment, slow evaluation and promotion, a non-specified career path, implicit control, collective decision-making and responsibility and a holistic concern by capitalizing on human resources by changing people and allowing the structure to evolve.

The general Japanese concept of motivation revolves around four major principles (Delbridge & Turnbull, 1992). The first, 'I.E.' means alternatively family, household, firm or organization and seeks to instill in employees a sense of belonging, identification and loyalty. The second is 'NENKO' which refers to lifelong employment and provides for job security. The third principle, 'RINGI' is a consensual decision making in corporate matters and provides employees with the opportunity to display their feelings and give suggestions to management in all types of corporate issues. The fourth belief of profit-n-loss sharing helps to further solidify the contentions of employees that they are real owners of the company. It may be safe to say that when all these principles work together, the Japanese employee may become one of the most motivated human resources in the world.

Performance Variables

Worldwide, effective managers shape the organization to fit the situation, build teamwork, and get on with the tasks. Where human resource activities are on an equal level with finance, operations, research, and marketing, human resource staff can help

management in developing strategic plans as well as implementing specific action programs. Senior executives expect human resource staff to consider key issues and shape strategies for enhancing effectiveness. In the flexible organization, human resource staff are involved in or leading organization planning, productivity, quality, culture, restructuring, downsizing, reskilling, mergers or acquisitions, and other management initiatives. Accordingly, a wide range of variables emerges. These are commonly identified as having a positive impact on performance. These variables are (1) commitment-the power to inspire and motivate; and (2) empowerment-the ability to imbue employees with the desire to change the organization to be the best.

Commitment is described as loyalty and support for the organization, strength of identification with the organization, and a belief in its values and goals with a readiness to contribute (Porter, 1985). Commitment is affected by (Guest, 1992) personal characteristics, experiences in job roles, structural factors, work experience and personal policies. In addition, it results in (Walton, 1985) better quality, lower turnover, a greater capacity for innovation and more flexible employees. Thus, commitment outcomes result in the enhancement of employee performance (Iles et al., 1990). In addition, empowerment (Connock, 1992; Spreitzer et al., 1999) involves greater individual accountability, the encouragement of innovation and continuous self-improvement. HRM releases untapped reserves of labor resourcefulness (Keenoy, 1990) by facilitating employee responsibility, commitment and involvement. In turn, the organization will profit from the unleashing of these assets. These will be translated as enriched employee performance.

In general, human resource professionals often focus on specific functional activities such as training and development, recruitment, affirmative action, career planning and counseling, compensation, benefits, or communications. Expertise in and enthusiasm for human resource management practices are extremely important for the human resource staff is expected to offer functional knowledge and perspective to the business. By doing this, the human resource staff fosters advancement of functional practices and adds to the knowledge bank of the organization. Studies (Ulrich, Brockbank, & Yeung, 1989; Lawson, 1990) have examined the capabilities required of human resource managers and

162

professionals, identified them as The Human Resource Effectiveness Profile and categorized them as:

1. The practices of HRM – knowledge/expertise, skills, and abilities to perform specific human resource activities as required by responsibilities;

2. A complete knowledge of the business – business perspective, external relations, strategic perspective, financial perspective, information management;

3. The management of change – vision, planning and organizing, decision making, managing performance, communicating, and adaptability.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher wanted to offer insight into how managers can improve quality/service, assess and improve productivity and provide HR input and support to customer/client relations activities. In so doing, managers are building the organization by identifying and maintaining relationships with various sources of employees. By using the appropriate interpersonal styles and methods of communication to gain agreement or acceptance or to resolve problems, managers can achieve results without direct authority. By building and maintaining working relationships and teamwork, HRM negotiates and resolves problems by fostering cooperation within and among groups. Such a sensitivity shows genuine interest in others and sensitivity to the needs of others and employees are satisfied. Furthermore, by demonstrating adaptability, managers maintain effectiveness by changing often ambiguous circumstances, being open to new ideas and learning from others, and making good decisions under pressure. This will prove the self-awareness that the manager has and the willingness for self-development so as to have an accurate picture of strengths and weaknesses and accordingly take actions to improve skills and performance.

The researcher has elaborated human resource management and the ways in which human resources can be motivated to perform and produce more effectively and efficiently. The roles of human resource professionals change, and as such, new skills and knowledge are required for effective performance. By becoming more directly

involved in business activities, staff can change human resource systems and practices to respond to the changing business demands through knowledge, understanding and point of view. This review of previous research shows that HRM builds trust, establishes rapport and enhances skills through development and self-growth. By building a strong network of human expertise and resources, the organization increases individual self-esteem and commitment.

Overall, the distribution of responsibility and power for leadership throughout the institution will determine human resource awareness. Ensuring adequate involvement in decision making related to new initiatives will create opportunities for self-development. This will, in turn, build trust, rapport, skills and confidence in others. The continuous training and improvement of individual proficiency will lead to a mode of work based on expertise and excellence. Furthermore, by creating constructive networks, the organization will enhance self-esteem that leads to improved productivity.

The researcher strongly supports the concept of participation to strengthen the leader-employee relationship that will result in a steadfast bond for the welfare of the organization. Chapters Two, Three, and Four have covered the basic issues pertaining to this study and they also support the research questions. This framework has influenced the research design and the purpose of this study as shown in table one in Chapter One. That is, the researcher has presented a comprehensive overview on satisfaction and motivation, leadership and management, and human resource management to elaborate upon and meet the objectives and justify the research questions stated in Chapter One. NDU should support innovative and timely human resources policies, programs and services. Moreover, to achieve the goals, a partnership will foster excellence, inclusivity, productivity, and fairness as well as strengthen NDU's ability to attract, develop and retain an excellent workforce. The next chapter will discuss the Methodology.

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGY

Overview

Educational research (Singh, 1993) is sorted in terms of methods (historical, descriptive, experimental), by the type of data collection (interviews, questionnaires, observation), by the area of academic discipline (sociological, psychological, educational), and by the means of data analysis (quantitative, qualitative, triangulation). Educational research is also significantly influenced (Diggory, 1994) by three models: (1) behavioral where education is quantifiable; (2) developmental that depends on theories and explanations and known as qualitative; (3) apprenticeship in which experience is acquired through acculturation.

Research is determined by its epistemological and ontological contexts. Ontology specifies the domains of reality; epistemology specifies how people experience reality with the words and ideas that are used to define reality (Morrison, 2000). People interpret things within their own domains with representations of reality. Many views are needed to shape a justifiable outcome for ontology leads to epistemology and both determine the method and methodology within the universal principles of ethics (Ibid.). Accordingly, triangulation will make sense of things with a genuine belief that both methods will highlight the distinction between 'what is' and 'what ought to be'.

Any introduction to educational research requires a comprehension of the paradigmatic influences that guide educational research and researchers (Johnson, 1994). A paradigm is a cluster of beliefs that influence what should be studied, how it should be studied, and

how results are to be interpreted. All educational research presupposes, whether implicitly or explicitly, specific epistemological positions. Often qualitative and quantitative research (Bryman, 1988) are divergent clusters of epistemological assumptions, that is, of what should pass as warrantable knowledge about the social world. When they are considered as different approaches to data collection, preference for one or the other is simply a technical issue (Ibid).

A theoretical distinction between methods and methodology is helpful to clarify the methodological assumptions of the present study. On the one hand, "Methods can be defined as a range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as basis for influence and interpretation, for explanation and prediction (Cohen & Manion, 1989, p.42)." On the other hand, methodology is the nature of inquiry (Skritic, 1991) that aims to describe and analyze these methods in light of their limitations (Kaplan cited in Cohen & Manion, 1989). Following the theoretical distinction between methods and methodology, the general epistemological framework is grounded theorizing which is embedded in case study research (Yin, 1994).

This study, therefore, utilizes the case study approach in order to address the issue of motivation and leadership styles in a higher educational institution in Lebanon. Clearly, it is crucial to acknowledge that case studies differ from qualitative research (Schwartz & Jacobs, 1979; Dabbs, 1982; Van Maanen, 1988; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Case studies can be a mixture of any combination of quantitative and qualitative evidence. Consequently, case studies that use triangulation to establish validity seek evidence from multifarious resources; this will be discussed later in this chapter. The best option will be a combination (Brown & Dowling, 1998) of methods:

> The adoption of a dual approach...can help in overcoming such tendencies to what we might refer to as naïve empiricism. The qualitative imagination will tend to demand that quantitative analysis explains itself in terms of non-statistical concepts that it is claiming to measure. The quantitative imagination will demand a degree of precision in definition that qualitative work will slide away from (p.83).

The researcher has presented the major issues used to develop the research questions in the previous three chapters that constituted the theoretical literature of the present study. This chapter establishes a theoretical framework for the selection of the research instruments that have been utilized for this case study.

The Conceptual Framework

The grids below tabulate the conceptual framework of the study, objectives, and the research questions.

Table 5 A

Focus of Study

Conceptual Framework	Objectives	Research Questions
Chapter Two: Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation	To establish the importance of employee motivation and review what is known about the practice. To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity.	How does the satisfaction of employee needs become a motivator that influences performance?
Chapter Three: Leadership and Management	To inform leaders of higher education of the philosophy of participative management and its benefits. To identify the opportunities for and benefits of employee development. To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people.	What are the effects of leadership styles on employee attitude toward motivation as a result of participation?

Table 5 B

<u>Focus of Study</u>

Conceptual Framework	Objectives	Research Questions
Chapter Four: Human Resource Management	To specify an effective and efficient leader-employee relationship. To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer.	How does leader-employee interaction affect motivation and consequently, productivity?
Chapter Two: Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation	To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer.	How does open communication influence employee performance?

The entire theme of this research is focused on employee satisfaction and motivation that can result from leadership that is an advocate of flexible human resource management. The four research questions are interactively related to all the objectives and to the distinctive literature review chapter for each. The discussion of the different theories of motivation, leadership and human resource management (See Tables 5 A & B) provide the theoretical background for this study on the effect of satisfaction and the role of leaders to motivate individuals. A synthesis of the works of Locke (1997), Herzberg (1987), Maslow (1954), McClelland (1970), Holland (1985), Mayo (1933), Weber (1981), Taylor (1989), McGregor (1967), Alderfer (1972), Griffin (1982), Vroom (1964), Jago (1982), Hofstede (1991), Sergiovanni (1990), and Deming (1986) provide the constructive infrastructure for the conceptual framework of this study. The plethora of research referred to in the extant literature catalogues theories, strategies and techniques

that leaders should consider to gain a broad perspective on why people in organizations behave as they do. Within such a diverse framework, the researcher offers insight into the characteristics of the individual, the workplace and the organization and how they all interact to influence motivation that enhances performance such as meeting people's needs in organizational settings.

This investigation is a case study of NDU and aims to focus on the particular features of educational research (Anderson, 1998) in that it:

1. Attempts to solve a problem;
2. Involves the gathering of new data or using existing data for a new purpose;
3. Is based upon observable experience or empirical evidence;
4. Demands accurate observation and description;
5. Employs carefully designed procedures and rigorous analysis;
6. Emphasizes the development of generalizations, principles or theories that will help in understanding, predicting and/or control;
7. Requires expertise familiarity with the field; competence in methodology; technical skill in collecting and analyzing the data;
8. Attempts to find an objective, unbiased solution to the problem and takes great pains to validate the procedures employed;
9. Deliberates an unhurried activity that is directional but often refines the problem or questions as the research progresses;
10. Records and reports to other persons interested in the problem.

Educational research offers educational administrators a sound base of knowledge to aid them in making appropriate decisions and policies (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Educational systems adopt organizational patterns (Beare, 1989) that include the institution as a self-directed team operating within a network; collegial relationships not a hierarchical system; staff as stakeholders, not employees; fees for service, not wages for time spent; and an emphasis on effectiveness, efficiency, accountability and productivity (p.15). The formulation of practical policies and relevant decisions will intensify the comprehension of employees that are needed to fulfill organizational objectives. Satisfaction emerges from responsiveness and flexibility that are limited to

hierarchical structure, employee morale and organizational culture. This involves "changes in roles, rules, and relationships between and among top-management administrators, faculty and staff; that is, at the various levels of the organization" (Sashkin & Egermeier, 1992, p.12). These assumptions are further clarified in light of the conceptual framework of the study discussed in the next section.

Validity and Reliability

The concept of validity is used to judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon that it is intended to describe (Lewis-Beck, 1994). The research design, the methodology and the conclusions of the research all need to have regard to the validity of the process. Validity of conclusions is enhanced (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Webb et al., 1981; Shadish, 1993) when multiple methods of data collection and analysis are used and when alternative theoretical perspectives are represented in an empirical inquiry. Validity (Bell, 1987, p.51):

> ... tell[s] us whether an item measures what it is supposed to measure or describe. If an item is unreliable, then it must also lack validity, but a reliable item is not necessarily also valid. It could produce the same or similar responses on all occasions, but not be measuring what it is supposed to measure.

The use of alternative methods for measuring or capturing a phenomenon is useful in identifying the direction of bias, estimating its extent, validating or verifying results, and providing complementary and complete information about the phenomenon (Fielding & Fielding, 1986). Contradictory results provide the researcher with an opportunity to uncover deviant or unexplored dimensions of a phenomenon; identify substantive or methodological sources of divergence, thus enriching the understanding of the phenomenon and potentially leading to synthesis or integration of theories explaining it; and to rethink and reanalyze the problem from a new perspective (Jick, 1979; Mathison, 1988; Brewer & Hunter, 1989). No two theories (Denzin, 1994) will ever yield compatible images; every method reveals a different slice of the social world. When coupled with sophisticated rigor, triangulation, discussed in a coming section, will broaden, thicken and deepen the interpretative base of any study.

Reliability relates to the probability that repeating a research procedure or method would produce identical or similar results (Cohen & Holliday, 1996). It provides a degree of confidence that replicating the procedure would ensure consistency. Survey research places great emphasis on the reliability of measurement, on the standardization of measuring instruments and on the reliability of data collection techniques (Sapsford & Evans, 1984). Because the researcher is not usually present as the data are collected, instrument design and testing, through piloting for example, are vital components of the reliability process. The objective (Yin, 1994, p.146) of reliability is:

> ... to be sure that, if a later investigator followed exactly the same procedures as described by an earlier investigator and conducted the same case study all over again, the later investigator should arrive at the same findings and conclusions. The goal of reliability is to minimize the errors and biases in a study.

In addition, the measurement of statistical variables is not so obvious; thus, abstract ideas or concepts of interest must be operationalized. The extent to which constructed variables do actually measure these abstract attributes is referred to as construct validity. The instruments that the researcher used, the questionnaire and interview, represent all the available evidence for the trustworthiness of the study conducted at NDU. Construct validity embodies both content and concurrent or predictive validity and the instruments expose the inferences drawn from the study rather than to the properties of the study itself. Moreover, the instruments also show content validity (Ibid.) that is a descriptive indication of the extent to which the content of the instruments covers all aspects of the attributes or traits of interest.

The questionnaires (Appendix C and Appendix D) and the interview schedule (Appendix E and Appendix F) are consistent with the theme of this dissertation, the objectives and the research questions that were formulated in Chapter One and again stated at the beginning of this chapter. This monitored feedback and directed the researcher to make necessary amendments to the instruments by deleting, adding or clarifying items and 'missing data' simply revealed more about the knowledge, opinions or thoughts of the respondents (Peers, 1996). The pilot study, discussed later, also generated comments on

ambiguous questions that were clarified and accordingly, the researcher made the necessary amendments given the limitations and structure of NDU.

By definition, both reliability and validity formulate trustworthiness. Certain concepts (Yin, 1994) can be used to determine trustworthiness, credibility, conformability and data dependability. The pilot study in addition to the case study protocol, discussed later in this chapter, support the trustworthy nature of this study. Interconnected processes developed a complementary chain of evidences (Abuchedid, 1997). Reliability, validity and relevance (Aspinwall et al., 1994) are key tests in judging the adequacy of research:

> Is it reliable? Would similar conclusions be drawn if the information were obtained by somebody else or by some other method? This is a tricky area. Again, quantitative indicators are often more reliable than more qualitative ones [but] their reliability may be bought at the expense of their validity. Where reliability is a problem, there is advantage in using more than one kind of data in relation to a particular criterion: [i.e.] triangulation (p.218).

Quantitative v/s Qualitative

Several writers (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mellon,1990; Patton, 1990; Eisner, 1991; Bradley, 1993; Fidel, 1993; Sutton, 1993; Westbrook, 1994) have identified what they consider to be the prominent characteristics of qualitative and/or quantitative research. However, the basic difference between quantitative (positivist) and qualitative (interpretive or explorative) paradigms is that the former recognizes an objective reality not dependent on the researcher and the latter views reality as subjective and socially constructed (Wildemuth, 1993). This ontological and epistemological difference is crucial (Morgan & Smircich, 1980) and these distinctions will be elaborated in the next section. The manifestation of the two is the relation between knowing the subject and the studied object. A spectrum was devised (Morgan & Smircich, 1980) from subjectivist to objectivist to embody ontological stances of reality as a project of human imagination/ socially constructed to reality as a concrete process or structure; and the epistemic stances of knowledge for the purpose of revelation and for understanding of social construction to knowledge for construction of a positivist science.

The relative value of qualitative and quantitative inquiry has long been debated (Patton, 1990) as specific inquiry paradigms (Hoepfl, 1994) that are normative (Oakley 1999) for they break down the complexity of the real world and inform their adherents what to do. The backgrounds and beliefs of many researchers (Erickson, 1986; Shulman, 1988; McLeod, 1992; Romberg, 1992) influence the particulars of the research methods. Qualitative research, or phenomenological inquiry, uses a naturalistic approach to understand context specific settings. On the other hand, quantitative research, or logical positivism, uses experimental methods and quantitative measures to test hypothetical generalizations. Qualitative research (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) means, "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (p.17). Moreover, quantitative researchers (Babbie & Halley, 1998) seek correlation, prediction and generalizations of findings whereas qualitative researchers seek illumination, understanding, and extrapolation to similar situations.

Many researchers (Patton, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Russek & Weinberg, 1993) claim that both quantitative and qualitative data provide insights that neither type of analysis could provide alone. It is true that:

> ... the positivist approach, with its goals of discerning the statistical regularities of behavior, is oriented toward counting the occurrences and measuring the extent of the behaviors being studied. By contrast, the interpretive approach, with its goal of understanding the social world from the viewpoint of the actors within it, is oriented toward detailed description of the actors' cognitive and symbolic actions, that is, the meanings associated with observable behaviors (Wildemuth, 1993, p.451).

The heart of the quantitative-qualitative debate is philosophical, not methodological (Trochim, 1999). Quantitative research is confirmatory and deductive in nature; qualitative research is exploratory and inductive in nature. If the subject matter is limited and there is a curiosity to know more details, the most likely approach will be from a qualitative perspective (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). However, if the objective of the research is to confirm what is already known about the relationship or pattern, the most likely approach will be from a quantitative perspective (Babbie, 1998). A collection of features (Reichardt & Cook, 1979) of the qualitative and quantitative methods translates themselves into the 'paradigm clash'. One advantage of seeing quantitative and

qualitative methods as paradigms with their own cultures is that researchers can then trace the shaping of each culture by a distinct set of traditions (Oakley, 1999, p.155). In brief, the 'qualitative-quantitative debate' is 'much ado about nothing' since all qualitative data can be coded quantitatively and all quantitative data is based on qualitative judgment (Trochim, 1999).

The specifications of both qualitative and quantitative methods have been highlighted. The use of a single methodology has been advocated by a number of authors (Brown, 1992; Howe & Lewis, 1993; Simpson & Tuson, 1995; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Black, 1999; Munn & Drever, 1999). However, there are impediments such as time constraints, the need to limit the scope of a study, and the difficulty of publishing the findings (Creswell, 1994). Other researchers (Tripp-Reimer, 1985; Waitzkin & Britt, 1993; Fielding & Lee, 1998; Gahan & Hannibal, 1998) have blended both quantitative and qualitative methods of research. Waitzkin & Britt (1993) showed how qualitative depth could be linked with quantitative breadth in a research study. Tripp-Reimer (1985) used qualitative questions to expose the scope of the quantitative queries. "The question asked [by researchers] is-will the research stand up to outside scrutiny and will anyone believe what I am saying about it? The technical language for examining this problem includes terms such as validity and reliability" (Easterby-Smith et al., 1994, p.89).

Quantitative research excels in summarizing large amounts of data and reaching generalizations based on statistical projections. Qualitative research excels at 'telling the story' from the participant's viewpoint, providing the rich descriptive detail that sets quantitative results into their human context. In particular, qualitative analysis (Babbie, 1990) is "the non-numerical examination" and interpretation of observation for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships (p.537) as opposed to quantitative research which is "the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect" (p.537).

The crucial aspect in justifying a mixed methodology research design is that both single methodology approaches (qualitative only and quantitative only) have strengths and weaknesses as shown in Table 6. The combination of methodologies, on the other hand, can focus on their relevant strengths (Jones, 1997) where "qualitative data can support and explicate the meaning of quantitative research" (Jayaratne, 1993, p.117). Both quantitative and qualitative research, as explained earlier in this chapter, rests on rich and varied traditions that come from multiple disciplines and both have been employed to address almost any research topic one can think of (Trochim, 1999).

Table 6

Attributes of the Qualitative and Quantitative Paradigms

Qualitative Paradigm	Quantitative Paradigm
Advocates the use of qualitative methods	Advocates the use of quantitative methods
Phenomenologism: concerned with understanding behavior from the actor's own frame of reference	Logical positivism: seeks the facts/causes of social phenomena
Naturalistic and uncontrolled observation	Obtrusive and controlled measurement
Subjective	Objective
Close to the data: "insider" perspective	Removed from data: "outsider" perspective
Grounded, discovery-oriented, exploratory, expansionist, descriptive, inductive	Ungrounded, verification-oriented, reductionist, hypothetico-deductive
Process-oriented	Outcome-oriented
Valid: real, rich, deep data	Reliable: hard, replicable data
Single case study	Multiple case studies
Holistic	Particularistic
Assumes dynamic reality	Assumes stable reality

Source: (Reichardt & Cook, 1979).

Triangulation

Triangulation of research methods is one of the main characteristic features of case studies (Cohen & Manion, 1994), especially where educational outcomes are concerned. In accordance with the objectives of this study and because a more holistic view of education practices in Lebanon is being sought, the researcher decided to use triangulation to secure trustworthiness and produce a more comprehensive outlook. "Triangulation has special relevance where a complex phenomenon requires elucidation. Because of contrasting philosophies, objectives and practices in two classes, a single-method approach provides data of very limited value, whilst the adoption of a multi-method approach would give a very different picture (Ibid. p.239)."

Triangulation compares the results from either two or more different methods of data collection-questionnaires, interviews, and observations- or, simply, two or more data sources-interviews with members of different interest groups (Mays & Pope, 2000). The use of both methodologies ensures validity because it assumes that any weaknesses in one method will be compensated by the strengths in the other, and that it is always possible to adjudicate different accounts (Ibid). Triangulation may be better seen as a way of ensuring comprehensiveness and encouraging a more reflexive analysis of the data rather than a pure test of validity (Mays & Pope, 2000). Qualitative and quantitative methods used in conjunction "may provide complementary data sets which together give a more complete picture than can be obtained using either method singly" (Tripp-Reimer, 1985, p.197). "Qualitative and quantitative methods build upon each other and offer information that neither one alone could provide" (Sells, Smith & Sprenkle, 1995, p.203). A justification of how each complements the other and in so doing, the research study is better validated.

Triangulation (Denzin, 1984) can be categorized as:

1. Data triangulation-involving time, space, and persons;
2. Investigator triangulation-consists of the use of multiple, rather than single observers;

3. Theory triangulation-consists of using more than one theoretical scheme in the interpretation of the phenomenon;

4. Methodological triangulation-involves using more than one method and may consist of within-method or between-method strategies;

5. Multiple triangulation-the researcher combines in one investigation multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, sources of data and methodologies.

This study utilizes multiple triangulation, multiple theories, multiple data collection, multiple measures, multiple analysis methods or any combination thereof to improve the validity of the findings. Consequently, the use of several methods (Connides, 1983; Steckler, 1989; Helitzer-Allen & Kendall, 1992; Roter & Frankel, 1992; Breitmayer et al., 1993; Dennis et al., 1995) conjointly enables the bias inherent in one method to be cancelled out by the bias introduced by the other (Sechrest & Sidani, 2000). That is, the weaknesses or limitations of one method may be compensated for by the strengths of the other. Furthermore, with triangulation, the strengths of one method add to or even enhance the strengths of the other, thus providing complementary information that gives a more complete and comprehensive interpretation (Ibid, p.294).

The Pilot Study

Piloting is an integral part (Yin, 1993) of any research; the strong dependence upon the instrument rather than the researcher makes pilot assessments even more necessary. Pilot procedures normally involve a small-scale application of the main method. The information collected at the pilot stage (Ibid.) is of great value in determining whether any alterations must be made to the terminology of the questions in the instrument-questionnaire or interview. Moreover, based on the answers, certain questions may need to be eliminated altogether (Erickson & Nosanchuk, 1992). The final format of the instrument will then be incorporated. The results of not conducting a pilot study may lead to unreliable and invalid research results.

The researcher very carefully considered the construction of the questionnaire and the interview. The previous section presented the literature pertaining to both schedules. The questionnaire (Appendix C) analyzed in detail in a coming section shows the five parts that aimed to reveal the respondents attitudes and feedback concerning satisfaction, motivation, communication and interaction. The interview questions designed for both the leader and the people (Appendices E & F) are in complete unison with the questionnaire and a total of forty interviews were conducted after the amendments that were proposed by the pilot study. They all aim to provide quantitative and qualitative data that will support the researcher's objectives and research questions as displayed earlier in Table 5.

To overcome any obstacles in securing a sound research outcome, the researcher conducted a pilot study at The Lebanese American University (LAU). The researcher requested permission (Appendix G) from the Vice-President for Academic Affairs, Dr. Nabeel Haidar, to conduct a pilot study at LAU. As a result, the researcher secured written consent (Appendix H) to proceed. The questionnaires (Appendix D) were distributed at both campuses-Beirut and Blat. Fifty questionnaires were distributed with 32 being completed and returned to the researcher giving a response rate of 64%. There were many queries and clarifications regarding the significance of the leader-subordinate questions. The researcher took this as a significant cause for the alteration (Compare Appendices D & C) of relevant terminology and complete restructuring of certain questions.

After the appropriate changes and amendments were made to the questionnaire and interview schedules based on the feedback of the pilot study, the researcher proceeded to collect the data. At the scheduled period of distribution, NDU had only two campuses, and that is why the pilot study at LAU only included two of its three campuses. However, during the course of this study but after the data had been collected, NDU established a third campus in Shouf, Deir El Kamar in October, 2001. To complement the data bank, the researcher carried out interviews with people at this particular campus.

The Case Study

Case studies are an ideal methodology when a holistic, in-depth investigation is needed (Feagin, Orum, & Sjoberg, 1991). The unit of analysis in a case study could be 'an individual, a community, an organization, a nation-state, an empire, or a civilization' (Sjoberg et al., 1991). Case studies (Tellis, 1997) expose details from the viewpoint of the participants by using multiple sources of data. Researchers (Yin, 1993; Stake, 1995; Pyecha, 1988) have identified several types of case studies such as the exploratory, explanatory, descriptive, intrinsic, instrumental, and collective. Four applications (Yin, 1994) for case studies have been presented, they:

1. explain complex causal links in real-life interventions;
2. describe the real-life context in which the intervention has occurred;
3. describe the intervention itself;
4. explore those situations in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear set of outcomes.

Consequently, case studies are multi-perspective analyses (Tellis, 1997). That is, the researcher considers not just the voice and perspective of the actors, but also that of the relevant groups of actors and the interaction between them. In addition, case studies offer a voice to the powerless and voiceless and are known as triangulated research strategies (Ibid.). Snow and Anderson (cited in Feagin et al., 1991) asserted that triangulation could occur with data, investigators, theories and even methodologies. Protocols that are used to ensure accuracy and alternative explanations are called triangulation (Stake, 1995) and the need arises from the ethical need to confirm the validity of the processes. In case studies, this is achieved by using multiple sources of data that create a connected chain of evidence (Yin, 1994).

According to Yin (1994), "A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real –life, especially when the boundaries between phenomena and context are not clearly evident (p.13)." In concert with Yin's definition

of case study research, Platt (1992, p.42) has rightly perceived a case study strategy as "a logic of design…a strategy to be preferred when circumstances and research problems are appropriate rather than an ideological commitment to be followed whatever the circumstances." It should be noted, however, that a case study should not be confused with ethnographic research. Yin (1994, p.14), for instance, argues, " Ethnography does not always produce case studies. Case studies can be based on any mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence." In educational research, triangulation, discussed in the next section, can be justified by the educational outcomes, complex phenomena, evaluation of teaching methods, and case studies (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Accordingly, the researcher chose the case study for this dissertation merging quantitative and qualitative techniques of data collection and analyses.

Sample

Notre Dame University at large was chosen because the researcher has been affiliated with it since its inception in 1987. The researcher has an interest in the object of the study and the details were stated in Chapter One. The researcher used dimensional sampling to enhance sample representation (Peers, 1996). That is, the quota was based on a predetermined number of each possible occupational group. The sample size was determined by the type of analysis, the level of precision and availability of resources at NDU. Thus, questionnaires were distributed to all full-time faculty members and staff (See Appendix C). At NDU, the groups are the various administrative offices or departments and the Faculties. The offices are those of the President; Provost and Vice-President for Academic Affairs; Research and Development; Administration; Finance; Business; Registrar; Admissions; Student Affairs; Library; Public Relations; Tests and Measurements; Computing Services; and Continuing Education. In addition, NDU houses six Faculties: i.e., Architecture, Art & Design; Business Administration & Economics; Engineering; Humanities; Natural & Applied Sciences; and Political Science, Public Administration & Diplomacy.

The population of this research is those institutions of higher education in Lebanon that pattern after the American-credit system of education and use English as the teaching medium; that is, the American University of Beirut (AUB); the Lebanese American University (LAU); and Notre Dame University (NDU). An overview of all the above-mentioned institutions was presented in Chapter One. Notre Dame University has been selected as the case study because of the intrinsic framework-the researcher has an interest in the case; and the instrumental framework-the case is used to understand more than what is obvious to the researcher. Compared to AUB and LAU, NDU is a relatively new institution but its size and scope allows distribution to conform to the available resources and thus, supply deep and rich data. It is a private university established by a Catholic Order and thus, governed by the clergy.

Despite its youth in terms of years, NDU is proving to be academically professional and well-established. Its exceptional and quick growth is translating itself into a strong market position in the arena of Lebanese higher education. The geographical location is traditionally demarcated as strictly French oriented but NDU has broken the rule by adopting English as its medium of instruction. This is among the noteworthy reasons for the researcher's interest of investigation. Moreover, leadership styles and their influence on employee satisfaction and motivation are previously unexplored specifically in an institution that combines both clergy and lay-people. In contrast, AUB and LAU have strictly laity as administrators. At NDU, this difference in mentality can result in overlap of chain of authority and lines of communication.

The goal in conducting a survey is to yield data on what some group thinks or feels about a specific issue. Due to the limitations of time and funding, the researcher limited her survey to a relatively small segment of the population. However, these limitations did not prevent the researcher from making common sense inferences and considering a broader applicability to other educational institutions in Lebanon. The questionnaire was distributed to every person within each unit (n = 236; the return rate = 83%). As was previously explained, to complement the opening of the third campus during the course of this study, the researcher conducted random interviews. The interviewees were selected to complement and verify the questionnaire data.

There was an even distribution of those who held purely academic positions (n=40, 20.4%) and those who held administrative (n=40, 20.4%) posts (See Appendix S). Nine (4.6%) self-reported that they held both an academic and administrative title. Only 89 (45.4%) responded to this item; the missing items (n=107, 54.6%) revealed that the hesitancy was due to fear of disclosure of identity that was expressed orally to the researcher during the interviews. This was also confirmed when another two items that may reveal identity had a very low response rate. One was for respondents to identify their area of specialization where (n=79, 40.3%) did but still there were missing items (n=117, 59.7%). The other was about the faculty or department the respondent is affiliated with (n=93, 47.4%) and missing items gave (n=103, 52.6%).

Quantitative Research

Quantitative research design allows flexibility in the treatment of data in terms of comparative analyses, statistical analyses, and repetition of data collection in order to verify reliability (Jones, 1997). Quantitative investigations look for "distinguishing characteristics, elemental properties and empirical boundaries" (Horna, 1994, p.121) and tend to measure 'how much' or 'how often' (Nau, 1995). In addition, quantitative methodologies are appropriate to measure overt behavior and descriptive aspects; allow comparison and replication; determine objectivity, reliability and validity (Jones, 1997). The researcher utilized the questionnaire with open-ended questions, the details of which are discussed in the coming section.

This can be summarized as:

> Views based on the virtues and fecundity of scientific explanation of phenomena. Positivism is a generalized reference to research approaches that employs empirical methods, makes extensive use of quantitative analysis or develops logical calculi to build formal explanatory theory. The term positivism historically accompanies other modernist tendencies such as industrialization, technological advances, the mastery of nature, cause and effect determinism, precisely calibrated measurement, atomistic physics, and instrumental rationality (Fox & Miller, 1997p.1).

This is a crucial stage of research since the development of a reliable questionnaire is central to the collection of valid data. "Anyone who can write plain English and has a medium of common sense can produce a good questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1992, p.1)." A warning (Punch, 1998) worthwhile noting is:

> The focus on this question almost always shows that there is 'much more than meets the eye'. The topic expands, and many questions are generated. What perhaps seemed simple and straight-forward becomes complicated, many sided and full of possibilities (p.36).

Caution must be taken in identifying and analyzing the relevant types of data (Pell & Fogleman, 2002). The structure and terminology used in the questionnaire will generate required information. Nominal data, for example, simply distinguishes between categories. In the case of ordinal data, the size of the numbers used for rating is meaningful. Hence, ordinal data indicates a certain order, whereas nominal data only indicates differences. Moreover, when the differences between adjacent numbers on an ordinal scale are similar, the data becomes interval and is subject to any arithmetical process. On the other hand, ratio data scales are generated when apparent similar differences of the interval scale can be shown to be identical.

Accordingly, the afore-mentioned types of data are categorized into parametric and non-parametric tests and analyses (Pell & Fogelman, 2002). Ratio and interval statistics are gathered from a wide, normal population and are therefore, parametric for they operate directly on the raw data. In contrast, non-parametric analysis is performed on simple nominal and ordinal data that demonstrate no specific pattern or distribution. Non-parametric tests usually handle continuous test scores as ranks or orders. There are two major advantages to utilizing non-parametric analyses (Ibid., p.237): firstly, the conclusion is not qualified by uncertainty about the kind of data used; and secondly, it can work on small data sets.

"Questionnaires are said to be the most used and misused methods in educational research. Objections are both practical and philosophical. (Miller & Galfo, 1970, p.25)." The question of how favorable an individual or group of people are regarding a specific issue is concerned with locating the position of favorability on an attitude continuum that would range from extreme unfavorability to extreme favorability (Eiser, 1994). Such bipolar ratings are the most common technique used to measure attitudes (Olson & Zanna, 1993) and reflect an underlying assumption in the field of study (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1994). Attitude studies began to thrive when Renis Likert (1932) proposed a simple bipolar scaling procedure known as the method of summated ratings.

The Likert scale requires participants to tick a box to report whether they 'strongly agree', 'agree', are 'undecided', 'disagree', or 'strongly disagree', in response to a large number of items concerning an attitude object or stimulus. This methodology simplifies the proceedings for both experimenter and respondents (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1994) and shows a high correlation between it and the assignment of weights to the options. This scale is translated into the survey questionnaire as a valid and reliable instrument to measure attitude (Francis et al., 1995; Schwarz, 1996; Shapiro et al., 1997).

The researcher used the Likert scale for the quantitative data collection. A 5-page questionnaire (Appendix C) was used in this study to find out if satisfaction did lead people to motivation and higher productivity. It combined both open-ended and structured questions (Powney & Watts, 1987; Oppenheim 1992). Open-ended questions were used to find out which aspects of an issue were uppermost in the respondent's mind. Where the range of answers was limited and well-established, structured questions were used on the Likert five-point scale that was previously explained. The cover letter (Appendix C; Page 1) was meant to stimulate reflection and encourage responses predicted on the fact that the respondents felt that they were a part of the process. Trust was created by assuring confidentiality and by indicating that findings would be shared

with respondents upon request. As a reminder for the reader, 236 questionnaires were distributed, 196 were returned giving a response rate of 83%.

The questionnaire comprised five parts (Appendix C). Part One (Page 2) had seven questions for personal information; Part Two (Page 3) identified eight statements related to the degree of participation; Part Three (Page 4) determined the level of satisfaction through ten statements; Part Four (Page 5) measured communication with seven statements; and Part Five (Page 6) used nine statements to specify the quality of leader-employee relationship at NDU. To ensure the construct validity of all the items, a principal component factor analysis with a varimax rotation and eigen-cut value was used to determine which factors would emerge for internal consistency. Ten major components surfaced and the eigenvalues associated with each explain a significant range of variance. Five were related to the degree of participation, specifically items four – *My leader decides; I am not involved;* five – *I am motivated to improve my performance;* six – *I am delegated authority to make decisions that fulfill the goals of NDU;* seven – *I feel that I do make a difference in my unit at NDU;* and eight – *I am given a chance to prove my competence.* The five items about the level of satisfaction are one – *I am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit;* two – *My needs are taken into consideration;* three – *I receive both monetary and moral compensation for my performance;* four – *I appreciate the qualifications of my leader;* and five – *I am allowed flexibility with my duties at NDU.*

Part Two of the questionnaire (Appendix C; Page 3) had eight statements about the degree of participation that employees are allowed at NDU. The highest frequencies for each of the items were positive. The responses to item 1– *I am involved in decisions related to my work unit* (n=95; 49%)-show a relatively high appreciation by respondents. Item 5 (n=106; 54.6%) reveals that the people at NDU believe that they are always motivated to improve their performance. Moreover, 103 (52.8%) express their agreement to item 8-*I am given the chance to prove my competence.* In addition, 59 (31.6%) disagreed with item 4; the researcher is content with this result for the statement says *My leader decides; I am not involved.* What is significant is that 45 (23%) are not sure if *they make a difference in their unit at NDU;* people need to know the feedback

185

and to be praised if it is due. Interviewees, discussed in a coming section, also expressed a need for constructive feedback and appraisal.

The level of satisfaction (Appendix C; Page 4) shows significant results. The highest frequency (n=109; 56.5%) is with item 5 where the respondents agree to *I am allowed flexibility with my duties at NDU*. One hundred and five respondents (54.7%) also agree that *I am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit*. However, statement six –*I am compensated well for my work*–gave a high of (n=69; 35.9%) who are not sure whether there salaries are fair or not. 54 (28.1%) agreed that they are being compensated well; however, 48 (25%) disagreed. Although monetary rewards are not the only incentives, they definitely are the levers to increasing motion. Discussions during interviews stressed on monetary rewards. However, the researcher was surprised when one staff member explained that even though the money is important, he is content when his boss displays appreciation for his productivity with nothing more than a *'well done'*.

The seven items about channels of communication at NDU in Part Four (Appendix C; Page 5) all received a response of 'Agree' on the Likert Scale. The highest frequency (n=98; 51.3%) was for item 3–*My leader makes sure that I understand the goals of NDU;* only 28(14.7%) disagreed. Another significant response is (n=97; 50%) for item 4-*I am encouraged to express my ideas;* with a disagreement rate of (n=31;16%). Both item one–*I am always informed of what is happening at NDU* and item 2–*I am given the opportunity to express my concerns about NDU* showed that n=57 are not sure about these two statements. This raises worries about how concise and articulate the leader is. Communication has been the highlight of this study. On the open-ended questions and the interviews, people have expressed how much they crave for flexible lines of communication at NDU.

The interaction between leaders and their staff (Appendix C; Page 6) shows that the highest response rate was for item 9 (n=107; 57.2%) where the agreement was for *My leader appreciates my input* with a disagreement of only 23(12.3%). Another significant result was for item 8–*My leader knows that if I am satisfied, my performance is*

enhanced with n=99 (52.9%); only 24 (12.8%) disagree with this issue. Nonetheless, 37 (18.9%) are not sure about this and this may lead to question the communication skills and the competence of the leader. Another noteworthy result is that 29.6% (n=55) are not certain if *My leader makes me proud to belong to NDU*–item 5. If the leaders do not display loyalty and commitment to the institution, what kind of example are they giving their people? This point was made by respondents' comments on the questionnaire and many also emphasized it during the interview. One person said, "When I see my boss indifferent to crucial issues at NDU, what kind of incentive is that for me. If it were not for my own initiative, there are many things that would remain undone."

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research designs are those that are associated with explorative, interpretative approaches, from the informant's point of view (Jones, 1997, p.3). Interpretive researchers start out with the assumption that access to reality is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness and shared meanings (Myers, 1997). Since most qualitative data is non-numeric, the techniques of research range from interviews, observational techniques such as participant observation and fieldwork, through to archival research.

Qualitative approaches rely on the written or spoken word or the observable behavior of the person being studied as the principle source of data for analysis (Huberman & Miles, 1994). The purpose is to gain a greater understanding of the world as seen from the unique viewpoint of the people being studied. Scientists (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1987) must:

> ... gain an empathic understanding of societal phenomena; they must recognize both the historical dimensions of human behavior and the subjective areas of the human experience. Qualitative researchers attempt to understand behavior and institutions by getting to know the persons involved, their values, rituals, symbols, beliefs, and their emotions (p.287).

The idea of qualitative research is to grasp 'reality' in its daily agenda (Silverman, 2000). From this, in-depth meaning and themes emerge (Discussed in the next chapter) from the exploration of the phenomena that is the focus of the study and the researcher's exposure to and interaction with the people involved in the study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This identifies the prominent idea of theory 'grounded' in data rather than that presumed at the outset of a research project. A simplified model of 'grounded theory' (Ibid.) involves three stages: (1) an initial attempt to develop categories to illuminate the data; (2) an attempt to 'saturate' these categories with appropriate cases to demonstrate relevance; (3) developing these categories into more general analytic frameworks with relevance outside the actual setting. That is , grounded theory interprets the data from qualitative research and identifies the relevance to the study at hand.

Moreover, an important perception of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) is the founding of emerging ideas that contribute to new thematic analysis (Silverman, 2000) since qualitative research is common-sense description and does not require explicit elaboration of conceptual thought. According to Miles & Huberman (1994), the strength of qualitative data is that it is rich and holistic with strong potential for revealing complexity nested in a real context. In other words, qualitative research takes a systematic and analytic approach to understand the interaction of variables in a complex environment. In addition, grounded theory describes a method of inducing theoretically based generalizations from qualitative data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Coffey and Atkinson (1996) add:

> Qualitative data, analyzed with close attention to detail, understood in terms of their internal patterns and forms, should be used to develop theoretical ideas about social processes and cultural forms that have relevance beyond these data themselves (p.163).

Unstructured interviews demonstrate in-depth analysis and work within an interpretive paradigm (Wragg et al., 2000). An unstructured interview may last up to two hours and must be implemented in an extremely sensitive and skillful manner, otherwise, required information may not emerge. Thus, qualitative data analysis is an integral part of the whole research process for I was conducting a chain of deliberate, critical choices about interpretations and value of data and accordingly, ensuring the justification of the terms

of research decisions, the context in which it was held and the people who were involved (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

Such a collection of processes can be described as a bricolage (Ibid.,)-a pieced-together, close-knit set of practices that provide solutions to a problem in a concrete situation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p.3). The major skills of a bricoleur-qualitative researcher-are the flexible, creative and intuitive aspects that seek to produce an in-depth comprehension of complex social phenomena:

> The product of the bricoleur's labour is a bricolage, a complex, dense, reflexive collage-like creation that represents the researcher's images, understandings, and interpretations of the world or phenomenon under analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 4).

In general, qualitative researchers are advised (Miles & Huberman, 1994) to think display, be open to invention, expect iteration, seek formalization and distrust it, entertain mixed models, stay self-aware and share methodological learnings. This is so because qualitative research involves two actions. First, it sets boundaries, and second, it creates a frame to help uncover, confirm, or qualify the basic process.

Moreover, qualitative research describes how, in everyday life, we actually go about defining, counting, and analyzing (Silverman, 2000). In addition, a more profound understanding of social phenomenon is provided. In other words, there is a strict preference for meanings rather than behavior which translates itself into the attempt "to document the world from the point of view of the people studied" (Hammersley, 1992, p.165). Furthermore, qualitative research resembles the type of process that would make judgements and reach understandings throughout everyday life. This can be identified (Watling, 2002) as a series of six stages: (1) defining and identifying data; (2) collecting and storing data; (3) data reduction and sampling; (4) structuring and coding data; (5) theory building and testing; (6) reporting and writing up research.

Consequently, qualitative data comes in the form of words rather than numbers and the analysis may consist of four concurrent flows of activity (Miles & Huberman, 1984):
1. Data reduction – the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming 'raw' data;

2. Data display – an organized assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action taking;

3. Conclusion drawing – deciding what things mean, noting regularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations, causal flows, and propositions;

4. Verification – testing conclusions for sturdiness, confirmability and validity.

In brief, qualitative analysis is a very powerful method for assessing causality. The following statement (Huberman & Miles, 2002) gives the idea:

> Qualitative analysis , with its close-up look, can identify mechanism, going beyond sheer association. It is unrelentingly local, and deals well with the complex network of events and process in a situation. It can sort out the temporal dimension, showing clearly what preceded what, either through direct observation or retrospection. It is well equipped to cycle back and forth between variables and process-showing that 'stories' are not capricious, but include underlying variables, and that variables are not disembodied, but have connections over time (p.147).

The Interview

Interviews may be used as the primary strategy for data collection, or in conjunction with the questionnaire, observation, document analysis, or other techniques (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). Qualitative interviewing utilizes open-ended questions that allow for individual variations. The three types are: (1) informal, conversational interviews; (2) semi-structured interviews; and (3) standardized, open-ended interviews.

An interview guide, a list of questions or general topics that the interviewer wants to explore during each interview was prepared. The interviewer is free to probe and explore within these predetermined inquiry areas. Interview guides ensure efficient use of limited interview time; they make interviewing multiple subjects more systematic and comprehensive; and they help to keep interactions focused (Hoepfl, 1994).

Interviews fall within a spectrum of structured, semi-structured and unstructured techniques that rely on design and content (Abouchedid, 1997). The interview conducted

at NDU was unstructured. Yin (1994) suggests that the interview is one of the most significant of case study information. For this study, an interview guide was prepared (Appendix E & F), one for the leader and one for the employee and the data was validated. Modifications were made in accordance to the piloting results. Such changes were to focus attention on areas of particular importance and to exclude questions that the researcher has found to be unproductive. The interviews covered the attributes of interest of the researcher and were in unison with the key items of the questionnaire. They also enhanced the justification of the title of this Ph.D. dissertation. After the analysis and in compliance with the strong data as well as the missing data, the interviewees were chosen to complement the questionnaire; during the time lapse between the distribution of the questionnaire and the interviews, many new employees were recruited to NDU. Consequently, random selections were made. Furthermore, interviews were carried out with people at the Shouf campus that was established after all data was collected, as mentioned previously. A total of forty interviews were conducted and each lasted from thirty to fifty minutes.

The fact that the interviewer is an 'Inside Researcher' caused certain discomfort during the tape recording sessions. The interviewees were assured that the tapes were strictly for research purposes and feedback would be used without the disclosure of identity. Samples of the taped conversations can be seen in Appendices P and Q and will be discussed in the next chapter. 'The People' felt satisfaction by the mere fact that they were being interviewed; this was an opportunity to express their opinions and concerns. The Case Study of NDU meant a lot to them. The researcher noticed that they were nervous at first but they soon relaxed and were very sincere in what they said; they were not just saying what the researcher wanted to hear. Moreover, various themes emerged from the interviews (See Appendix R and discussed in Chapter Six) and these issues were key matters that this thesis has dealt with. It motivated them to know that their opinions would be voiced and accordingly, certain changes would be made.

At the end of each part of the questionnaire, there was an open-ended question that asked the respondent for specific comments or input regarding that particular section. The open-ended questions (Appendix C) also contributed to the qualitative aspect of this study for respondents voiced their opinions and gave suggestions and recommendations. Among the common statements were "I am part of top management so I consider myself to be the leader." "I want to be informed of what is happening at NDU; I don't like surprises." "I'm new at NDU; so far everything is fine." "Communication is important." "We have every right to know exactly what is happening around us; thus, we can adapt to the whole process." Consequently, it is clear that there is a unanimous thirst for interpersonal communication and the opportunity to contribute more through more trust and responsibility.

The emphasis was placed on the results that open communication would give. The majority of the respondents felt that there was a strong need for more interaction between leader and employee and among the levels of the organizational structure. The researcher noticed that even though the questions related to this issue were positively responded to, the respondent felt an even greater need for communication. They feel that this reflects a high confidence from leaders and consequently, promotes a sense of responsibility that enhances output. Among the various comments were, "I used to think that participative management didn't exist at NDU. But since I started with my new boss, it's been three months, I've changed my mind." "My boss does simple things to show me that he cares. For example, he smiles back at me." This shows the importance of respect and mutual understanding within an institution.

"I'm motivated to give more for I know that I'm trusted and this satisfaction has improved my self-confidence." Human resource management plays such a vital part in enhancing the performance of people. "We should have more workshops for self development." This respondent sounded at ease with her boss and appreciates the leadership style and practices within the office and said, "My director tells me what is happening in the office, I'm informed, I feel part of NDU." In addition, "My director practices participative management. I give my suggestions; we are always asked for our input. Even though my decision isn't used, I'm satisfied and motivated."

Other noteworthy comments from interviewees were related to the style and attitude of people. "Dr. X passes me and just looks straight through me; I am hurt by this. A simple 'hello' would be enough." Many are burdened with the feeling of inferiority that certain administrators display by undermining the potential that many people have and want to expose for the benefit of NDU. In contrast, and to show extreme controversy, another interviewee stressed the 'time' factor. "I am never afraid to approach my boss at any time to discuss NDU or even something personal, he/she is always willing to listen and comment no matter how busy he/she is." Through conversation analysis (Discussed in Chapter Six), it is so apparent that people at NDU want to be heard and are thirsty to voice their opinions. While listening to employees R and P (Appendices P & Q) among the various employees, the researcher felt the sense of relief they showed while speaking as if to say 'it is about time someone did something like this'.

Based on the fact that this research is attitudinal, case study, and mostly descriptive, the best compatible analyses will be through Chi-Square, discussed in the next chapter. To ensure the connectivity and direction of the four parts of the questionnaire, the researcher tested the Chi-Square of each of the four parts – participation, satisfaction, communication, leader-employee interaction. Strong correlation was shown among all the parts. Each part was highly correlated with each other part and perfectly correlated with itself. Consequently, the four parts yielded a positively significant direction. Respondents who agreed to one part tended to agree to the other parts. That is, responses from various parts were consistent with each other and the various parts were consistent. In other words, the internal reliability of the questionnaire is secured. The details of each of the four parts are highlighted in the next chapter.

The Procedure

In conducting a case study, a recommended methodology (Yin, 1994) is the preparation for data collection; distribution of the questionnaire; conducting interviews and making observations. As such, data collection should be treated as a design issue that will enhance the structure and internal validity of the study, in addition to the external validity and reliability (Coolican, 1994). The various ways in which people respond to any of the methods is highly dependent on individual attitudes, discussed in Chapter Two.

Distribution took place according to the sampling selection that has been previously discussed; every office, department and faculty was involved. A few, specifically staff, expressed their concerns, reservations, and hesitancy to complete the questionnaire especially since it was an inside study and the researcher was a top management administrator at NDU at the time of the study. Personal follow-up and assurance was given and they were informed that participation was voluntary. It was explained that the objective of the research was not to exploit but to improve. To guarantee anonymity, they were asked to remove any form of identification that they felt might reveal their status. Ethics, discussed in a coming section, requires researchers to be honest in observation and analysis, tolerant, willing to admit error, and ready to place the pursuit of knowledge and understanding above personal gain or the promotion of a particular philosophy or ideology.

Data Collection

Humans are responsive to environmental cues, and are able to interact with the situation; they have the ability to collect information at multiple levels simultaneously; they are able to perceive situations holistically; they are able to process data as soon as they

become available; they can provide immediate feedback and request verification of data; and they can explore atypical or unexpected responses (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Humans are the "instrument of choice" for naturalistic inquiry (Ibid).

To gain subjective understanding, the investigator attempts to obtain the trust of and rapport with participants, interviews or asks them questions to collect data, makes notes of observations, manages and analyzes data, and provides a description and interpretation of the phenomenon or experience (Sechrest & Sidani, in press). Thus, the investigator is the "instrument through which data is collected" (Rew et al., 1993, p.300), processed and analyzed. Consequently, data collection and analysis are inescapably influenced by the researcher's own beliefs, perspectives, biases, communication and interview skills, and intuitive and analytic processes (Firestone & Dawson, 1988, pp.209-221). The means of data collection utilized in this research as was previously explained were the questionnaire and the interview.

The 'Leader' is the person that the respondent directly reports to according to the NDU organizational chart (Appendix A). The questionnaire was distributed to full-time, and not part-time, administrators, faculty and staff at NDU. This decision was determined by serendipity, the unique and contingent mix of insight coupled with chance (Davis, 1971; Agar, 1982); it is conclusions that are defined as surprising, yet obvious, and that contribute to the presentation of 'interesting' research. The researcher learned and acquired knowledge of part-timers being dissatisfied simply because they wanted to become full-timers for more job security. The researcher felt that their responses might not be reliable in such a case.

The questionnaires were to be distributed in January, 2001 just after the Christmas holidays and before the beginning of final exams. New appointments took place at the time of the researcher's appointment; these included other unit Directors and Faculty Deans. One particular Dean caused great friction and dissatisfaction among faculty and staff within the unit as well as among other units at NDU. The whole ordeal created

concern and agitation and even led to many persons wanting to resign. The administration immediately investigated and found that the causes were rigidity, lack of communication skills and an autocratic leadership style. Action was taken; a new Dean was appointed.

As a result, the researcher postponed the distribution of questionnaires till March, 2001 until the situation had calmed down for it had caused great havoc and disturbance among the employees. It would have been very ironic to ask people about satisfaction and motivation at such a period. Similarly, there were obstacles within other Faculties with the appointment of new Chairpersons and a particular Director was the target of resistance. In many instances, the opposition was taken personally and this resulted in low performance and productivity was decreased for people became indifferent. All of these changes materialized during the spring semester of 2001-from March till June. 236 questionnaires were distributed, 196 responded and returned the forms giving a response rate of 83%. There were certain questions that were left unanswered by a large number of respondents, which led to missing data; this was statistically acknowledged in the data analysis. It seems that the respondents felt intimidated by these questions and they were numbers 5, 6 and 7 of part one of the questionnaire (Appendix C; Page 2)- type of subject area, affiliation of faculty or department, position held by respondent.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is "working with data, organizing it, breaking it into manageable units, synthesizing it, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned, and deciding what you will tell others" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p.145). The questionnaires were sorted and screened using WORDS and EXCEL. Accordingly, the researcher revised the data for clarity and consistency. All the variables were checked and double-checked for errors and to ensure the compatibility of codes and labels as specified when the researcher entered data for SPSS analysis. Data cleaning was imperative to verify and edit any data input errors. Thereafter, the data was scrutinized and checked for any out of range figures and a frequency count on all variables was processed.

The conceptual framework as shown in Table 5 was completed with the help of other Microsoft tools such as SPSS, Statistical Packages for Social Sciences. SPSS is an advanced statistical technique used to analyze quantitative data in terms of percentages, frequencies and regressions. For clarification, an overview of the research techniques that were used will be presented and the actual presentation of the statistics will be given in the next chapter, Chapter Six–*The Findings of the Study*. Data analysis consists of examining and tabulating evidence to address the initial propositions of the study (Yin, 1994) and it includes data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing (Mille, 1990, p.42). In the reporting of statistics and data findings, it is crucial that the stringent assumptions of parametric testing are not violated and as the statistics will confirm in the next chapter. The explanation of the statistical methods that were used is to facilitate the understanding of the actual figures that will be presented. To arrive at the homogeneity of variance, Kurtosis, T-test, Levene's test for homogeneity and Cronbach Alpha were highlighted.

The Pearson correlation (r) is considered as a descriptive statistic when a researcher intends to quantify the extent of linear relationship between variables (Peers, 1996, p.283). A parametric correlation would be appropriate whenever quantitative measures are taken simultaneously on two or more variables; the relationship between the two variables is linear and both variables are normally distributed. These correlations should always be examined prior to more sophisticated multivariate analysis such as factor analysis or principal component analysis. Pearson has nothing to do with causes but only shows association. The data for Pearson's correlation shouldn't be continuous. Furthermore, multiple mean comparisons were run on each of the levels of the Likert scale that was issued to each of the items of the 4 parts of the questionnaire (Appendix C).

The results revealed in the next chapter provide evidence that a flexible leadership style is directly responsible for people at NDU being satisfied with their jobs. There is a clear indication that leaders must be aware of the motivating factors. These can create and

facilitate a healthy work environment and conditions that will improve morale, satisfaction and motivation. As a result, performance and productivity are enhanced to result in quality education and academic professionalism at NDU. In addition, the results show that the research instruments are valid and reliable. From a motivational point of view, the leader is the key; the results confirm such allegations. In particular, the outcomes clearly reveal that people at NDU want to be more involved, want greater support as individuals and groups, and want more enhanced work conditions that will promote morale. The quantitative data expresses this; however, the qualitative data highlights indirect criticism. Leaders at NDU must educate themselves and eliminate the cultural baggage that allows favoritism or the feeling of superiority. In turn, people at NDU will regain confidence and professionalism through their leader's appreciation of their contributions. The possibility of being involved in the decision-making process makes people feel more satisfied and motivated as a commitment to their decisions. In general, participation will positively influence in-house activities because of less ambiguity and open communication.

Research Ethics

The underlying principles of educational research have been described as a commitment to honesty (Sammons, 1989) and an avoidance of plagiarism (Berger & Patchner, 1988). Pring (2000) has identified them as respect for dignity and privacy of those people who are subjects of research and the pursuit of truth. Carrying out ethical educational research then involves dialogue and social moral frameworks. The implementation involves avoiding contravening the rights of the researchers and participants while not denying society the value of the information (Cohen et al., 2000). Zimbardo (1984, cited in Cohen et al., 2000) argues that:

> Ethics embodies individual and communal codes of conduct based upon adherence to a set of principles which may be explicit and codified or implicit, and which may be abstract and impersonal or concrete and personal (p.58).

All research, especially educational research, must consider ethics. "When people are seen as objects, serious ethical questions arise" (Kincheloe, 1991, p.28). That is, ethics is

a crucial and delicate issue for educational researchers because the subjects of the study are the people affiliated with the institution or organization. "Research may embarrass, hurt, frighten, impose on, or otherwise negatively affect the lives of the participants to the research" (Tuckman, 1988, p.14). In other words, the fundamentals of ethical research include the right of the participant to remain anonymous, the right to confidentiality and the right to privacy or non-participation. Accordingly, the researcher was clear to mention this in the cover letter (Page 1) of the questionnaire for both the pilot study (Appendix D) and the case study (Appendix C). The researcher acquired a document (Appendix B) from her supervisor, Dr. Hugh Busher, to confirm her activities; this was distributed with the research instrument to all participants. All participants were informed that their involvement in the study was strictly voluntary, that identity would remain anonymous and that all their responses would be treated with confidentiality.

After the pertinent amendments were made to the questionnaire, the researcher took the appropriate measures to pursue. The first step that was taken was to secure written permission from the administration of NDU to utilize the institution's name in the dissertation and to distribute the questionnaire. This was exceptionally crucial for the researcher holds both an academic and administrative position at NDU; that is, she is an inside researcher. The primary consent came from the University President, Reverend Father Butros Tarabay (Appendix I). Thereafter, approval was acquired to circulate the instrument at both the academic and administrative levels. Dr. George Eid, PVP, Academic Affairs expressed his support (Appendix J). Moreover, the researcher requested permission (Appendix K) from the Director of Administration, Reverend Father Walid Moussa, who, in turn, gave his authorization for accessibility (Appendix L). Consequently, the questionnaires were administered to all full-time faculty and staff at NDU in a mood of strict confidentiality.

The researcher was adamant to take all the precautions necessary as an insider. There are numerous advantages, disadvantages, dangers and opportunities of being an 'insider'. There were many issues that the researcher considered for she was aware that she might gain access to information that would remain off limits to an outside researcher. For example, the researcher contemplated to what degree she could be objective without

taking sides, without compromising her professionalism and without being biased despite the good intentions and precautions. Researchers are scientists in pursuit of knowledge; however, they are also humans, which make them accountable for the legitimacy, quality and value of their work. Thus, a researcher's ideological causes guide the selection of respondents and shape the collection and interpretation of information.

Conclusion

This chapter has explained the methodology that the researcher used for this dissertation. Triangulation ensured the validity and reliability of the instruments utilized for data collection. Moreover, the instruments used were presented and will also be elaborated in the next chapter, which will disclose findings and statistics. As an inside researcher, the investigator faced certain limitations that have been mentioned but will be elaborated in Chapter Eight.

The pilot study supplied constructive reason for the researcher to amend and reconsider specific questions of both the questionnaire and interview. Accordingly, the final instruments developed for the object of the case study, Notre Dame University, have proven to be reliable. The issue of ethics was not at all overlooked and the researcher was strict to ensure that all the relevant sources were informed of the intentions and in turn, the researcher was granted official permission to proceed and use the name of the institution. The next chapter will disclose all findings after data analysis and interpretation. It will describe the statistical methods used in the treatment of the quantitative data in addition to the presentation of the main quantitative findings. These findings will be embedded with qualitative data resulting from interviews with faculty members, staff and administrators at the university.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSES and FINDINGS

Introduction

The researcher's interest in conducting this study was primarily to provide useful insight into the significance of satisfaction for employee motivation and enhanced performance in institutions of higher education in Lebanon that follow the American-credit system. This study deals with a previously unexplored issue in Lebanon - satisfaction and motivation among faculty and staff members. The study's main contribution rests with its broad aim to buttress the quality of higher education through the enhancement of performance and productivity. The objectives were presented in Chapter One; nonetheless, the most significant are to explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people at NDU and to identify that this will motivate them to produce more. Thereafter, the objective is to inform the leaders at NDU on how to keep their people satisfied to promote loyalty, trust and commitment to the institution where they work.

The previous chapter described the operational fieldwork measures used in the study including sampling, questionnaire design, research questions and modes of data collection. In this chapter, emphases will be shifted to the presentation of the research findings resulting from fieldwork. In addition, the researcher will show how these findings build upon previous research to complement the previous gaps in knowledge. The findings of the study are mapped out along two levels of classification, the quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative results will be verified and supplemented with interviews data and all this is to justify the framework of this study as presented in Table 7. Consequently, the findings will be presented under the subheadings as they are determined by the research questions and as they are related to the conceptual framework as elaborated in the chapters of literature review.

Based on the triangulation of data (Cohen & Manion, 1995), this chapter establishes an interaction of qualitative and quantitative data. Such a relationship might generate a connected chain of evidence on faculty members' attitudes and concerns regarding their satisfaction, participation, communication, and relationship, as dependent variables established in the study. The dependent variables are the perceptions of motivation and productivity. The independent variables fall into two categories: personal attributes and professional. The personal attributes cover age, gender and level of education. The professional include the number of years spent at NDU, employment status, subject area, level of satisfaction, degree of participation, measure of communication, and leader-employee interaction. The study is qualitative in nature for it aims to generate data *from* what respondents say rather than *upon* what respondents say and thus, the quantitative part will be analyzed through non-parametric tests. Besides, since the data have partly violated some of the stringent assumptions of parametric testing (e.g., Levenson's test for homogeneity of variance, skewness and kurtosis), the researcher will use non-parametric procedures appropriate with the distribution of the data, and broadly with the objectives, focus, and research questions of the present study.

The researcher has previously presented the biographical profile of Notre Dame University; Chapter One explained the context of the study. Due to the keen interest of the researcher as a member, NDU was chosen by convenience as a case study of a single institution. Accordingly, the findings will make valuable contributions to other institutions of higher education in Lebanon that fall within the same classification as NDU. As the researcher used dimensional sampling, explained in the previous chapter, the questionnaire distributed to 236 persons at NDU and that resulted in 196 completed and returned - 83% response rate is exceptional. Such a rate of return is relevant to the overall population at AUB (324) and LAU (210) as compared to the 236 at NDU.

Table 7

Framework of the Study

Research Questions	Objectives	Conceptual Framework	Assumptions
How does the satisfaction of employee needs become a motivator that influences performance?	To establish the importance of employee motivation and review what is known about the practice. To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity.	Chapter Two: Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation	The satisfaction if individual needs is imperative for employee motivation.
What are the effects of leadership styles on employee attitude toward motivation as a result of participation?	To inform leaders of higher education of the philosophy of participative management and its benefits. To identify the opportunities for and benefits of employee development. To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people.	Chapter Three: Leadership and Management	The implementation of participative management in the workplace will witness productive outcomes for everyone concerned.
How does leader-employee interaction affect motivation and consequently, productivity?	To specify an effective and efficient leader-employee relationship. To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer.	Chapter Four: Human Resource Management	Effective and efficient leader-employee relationships are indispensable for enhanced performance and productivity.
How does open communication influence employee performance?	To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer.	Chapter Two: Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation	Open and constructive communication will allow employees to feel more involved and motivated.

Preparation of Data

The valid percentage displays the proportion or percentage of the total number of observations that fall into each section of the qualitative variable and are beneficial when comparing data distributions that have various numbers of observations (Peers, 1996). The researcher checked for the consistency of the data by double-checking variables to ensure the compatibility of codes and labels. Then, data cleaning was imperative to verify and edit any data input errors. Even though the response rate was 83%, the researcher found that there were missing items per scale. The most significant was that 107 where n=196 did not specify the post they hold at NDU. The other missing items are not so outstanding with a maximum of ten who did not respond to item five of the quality of leader-employee relationship–'My leader makes me proud to belong to NDU.'

One of the personal questions was about age range and the results (See Appendix S) show that the largest number of the respondents (n=98, 50.5%) is in the age range (Appendix C; Page 2) of 31-40. Forty-four (22.7%) reported their ages between 41 and 50 years. This is quite significant since it shows that NDU is now opening the opportunity for fresh blood, innovation and creativity. The younger group (n=29, 14.9%) indicated their ages between 21 and 30 years. Two of the respondents did not answer this question. The concentration of degrees (Appendix C; Page2) of the respondents falls within the graduate and post- graduate status giving 114 out of the 196 respondents. There was an even response rate by those who hold a Masters degree (n=57, 29.1%) and those who hold a Ph.D. degree (n=57, 29.1%). Twenty-seven (13.8%) hold a Bachelor degree. Two didn't respond to this question. These statistics show the importance of an educated person who can demonstrate higher levels of competence and ability.

The distribution of respondents according to gender (Appendix C; Page 2) displayed an almost break-even situation with females (n=102, 52.3%) and males (n=93, 47.7%), thus reflecting an equal gender employment policy at NDU. There were significant differences with other responses. However, an in-depth research of the differences in responses and attitudes according to gender is not the issue of this study but the

researcher will be recommending this for future research. Another question was about the number of years that respondents have been at NDU (Appendix C; Page 2). Those that have been at NDU between 10 and 15 years are 27 (13.8%). Twenty-four (12.2%) have been at NDU between six and ten years. The largest number of respondents (n=52, 26.5%) falls within the time frame of one to five years. The number that did not respond was high (n=93, 47.4%). Many respondents expressed their reservations about certain items of the instrument even though the cover letter (Appendix C; Page 1) explained the confidentiality of the study. The interviews showed interesting issues about loyalty by seniority and no intention of leaving NDU despite certain dissatisfiers.

Moreover, there were two other personal questions (Appendix C; Page2) to reveal the specialization (n=79, 40.3%) and faculty or department that the respondent is affiliated with (n=93, 47.4%). This was another problematic area for many were hesitant to respond for fear of disclosure despite the assurance of the researcher that this survey is strictly confidential and only statistics will be published. Very few responded to these two questions with 117 (59.7%) ignoring subject area and 103 (52.6%) overlooking their affiliation at NDU. The last of the private questions asked for the title or post of the respondents but there was also reluctance to disclose this information. It was apparent that the respondents to these questions hold management positions.

Staff members in the researcher's unit are constantly bombarded with 'colleague pressure'. For example, there are individuals who constantly come in late or spend time drinking coffee and gossiping. In spite of this, the unit has continued to function harmoniously and this has been a good lesson for other units at NDU. The researcher conducts regular meetings, listens to their suggestions and recommendations, gets them involved in all activities related to the office and respects them. An open-door policy is implemented; they know that they can come at any time to express their concerns related to NDU or otherwise. The job description of every member is clear and they know that they are accountable for their actions. The success of the researcher's unit has been quite outstanding. Nonetheless, the researcher has been the target of great criticism regarding her leadership style; this has not demotivated the researcher at all. On the contrary, it has increased the researcher's perseverance to make a difference.

Because staff at other units are not kept abreast of what is happening at NDU, a feeling of insecurity is generated. This was especially apparent at the beginning of the academic year 2001-2002 when they [staff] were unaware of whether or not there would be rotation and in turn, rumors spread and productivity decreased. Furthermore, The Board of Trustees decided not to increase student tuition, which meant that all salaries were frozen. As Secretary of The University Council, the researcher knew this but other members of NDU didn't know why they had been deprived of the salary increase they were used to at the beginning of each academic year. What added to the dissatisfaction and demotivation was the choking economic situation that Lebanon was experiencing in addition to the decision of the Ministry of Finance to implement a VAT (Value Added Tax) of 10% as of February, 2002 hence increasing the financial burdens on people in an economically now-defunct country. All this accumulated and people were frustrated and angry; they just didn't know what was going on.

The researcher reported these concerns to the administration. The President explained that he was against the decision to freeze salaries and an option for this year was being sought in light of the annual budget. The researcher strongly recommended that the faculty and staff be called to separate meetings or to a general assembly and informed of the BOT decision and what the administration was contemplating. This happened just before the Christmas vacation, 2001; there was an open forum and voices were heard. Moreover, the President informed them that there would be generous merit-oriented bonuses for Christmas. The turnover in attitude was so clear not to mention the limitation of gossip.

The President has appointed various task forces and ad-hoc committees to study and investigate urgent issues and present solutions. In addition to the situations that have been mentioned earlier, the tasks have included the writing or rewriting of by-laws; the development of registration procedure; and the writing or rewriting of policies – scholarship, undergraduate admission, graduate admission, attendance etc.. Many of the projects have been implemented as of October, Fall semester 2001-2002. The

registration procedure with crucial changes in the Business Office (payments are to be made at the bank) was enacted in February, Spring semester 2002. The students met this particular step with great resistance. Now that they had to pay at the bank, they could no longer delay and accumulate payments. As a result, the Student cabinet called for a sit-in and demanded that the administration reverse its decision. Faculty members became dissatisfied since it was end of semester and just before final exams; many faculty travel at semester break. The Student Affairs Office (SAO) called for meetings with both students and parents and explained the benefits of these changes. This intervention resulted in an immediate call to stop the strike and classes were finished and entrance exams administered. At registration time, the procedure was implemented with minimum complications or disturbances.

As a result, the researcher witnessed a rational acceptance of the regular reports; this was translated into the relevant courses of action at Notre Dame University as described above. Basically, it showed that top management was willing and ready to do whatever was necessary to increase levels of satisfaction and improve performance. Even though there was an eagerness to develop and enhance work conditions and the environment, top management needed to know exactly what was required by people at NDU. It is this very enthusiasm that the researcher saw as a challenge and thus decided to take NDU as the case study for this dissertation.

Findings and Interpretation / Quantitative Data

To identify the specifications of the data, the researcher used a type of data analysis that would ensure the parametric properties of the data. Levene's three methods–Kurtosis, Test for Homogeneity of variance, Skewness–were analyzed to guarantee that the stringent assumptions of parametric testing were not violated by the representation of the sample. Levene's test of homogeneity was run for each of the significant personal questions in part one of the questionnaire and resulted in a normal curve. Tests were also run for each of the items of the remaining four scales of the questionnaire and the kurtosis and skewness of each formulated a normally distributed curve. This emphasizes

that the parametric measures are reliable and no stringent assumptions were violated; that is, the instrument was valid. The feedback on the pilot study led to items that were deleted, added or amended for clarification. Moreover, for internal reliability, various drafts of the questions were devised before the researcher had a final copy to be distributed to the respondents of the case study.

Kurtosis and skewness were conducted on the independent variables (age, gender,degree, specialization) and resulted in a normal distribution with no significant differences with kurtosis identifying the peakness (Lipokurtic) and flatness (Platykurtic) of the curve. The total number of respondents was 196 for the table states the valid and the missing. The running of the test revealed age group=1.52 and the degrees attained=-0.69. These figures are acceptable and consequently formulate a normally distributed curve. The data distribution showed a normal curve and Kurtosis identified the peakness. A normal distribution (Peers, 1996) provides a standard against which other empirically derived distributions can be compared and also plays a significant role in inferential statistics. Skewness is an index of the extent to which a distribution is asymmetrical or non-normal-skewness is close to zero when a distribution is symmetrical. If the trial of a distribution extends to the right, it has a positive skew; that is, the mean is pulled to the right of the median. If the tail of a distribution extends to the left, it has a negative skew; that is, the mean is pulled to the left of the median.

The recognized calculation (Peers, 1996) of the coefficient of skewness is *3 x [(mean – median)/ standard deviation]*. When the mean reflects the 'heaviness' of tails of a distribution and the value approaches zero, this moment is known as Kurtosis. Despite the normality of the distribution of the data at play and due to the qualitative nature of the present study, the researcher used non-parametric analysis, namely independent-Kruskal Walli test. Descriptive statistics were also run for each of the dependent variables.

The eight items of participation (Appendix C; Page 3) revealed figures that ranged from –1.343 to 0.388. A range of 0.073 to 0.457 highlights the ten items of satisfaction (Appendix C; Page 4). The statistics related to the seven items of communication

(Appendix C; Page 5) are descriptive from −0.656 to −0.037. The figures for the nine items of leader-employee interaction (Appendix C; Page 6) are from −0.548 to 0.137. The overall aggregate scores of kurtosis and skewness did not violate the stringent assumptions of parametric measures (See Appendix U). For each of the scales, a normally distributed curve (See Appendix U) has kurtosis identifying the peakness. The parametric analysis is correct and reliable; consequently, the instrument is valid. Together with kurtosis and skewness, Levene's emphasizes that the parametric measures are reliable and that no stringent assumptions were violated. As a result, a normally distributed curve was formulated. The distribution of each of participation, satisfaction, communication and relationship is significant. For instance, participation, is associated with a Levene's statistic of 4.613 that is significant at .001 and degrees of freedom of 4 and 176. Moreover, leader-employee relationship is 3.542, significant at 0.008 with df of 4 and 175.

Cronbach's Alpha (Peers, 1996) is a measure based on the ratio of the variability of item scores to the overall score variability. It requires that all test items have equal variability, that all items are equally interrelated and that a single construct is measured since test reliability is likely to change when the test is administered to different groups (Cronbach, 1990). The reliability of the instrument was tested through Cronbach's Alpha (See Appendix T) for internal congruency of scales devised. The first part asked personal questions about the respondent such as gender, age group and level of education. Each item of every one of the four scales was tested for internal consistency. Part one had eight statements about the degree of participation people at NDU are allowed. Part two designated ten queries about the level of satisfaction that members of NDU have. Part three measured communication channels through seven determinants. Part four asked nine questions about the quality of interaction between leaders and employees at NDU.

For authenticity and even more reliability, the questionnaire was backed up by an interview schedule with both the leader and employee. Those classified as 'leaders' are the President, Vice-Presidents, Directors, Deans and Chairpersons. The questions of the interview complemented the questionnaire to ask about corporate culture and relationships. In addition, techniques of motivation and its contribution to enhanced

productivity were discussed. The interviewees were asked for specific examples from their personal experience. Moreover, interviewees categorized as 'people' were department, faculty and unit staff members. Similarly, their questions pursued the quest for the result of participative management and the qualities of an effective leader. They were also asked how their bosses satisfied their needs and whether this affected performance and how. Furthermore, interviewees were requested to state certain incidents pertaining to these issues.

The acceptable average of Cronbach's Alpha is 0.6 (Appendix T). If an item is below 0.6, then that particular item has low reliability and if the overall Alpha of the scale is less than 0.6, then that scale is not reliable. The first scale–degree of participation (Appendix C; Page 3)–gave an overall alpha, run on the eight items, of 0.83, which shows the reliability of that scale; the standardized item alpha is 0.85. Seven of the items are significantly above the acceptable average, 0.6. Item four- *My leader decides, I am not involved* had a low reliability with an alpha of 0.36. The respondents of the study are asking for more involvement and participation management for a greater satisfaction. The highest Cronbach Alpha is 0.81 and relevant to item 8–*I am given a chance to prove my competence* and this shows that leaders at NDU are flexible and aware of satisfaction techniques. Thereafter, items 5–*I am motivated to improve my performance* and 2–*My suggestions are taken into consideration* resulted in respective alphas of 0.81 and 0.79. These statistics also show that there is a door open for communication and development.

The ten items of the level of satisfaction (Appendix C; Page 4) resulted in a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.92; the standardized item alpha is 0.92. This is a perfect Cronbach on the overall scale of the instrument. The researcher also supported this with interviews for even more reliability, authenticity and correlation. There is a significant relation among the 10 items of this scale. The highest alpha, 0.8 went to item1–*I am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit* followed by item 10–*My self-esteem is supported and encouraged* at 0.75. These are in harmony with Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the importance self-actualization. The lowest item correlation-0.61- was for item six-*I am compensated well for my work* that is actually borderline. To ensure reliability, a test was run on the nine items after deleting item 6. Accordingly, Cronbach'

Alpha was also 0.92. In other words, this scale was highly reliable even though respondents have reservations with respect to compensation.

After running the Cronbach Alpha test on the seven items of the measure of communication (Appendix C; Page 5), the result was an alpha of 0.91; the standardized item alpha is 0.91. In comparison with the average 0.60, the result is also a perfect finding and ensures reliability. The lowest item correlation was that of item 1–*I am always informed of what is happening at NDU;* the Cronbach Alpha is 0.57, below the acceptable figure. In particular, respondents are asking for more open channels of communication and to stay abreast of what is happening in their work units and at NDU as a whole for they will thereafter be satisfied and performance will be enhanced. Nonetheless, two items scored 0.84 and showed that NDU goals are made clear (item 3) and individuals are allowed to express their opinions (item 4).

The Cronbach Alpha of the nine items of the quality of leader–employee relationship (Appendix C; Page 6) was 0.96 with 0.96 as the alpha for the standardized item alpha. This perfect Cronbach Alpha demonstrates the high reliability of each of the nine items of this scale. All the items scored 0.83 and above; the lowest correlation was that of item 7–*My leader allows me to participate in decision-making because the decisions will ultimately affect me*–with an Alpha of 0.80. Although the respondents feel that they are contributing to the decision-making process, they request even a higher degree of involvement. They realize that they are the stakeholders; they want their leaders to realize this fact. Item 2–*My leader inspires me* and item 3–*My leader keeps me motivated* scored equal Cronbach of 0.88. Decisions will ultimately affect them and negative ones will promote dissatisfaction; the sense of loyalty disappears and in turn, productivity decreases because they are demotivated. The interaction with respondents of the interview also supported this item. The reliability of the questionnaire items was further strengthened by triangulation of data collected.

The importance of the satisfaction, participation, interaction, and communication variables in understanding the functioning of an organization as described by those involved in the organizational setting has been highlighted (Appendix U). The semantic differential items in the questionnaire presented direct measures of attitudes towards satisfaction, participation, leader-employee relationship and communication scales. The objectives, framework and assumptions relevant to each of the research questions are interrelated (See Table 7); however, the researcher has specifically associated them. The numerical findings, their explanations and how they confirm or justify the researcher's concerns will be discussed in this chapter.

Chi-Square Results

To ensure the connectivity and direction of the four parts of the questionnaire, the researcher used the Chi-Square test (Chapter 5), for each of the four parts–participation, satisfaction, communication, leader-employee interaction. They all yielded a positively significant direction; respondents who agreed to one part tended to agree to the other parts, displayed in the coming tables. The one-sample χ^2 (Chi-square) test of independence is a goodness-of-fit test (Peers, 1996, p.123) that refers to the extent to which observed frequencies correspond to expected frequencies.

Table 8 presents the Chi-square results of the scale pertaining to research question **What are the effects of leadership styles on employee attitude toward motivation as a result of participation?** The items are identified as **Parti 1 – 8** and the wording of each factor can be seen in Appendix C, page 3. Table 8 presents the frequency distribution, percentages and Chi-square results of respondents attitudes towards the participation variables used in the present study. Items on the participation scale comprised several components related to how faculty members feel involved in decision-making processes in their respective units. A cursory look into the frequencies and percentages of responses shows faculty members' agreements with participation at a significant χ^2 while presenting a cautious view on "My leader decides, I am not involved" (Parti4), hence

documenting further agreement with their leaders' engaging his/her faculty members in decision-making processes.

Table 8:

Frequency Distribution and Chi-square results of the Participation Scale (The percentages are in parentheses). Ranking 1(Strongly Agree), 2(Agree), 3(Don't Know), 4(Disagree), and 5(Strongly Disagree).

Items	1 (SA)	2 (A)	3 (NS)	4 (D)	5 (SD)	df	χ^2
Parti1	41(21.1)	95(49)	29(14.9)	25(12.9)	4(2.1)	4	120.1**
Parti2	34(17.3)	100(51)	38(19.4)	20(10.2)	4(2)	4	136**
Parti3	82(42.1)	69(35.4)	29(14.9)	15(7.7)		4	62.4**
Parti4	11(5.9)	47(25.1)	33(17.6)	59(31.6)	37(19.8)	4	34**
Parti5	38(19.6)	106(54.6)	23(11.9)	20(10.3)	7(3.6)	4	158**
Parti6	20(10.3)	77(39.7)	52(26.8)	34(17.5)	11(5.7)	4	71.7**
Parti7	46(23.6)	86(44.1)	45(23.1)	16(8.2)	2(1.0)	4	107.4**
Parti8	29(14.9)	103(52.8)	33(16.9)	23(11.8)	7(3.6)	4	141.3**

**P<0.01

The interpretation of row one is that 41 (21.1%) respondents strongly agree (SA); 95 (49%) agree; 29 (14.9%) are not sure; 25 (12.9%) disagree; and 4 (2.1%) strongly disagree to Parti 1 (I am involved in decisions related to my unit). The test was run on each of the eight items in correspondence to each of the positions on the Likert scale. Judging by what respondents reported, Table 8 shows that the majority had documented higher agreements than disagreements regarding the degree of involvement in decisions related to their work unit. For example, Parti1 'I am involved in decisions related to my unit' shows that 41+95(136) or 21.1%+49%(70%) agree with this statement. On the other hand, 25+4(29) or 12.9%+2.1%(15%) disagree. The researcher is concerned with the 15% and with knowing the reasons for this disagreement and most importantly, with identifying what can be done to change this status. The aggregate agreements (n=151) relate to *I am committed to NDU* (Parti 3). Many of the statements were close in context or even contrary in terms of meaning; thus respondents were requested to read carefully.

For example, Parti4–*My leader decides; I am not involved*–showed higher disagreements (n=96) than agreements (n=58).

I am delegated authority to make decisions that fulfill the goals of NDU (Parti 6) showed that 52 respondents are not sure if this is happening. This can be especially demotivating when people do not know if the leader is doing the job properly. A significant gap in communication surfaces here. It was stressed when interviewees also pinpointed certain incidents with one person saying, " I often feel like I'm in the dark. As secretary of this unit, I should know what is happening so I know what to do." At times, the researcher felt a great contradiction between questionnaire respondents and the interviewees but in general, there was an amicable marriage between Chi-Square results and interview data.

In order to further measure faculty members' motivation, a 10 x 5 contingency table was constructed. Table 9 attests to faculty member attitudes towards satisfaction. However, they documented high percentages of "no responses" towards extrinsic reward items such as receiving moral and monetary compensation for their work, receiving praise and team spirit; hence reporting positive satisfaction with their leaders while at the same time neutralizing themselves from commenting on extrinsic rewards which fall outside the scope of the immediate responsibilities of their leaders since the bulk of praise and financial rewards come from the academic administration more than from unit leaders, who may be in turn not really praised or well compensated for their work by their superiors.

Table 9 presents the Chi-square results of the scale pertinent to research question **How does the satisfaction of employee needs become a motivator that influences performance?** Row one shows that 33 (17.2%) strongly agree; 105 (54.7%) agree; 31 (16.1%) are not sure; 20 (10.4%) disagree; and 3 (1.6%) strongly disagree with Satis 1 (I am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit). The items are identified as **Satis 1 – 10** and the wording of each factor can be seen in Appendix C, page 4. From table 9, combined agreements to all ten statements were much higher than the disagreements. The highest overall agreements (n=138) were for item one (Satis1) – *I*

am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit. The highest disagreements (n=62) went to Satis6 – *I am compensated well for my work* although interviewees disagreed and spoke about unfairness with salaries. Seventy-two respondents were not sure if *Teamspirit is practiced at NDU* (Satis8). According to the interviews, '*esprit de corps*' varies within the hierarchy. Nonetheless, there is consistency among the ten statements about the level of satisfaction.

Table 9:

Frequency Distribution and Chi-Square results of Satisfaction Scale (The percentages are in parentheses). Ranking 1 (Strongly Agree), 2 (Agree), 3 (Don't Know), 4 (Disagree), and 5 (Strongly Disagree).

Items	1 (SA)	2 (A)	3 (NS)	4 (D)	5 (SD)	df	χ^2
Satis1	33(17.2)	105(54.7)	31(16.1)	20(10.4)	3(1.6)	4	159.1**
Satis2	24(12.3)	90(46.2)	53(27.2)	21(10.8)	7(3.6)	4	112.05**
Satis3	15(7.7)	63(32.5)	57(29.4)	48(24.7)	11(5.7)	4	60.3**
Satis4	38(20.1)	96(50.8)	32(16.9)	21(11.1)	2(1.1)	4	131.8**
Satis5	20(10.4)	109(56.5)	39(20.2)	23(11.9)	2(1.0)	4	178.3**
Satis6	7(3.6)	54(28.1)	69(35.9)	48(25)	14(7.3)	4	74.3**
Satis7	29(14.9)	97(50)	46(23.7)	19(9.8)	3(1.5)	4	134.2**
Satis8	14(7.3)	75(38.9)	72(37.3)	28(14.5)	4(2.1)	4	112.8**
Satis9	9(4.7)	68(35.4)	66(34.4)	41(21.4)	8(4.2)	4	89.4**
Satis10	16(8.2)	84(43.3)	55(28.4)	32(16.5)	7(3.6)	4	100**

**P<0.01

The communication items represented direct measures of faculty member attitudes towards communication. In this respect, communication is mainly between faculty members and their leaders. Highly significant agreements (Table 10) were registered by faculty members on the communication scale, evincing high levels of effective communication as measured by authoritative behavior in which faculty members are exactly told by their leaders what to do, inform them about the goals of he university, and given the opportunity to voice their concerns about the university. Table 10 presents

215

the Chi-square results of the scale pertinent to research question **How does communication influence employee performance?** Row one of Table 10 displays that 23 (11.9%) strongly agree; 71 (36.6%) agree; 57 (29.4%) are not sure; 38 (19.6%) disagree; and 5 (2.6%) strongly disagree with Com 1 (I am always informed of what is happening at NDU). The items are identified as **Com 1 – 7** and the wording of each factor can be seen in Appendix C, page 5.

Table 10:

Frequency Distribution and Chi-Square results of the Communication Scale (The percentages are in parentheses). Ranking 1 (Strongly Agree), 2 (Agree), 3 (Don't Know), 4 (Disagree), and 5 (Strongly Disagree).

Items	1 (SA)	2 (A)	3 (NS)	4 (D)	5 (SD)	df	χ^2
Com1	23(11.9)	71(36.6)	57(29.4)	38(19.6)	5(2.6)	4	71.1**
Com2	14(7.2)	84(43.1)	57(29.2)	34(17.4)	6(3.1)	4	104.8**
Com3	16(8.4)	98(51.3)	43(22.5)	28(14.7)	6(3.1)	4	136.9**
Com4	17(8.8)	97(50)	43(22.2)	31(16)	6(3.1)	4	129.2**
Com5	21(11.2)	82(43.6)	48(25.5)	32(17)	5(2.7)	4	91.7**
Com6	35(18.4)	85(44.7)	38(20)	28(14.7)	4(2.1)	4	91.4**
Com7	20(10.4)	97(50.5)	43(22.4)	28(14.6)	4(2.1)	4	132.4**

**P<0.01

Table 10 shows a significant positive direction for each of the seven items of this part (Appendix C; Page 5). Once again, the aggregate agreements were significantly higher than the disagreements. The highest agreement (n=120) went to Com6–*My leader communicates openly* while the highest disagreement (n=43) was in Com1–*I am always informed of what is happening at NDU.* Both the previously mentioned item and Com2 –*I am given the opportunity to express my concerns about NDU* showed a frequency (n=57) expressing an ambiguity because the respondents were more likely unsure about these issues as shown in interview data. They are asking for more disclosure, which was clearly expressed by interviewees. In particular, one staff member said, " It shakes my

confidence when my boss keeps things from me; I think that maybe it's because he doesn't trust me enough although I am loyal to NDU." Content with communication was further verified by faculty member attitudes towards the Quality of Leader-Employee Relationship.

Table 11 presents the Chi-square results of the scale pertinent to research question **How does leader-employee interaction affect motivation and consequently productivity?** The items are identified as **Rela 1 – 9** and the wording of each factor can be seen in Appendix C, page 6. An interpretation of row one in Table 11 shows that 21 (11.2%) strongly agree; 95 (50.8%) agree; 44 (23.5%) are not sure; 25 (13.4%) disagree; and 2 (1.1%) strongly disagree with Rela 1 (My leader knows how to keep me satisfied at work).

Table 11:

Frequency Distribution and Chi-Square results of Relationship Scale (The percentages are in parentheses). Ranking 1 (Strongly Agree), 2 (Agree), 3 (Don't Know), 4 (Disagree), and 5 (Strongly Disagree).

Items	1 (SA)	2 (A)	3 (NS)	4 (D)	5 (SD)	df	χ^2
Rela1	21(11.2)	95(50.8)	44(23.5)	25(13.4)	2(1.1)	4	79.9**
Rela2	27(14.4)	80(42.8)	46(24.6)	26(13.9)	8(4.3)	4	96.3**
Rela3	23(12.2)	85(45.2)	46(24.5)	28(14.9)	6(3.2)	4	94.5**
Rela4	31(16.4)	87(46)	37(19.6)	28(14.8)	6(3.2)	4	93.1**
Rela5	22(11.8)	78(41.9)	55(29.6)	28(15.1)	3(1.6)	4	119.2**
Rela6	31(16.6)	91(48.7)	41(21.9)	23(12.3)	1(0.5)	4	115.1**
Rela7	21(11.2)	90(47.9)	42(22.3)	33(17.6)	2(1.1)	4	145.1**
Rela8	26(13.9)	99(52.9)	37(19.8)	24(12.8)	1(0.5)	4	175.2**
Rela9	27(14.4)	107(57.2)	29(15.5)	23(12.3)	1(0.5)	4	134.6**

**P<0.01

An internal consistency among the items is displayed in Table 11. The aggregate highest agreement (n=134) was with Rela9–*My leader appreciates my input.* No less significant is Rela8–*My leader knows that if I am satisfied, my performance is enhanced* with 125 participants agreeing. This particular issue was stressed during the interviews with different standpoints but the majority claimed that their leaders were aware of keeping them satisfied for the benefit of NDU and not for personal reasons. One respondent said, "I am a human being and the least my boss can do is treat me as one." The highest disagreements (n=35) pertained to Rela7–*My leader allows me to participate in decision-making because the decisions will ultimately affect me* although it only represents 5% of the respondents.

Correlation Results

Although the participation item-scale included measures of satisfaction of faculty members work in their respective units, these items were useful in measuring associations between commitment and performance to the university and involvement in decision-making processes. Table 12 shows Pearson's correlation results of these interrelated variables. These associations should be examined prior to sophisticated multivariate analysis such as factor analysis principal component analysis, discussed in a later section. In this study, 196 out of 236 responses were submitted to the researcher. Table 13 shows a highly significant link with noteworthy correlations of participation (r=0.83); satisfaction(r=0.85); communication(r=0.85); and relationship(r=0.85). For the wording of each of the items of the Participation scale in Table 12, see page 3 of Appendix C.

Table 12:

Correlation Results of Commitment and Participation Variables

	Parti1	Parti2	Parti4	Partic6	Parti8
Parti3	0.64**	0.59**	-0.25**	0.41**	0.61**
Parti7	0.66**	0.67**	-0.29**	0.55**	0.72**
Parti5	0.69**	0.69**	-0.24**	0.57**	0.72**

**P<0.01

Commitment, motivation, and performance items yielded significant positive correlation on participation items except Parti4 (My leader decides; I am not involved) which had an inverse significant correlation (Table 12) with the rest of the items; hence, faculty members' commitment, motivation, and performance beliefs parted from a one-man show leadership item attitude as presented in Parti4. Both the open-ended question in the questionnaire and the interview were consistent in people's persistence that they want to be more involved in all activities related to NDU and seek more interactive contact with leaders.

Table 13:

Correlation Results of Participation, Satisfaction, Communication and Relationship Variables

	Participation	*Satisfaction*	*Communication*	*Relation*
Participation		0.83**	0.80**	0.80**
N	182	175	176	173
Satisfaction	0.83**		0.85**	0.81**
N	175	184	180	177
Communication	0.80**	0.85**		0.85**
N	176	180	184	
Relation	0.80**	0.81**	0.85**	
N	173	177	176	181

** p<0.01

In order to test for differences between the independent variables of gender, degree, age, and post on the mean ranking of faculty members of the satisfaction, participation, relations, and communication variables, a series of K-independent Kruskal Wallis tests were employed. Results showed significant differences between males and females on their mean ranking of the satisfaction, participation, relations, and communication variables. First, males registered a significantly higher mean ranking of disagreements with Parti4, "My leader decides; I am not involved" than their females counterparts (χ^2=8.66;df=1;p<0.05) (See Table 8). Females at NDU seem to be less involved than males in decision-making processes in their respective units. Females also registered higher disagreements with Parti6, "I am delegated authority to make decisions that fulfill the goals of NDU" with (χ^2=5.28;df=1;p<0.05). Moreover, females at NDU showed a higher mean ranking while disagreeing with Parti7, "I feel that I do make a difference in my unit at NDU" than males with (χ^2=2.58;df=1;p<0.05).

The analysis of data revealed that the females at NDU is 52.3%; however, the top management positions at NDU belong to males. That is, the University Council is comprised of 22 decision makers; only 3 are females, one of whom is the researcher herself. The researcher does not want to imply any kind of gender discrimination but this could be the reason why females have not been given the opportunity to express their concerns about NDU. Since issues pertaining to gender are not the focus of this study, the researcher recommends it for future investigation (See Chapter Eight). The interviews discussed in the previous chapter support the above results and women spoke about their negative experiences in the office because of their male 'bosses' supremacy. One woman said, "I know it's a man's world but we are just as qualified and we should be given the opportunity to prove ourselves." This was confirmed with females ranking a higher mean of disagreement to Com2, "I am given the opportunity to express my concerns about NDU" with (χ^2 =9.06;df=1;p<0.05) (See Table 10).

Gender discrimination in decision-making process mirrors Lebanon's patriarchal belief-system (Sharabi, 1988) in which women are kept from partaking in decisions related to the administrative functions of institutions. The quantitative data revealed that females at NDU registered higher mean ranking disagreements than their male counterparts regarding three specific standpoints relevant to level of satisfaction. One female interviewee justified this by explaining how angry she was because she clearly senses and experiences differentiation in treatment and salary scale between her and male staff members. The data disclosed that females scored higher disagreement to Satis3, "I receive both monetary and moral compensation for my performance" with $(\chi^2=2.17;df=1;p<0.05)$ (See Table 9). Another significant finding was for Satis7, "The environment at NDU is friendly" with $(\chi^2=6.63;df=1;p<0.05)$ and Satis5, "I am allowed flexibility with my duties at NDU" with $(\chi^2=4.70;df=1;p<0.05)$.

In reference to the differences among people's attitudes according to their posts (Academic, administrative, academic/administrative) as the independent variable, significant differences were found among respondents. Respondents who held administrative/academic positions agreed more than academics and administrators with Parti4, "My leader decides; I am not involved" $(\chi^2=7.07;df=2; p<0.05)$. Those in this category are either top or middle management and thus, they must be involved in decision-making. People with academic positions such as program coordinators disagreed with both Parti7, "I feel that I make a difference in my unit at NDU" $(\chi^2=6.50;df=2;p<0.05)$ and Satis1, "I am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit" $(\chi^2=8.28;df=2;p<0.05)$. People at this level of the hierarchy are often victims of the 'power game' and their direct supervisors feel threatened by them. One chairperson said, "Our dean is not at all flexible or open to communication; this has demotivated faculty members." Similarly, faculty members with a joint academic/administrative position registered higher mean disagreement with Satis4, "I appreciate the qualifications of my leader" $(\chi^2=9.63;df=2;p<0.05)$ than those with either an academic or administrative position.

Moreover, this lack of appreciation could result from patterns of competition where academic administrators might feel better suited for the job occupied by their leaders.

This finding can be further explored in terms of the channels of communication between administrators and academics with their unit leaders. Academic administrators reported fewer agreements with Com6, "My leader communicates openly" than the rest (χ^2=7.70;df=2;p<0.05). In addition, they documented the highest mean ranking disagreements with Com7, "I am told exactly what is expected of me" (χ^2=6.36;df=2;p<0.05). Such results show resentment to closure and lack of communication and they were backed up with testimonies from interviewees. "When the unit leaders clearly express their expectations, concerned people know exactly what they should do and who to refer to for a smooth flow."

Furthermore, faculty members with academic positions had higher-ranking disagreements than respectively with Rela4, "My leader encourages team-spirit" with (χ^2=9.66;df=2;p<0.05). Respondents who hold both academic and administrative posts disagreed with Rela6, "My leader promotes a feeling of loyalty to NDU" (χ^2=8.10;df=2;p<0.05). The researcher found extremely significant data with those in both posts also disagreeing to the overall leadership style of their units; these being,- Rela1, "My leader knows how to keep me satisfied at work" (χ^2=7.64;df=2;p<0.05); Rela2, "My leader inspires me" (χ^2=13.84;df=2;p<0.05); and Rela3, "My leader keeps me motivated" (χ^2=6.79;df=2;p<0.05) (See Table 11). It is apparent that the leadership style needs reconsidering if a more enhanced environment is required at NDU.

In concert with earned academic degrees (independent variable), significant differences were found on their mean ranking of the participation, satisfaction, relation and communication items. Tables 14A (Participation and Satisfaction) and 14B (Communication and Relation) show those items that resulted in the most significant findings; the statements for each of the itemized scales are shown in Appendix C. From Table 14A, Parti1, "I am involved in decisions related to my unit" and Parti3, "I am committed to NDU", mean ranking was highest for MA/MS holders with (χ^2=11.01;df=4;p<0.05) and (χ^2=15.66;df=4;p<0.05). Parti4, "My leader decides; I am not involved" was Ph.D oriented with (χ^2=10.50;df=4;p<0.05). Satis1, "I am satisfied

and motivated with the leadership of my unit" showed (χ^2=9.79;df=4;p<0.05) and Satis4, "I appreciate the qualifications of my leader" resulted in (χ^2=19.53;df=4;p<0.05).

Table 14 A:

Mean Ranking of the Participation and Satisfaction Items by Postholder's Degree

Item	Degree	N	M	SD	χ^2
Parti1	Diploma	18	86.6	1	11.0*
	BA/BS	27	99.1		
	MA/MS	56	103.8		
	Ph.D.	57	80.7		
	Others	34	113.8		
Parti3	Diploma	19	93.2	0.93	15.6*
	BA/BS	27	66.8		
	MA/MS	57	109.5		
	Ph.D.	57	91.4		
	Others	33	111.8		
Parti4	Diploma	18	87.4	1.2	10.5*
	BA/BS	26	101		
	MA/MS	56	82.4		
	Ph.D.	53	110.3		
	Others	33	82		
Satis1	Diploma	19	99.2	2.24	9.79*
	BA/BS	27	68.8		
	MA/MS	56	103.4		
	Ph.D.	54	98.1		
	Others	34	101.2		
Satis4	Diploma	19	87.6	2.88	19.53**
	BA/BS	27	56.7		
	MA/MS	55	103		
	Ph.D.	53	100.2		
	Others	34	105.6		

**p<0.01; *p<0.05

Table 14 B:

Mean Ranking of the Relation and Communication Items by Postholder's Degree

Item	Degree	N	M	SD	χ^2
Com3	Diploma	19	83.2	2.52	9.70*
	BA/BS	27	72.9		
	MA/MS	56	101.7		
	Ph.D.	53	94.6		
	Others	34	108.6		
Com6	Diploma	19	83.1	2.37	10.08*
	BA/BS	26	68		
	MA/MS	56	99.1		
	Ph.D.	53	102.3		
	Others	34	101.1		
Rela2	Diploma	19	82.6	2.47	12.89*
	BA/BS	26	64.3		
	MA/MS	56	96.9		
	Ph.D.	50	106.7		
	Others	34	93.7		
Rela4	Diploma	19	87.9	2.54	13.29*
	BA/BS	27	63		
	MA/MS	56	96.6		
	Ph.D.	52	103.6		
	Others	33	102.6		
Rela6	Diploma	19	78	2.37	12.67*
	BA/BS	26	65.7		
	MA/MS	56	101.6		
	Ph.D.	51	100		
	Others	34	100		
Rela9	Diploma	19	75.1	2.27	15.78*
	BA/BS	27	71.7		
	MA/MS	56	102.1		
	Ph.D.	50	89.4		
	Others	34	112.8		

**p<0.01; *p<0.05

224

Table 14B highlights noteworthy findings pertaining to the channels of communication and leader-employee relations at NDU. The major indication is that degree holders – MA/MS and Ph.D - are expressing their concerns. The highest mean ranking was revealed for Com3, "My leader makes sure I understand the goals of NDU" (χ^2=9.70;df=4;p<0.05) and Com6, "My leader communicates openly" (χ^2=10.08;df=4;p<0.05). Degree holders are expected to be flexible and open minded about collaboration for the utilitarian purpose. With respect to leader-employee interaction, Rela2, "I am inspired by my leader's performance" (χ^2=12.89;df=4;p<0.05) and Rela6, "My leader promotes a feeling of loyalty to NDU" (χ^2=12.67;df=4;p<0.05) scored the highest mean ranking. Similarly, Rela4, "My leader encourages team spirit" and Rela9, "My leader appreciates my input" were significant with (χ^2=13.29;df=4;p<0.05) and (χ^2=15.78;df=4;p<0.05) respectively.

Emergent Themes

As the researcher discussed in the previous chapter, the open-ended questions on the questionnaire were answered such as to highlight several issues that respondents are concerned about. This is in compliance with the various themes that emerged from the interviews such as respect, concern, trust, the time factor, etc., (See Appendix R). Communication was a major recurring theme; there is nothing more effective than a face-to-face talk to encourage and motivate people. "I feel so special when my boss takes the time to sit and talk to me and ask me about my work", one interviewee said. This gives the feel of how people at NDU think. "I am not sure if my boss trusts me; I am not kept informed of what is happening". "My philosophy in life is 'do unto others as you would have them do unto you' and I respect myself and others."

The two main social science traditions which inform the analysis of transcripts of tapes are conversation analysis (CA) (Sacks, 1984) and discourse analysis (DA) (Potter, 1997). Researchers can not rely on recollections of conversation or on memory. "The kind of phenomenon I deal with are always transcriptions of actual occurrences in their actual sequence" (Sacks, 1984, p.25). Thus, qualitative data analysis can become more creative

and intellectual and less immersed in routine. The transcriptions really give a feel of the attitude of people at NDU. The tone of voice is so sincere and the actual text is so spontaneous (See Appendices P & Q).

In Appendix P, employee R speaks about his/her experience at NDU and the differences in leadership styles as he/she has changed posts. He/She is happy to learn that not all people are alike in their behavior and style of interaction. He/She is content in his/her present post for his/her leader is kind, caring and shows genuine concern. Despite all this, R is still seeking more responsibility and trust and the opportunity to prove his/her potentials. From the text, the researcher shows the themes that have been highlighted (See Appendix R). Similarly, Appendix Q shows how employee P is also satisfied with his/her leader qualities and style. He/She says that the unit leader is a good decision maker and never procrastinates and delegates authority, thus, allowing staff members to expose their potential and capabilities. He/She is also motivated by his/her leader's enthusiasm and commitment. However, P stresses that his/her leader is exceptional and if only other leaders at NDU treated their employees similarly, there would be better performance and higher productivity. "My boss is very professional and keeps all office staff informed of activities and events pertaining to our unit. We are always involved in the process and this displays confidence in our work." Employee P goes on to include that the unit leader also shows great concern on a personal level and staff are in a comfortable work environment and this 'makes all the difference'.

Interpretation of Qualitative Data with Comparison and Contrast of Data

The interview was discussed in Chapter Five with an explanation of the schedules that the researcher used (Appendices E & F). As was previously highlighted, both instruments were designed to compliment one another in terms of context and anticipated responses. The questions prepared for the 'leader' and the 'employee' were an extension and elaboration of the items for each of the four scales of the questionnaire with a focus on the four key themes of this thesis: participation, satisfaction, communication and relationship. Similarly, the questions for each of the 'leader' and 'employee' were

parallels to disclose the attitude of each with respect to these issues and in turn, how they act as a continuum within the institution to enhance performance through motivation. Many of the interviewee responses were simply elaborations of the open-ended question at the end of each of the parts in the questionnaire.

The response rate was 83% with 196 out of 236 completing and returning the questionnaire. In reference to Appendix C and degree of participation, Parti 3 (page 3), 151 say they are committed to NDU with statements like, "I work hard and am very committed and loyal to NDU but we would like to see more appreciation and concern from top management." However, the female population at NDU disagrees that they make a difference (Parti 7). Among the various responses, one female said, "I often feel in the dark; I would like to know what is going on in my unit. People should trust each other more." Fifty-two are not sure if they are able to contribute (Parti 6) with, "I know I can do the job and be trusted to make the right decision pertaining to NDU if only I am give the chance." One noteworthy attestation was, "In general, I think that people are satisfied with their leaders but we know not to relate financial reward to the boss but to the administration."

The level of satisfaction (Appendix C, page 4) also showed coherence with interviewee responses. Satisfaction with leadership (Sat 1) showed that 138 agree. The 58 that disagree included females and those persons that hold both academic and administrative posts at NDU. In particular, females feel they do not receive fair monetary compensation with answers like, "It is so apparent that women get lower salaries than men. Why? We are just as capable as they are and we should be judged according to our qualifications. But it is the mentality in Lebanon." One lecturer who also holds an administrative position said, "I feel more competent than my boss. His leadership style holds us back for he is very threatened to delegate authority and let go." With respect to teamspirit (Sat 8), 72 are not sure if it exists at NDU. "Esprit de corps changes with levels of hierarchy. We have an overall problem in Lebanon; as individuals we are great but we don't know how to work in teams."

The researcher has found that the major problem at NDU is lack of communication. People are asking for more opportunity to express their concerns about issues pertaining not only to NDU as an institution but also to themselves. The interview revealed this matter through the questions that were an extension of the measure of communication (Appendix C, page 5) in the questionnaire. There were contradictory answers where 120 agree that their leader communicates openly (Com 6) whereas a high percentage disagreed to being informed of what is happening at NDU. The interview confirmed this with various statements but specifically, "Our Dean is not flexible at all; he is not open to communication and keeps himself in his office. This is causing demotivation among the faculty for they are unaware of what is going on." In particular, 52 are not sure if they are able to voice their opinions (Com 2) with females being the larger percentage. One woman said, "It is a man's world and we are not asked for suggestions although we have quite a lot to say and contribute to NDU. We are loyal; we just need a chance to prove it more."

Furthermore, the quality of leader-employee relationship (Appendix C, page 6) highlighted the exact standpoint of people at NDU. "I want my boss to treat me as a human being. All we ask for is mutual respect." This respondent, who is both an academician and an administrator, was asked to elaborate and commented, "Most bosses think that just because they are the boss, this gives them the right to treat employees badly with no consideration for feelings and integrity." This was complemented when the researcher found that the larger percentage of respondents within this category disagreed to their leaders keeping them satisfied and motivated (Rel 1 & 3), inspiring them (Rel 2), and encouraging teamspirit (Rel 4). It is apparent that there is a clash of authority here where the respondent also holds a managerial post but the supervisor is not allowing for the proper delegation of authority. These persons stress, "Leadership style must be reconsidered for more enhancement." The 134 that agreed to my leader appreciates my input (Rel 9) were mostly staff members but since they are asking for more open communication, the researcher questions the sincerity of the response rate.

Conclusion

The statistical techniques that the researcher used in analyzing the data have been presented in this chapter. Despite the various limitations, there have been positive outcomes. They did not stand as impediments in the way of the results of the study. Educational researchers are interested in knowledge, abilities, aptitudes, motivation or personality characteristics, none of which are directly observable. This is the reason why the creation of specific research instruments is such a difficult task. These instruments must be measurable and include validity, reliability, criterion and standard error of measurement scales.

Validity and reliability came from the pilot study (Chapter Five), the interview, the questionnaire, open-ended questions, as well as involving members of NDU and informed researchers – colleagues of the researcher – (Abouchedid, Kfouri, Busher). These researchers who are colleagues of the researcher rated the applicability of the items of the questionnaire as straight forward, valid and relevant to research in Institutions of Higher Education in Lebanon. Furthermore, the parametric analysis were verified and supplemented with qualitative modes of data collection as interviews, and modes of literature review and will be elaborated in Chapter Seven.

The researcher considered the important aspects of the statistical design to generate the data required to answer the research questions of this study. The instruments were formulated in light of the research design, the research questions addressed and the type of data distribution and this identified the statistical power. The findings as they were presented in this chapter justify the researcher's queries. They also confirm the research questions and assumptions presented at the beginning of this chapter.

In conclusion, the researcher chose those statistical parameters that could operationally measure and observe the data that was collected from NDU, the object of this study. The tests generated results that ensured that stringent assumptions of parametric testing weren't violated. In other words, the findings from NDU may enlighten leaders from those institutions of higher education in Lebanon that follow the American credit-system in English and this was explained in Chapter One. The findings can thus be examples for AUB and LAU; these institutions can benefit from the results of this study. The next chapter will discuss the findings of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The previous chapter presented the findings of the present study and the data sought to answer the research questions established in the study. This chapter discusses the findings resulting from the fieldwork. In particular, the researcher will discuss the findings by reflecting on their implications in light of a wider conceptual framework as drawn from the extant literature presented in Chapters Two, Three, and Four. Moreover, discussion and analysis of the theories and issues that have been presented in the earlier chapters will be exhibited in order to examine the extent to which they converge or diverge with the theoretical assumptions of motivation, leadership styles, participation and communication factors in the making of efficient academic institutions. Each of the four research questions will be a sub-heading of the coming sections where the researcher will discuss and interpret the results and confirm the objectives and assumptions pertinent to each as displayed in Table 15.

The findings reveal certain contradictions; nonetheless, they are minor as compared to the overall agreement. The findings from Chapter Six show an upward trend in job satisfaction and motivation. When interviewed, people explained that even though their salaries were low, they felt a profound loyalty and commitment to NDU and would not compromise the institutional goals. This was confirmed with 151 (77.4%) agreements to *I am committed to NDU;* 122 (65.2%) agreed to *My leader promotes a feeling of loyalty to NDU.* In this perspective, loyalty connotes commitment to a Catholic institution that has been successful over the years in serving the community at large where the university is situated.

231

Table 15

Structure of the Study

Conceptual Framework	Objectives	Assumptions	Research Questions
Chapter Two: Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation	To establish the importance of employee motivation and review what is known about the practice. To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity.	The satisfaction if individual needs is imperative for employee motivation.	How does the satisfaction of employee needs become a motivator that influences performance?
Chapter Three: Leadership and Management	To inform leaders of higher education of the philosophy of participative management and its benefits. To identify the opportunities for and benefits of employee development. To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people.	The implementation of participative management in the workplace will witness productive outcomes for everyone concerned.	What are the effects of leadership styles on employee attitude toward motivation as a result of participation?
Chapter Four: Human Resource Management	To specify an effective and efficient leader-employee relationship. To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer.	Effective and efficient leader-employee relationships are indispensable for enhanced performance and productivity.	How does leader-employee interaction affect motivation and consequently, productivity?
Chapter Two: Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation	To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people. To assess the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer.	Open and constructive communication will allow employees to feel more involved and motivated.	How does open communication influence employee performance?

232

These findings also show awareness among respondents of the treatment that other institutions offer to their staff; hence, they are content with the comfortable work environment and conditions that NDU offers despite the day-to-day ticklish administrative problems that tend to emerge in growing institutions as is the case of Notre Dame University. This finding was further evident in the upward trend of job satisfaction at the university.

The Trend

A visualized upward trend of job satisfaction confirms Higgin's (2000) classical finding which showed that pay increase leads to satisfied employees who are motivated to produce more. However, other employees who didn't get an increase felt more secure in their job. Overall, 78.3% of the 261 respondents of this survey (Ibid.) were satisfied in their current position as compared to 67.1% satisfaction in 1999. The responses ranged from better fringe benefits to more flexible workweeks to more on-site conveniences to adding more responsibilities to that one respondent who wrote, "reduce my salary." At NDU, noone asked for a salary decrease but the responses to open-ended questions also included similar recommendations in addition to requests for employee development seminars.

Respondents documented satisfaction with the overall atmosphere at the University. One hundred and twenty-six respondents (65%) agreed with *The environment at NDU is friendly.* Despite different questionnaire items and measurement scales from a qualitative perspective, this finding concurs with the survey results of HENA (1999) which showed that college and university members were more satisfied with their jobs and institutions in 1998 than they were a decade earlier. These results are based on the responses of 33,785 full-time members at 378 institutions across the USA. Interviewees explained that the overall work conditions are comfortable and leaders tend to be flexible and understanding. Moreover, 138 (72%) of the respondents of this study agree that *I am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit.*

Another outstanding job satisfaction survey (Cohen, 2001) included 779 respondents and generally, they are satisfied with their jobs. This is coherent to the reaction of the participants (196) in this study. There is a direction toward overall satisfaction with corporate culture, job description and leadership style; 125 (67%) agree that *My leader knows that if I am satisfied, my performance is enhanced.* However, the message to management, discussed in Chapter Eight, is in line with the major message relayed through the researcher's analysis of the open-ended questions - communication needs to improve; 35% disagree and others are not sure if *My leader communicates openly.*

It can be surprising to management to know what it is that satisfies and motivates employees as presented in Chapter Two; what motivates them changes constantly (Bowen & Radhakrishna, 1991). Employees are not just another input into the production of goods and services. This is justified by the results of the Hawthorne Studies related to work conditions and the human relations approach to management that were discussed in Chapter Two. To be effective, managers need to understand what motivates employees within the context of the roles they perform. Motivated employees help organizations to survive (Smith, 1994). Motivation has been defined as the psychological process that gives behavior purpose and direction (Kreitner, 1995); a predisposition to behave in a purposive manner to achieve specific, unmet needs (Buford, Bedeian & Lindner, 1995); an internal drive to satisfy an unsatisfied need (Higgins, 1994); and the will to achieve (Bedeian, 1993).

The number of instruments distributed is 233; 196 completed and returned the questionnaires giving a response rate of 83%. There were noteworthy findings from the personal section. For example, 50% of the respondents are aged between 31 and 40; this shows that there is the emergence of younger blood at NDU. This opens the door for more flexibility and innovation. Older people tend to be more fixed in their methods; younger people tend to adapt easier to situations. It was also found that people at NDU hold high degrees: 29% have Master's and 29% were Ph.D. holders. This allows for a more professional atmosphere because of intellect, skill and perseverance acquired through diligent higher educational pursuasion. The researcher did not ask for origin of

degree; however, that could be a topic for future research to determine how the country of study would influence behavior. With respect to gender distribution, 47.7% are males and 52.3% are females; another interesting scope for future research in light of the cultural perspectives in the Middle east.

In this study, motivation is operationally the result of satisfaction that enhances employee performance and organizational productivity. The results of this study are consistent, in many respects, with evidence provided by other large-scale, quantitative and qualitative studies that have been discussed in the review of literature. The following sections will discuss the research questions in light of previous research conducted in the field. It should be clear from the onset that there is no *a priori* assumption to say that findings from Western industrial countries are applicable to third world settings, neither is there any suggestion that findings from third world countries such as Lebanon are not applicable more broadly. It is in the context of this assumption that the research questions of the present study will be analyzed in the light of previous studies documented earlier.

How Does the Satisfaction of Employee Needs become a Motivator That Influences Performance?

The guidelines for this research question were covered in Chapter Two, *Satisfaction: A Prerequisite for Motivation*. There are ten statements related to the satisfaction scale (Appendix C; Page 4). Chapter Five about the methodology displayed the frequency distribution of respondents. There are higher agreements than disagreements. Those who answered 'Not Sure' are either reluctant because of fear or really don't realize the importance of the statement. Seventy-two percent are satisfied and motivated by their leaders; *I am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit* resulted in (χ^2=159.1;df=4;p<0.01). This result agrees with Bomia et al., (1997) who identified that leadership style is an active force that leads to employee motivation and thus, high performance. When leaders at NDU satisfy the drives and desires of their employees, they will witness outstanding productivity and this was elaborated.

All the comments about satisfaction were quite significant. Chi-Square was highest for *I am allowed flexibility with my duties at NDU* with (χ^2=178.3; df=4;p<0.01). This is in harmony with leaders who empower, authorize and enable their workers (Prickard, 1993). This enhances performance for leaders acknowledge individual differences and personal attributes (Griffin, 1996) and realize that this allows people to utilize their full potential. Accordingly, *My needs are taken into consideration* showed high Chi-square (χ^2=112.0;df=4;p<0.01). The open-ended question showed how people at NDU feel at ease with their leaders. They have a feeling of satisfaction because they enjoy their work. The person-job fit (Kristof, 1996; Cardy and Stewart, 1997) shows how this leads to intensive productivity.

Moreover, statistics imply that when the leaders are satisfying the organizational goals and needs, they are instilling an upgraded feeling of commitment among people at NDU. Morale is a delicate issue; 52% agree that their *self-esteem is encouraged* (χ^2=100.0;df=4;p<0.01). The interview responses support this for many said that they experience respect from their leaders and this makes them feel 'Human'. In other words, individualities are recognized (La Barre, 1996) because specific and attainable goals are set, rewards are relevant to performance and they are treated equally and fairly and this is enough to satisfy and motivate them. It is interesting to note that 28% are not sure if their leaders develop their self-esteem; ambiguity can be damaging and decrease productivity. These leaders must acknowledge the people-oriented workplace without overlooking task-orientation.

Motivation can be the result of the satisfaction of individual needs. People at NDU believe that their *needs are being considered*; 114 (59%) agreed to this with (χ^2=112.0;df=4;p<0.01). This is in conjunction with Murray's Individual Needs Theory that observed need deficiencies leading to dissatisfaction. Interestingly, 27% of the respondents doubt that their needs are being considered. The researcher interprets this as a request for clearer demonstration from leaders that people are performing well. In other words, because of the cultural issue (Chapter Three), leadership in Lebanon sometimes imposes a restriction to open expression of appreciation for it may be taken as a weakness. Nonetheless, the researcher has observed that performance has not been

affected. Interviews data affirm that people feel an obligation toward NDU, so no matter what, they will not allow their performance to be hindered, a respondent said to the researcher during an interview, "I have a strong attachment to NDU although I sometimes feel depressed because of certain activities."

Employees at NDU enjoy comfortable work conditions; they display no signs of fear or anxiety. The researcher has noticed strong feelings of belonging, loyalty and commitment to NDU with cohesive work groups and friendly supervision. As alluded to earlier, 65% of respondents agreed that *The environment at NDU is friendly* with (χ^2=134.2;df=4;p<0.01) and the corporate culture (Trice and Beyer, 1993) at NDU enhances their performance and productivity. Although 37% have reservations as to whether *Teamspirit is practiced at NDU*, 46% agree that it is practiced. This consent complies with the two-factor or Motivation-Hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1987). The motivation factors at NDU are related to work content, recognition and the ability to realize full potential. The Hygiene factor is the stress-free work environment. Consequently, there is a direction toward Douglas McGregor's Theory Y (Griffin, 1996); NDU employees seek responsibility, are committed and have the capacities to be innovative. Nevertheless, the 37% who are not sure of 'esprit de corps' at NDU are asking for more effort to make the whole experience a productive and fruitful one for everyone involved.

One interviewee stated, "I could get a better salary elsewhere but I am certain that I could never find a more relaxing and stress-free work environment." This was confirmed with (χ^2=60.3;df=4;p<0.01) for *I receive both monetary and moral compensation for my performance.* Alderfer in Chapter Two identifies Maslow's classical self-esteem and self-actualization needs as growth levels (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998). People at NDU just want to feel respected and want their leader's confidence, recognition and appreciation with the opportunity for self-realization and continuous development; leaders should benefit from and enhance this desire for better productivity at the university.

Maslow's theory (Steers & Porter, 1991) provides some interesting insights into employee motivation. This study confirmed Maslow's hierarchy of needs and its relevance to satisfaction and motivation; however, there is no evidence at NDU that lower level motivational factors must be met before ascending to the next level. For instance, 28% agreed that remuneration was acceptable whereas 33% were 'not sure'. Despite this, 50% agreed that NDU offered a friendly environment and 51% agreed that they *knew exactly what was expected of them* with (χ^2=132.4;df=4;p<0.01). The satisfaction of this need for structure and order made them feel secure. This sense of security in turn led to improved performance at least as reported by respondents since the present study did not employ rigorous measures of productivity.

Moreover, 49% agree they are involved in the decision making process which gives them a feeling of confidence and pride of what they do for they believe their leaders trust them. Consequently, 42% strongly agree that this has increased their commitment to NDU and 46% agree that teamspirit is encouraged at NDU and another 43% agree that they are inspired by the supervision and style of their leaders. As a result of this satisfaction, 42% agree that they are proud of belonging to NDU. Hence, organizations must acknowledge social recognition and job feedback. Accordingly, 57% agree that leaders at NDU appreciate their input and this has motivated them to perform and produce more. Forty-four percent also agree that they have made a difference through their contributions to their specific unit at NDU and this has enhanced their ego. In particular, 43% agree that their self-esteem is supported and encouraged and this has led to organizational development because of a stronger feeling of loyalty to NDU.

Fifty-three percent of the respondents agree that they are given the opportunity to prove themselves and their competencies. Expressing oneself and being heard is yet another source of self-actualization and 50% agree that they are encouraged to express their views which builds a feeling of security and self-fulfillment. When 67% agree that they are allowed flexibility to expose their creativity and talents, they become more aware of the responsibility they carry at NDU. Therefore, they do their utmost to be at the level of expectation; interviews revealed how people wanted to repay their bosses by doing a 'good job'. Supervisors at NDU should nurture and develop this. Based on these results,

it seems that people at NDU are kept motivated to perform in the manner that will result in ultimate productivity for goal achievement pertaining to the mission statement of the university.

The interview questions also revealed viewpoints of both the leader and the employee with respect to satisfaction and motivation. One question that was asked to those interviewees who fell under the category of leader (Appendix E) at NDU was 'How do you motivate your people?' A common elaboration was that their techniques of motivation varied with individual needs. By satisfying the needs of their staff members, whether they were financial or moral, they realized that they would be satisfying them. In addition, their employees would not feel threatened but secure. They noticed that in return their staff worked harder and demonstrated all their capabilities in the office. Leaders were also asked how they enhanced the performance of their people. Training was a means for they witnessed that this developed their skills and challenged their creativity and for most this was their satisfaction pivot.

A third question was relevant to the theme of this study and all the leaders fully agreed with the researcher that satisfaction is a prerequisite for motivation which will in turn enhance performance and productivity. "Only if they are happy will they be productive." However, they comment that it is difficult to satisfy everyone and those who are business oriented spoke about the importance of Maslow's hierarchy of needs that has been confirmed through the findings of this study. At NDU, 71% are highly *appreciative of their leaders' qualifications* with (χ^2=131.8;df=4;p<0.01). Interview responses, discussed above, also reveal this agreement. Those that disagree (12%) believe that NDU, like any other institution practices political activity so it thrives on competition, performance measurement, style of leadership, and motivation (Torrington et al., 1989). Such political mechanisms influence organizational effectiveness and efficiency. In addition, both those that agree and those that are not sure of compensation at NDU confirm Adam's Equity Theory (Kulik & Ambrose, 1992). Only 40% contend that motivation seeks social equity in *the monetary and moral rewards that are received for performance*. There should be a clear-cut policy pertaining to job description and salary scale to rid people of dissatisfaction caused by ambiguity.

The people (Appendix F) were also asked about the manner in which their leaders satisfied their individual personal and professional needs. There were a combination of remarks from respondents but the outstanding comment was that they were involved in the decision-making process and that their opinions were heard. Their bosses furnished a friendly atmosphere and this made them feel comfortable and rid them of any feeling of fear. One particularly interesting response was, "It is enough for me when my boss smiles back at me; I feel satisfied that everything is alright." One interviewee gave very straightforward and authentic responses. That employee said that she was very satisfied despite the fact that she was a senior staff member and her salary was less than other newly recruited members to the office. She explained that it was her boss who motivated her for all her office demands were immediately met without hesitation or procrastination. "My boss is dynamic and an excellent decision maker and has the vision of a true leader; she involves us, asks for our opinions and keeps us well informed about matters related to our office. She does whatever is necessary for the welfare of the office. She also satisfies us on a personal level; we are delegated authority and we are able to take action that will achieve the objectives of the office. We are all inspired by her. We all feel comfortable and thus we do our utmost to produce quality output and to meet the appreciation that we are shown, even though there are other issues that bother us. She has a way of easing our tension and we know there is genuine concern."

The theme question about satisfaction being a prerequisite for motivation to enhance performance and productivity was also questioned. All of the interviewees agreed to this statement. One person said, "This is utopic; people are never 100% satisfied." However, the consensus was that there was a special bond at NDU and everyone knew that NDU was doing all it could under the circumstances, especially the financial. "NDU has always demonstrated good will. At the beginning of this academic year, all were expecting a raise. The President called for a general assembly and explained that the Board of Trustees had called for a salary freeze but they would work out a formula to compensate." Naturally, people were upset because of no increase but the good intentions were clear. They also noted an extremely important point-NDU has never been late in paying monthly salaries. Faculty and staff alike are always paid on time. At present, this is in itself an incentive for the financial crisis that Lebanon is experiencing

has resulted in unemployment and incomes not being paid on time, sometimes even delayed for months at a time.

The descriptive statistics of the K-Independent Kruskal Wallis test for the correlation between the ten items of the satisfaction scale (Appendix C; Page 4) and gender at NDU resulted in a mean ranking of 1.52 with a standard deviation of 0.50 significant at the 0.01 level. That is, on the average, there is no gender discrimination at NDU; however, figures show a higher mean ranking disagreement with four momentous items–Satis 3, 5, 6, and 7. Females at NDU want more flexibility on the job with (χ^2=4.70;df=1;p<0.05) for they feel this will allow them to prove their actual potential and that they can be trusted. The female population is also asking for a friendlier environment with (χ^2=6.63;df=1;p<0.05) and that will open the door for more interaction for they are prone to McGregor's Theory Y employee. Moreover, the women feel that they are strongly wronged and receive much less in monetary (χ^2=2.00;df=1;p<0.05) and moral (χ^2=2.17;df=1;p<0.05) compensation; they want to be acknowledged and appreciated to boost their self-esteem.

Similarly, significant higher mean ranking disagreements also resulted between satisfaction and the post of the respondent. Those who are categorized as academicians are not satisfied or motivated by their leaders with (χ^2=8.28;df=2;p<0.05) and are also asking for more teamwork with (χ^2=5.69;df=2;p<0.05). In particular, these people are faculty and seek more delegation from their chairperson or dean; they also want more communication. In certain faculties at NDU, there is great dissatisfaction with deans for they are rigid, stay behind closed doors and do not allow for performance appraisal and promotion. Interviewees said, "This leadership behavior is absolutely not academic and has demotivated many faculty and promoted a sense of indifference." This is a significant finding to highlight the researcher's aim to stress the positive influence of open channels of communication and how they enhance relations within the organization.

People who hold both an academic and administrative post at NDU believe that they should receive praise for their contributions with (χ^2=2.08;df=2;p<0.05) and this will in itself enhance their performance and encourage them to achieve more. In reference to frequencies recorded in Chapter Five, the respondents that hold a Masters degree are equal to those who have a Ph.D. (n=57, 29.1%). The higher mean disagreements to the satisfaction scale were from Masters status. For instance, they are not satisfied or motivated by their leaders (χ^2=9.79;df=4;p<0.05) and believe their needs are overlooked (χ^2=8.17;df=4;p<0.05). The Ph.D. holders probably feel that they are more qualified than their leaders and they want to be given more opportunity to prove themselves; their self-esteem is not supported with (χ^2=1.09;df=4;p<0.05). Respondents with graduate degrees need to be challenged and thus, leaders must be exceptionally qualified to motivate them and expose their true potential.

In unison with the three needs theory (McClelland, 1969), people at NDU have a strong desire to assume responsibility and be involved in problem solving and decision-making. They seek challenging goals and ask to be evaluated and given feedback (Need for Achievement); they need approval and assurance (Need for Affiliation); they have a desire to influence and exercise control (Need for Power) discussed in Chapter Two. Such facts and correlations are important indicators of satisfaction and the interviewees also highlighted this point by speaking of demotivation among employees because salary scales are not specified. However, they seem to be more at ease concerning this issue since the establishment of the Human Resource Office. In addition, many senior staff are developing their competencies and enhancing their education background by studying for a Master's degree at NDU; the institution encourages this by covering tuition. Internal consistency is persistent with all items of satisfaction loading well on the principal component analysis scale. In brief, although respondents seem to have reservations concerning compensation, monetary or otherwise, they are also flexible and consider circumstances as they arise. An interviewee said, "I don't know why people are always complaining, we should be thankful that at least, we get paid at the end of every month; that is stability." The NDU administration should appreciate this and use it positively.

In general, there was a consensus that the satisfaction of individual needs, whatever they may be, will lead to motivation. One interviewee stated, "Satisfaction is three-fold–academic, moral, monetary –all are prerequisites for motivation." Consequently, research question one has been answered in this section. In addition, the relevant objectives as stated in the table in the introduction can be met. In other words, the researcher has been able to establish the importance of employee motivation and review what is known about the practice. Moreover, this study has explored how to satisfy the needs and wants of people at NDU and show how this satisfaction influences productivity. These findings can be extended to leaders in other institutions of higher education that fall under the same classification as NDU. Furthermore, the pertinent assumption has been justly confirmed. That is, the satisfaction if individual needs is imperative for employee motivation.

What are the Effects of Leadership Styles on Employee Attitude Toward Motivation as a Result of Participation?

The framework for this section is supported by the literature discussed in Chapters Three and Four. The type of leadership style is dependent on a relatively stable set of psychological and behavioral attributes that distinguish one person from another. Whatever the leadership style, it is the technical, human and educational forces that offer the relevant combination required to demonstrate the skills necessary to encourage efficiency and effectiveness. The responses of the questionnaire and the interviews showed that a large majority of NDU personnel believe that democratic leadership is more dominant although they would like to become more involved in decision-making and be delegated authority. Moreover, their leaders encourage participation, but with reservation, in identifying work methods and goals and feedback (Dessler, 1997) are utilized to coach employees.

The eight items of the participation scale (Appendix C; Page 3) generated interesting findings. 136 out of the 196 respondents show that NDU leaders allow their staff to participate in decision-making. That is, 70% agree to *I am involved in decisions related*

to my unit (χ^2=120.1;df=4;p<0.01). Those that disagree are only 15% in addition to 15% being not sure. This can be interpreted as a request for leaders to be more open and flexible in their dealings so people can translate messages precisely. The results of this particular statement identify with the VYJ model (Vroom & Jago, 1988) that determines how much decision-making participation leaders should allow subordinates.

At NDU, people are allowed a high rate of involvement for 50% agree to *I am delegated authority to make decisions that fulfill the goals of NDU* with (χ^2=71.7;df=4;p<0.01); they participate in issues that hold them as stakeholders. This confirms that delegation of authority (Spreitzer et al., 1999) enhances performance and specifically proves that leaders at NDU trust their people and this lays the burden of responsibility on their shoulders. The 27% that are not sure request fine lines of instruction that will grant them flexibility to operate effectively and efficiently and most importantly, to prove themselves. In line with TQM (Honeycutt, 1993), there is a 'soft' people-centered strand at NDU that stresses on empowerment, participation, and open communication to generate commitment to the quality fulfillment of organizational goals; the issue is to develop a structured framework for implementation institution-wide.

With 68% agreement and only 12% disagreement to *My suggestions are taken into consideration* with (χ^2=136.0;df=4;p<0.01); NDU leaders are listening to the concerns of their employees and also permitting them to voice their opinions. This shows conformity with the fact that listening carefully to employees instills a feeling of self-respect (Marchington, 1993) and thus increases output. Such employee involvement shows that information at NDU is exchanged for the welfare of the institution; management decisions are explained and employees are allowed the opportunity to express their concerns or give suggestions. However, whether these are considered and acted upon, may be argued. In agreement is the testimony of staff who say that they are asked for their suggestions but they never are sure if such suggestions are considered.

In addition, when 77% say *I am committed to NDU* (χ^2=62.4;df=4;p<0.01), then there is a strong implication that they must be satisfied. Such a commitment comes from

elevated self-esteem and is justified with 68% saying *I feel that I make a difference in my unit at NDU* with (χ^2=107.4;df=4;p<0.01). This affirms, "without participation, there is no commitment" (Ramsay, 1991). Participative decision-making requires leaders to encourage (Yukl, 1998) and facilitate participation by involving staff. Moreover, 68% also believe that *I am given a chance to prove my competence* with (χ^2=141.3;df=4;p<0.01). Building an organization takes shared commitment, a common language and a workable blueprint (Butler, 1998). Apparently, people at all levels of the hierarchy at NDU (Appendix A) deem this to be true.

My leader decides; I am not involved with (χ^2=34.0;df=4;p<0.01) recorded 51% disagreement and 96 (31%) agreement. Most people at NDU confirm that they are involved in the process and are allowed to participate in the decision making process. This agrees with high involvement (Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Delery & Doty, 1996) that renders high performance. Despite the relatively high disagreement, all the items are significant with (χ^2=158.0;df=4;p<0.01)) for *I am motivated to improve my performance.* By allowing people the opportunity to explore their abilities and enhance those they are unaware of, NDU is motivating people to produce more. This corresponds to the key principles of Investment in People (IiP). IiP (Investors in People, 1994; Caulkin, 1995) is committed to (1) developing people skills, (2) offering quality training and development, (3) taking action to meet the needs of staff, (4) evaluating outcomes to determine the effectiveness of staff to achieve organizational goals. Another discrete recommendation that the researcher passed on was the need for workshops or seminars for self-development.

Functioning in a democratic work environment means that people are content and satisfied with all the idiosyncrasies that their leaders possess. Fifty-five percent agree that they are satisfied and motivated with the leadership of their unit. The democratic leader encourages employees to identify the goals of the organization. *My leader makes sure that I understand the goals of NDU* with (χ^2=136.9;df=4;p<0.01) identified 51% who agreed and this means that their comprehension of NDU goals will result in stronger involvement for the final accomplishment. It also implies that NDU leaders possess effective communication skills. In turn, this will lead to positive feedback for the

enhancement of performance and the development of skills. Furthermore, 51% agreed that their leaders keep them satisfied at work which interprets itself for the management experts (McGregor (1967); Alderfer (1972); Yukl (1998) state that a satisfied person is one who functions effectively and efficiently.

During the interview, both the leader and the people were interrogated about participative management. The people were asked to explain how participative management would be beneficial at NDU. The researcher feels that it may be a coincidence because all the interviewees agreed that their leaders believed in participative management. Those employees are involved in decision-making and their opinions are sought in each of their units. Participative management (Chapter Four) talks about power sharing, empowerment (Connock, 1992), and reciprocal influence processes. Terms that also refer to participative management (Forester, 1999) are consultation, joint decision-making, power sharing, decentralization and democratic management; interviewees referred to these expressions.

The descriptive statistics of the K-Independent Kruskal Wallis test for the correlation between the eight items of the participation scale (Appendix C; Page 3) and gender at NDU resulted in a mean ranking of 1.52 with a standard deviation of 0.50 significant at the 0.01 level. In unison with 'satisfaction', employees at NDU are all granted equal opportunity. Nonetheless, six out of the eight items resulted in higher mean ranking of disagreement by females. For example, the majority of leaders at NDU are males and this may threaten women for they say they are not involved with (χ^2=3.66;df=1;p<0.05) nor are they delegated authority to take initiative with (χ^2=5.28;df=1;p<0.05). With respect to associations pertinent to ranks, academics and administrative personnel scored almost equal means. However, academicians feel they do not make a difference with (χ^2=6.50;df=2;p<0.05). These people are faculty, that is, instructors, and thus have stronger demands for self-satisfaction. Furthermore, diploma holders are asking for chances of self-development to enhance their potentials because presently, they do not feel they contribute or make a difference with (χ^2=7.16;df=4;p<0.05) and they want to prove they are competent with (χ^2=5.86;df=4;p<0.05).

For these staff members, participative management means a strong belief in their skills and capabilities and this brings about self-confidence that increases their commitment to NDU. One person responded by saying, "It is Ok if my opinion isn't used, it may not be the best. At least, I was asked to give my opinion and that's enough to boost my ego." Not all decisions can be joint ones. What is even more important is to open the door for communication (Arredondo, 2000). Similarly, all the interviewees who were leaders expressed their support for the implementation of participative management at NDU for it has had excellent positive impacts and the reliability was confirmed through the homogeneity of variances (Chapter Five). One Chairperson of a department said that participative management always helped to communicate his message. Another said, "Participative management works well on bad days." One particular leader of an office at NDU and a great advocate of participative management explained that it gives employees the opportunity to self-actualize and to develop their potential and satisfaction. "It guarantees the opportunity to formulate realistic views of careers, abilities, interests and options."

Those members of NDU who want to be more involved can interpret this as a loud wake-up call. They are asking not only to have a say in the decision making but also for the practice of more participative management. This will enhance their ego and morale, which will result in greater satisfaction and motivation. The eight items in this part aimed to determine the amount of involvement the respondents felt they had at NDU. Seven out of the eight items scored a Cronbach Alpha above 0.6. In other words, it can be stated that this scale is reliable and clearly reflects the outlooks of the employees at NDU.

With respect to the questions pertaining to the amount of participation that NDU allows employees, there were two critical items. *I am involved in the decisions related to my work unit* (χ^2=120.1;df=4;p<0.01) and *I am motivated to improve my performance* (χ^2= 158.0;df=4;p<0.01). The interviewees supported this but were inquisitive of certain practices at NDU. "I do sense a genuine concern but more dominant is the politics that often plays a negative role." Moreover, the objectives related to this research question have been met. In other words, this study will inform leaders of higher education of the

philosophy of participative management and its benefits; identify the opportunities for and benefits of employee development; and inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people. Furthermore, the assumption, the implementation of participative management in the workplace will witness productive outcomes for everyone concerned is confirmed and feasible.

How Does Leader-Employee Interaction Relate to Motivation and Consequently Productivity?

Organizations need both leadership and management (Clemmer, 1995; Bennis, 2000). Managers must be good leaders; leaders must be able to manage as discussed in Chapter Three. Managers are transactors and leaders are transformers (Burns, 1978). Leadership deals with change, motivation, and influence. Management deals with carrying out the organizational goals and maintaining equilibrium. Nonetheless, people must be motivated to achieve organizational goals and to maintain equilibrium, people must not resist change. Both management and leadership must happen (Bennis & Nanus, 1987) for process and enterprise to be sustained while solutions are provided for the stakeholders. By recognizing the human element (Wren, 1994) in the workplace (Chapter Four), organizations will demonstrate that they are advocates of a democratic atmosphere and will thus motivate and accommodate for employees. The distribution of frequencies discussed in Chapter Five shows that there was an emergence of higher agreements for the nine items pertinent to quality of relationship (Appendix C; Page 6)

My leader knows how to keep me satisfied at work (χ^2=134.6;df=4;p<0.01) showed that 116 (62%) agreed. Leadership is the ability to use power effectively and in a responsible manner (Moon et al., 2001). People at NDU have the same opinion and interviews confirm that most leaders don't abuse their authority despite the micropolitics. "It is unbelievable the amount of politics that can take place in an educational institution; NDU is no exception. This causes much tension among staff." Only 107 (57%) agree that *my leader inspires me to follow his/her model* (χ^2=79.9;df=4;p<0.01). When leaders implement a full understanding of how to motivate and inspire people (Richards &

Engle, 1986), they are furnishing a conducive climate for people to display positive attitude. The 18% that disagree demand that leaders acquire more of the charismatic and transformational style. For extreme influence, an influential leader should be transformational (Winston, 1995) and charismatic (Fiol et al., 1999).

All the items are highly significant with *My leader appreciates my input* scoring the highest with (χ^2=175.2;df=4;p<0.01). NDU leaders acknowledge performance and give praise where necessary as many interviewees expressed, "It is refreshing to know that people actually see your efforts." NDU experiences transformational leadership that produces employee performance that is effective (Tepper, 1994). Fifty-seven percent say *My leader keeps me motivated at work* (χ^2=96.3;df=4;p<0.01) and those 24% not sure if they are being motivated by their leaders seem not to be aware of the qualities of leadership. These leaders transcend self-interest for that of NDU and have a profound effect on people. They develop commitment with and in followers, focus on a common purpose and increase morale and motivation.

Accordingly, it is not surprising if 118 (62%) say *My leader encourages team spirit* with (χ^2=94.5;df=4;p<0.01) at NDU. Educative leadership fosters collaborative operations (Jones, 2000), and envisages shared values, beliefs and collegiality (Busher & Saran, 1995; Telford, 1996). Only 18% disagree with this statement and consequently, both leaders and people must be conditioned to teamwork. Moreover, in agreement with Atkinson (1997), people at NDU believe their leaders possess the skills, knowledge, attitude and behavior to lead at the top, at all levels and from within. The leaders at NDU are also charismatic for they show the qualities with 65% stating *My leader promotes a feeling of loyalty to NDU* with (χ^2=119.2;df=4;p<0.01). This agrees with the specification of charismatic traits (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) such as self-confidence, future vision, articulate vision, strong commitment to vision (Porter, 1985) and extraordinary behavior.

The outcomes of the relationship scale show reliability and resulted in a normally distributed curve, discussed in Chapter Five. The dominating leadership style at NDU is

the democratic for employees say that they are involved in decision making, delegated authority and participation is encouraged. However, the 22% that are not sure of the leadership style and qualities may be fixed in their ways and need to be more flexible. Across Faculties and Departments, no one style can be implemented. The contingency or situational theory (Fred Fiedler, 1967) states that the solution is contingent on the factors that govern the situation at hand. Performance is effective depending on the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader. This supports why 59% say *My leader allows me to participate in decision-making because the decisions will ultimately affect me* with (χ^2=115.1;df=4;p<0.01).

The highlight of this study is relevant to *My leader knows that if I am satisfied, my performance is enhanced* with (χ^2=145.1;df=4;p<0.01). One hundred and twenty-five (67%) find this statement agreeable and the 20% who are not sure are requesting that leaders become more aware of the needs of people. NDU tries to balance the 'concern for people' with the 'concern for productivity' in relation to the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1984). This is achieved by integrating both to enhance performance. Productivity is great because employee performance is recognized. At NDU, transformational and charismatic leadership are integrated (House & Shamir, 1993; Den Hartog, 1999; De Vries et al., 1999; Schyns, 2001) to achieve ultimate goals. Value-added leadership (Sergiovanni, 1990) speaks about the three E's-Empowerment, Enoblement, and Enhancement. The people at NDU want leadership that will direct them and acknowledge their performance for "without fellowship, there can be no leadership" (Sergiovanni, 1992, p.85). Hence, 72% believe *My leader appreciates my input* with (χ^2=175.2;df=4;p<0.01).

People at NDU feel that their relationships are effective and that interaction is functionable and feasible. Item seven *My leader allows me to participate in decision-making because the decisions will ultimately affect me* has the lowest of the 0.8 sequence with an alpha of 0.80 as shown in Chapter Five. Although this is a high correlation, the people at NDU are asking for even a higher degree of involvement. They are aware of the fact that they are the stakeholders (Ramsay, 1991); they want their leaders to realize this. With a valid percentage of 47.9 agreeing to this statement, the members of NDU

stress the fact that negative decisions will promote dissatisfaction for they are ultimately affected. In turn, dissatisfaction generates a sense of non-loyalty that decreases motivation and consequently productivity.

The descriptive statistics of the K-Independent Kruskal Wallis test for the correlation between the nine items of the relationship scale (Appendix C; Page 6) and gender at NDU resulted in an almost equal mean ranking between males and females. However, a noteworthy difference was with males ranking higher disagreement on *my leader inspires me* with (χ^2=2.98;df=1;p<0.05) and *my leader keeps me satisfied* with (χ^2=2.92;df=1;p<0.05). This is a cultural issue about male mentality and attitude in the Middle East as discussed in Chapter Three. With respect to post, a meaningful insight is the higher disagreement of academicians to being inspired by their leaders with (χ^2=13.84;df=2;p<0.05). In other words, faculty feel that they may be more qualified than their direct supervisors. Furthermore, it is also Ph.D. holders who say that their leader does not inspire them with (χ^2=12.89;df=4;p<0.05).

When the interviewees were asked about modes of interaction and their consequences, they spoke about different levels of interaction. They emphasized the humane aspect (Keen, 1993) where they want their leaders to simply treat them as 'human beings' despite their label as employee, staff, or subordinate. One person discussed the concept of intellectual interaction. "I feel very satisfied and motivated when my boss just says 'well done' and I know that my boss will always discuss issues related to the office with me. My boss knows that I'm well-informed and I am able to contribute at the level of the issue at hand."

People at NDU request greater satisfaction to be motivated and they are adamant that healthy and flexible interaction between them and their leaders will pilot satisfaction and contentment at work. In other words, the better the relationship between leader and employee, the more satisfied employees are and thus productivity will improve. The responses to leader-employee relations have contributed to the accomplishments of this study's objectives. That is, they have specified an effective and efficient leader-

employee relationship; explored how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity; and assessed the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer. Consequently, the assumption that effective and efficient leader-employee relationships are indispensable for enhanced performance and productivity is justified.

How Does Open Communication Influence Employee Performance?

Communication as presented in Chapter Two facilitates and increases motivation (Steers & Porter, 1991). The more varied the language tools, the greater the likelihood that a manager will influence employee motivation (Sullivan, 1988). In other words, what a manger says to an employee will affect that employee's motivation. One noteworthy item is *My leader makes sure that I understand the goals of NDU* with (χ^2=136.9;df=4;p<0.01); this stresses the importance and recognition of communication at all levels of the institution. The researcher appreciates the importance of communication for satisfaction and motivation and that's why the seven statements of this part aimed at revealing just how well the leaders at NDU communicated with their staff members.

The importance of communication can be witnessed when people are satisfied with their work environment and accordingly 94% of respondents (48.5%) agree that they are always kept abreast of what is happening at NDU. However, the 29.4% that are not sure ascertain that the channels of communication at NDU must be improved. This is confirmed by communication either facilitating motivation or interfering with it (Arredondo, 2000). Similarly, speech acts reduce employee uncertainty (Sullivan, 1988) and increase employee knowledge. Fifty-seven of the NDU respondents (29%) are requesting that there be more open lines of communication between them and their leaders. They also want to express their concerns and they surely have some interesting ideas that they would like to be heard and all of this is for the welfare of NDU so that goals will be achieved more effectively and efficiently.

I am given the opportunity to express my concerns about NDU with (χ^2=104.8;df=4;p<0.01) showed that 50% agree. There is a tendency to believe that channels of communication at NDU are open to confirm the importance of the communication process (Thoreau, 2001). The comments that were given in the open-ended question strictly emphasized this point. Moreover, the interview responses resulted in quite spontaneous remarks as "...just because we are employees doesn't mean that we don't have good ideas that would benefit the institution; we just want someone to listen." *My leader makes sure that I understand the goals of NDU* with (χ^2=136.9;df=4;p<0.01), is an example of communication facilitating the motivational process especially if 114(60%) agree. When the goals are articulated in a fashion that will close all doors to ambiguity (Robbins & DeCenzo, 1998), then people feel that they are capable of accomplishing. At NDU, most leaders supply employees with the information needed to perform. Thus, productivity is high. Interviews suggest that people at NDU are comfortable with the communication process.

.The results of *I am encouraged to express my ideas* with (χ^2=129.2;df=4;p<0.01) are in accordance with Sullivan (1988) who spoke about motivational language. In other words, what the 'boss' says to employees will give incentive. One interviewee said that it was enough for his boss to give him a pat on the back and this reassured him that he was performing well. With this reassurance came the courage to speak about ideas and suggestions for NDU based on experience. Even though *My leader listens to issues other than about NDU* with (χ^2=91.7;df=4;p<0.01) had an agreement of 55%, in any communication process, there is always noise that which interferes with the transmission for personal or other reasons (Thoreau, 2001). NDU is no exception.

Such distortion influences interaction and thus performance as triggered by personal behavior. The researcher has witnessed many forms of noise and all for selfish reasons, particularly those of power. Consequently, the 25.5% that would like their leaders to listen to them and just hear what they have to say about NDU or any other issue are simply asking that their leaders evaluate them for their performance and not to be influenced and take action without justification. Unfortunately, many employees are not

productive because they have nothing to do. The nature of their job is in itself demotivating. Thus, the researcher comes back to the cruciality of the person-job fit (Chapter Two) as a means of satisfaction and enhancement.

The descriptive statistics of the K-Independent Kruskal Wallis test for the correlation between the seven items of the communication scale (Appendix C; Page 5) showed a significant higher mean ranking of female disagreement to being allowed to express concerns about NDU with (χ^2=9.06;df=1;p<0.05) and give personal suggestions with (χ^2=1.62;df=1;p<0.05). The results are almost distributed equally among the academic and administrative ranks at NDU; a critical point is staff not given the opportunity to express concerns about NDU with (χ^2=1.71;df=2;p<0.05). Actually, it is the staff who do the every-day activities so they can contribute constructively for enhanced productivity. At the communication level, those who have no degrees feel that their bosses do not listen to them with (χ^2=8.39;df=4;p<0.05). This inferiority/superiority complex is another result of culture and attitude (Chapter Three).

A high percentage (63%) of NDU respondents agree that their leaders communicate openly with them. The recognition of the importance of developing leaders' interpersonal skills (Meicester, 1996) is related to getting and keeping high performing people who are satisfied and thus attain the organizational goals. The interview responses also confirmed that leaders at NDU are open with their lines of communication and especially among their staff, nonetheless, more flexibility and openness is requested. This openness enhances performance because of the trust factor on condition that it is not abused. The 117 (61%) who agree that NDU leaders tell them what is expected of them surely are able to perform and produce well. This rids them of uncertainties and reluctance on the job. The researcher is adamant on implementing this specific statement for it is only through careful directions that employees will know what to do when they are delegated authority. Thereafter, people can be held accountable, can be evaluated and feedback is given. The researcher believes that praise can be given whether it is deserved or not; the degree and tone will vary.

At NDU, the general practice is to encourage communication and this is clearly witnessed at top management level starting from the President; the 'open-door policy' is implemented. Dissatisfied employees are not afraid of approaching anyone in the hierarchy. The researcher observed a particular incident in February, 2002 and was actively involved in the interrogation process for it was directly related to another office at NDU which the researcher was the Acting Director of during the last year of this study. A frustrated employee from a Faculty approached the Vice-President to testify to inappropriate and unethical academic behavior within that faculty. The staff member had a meeting with the President and disclosed all the details. The employee was assured that there was no reason to feel threatened in any way for he/she expressed a concern of what the consequences would be if the source of the information were known. A full-scale investigation was conducted and the issue was resolved in the proper manner. The employees that were involved in uncovering the incident demonstrated strong commitment and loyalty to NDU and became even more motivated to contribute to their unit and to ensure that the performance and productivity of other faculty or staff wouldn't be affected. The positive reaction of employees is due to the comprehension of top management and their full support.

The interviews also publicized the significance of communication. The people were asked 'How does your leader communicate with you?' There was a consensus that communication does definitely enhance productivity. Leaders at NDU have different outlooks towards the type of communication that should be practiced. However, whether formal or informal, the impact of communication on a person's interaction skills is not to be overlooked. "He listens to me and shows concern about issues not only about NDU but also about personal issues." In other words, this interviewee is emphasizing that this leader shows genuine consideration and takes the time to listen to any problems the employee has, whether they are work-related or personal. Another employee explained that her leader encouraged them to come and talk to her about anything at any time, even if it was that they were unhappy with their boss. That is, the leader is encouraging people to come and talk to him/her at any time; this is a display of concern. This would decrease gossip among employees and demotivation among offices. As for the leaders, they were asked how they communicated with their people. They all agreed on the

importance of open communication and its feedback for employees and NDU. There is constant follow-up whether it was a formal memo or an informal internal call. One leader said he preferred to call his faculty after hours for lengthy conversations for the offices are just so busy during office hours.

Although the overall lines of communication are open at NDU, there are people that are dissatisfied. They would prefer to have more open channels of communication. The belief is that if people are kept informed and abreast of what is happening at NDU, they feel more involved and this involvement is a source of motivation for them. Moreover, the interviews exposed a great demand for communication. The seven items of the communication scale all showed a Chi-Square significant at the 0.01 level. In particular, *My leader communicates openly* is noteworthy with (χ^2=91.4;df=4;p<0.01). The lines of communication are a highlight at NDU. *I am given the opportunity to express my concerns about NDU* resulted in a Chi-square of (χ^2=104.8;df=4;p<0.01) and *My leader makes sure that I understand the goals of NDU* gave (χ^2=136.9;df=4;p<0.01). Both the questionnaire and the interviews revealed how eager people were for enhanced communication at all levels of the echelon at NDU. The open-ended question of the questionnaire was distinguished with a recommendation for more and more meetings and dialogue. Moreover, the nine items of the leader-employee relationship scale are all significant at the 0.01 level. The conspicuous items are *My supervisor knows how to keep me satisfied* (χ^2=134.6;df=4;p<0.01) *and motivated* (χ^2=96.3;df=4;p<0.01) *at work* and *My supervisor knows that if I am satisfied, my performance is enhanced* with (χ^2= 145.1;df=4;p<0.01).

The developments that have taken place at NDU during the course of this study were explained in Chapter Six, specifically the establishment of a third campus at Shouf, Deir El-Kamar. An observation worth noting here is the recruitment of an employee in April, 2002 who was given a faculty status and privileges just because he/she was to be at the Shouf campus. This became public knowledge to the staff members of the same unit at main campus. It caused much commotion and demotivation for he/she was a new comer and was getting a higher salary and more fringe benefits than the person at main campus that was to train him. The researcher intervened and spoke to the dissatisfied employee

and called for a meeting with the Human Resources Manager. Because of seniority, this employee felt cheated and he/she knows that he/she is qualified and that he/she is doing a good job. Open communication was helpful in discussing the issue and explaining that at the off-campus programs there are always exceptions that may seem unfair. His/Her file was revised upon the recommendation of his/her supervisor and there was a re-evaluation and an increase and promotion for the academic year 2002-2003. This lifted some of the frustration that was demotivating him/her. Nevertheless, the researcher insists on stating that this employee's productivity and performance was not at all affected by his/her demotivation; credit must be given where it is due.

Furthermore, communication emerges as a dominant theme in this survey for it is crucial for effective interaction. Educational leaders need good listening skills that influence motivation through the sharing of information and promoting a corporate culture that welcomes open communication and articulation of organizational vision and goals. People at NDU stress constructive communication as a means to enhance interface that translates itself as the accomplishment of organizational goals and the implementation of utilitarianism. Thus, the researcher feels that the objectives pertinent to this research question in this section about the impact of communication have been emphasized. That is, the study informs leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people by assessing the potential that open communication and increased flexibility offer. The assumption that open and constructive communication will allow employees to feel more involved and motivated has been confirmed through the data and interview analysis.

The Complexities of Satisfaction and Motivation

Any person responsible for the supervision of others who are engaged in work should be aware that some people are participating more out of interest than others are. For some, satisfaction is achieved by the way their performance leads to rewards like pay or status whereas others simply find satisfaction in just doing the work load (Locke, 1976; Katzell

et. al., 1992). In general, there is a mixture of motives for which a range of different incentives is relevant. The balance of intrinsic and extrinsic sources of satisfaction varies from one person to another and is contingent upon different situations. To a certain extent, leaders at NDU were aware of how motivation affects performance and work satisfaction. Nonetheless, the complexities lie in how these different types of motivation and their relevant rewards affect behavior.

The behavior of NDU employees has been demonstrated and exposed in accordance to the feedback from qualitative and quantitative data. One of the most subtle and demanding complexities is related to extrinsic reward given for performance. In reference to the Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964; Griffin, 1996), many employees are dissatisfied with their salaries for they feel that the output is not equivalent to the input. Evidence from the data analysis shows that NDU must give careful attention to these complexities in addition to any inconsistencies that are predominant. That is, people are asking for more fairness in salary distribution in accordance to the evaluation of their job description. Moreover, people at NDU are asking for freedom to make choices, to gather and process information and consequently, they will have an appreciation of creativity that leads to effectiveness and efficiency.

Furthermore, it is not only the lack of communication that is causing uneasiness at NDU but also the many emergent themes (See Appendix R) that the interview triggered. However, the researcher must note here that the dominant theme of both the interview and the open-ended question was the communication barrier. There is no one right method or answer. The issues of trust, teamwork, interaction, delegation, etc. can only be treated in manners relevant to the actual situation as the Contingency Theory explains.

Overall Discussion

The overall impression of the research results can be summarized by saying that there are certain needs or motivators that influence performance at NDU. An effective leadership style – democratic, cooperative, educative, transformative, participative, and charismatic – motivates people at NDU. People at NDU want to be recognized by their leaders and their colleagues. They also want to be involved in decision-making and to have on-going opportunities to partake in professional development. Being part of an effective structure that maintains both high educational and administrative standards is another motivator. They want a practical system with a qualified leader who is capable of articulating a vision for the future, communicating goals, setting and implementing sound policies and obtaining resources that will ensure excellence for NDU at all levels of the hierarchy-from the President to Vice-Presidents to Directors to Deans to Chairpersons to Faculty to Staff and ultimately to Students.

There are four main motivational tasks (Turney et al., 1992, p.221)–to encourage involvement; to enhance conditions; to support individuals and groups; to foster climate and morale. The qualitative and quantitative data support this assessment. The positive findings have been discussed thus far; however not everything is perfect at NDU. There are people who are dissatisfied but not everyone will come straight out and say things. Many leaders are unable to give their staff effective praise because of communication difficulties and because of the lack of qualifications, they are unable to motivate and enhance their staffs' professional development. Consequently, frustration prevails and many people at NDU have lost faith not only in their leaders but also in NDU. In reference to the person-job fit discussed in Chapter Two, there are unqualified and inexperienced people in leadership positions at NDU. Thus, many rely on their staff to assist them in their role and this has opened the door to manipulation. Leaders must educate themselves to know how NDU must operate as an institution of higher education.

Collectively, people at NDU desire strong leaders who are educative, supportive and offer feedback. The crucial point is that people have firm expectations from their leaders. NDU should have a unique set of workplace conditions that can directly or indirectly influence the level of motivation. The key to a quality institution is the amount and kind of leadership that is provided at NDU. Leadership style makes the difference between mediocrity and excellence (Ubben & Hughes, 1987). Leaders also need to recognize peoples' potential worth and their contribution to the organization. If the leaders at NDU demonstrate collegial relationships, then people will perceive them as professional mentors (Roy, 1995). In brief, motivation increases when conditions create an atmosphere where people feel self-fulfilled and professionally empowered.

An appreciable number of people at NDU spoke about the lack of recognition for their extra work efforts and how this affects their motivation to do more. Recognition is one of the most valuable tools an administrator can use to bolster self-esteem. One of the interviewees said earlier that she's happy when her boss smiles back. On a negative note, many commented that a simple, but genuine, 'thank you' would suffice at times. "The more frequently people receive praise, interesting responsibilities, growth opportunities and chances for advancement as results of excellent performance, the more likely they will be to perceive their good output as instrumental in attaining these desirable indirect outcomes (Silver, 1982, p.553)."

There are negative feelings at NDU although people refrain from spelling things out; the message has been relayed indirectly through observations by the researcher. Such feelings are those of jealousy, power hungry attitudes, and negative gossip groups. This is why leaders at NDU need to be all the more supportive of their people to release their stress and to articulate their needs. Only when people are able to free themselves from stress and such negative feelings, can they be creative and innovative, receptive to change and able to recognize opportunities that will lead to further enhancing motivation. Thus, the burden is greater to develop interaction and create a positive environment. "If the leader-employee relationship can be characterized as helpful, supportive, trusting, and revealing of craft knowledge, so too will others. To the extent that leader-employee interactions are suspicious, guarded, distant, adversarial, acrimonious, or judgmental, we

are likely to see these traits dominate the institution. The relationship between people and leaders seems to have an extraordinary amplifying effect. It models what all relations will be (Barth as cited in Fullan, 1991, p.168)."

Educational leadership (Chapter Three) is another crucial point of order at NDU. There were requests for a working environment and a collegial atmosphere with a sense of purpose and direction to increase the levels of motivation. Teamwork provides a means for reducing isolation, sharing teaching tips and offering instructional strategies as well as an opportunity for teachers to learn from one another. Motivation is affected by the sharing of information. Goals should be articulated in such a way that a feeling of security is offered. The rapid changes in education undermine feelings of security and this can only be overcome by positive and constructive communication in both directions. The most important point that has emerged from the findings is the need for effective leadership (Chapter Three). It can promote a sense of security amid change by articulating NDU's mission and goals, providing people with the means to create new circumstances, supporting the ideas, proposals and strategies developed by staff and helping them to overcome the problems and challenges involved in any change process.

Finally, the factors that affect motivation are the satisfaction of individual needs, leadership style and communication. These are all important channels and means by which motivation can be improved in an educational setting. All these factors allow motivation to operate effectively and to contribute to the overall performance of people. This chapter has discussed the findings of the study by associating them to the review of literature and interpreting the standpoint of the relevant people at NDU. The researcher has attempted to answer the research questions, explain the objectives and confirm the assumptions; hopefully, the reader will agree. The next chapter will give an overall summary and conclusion of this study, offer suggestions and propose recommendations for future research that has emerged from the base of this survey.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY and CONCLUSIONS

Overall Summary

The purpose of this study has been to determine the extent to which satisfaction is a prerequisite for motivation to enhance performance and productivity in institutions of higher education. For effective and efficient performance and enhanced productivity, administrators, faculty, staff and students need to work in institutions that allow them to reach their full potential. If Notre Dame University is to meet the increasing challenges of the contemporary learning environment, then there should be more interaction, involvement and communication between leaders and their people.

NDU is keen on keeping up with changes and there are many impacts as a result of both internal and external changes. Among the numerous corrective measures that have been taken, discussed throughout this study, the establishment of the Human Resources Office is a very significant example of a dynamic reciprocal obligation to create positive relations within the NDU community. It is crucial that administrators, faculty and staff understand each other's role, and recognize that although their roles may be different, all are of extreme value to NDU. The development of methods to better communicate the crucial role that all play in supporting NDU's administrative, academic and research endeavors is the key to the enhancement of productivity.

Limitations

The scope of any study is defined by the area within the limits of the investigation and identifies a space for action and thought. This study has identified factors that motivate people in institutions of higher education within the scope of Notre Dame University as a case study. There were certain limitations that the researcher anticipated; however, there are other restrictions that emerged during the course of the study:

1. NDU is governed by the Maronite Order of the Holy Virgin Mary. The term of President is three years. This study has had two Presidents. These changes have promoted a feeling of insecurity in compliance with micropolitics.

2. Insecurity may cause respondents to present the researcher with inaccurate information or they may just say what they want the researcher to hear.

3. The respondents will be employees at all echelons; there may be a language barrier since research instruments are all in English; however, translations were made.

4. Even though it's an educational institution, NDU still experiences nepotism and the "protégé" syndrome.

5. Respondents may be hesitant to reply to specific questions for they may feel threatened.

6. There may be the "Leader Complex"; since all echelons will be respondents, they may feel they don't want to report to anyone.

7. The various changes that have taken place at NDU from the commencement of this study and during the course have resulted in individuals feeling uncomfortable when asked to talk about their work conditions.

8. At commencement, there were two campuses of NDU. During the course of the study, a third campus was established.

9. This investigation is conducted by an 'inside researcher'. During the course of this study, the researcher, in addition to her position as Director of Admissions was also Acting Director of the Office of Tests, Measurements and Evaluation.

Research Objectives Met

The actual instruments used have offered the researcher valuable data to analyze and assist in recommendations and suggestions for a healthier and more professionally academic environment at NDU. The objectives were declared in Chapter One (Table 1). The researcher will highlight how each has been accomplished at the end of this study and what has been discovered.

The first objective, although they were stated in no particular order was *To establish the importance of employee motivation and review what is known about the practice.* As part of the title of this dissertation, employee motivation has continuously been referred to and elaborated upon during the course of this study. In particular, Chapter Two reviewed the specifics and importance of motivation and presented it to the reader. To be precise, the common denominators (Steers and Porter, 1991) that characterize the phenomenon of motivation have been discussed and they are: (1) what energizes human behavior; (2) what directs or channels such behavior; and (3) how this behavior is maintained or sustained. Employee motivation is the backbone of an enhanced work environment. If people are enthusiastic about their duties and know that whatever they contribute will be acknowledged, then they apply themselves fully. This, in turn, is how the organization benefits and witnesses improved productivity and performance.

To inform leaders of higher education of the philosophy of participative management and its benefits was the second objective. Participative management has been presented as a framework within which to develop staff (Chapter Four). The questionnaires and interviews stressed the influence of this type of power sharing. Subordinates are the stakeholders so involving them in decision-making process is a necessary part of the

political process of getting them approved and implemented (Yukl, 1998). In addition, the study has revealed that managers who motivate, empower and encourage employees will obtain quality productivity and commitment (Bennett, 1990). Although the researcher believes in participative management and its positive effects, she found that many persons at NDU are still prone to exercising the traditional mentality. It will take much effort to educate people and stress that change in direction and attitude can be fruitful for everyone involved.

Another objective was *To specify an effective and efficient leader-employee relationship* and this was elaborated in Chapter Four as Human Resource Management. This emphasizes the need to consider the people aspects of the management job (Dessler, 1997). People have the right to considerate treatment at work and they will be effective in as much as their personal career and competence needs are satisfied within a context of efficient management and a mutually respectful working relationship (Torrington & Hall, 1998). Interpersonal skills should be flexible and impressive to achieve desired results. Both leaders and employees at NDU displayed a comprehension of this. However, there are certain individuals who disturb the system with their superiority complex and this causes problems. It is a two-way street and results will only be extreme when all levels of the hierarchy are able to communicate and interact in a productive fashion.

Satisfaction–the key term in this study-was covered in Chapter Three and the fourth objective was *To explore how to satisfy the needs and wants of people in institutions of higher education and show how this satisfaction influences productivity.* This was met by highlighting the importance of satisfying the needs of people and this leads to enhanced performance and motivation as the findings (Chapter Six) show. For example, collegiality emphasizes participative systems that exaggerate conformity based on human relationships (Hargreaves, 1994). Such intervention through the educational system constructs new method of satisfaction and motivation among employees (Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990). The researcher clearly saw that people at NDU have the basic needs and once these are met, they give without limit. The overall productivity is enhanced. All people actually want is to be content that equality in all its aspects is being practiced.

To access the potential that increased flexibility has to offer was explained and discussed with attestations given by interviewees. Observation also played a crucial role in exposing the results of a flexible leadership style. Chapter Three spoke about both leadership and management as processes that can influence behavior without relying on force (Manfred, 1994). Moreover, the utilization of noncoercive influence shapes goals, motivates behavior toward the achievement of those goals, and defines culture (Yukl, 1995). Suppleness shapes a smooth work place. People should not feel afraid and yet they should also know their limits. For effectiveness, we can not go to extremes. The researcher noticed that in many units there is limitless flexibility to the extent that employees are taking advantage of the lenient manager. This can be harmful and people must be reminded of their confines.

The sixth objective was *To identify the opportunities for and benefits of employee development.* People at NDU are seeking more responsibility and involvement as various comments expressed. They are asking for seminars and workshops and any opportunity for self-development for the benefit of the institution. By encouraging and supporting employees to improve the quality of their work lives and giving them the opportunity for self-growth, organizations are contributing to the enhancement of performance (Russel, 1991). Furthermore, commitment is described as loyalty and support for the organization, strength of identification with the organization, and a belief in its values and goals with a readiness to contribute (Porter, 1985). The researcher appreciates that the administration of NDU supports employee development and during the course of this study (2003), a Staff Quality Management Office was established. Accordingly, the final objective *To inform leaders in institutions of higher education how to promote loyalty, trust and commitment in people* was met. Top management at NDU is aware of the delicacy of dealing with people for the welfare of the institution although one might argue the implementation.

Answering the Research Questions

Table One in the first chapter displays the relationship between the research questions and the objectives of this study. Table Seven in Chapter Six shows the framework of the study and how the assumptions also interact with the overall structure. There were four research questions for this study and the researcher can summarize the findings to answer each:

1. How does the satisfaction of employee needs become a motivator that influences performance? *By keeping employees content, leadership ensures that people will take initiatives in the work place and this involvement and trust leads to motivated individuals who display increased* productivity.

2. What are the effects of leadership styles on employee attitude toward motivation as a result of participation? *The attitude of the leader reflects on the attitude of the employee. The researcher explained that there are dissatisfied people at NDU; however, they continue to be productive because of their leader's encouragement and support. It is vital that people know that we care and trust them to make the right decision.*

3. How does leader-employee interaction affect motivation and consequently, productivity? *If there is no harmony in the relationship, NDU will be the scapegoat.*

4. How does open communication influence employee performance? *It can be so easy to talk to people. Yet, there are people who lack the art of communication. They are inarticulate; this can be damaging. Employees at NDU want to be kept abreast of what is happening and this will enhance their performance.*

The data analysis in Chapter Six clearly shows that the leaders play an important role in determining the motivational pivot of the people at NDU. Administrators should act as role models for the faculty and staff who are in turn to be role models for the students at NDU. That is, treating individuals with respect and understanding proves very effective and gives genuine results. Thus, satisfaction and motivation work all the way down the pyramid to produce quality output. As leaders increase their levels of support, people's satisfaction and motivation levels increase. These implications are supported by the

Literature Review (Chapters Two, Three, and Four) and the findings (Chapter Six) that suggest when the participative style of leadership is utilized, the attitudes, commitment and motivation of people improve.

Crucial to the quality of the performance of NDU is the ability of its leaders to motivate people to make continuing contributions. From the people's perspective, efforts by leaders to encourage professional effectiveness, self-motivation, commitment, challenge seeking and self-actualization are viewed as essential extrinsic motivators. Leaders can enhance motivation when they are well educated with a strong sense of leadership and a clear vision for the future of NDU. The effectiveness of increasing motivation is also enhanced when the leaders show genuine concern for their people, share work goals, praise and encourage them, and provide timely and appropriate feedback on goals.

Maslow's needs theory, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, Vroom's expectancy theory and others (Chapter Two) remain the most cited theories that take a psychological approach to job satisfaction. Collectively, they offer an expansive understanding of employee motivation at NDU. Similarly, the findings of this study also reveal the basis for enhancing motivation within people at NDU. Consequently, the application of a plethora of approaches would be feasible and relevant. This conclusion supports the research question about how the satisfaction of people leads to motivation. In other words, people at NDU are satisfied with leadership characteristics, work environment and teamspirit and this has motivated them to fulfill NDU goals.

Another conclusion of the research is that there is a need for adequately educated leaders with a clear vision to direct people at NDU on a prosperous journey. This reinforces the research question about the leadership styles and how indispensable it is for motivating people. That is, people at NDU appreciate the attributes of their leaders discussed in the previous chapter. They allow them to participate in decision making. They inspire their people, encourage teamwork, and promote a feeling of loyalty to NDU. Most importantly, leaders are fully aware that if they satisfy the needs of their people, this in turn will enhance performance.

Moreover, the study asserts that there is a thirst for leader-employee interaction that will lead to more involvement and participation on the part of the employees. The demonstration of a collegial relationship is inspiring to people and boosts their morale and self-esteem. When this is the case, motivation pushes itself to the forefront. Thus, research question three is justified and found to be a highlight at NDU. Furthermore, the research question about open communication being an incentive for satisfaction and motivation is affirmed. The people at NDU want to know that they are in unison with their leaders to fulfill the objectives through an awareness of the goals and a shared vision. The common vision is translated in the mission statement that all should feel concerned with. Not everyone believes that there is as much communication as there should be to enhance productivity. Excluding people from information and knowledge that they should be alert of will only result in frustration that will ultimately affect performance.

The researcher concludes that opportunity, leadership, work standards, fair rewards and adequate authority influence job satisfaction at NDU. There are people who are satisfied and motivated and those who are demotivated. Yet, there are those who are dissatisfied and nonetheless, they are productive and committed to NDU. This could be because these people, despite the circumstances, care about the quality of the work they produce at NDU. Those employees with higher job satisfaction believe that NDU will be satisfying in the long run and are more committed to NDU.

Consequently, the following assumptions shown in Table 15 in Chapter Seven are confirmed:

1. The satisfaction of individual needs is imperative for employee motivation.
2. Effective and efficient leader-employee relationships are indispensable for enhanced performance and productivity.
3. The implementation of participative management in the workplace will witness productive outcomes for everyone concerned.

4. Open and constructive communication will allow employees to feel more involved and motivated.

Contributions to the Field

The results and findings of this study are definitely significant for it fills a gap in the field of higher education in Lebanon. As a pioneer study, it sheds light on institutional behavior and explains how to develop or amend such attitudes. For example, there is dissatisfaction with certain issues, nonetheless, performance is not influenced and people take initiative and demonstrate extreme loyalty and commitment. The findings (Chapter Six) present everyone concerned at NDU with an understanding of how to create quality change. This will in turn design a climate at NDU that will be conducive to the motivation of others. This is a pioneer study conducted in Lebanon and it offers all institutions of higher education that pursue the American-credit system of instruction an insight on how to enhance and not impair performance. The people at NDU don't want to be tied down by a rigid system for this would be suffocating. They are asking for more flexibility and communication and they want to be held accountable, for in this manner they will feel more involved.

The results of this study will help NDU to better understand how leadership styles, participation, communication and satisfaction impact on motivation. This study also identifies the traits that need to be possessed by leaders to enhance motivation and achievement in order to create an encouraging educational environment. The most significant qualities of such leaders are flexibility, self-confidence and respect and excellent communication skills. One of the most powerful messages in this study is that there is not one particular theory that will influence work motivation.

The significance of this research is that educational leaders at NDU will become more aware of the needs of their people. Moreover, leaders in other educational institutions will benefit from the findings and relate to the various scenarios and outcomes. The

avenues and directions in which the qualifications and competencies of their people should be channeled have been identified. Furthermore, the findings of this study have indicated strategies, methods and techniques for self-improvement and the enhancement of the educational environment at NDU. Now, there is a distinct realization that participation is the key that opens the door to success.

The researcher previously explained how she has been keeping the administration of NDU abreast of the results of the study throughout its course. This has been to implement development, improvement and amendments as situations occur. One such recommendation was to establish a Human Resource Office (Chapter Four) at NDU. This was actualized during the academic year 2001-2002. An interview with the HR manager reported mutual concerns and interests. The matter of urgency was to develop a certain scale to ensure equity in pay and rewards. After all, the Expectancy theory (Griffin, 1996) is a by-product of how much a person actually receives and how much that person thinks should be received. At NDU, the salary scale is open and comparisons are often made and this explains why 35.9% are not sure if they are getting what they deserve.

This is an issue that NDU must sort out for when employees are aware of each other's salaries, this can cause havoc regardless of whether competence and expertise are considered. As a result, the position analysis questionnaire (See Appendix N) was devised and the HR manager created files for all employees and also interviewed each individually and listened carefully to their worries. Thereafter, a position level definition (See Appendix O) was written up. This scale aims at erasing any ambiguities and feelings of discrimination. The researcher feels that she has contributed to the many changes at NDU during the course of this study.

271

Future Research

During the course of this study, the researcher realized a need to carry out future research on issues that are important but could not be elaborated upon in depth in this dissertation. Research often exposes further problems and introduces more questions. It is impossible that one research can solve all the problems associated with the area of study. Based on the findings, there are areas that deserve further investigation within the confines of this research topic. Within the conceptual framework of this dissertation, the researcher identified the following as interesting subjects for future research:

1. A comparative study of full-timers and part-timers in terms of satisfaction (the researcher distributed instruments to full-timers only with full justification).

2. A comparative study of NDU and another institution belonging to the designated population of this study (LAU &AUB) using the same title as that of this study.

3. A detailed survey of the North Lebanon Campus and Shouf Campus; a comparative study of the three campuses.

4. A survey of how student satisfaction is a by-product of Faculty performance.

5. An in-depth focus on individual Faculties and Offices to distinguish leadership styles.

6. A comparative study of an English speaking and a French speaking university;

7. Gender attitudes to satisfaction and motivation: female v/s male responses.

8. Does the origin of one's degree influence leadership style?

9. Cross-cultural leadership in educational institutions.

10. How does university management influence the quality of instruction.

Recommendations

A report of the Task Force on Faculty/Staff Partnership from the University of California in December, 1999 formulated a Partnership Statement to further communicate the University's deeply rooted commitment to value the contributions of each of its members:

The greatness of the University of California follows from the excellence of its people and its faculty, staff and students; however, a mere collection of outstanding individuals will not advance the University. Our ability to excel in our missions depends on collaboration and collegial environments. A collegial atmosphere can only come about through strong partnerships based on mutual trust and respect. Therefore, in support of the University missions, the faculty and staff of the University of California affirms their responsibilities and commitment to creating and fostering a cooperative and professional working environment.

Such a statement determines the framework for a contract between the institution and its people. Such a statement summarizes what the researcher set out to learn in her case study at NDU. Such a statement would be appropriate for any university and most specifically Notre Dame University. By encouraging participation, NDU will provide for the acquisition of skills and knowledge to meet the current and future challenges of relationship building, team interaction, and partnership that are all necessary to uphold university values. This can be done by increasing the visibility of the best practices that support collaboration; building an awareness of the avenues available to resolve conflicts; and nurturing open and inclusive communication at all levels of the NDU organizational structure.

The Mission Statement of NDU (Chapter One) is vital for it is reflective of the University's values to foster and sustain positive working relationships and teamwork. And this is essential in today's complex workplace. NDU must recognize the importance of strengthening the commitment to build partnerships and to motivate the people at NDU. There is an acknowledgement of the differences in roles, yet administrators, faculty and staff are all crucial contributors and share the responsibility to support collaboration in fulfilling the mission of NDU. Such an understanding is in itself a motivation for people to achieve the goals of NDU and this is brought about by the satisfaction that administrators, faculty and staff feel.

The leaders at NDU must educate and familiarize themselves with their staff in order to pinpoint what triggers their motivation. They must eliminate the cultural baggage that allows them to show favorism, or to believe in the superiority of their own power. The

focus of the university must be the academic and social formation of people and not the power plays of individuals. People at NDU can regain their confidence and professionalism through their leaders' encouragement of their thoughts and contributions as valuable resources for the betterment of performance and productivity.

The various ways in which motivation can be encouraged at NDU agree with Fox's (1986) identification:

1. Make people feel that their work is stimulating through involvement and personal growth;
2. Allow people independence in making decisions related to their work;
3. Create successful situations through high expectations and clearly stated goals;
4. Obtain both formal and informal recognition;
5. Allow opportunities for growth;
6. Develop confidence in leadership.

The most important part of a successful university is a motivated staff with the leaders as the catalyst of motivation. The quality of the relationship between leaders and employees is central to stimulating motivation. The findings showed that this was done through participation, which helps to inject their energy, creativity and initiative into the process. Participation is both mental and emotional involvement (Owens, 1995) and imbues ownership of decisions and "what distinguishes participation from consent...[is] this sense of ownership [which] encourages people to accept greater responsibility for the organization's effectiveness (p.189)."

Consequently, the recommendations that the researcher has drawn from the research findings are numerous and directly related to the research findings. Administrators should consider having more general faculty and staff assemblies to allow for open forums and for people to voice their opinions which was a major point of order in both the questionnaire and the interview. Professional seminars and workshops will allow for self-development and interfaculty and interoffice events will allow people to meet one

another and enhance interaction at all levels; a common Faculty/Staff lounge would be helpful.

Because of the changes in clergy and other positions at NDU during the course of this study, the researcher faced restrictions and postponement. The Order that governs NDU should reconsider the terms for top management. Leaders should better understand motivational theories and strategies and this would improve performance. They should also be more creative, caring and allow people to be involved in the decision making process. Moreover, leaders should identify what satisfies their people and incorporate the motivational techniques to enhance attitude and commitment by attending professional seminars and workshops to familiarize themselves with the participative and educative leadership style.

It is very crucial that all members of NDU familiarize themselves with the mission statement and goals of NDU. Professionally designed employee opinion surveys are a powerful tool to surface anonymous input and feelings as to the status quo; as an inside researcher, there is always the question of how genuine responses are. Management must accept results in a positive manner, develop action plans to address the concerns and opportunities and be prepared to truly make changes where dictated. Any kind of activity that brings employees together can prove to be invaluable to solicit open and informal input, measure employee concerns, monitor morale levels and determine specific problems.

To avoid any reluctance, the administration at NDU can use suggestion boxes that are low cost but high impact tools to allow for creative thinking and recognition. A matter of extreme urgency is that of clear-cut reward programs; these are more than just dollars. They may be promotion, recognition or opportunities for professional career development but with the insistence of equal opportunity and fairness. The issue of discrimination and nepotism is a problem at NDU. In addition, bottom up performance reviews are insightful into perceived management strengths and shortcomings to determine management development needs at all levels. Similarly, employee task forces

or self directed work teams can actually display their abilities and how much involvement they can handle.

Furthermore, the researcher recommends performance review programs that can be both motivational and productive. A thorough plan not only informs the employee about past results, but also sets a clear expectation for the future. In addition, by clearly defining the skills and behaviors for high performance and setting the accountability for the achievement, the employee has a vested interest in the process. On-going training is extremely important in light of the changes in technology and needs; it is an investment for the future. Career development plans exhibit a sincere interest. This can provide work continuity and growth supported by career planning, professional development and effective recruitment to instill work security. Finally but not at all least, communication programs, in all forms, are highly effective. They could be group meetings, periodic newsletters, memos from management, employee recognition (employee of the month), and bulletin board postings. Perhaps MBWA (management by walking around) is the most effective. It has a personal touch and names are used. In brief, at NDU, the two most unspoken words 'thank you' need to be used more often.

Suggestions Based on Research Findings

To complement the above mentioned recommendations, the researcher makes the following suggestions to enhance participation in the decision making process at NDU:

1. Facilitate discussion and understanding of the goals.
2. Allow members to make a meaningful contribution to staff development, evaluation and in-service programs.
3. Create adhoc groups to brainstorm problems.
4. Create opportunity to shape decisions.
5. Reach a consensus using the best thinking of all those involved.
6. Trust and encourage people.
7. Follow up on staff concerns.
8. Show sensitivity to needs and when implementing new procedures, be sensitive to the feelings of people.
9. Organize professional development sessions or allow for individual development.

10. Organize informative workshops.

What the Researcher has Learned from the Research Process

At the end of this study, the researcher has benefited tremendously by acquiring insight into the importance of the interaction among people for effective and efficient results. In addition, the researcher has learned more about leadership styles and their impact and this has developed her skills. Despite the limitations, the researcher has experienced and learned much about field research in Lebanon. This is characterized by lack of opinion formation, inaccessibility to important population elements and basically the fact that people tend to answer what they think others think (Abouchedid, 1997). This original contribution to knowledge sheds light on the field of higher education in Lebanon as well as policy and practice.

As a practitioner, the researcher has learned ample for self-development and hopefully, she will be able to contribute to the development (Chapter Four) and enhancement of NDU as an institution. To accomplish this requires the identification of individual needs with a more profound insight of the educative leadership style (Chapter Three). In addition, there is a need to consider motivation and how leadership style influences motivation with encouragement and reward. Another lesson the researcher learned was that by encouraging professional growth and displaying personal regard, overwhelming results can be achieved. Moreover, if leaders fully understand motivational theories and strategies (Chapter Two), they will understand the need for more delegation of authority. This, of course, means more responsibility for both leaders and employees. There is accountability and leaders should demonstrate concern through follow up. Consequently, there is a need to have more qualified and competent people in leadership positions at NDU.

The researcher has also had first-hand observations within her office and these have definitely justified the positive interactive effect of leadership styles on employee

motivation. The researcher always asks her staff to give their views and opinions and suggestions. It is not just a matter of asking but the researcher relays to her staff which of their contributions is feasible and which isn't. It really makes the staff members happy and it motivates them to give more and more of themselves. This is shown by all the items of participation being consistent among each other and within the instrument. They have developed a deep sense of belonging to NDU and really want to prove that they are worthy of the trust that their director has shown them. Employees are the stakeholders, thus involving them in the decision making process (Lucas et al., 1992) and exercising democracy is a necessary part of the political process for getting decisions approved and implemented.

As Director of Admissions at NDU, the researcher travels regularly to recruit students or to attend conventions or conferences. Thus, she is often away from the office. The whole work force collaborates professionally and they communicate well as a team because of clear leadership direction. She is an advocate of democratic leadership style; it may be an issue of gender but this is not the focus of the study but may be speculated for future research (Chapter Eight). The researcher is fully at ease that the office is functioning effectively and efficiently during her absence and there is no doubt about the quality of decisions that are taken. Authority is delegated by specifying responsibilities to each member of the office. The trips are usually seven to eight days long each time. However, in March-April, 2002, the researcher was away from the office for five consecutive weeks. The regular procedure was followed and there was daily contact with the office. Upon her return, the researcher observed a smoothly functioning unit that had not experienced any mishaps during her absence. This was also confirmed by many of the other top management positions. Thus, how can it be said that the leadership style has no effect on employee motivation?

Conclusion of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which satisfaction is a prerequisite for motivation to enhance performance and productivity. In accordance with the literature review, it can be concluded that if needs are satisfied, the working environment at NDU promotes a sense of belonging that leads to motivation. Herzberg's theory further refines the structures of motivation so that leaders can make a clear distinction. They should differentiate those factors, which actually motivate such as recognition, advancement, responsibility, personal growth, creativity and challenge, from those factors, which are necessary for people to be motivated, but are not in themselves motivational and they are working conditions, status and salary.

It is also conclusive that the appropriate leadership styles that enhance motivation at NDU are the democratic, participative and the educative. The role of the leader in practicing effective leadership is demonstrated through involving people in decision-making, teamwork, professional growth, restructuring, recognition and personal regard. This resolution is compatible with information cited in Chapter Three, which highlights that such leadership styles have an obvious and direct role in enhancing performance through motivation. Furthermore, effective participation and communication at NDU will decrease any apprehensions and feelings of inequality and uncertainty among people. This judgment can be supported by the professional citations found in Chapters Two and Four. Educational administrators must foster good human relations and articulate goals clearly and thus, people will be motivated.

Overall, there are many factors that motivate people at NDU and that can add to policy and practice. In brief, people want inspirational models with the awareness of different needs. Respect, trust, and equality will lead to more teamwork and collaboration. Professional development with top management support can secure a comfortable work environment if the appropriate reward and appreciation are given. The opportunity for more participation and involvement will encourage a

feeling of belonging. Furthermore, people at NDU seek good leaders who can set clear goals and supply precise information and an articulate vision. Accordingly, performance appraisal and recognition will follow.

Similarly, the factors that lead to demotivation at NDU are poor leadership and a corporate culture that gives no acknowledgement or sense of belonging. In addition, people feel no concern or interest when they are not informed and feel the atmosphere of secrecy. Moreover, professional jealousy and unhealthy competition reap insecurity and threat. Unfortunately, at NDU there are leaders with restricted knowledge and this in no way contributes to enhanced employee performance. Furthermore, reluctant decision makers and ambiguous job descriptions are a deadly combination.

Faced with the challenges of the 21st Century, NDU must fulfill major responsibilities that will contribute to sustainable indigenous development in a spirit of openness, partnership, truth and objectivity. The leaders at NDU need to excel in communication skills, consensus decision making, group dynamics, initiative, motivation, patience and perseverance, coping with conflict, group process, and implementing change. NDU must pursue the advancement of knowledge by renewing faith in the capacity of the human mind for educational brilliance requires high motivation.

Moreover, this study asserts the existence of certain principles related to the motivation of people at NDU. A review of the key topics would identify the sharing in decision making and participation; the level of communication; the humane relationship; the satisfaction of needs; the recognition of performance; the leadership style; and the level of leader-employee interaction. In general, people believe that NDU has a friendly atmosphere. However, relationships and interaction is not as intimate as it used to be and this is due to the new location of NDU. Previously, it was a small campus where on a daily basis, everyone was able to make contact, whether they belonged to the same office or not. Today, NDU stands on a location extending over 1,000,000 square meters with faculties and office buildings far apart. Despite this, the corporate culture is friendly and people are not afraid. People want to be at NDU although they know that other

institutions have better salaries. They realize the growth and development that NDU is experiencing and they want to be a part of it. There is a tendency to adapt to the flow.

281

In conclusion, this study has revealed information about NDU that can assist for future improvements. There have been both the positive and negative responses. If the leaders at NDU aim at achieving excellence and creating an effective educational environment, then the characteristics of the strategies identified in the data must be utilized as the criteria for evaluating educational policies and management practices. Satisfaction, motivation, performance and productivity are enhanced when professionals are in control of their practices and operations, have ownership of affairs and find all activities related to their institution to be satisfying and rewarding experiences.

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296

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303

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President
- Comptroller
- Public Relations
- Lawyer

VP for SRD

PVP

VP for Administration & HR

Dean of Co-Academic Services
- Registrar's Office
- Admissions Office
- OTME
- SAO
- Library
- Computing Services
- Int'l. Acad. Affairs

FH, Dean
FNAS, Dean
FENG, Dean
FPSPAD, Dean
FAAD, Dean
FBE, Dean

NDU/ NLC
NDU/ SC

Director of Human Resources
- Employment & Job Description
- Faculty Benefits
- Staff Benefits
- Training & Development
- Leaves & Records Management
- Digitization/ Archiving

Director of Administration

Assistant Director of Administration for Physical Plant
- Purchasing Office
- Receiving Office

Assistant to the Director of Administration for Evening Services
- Architecture
- Building Management
- Maintenance
- Public Safety & Environmental Health
- Landscaping
- Utilities
- Cleaning

Assistant Director of Administration for General Services
- Parking
- Dorms
- Mail Services
- Food Services
- Security
- Transportation
- Operators/ Information
- R/TV Production
- Lab usage & Testing
- Photography Laboratory

Business Office
- Accounting
- Bursar
- Payroll & Taxes

APPENDIX A

8th August 2000

University *of* Leicester

School of Education

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Director
Tom Whiteside

To Whom it may concern

Re: Elham Hasham

I an writing to confirm that Elham Hasham is a bone fide student of the University of
Leicester and is currently studying for her PhD in Educational Management at the
School of Education.

Yours faithfully

H. Busher
Dr Hugh Busher
Deputy Director of Ed.D Programme

APPENDIX C

My name is Elham S. Hasham. I am a Ph.D. student at the School of Education, University of Leicester, United Kingdom. My area of interest is Educational Management and Administration. In fulfillment for this Ph.D. degree, I am conducting a study on the relationship between employee satisfaction and productivity in institutions of higher education that follow the American credit system in English language instruction. Notre Dame University has been chosen as the sample for my case study.

You have been selected as a respondent in this study. You are respectfully requested to consider this questionnaire and answer the items as genuinely as possible. Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

Please be informed that all identities and responses will be kept confidential and will be used for statistical purposes only. The findings of the study will be made available to you upon your request. By answering the following questions, you will have contributed to the success of my endeavor, a desire to serve higher education in Lebanon.

Thank you for your time, support and feedback.

PART ONE: _Personal Questions_

1. What is your gender?

   MALE_____   FEMALE_____

2. What age group do you belong to?

21-30	
31-40	
41-50	
51-60	
61-70	
71-	

3. What is the highest qualification that you hold?

DIPLOMA	
BA/BS	
MA/MS	
Ph.D.	
OTHER	

4. How long have you been at NDU?   _____

5. Specify your type of subject area: _____

_____

6. Identify the Faculty or Department that you are affiliated

   with_____

7. Specify the title of the post you hold:_____

Each of the next four parts deals with a specific aspect of the leader-employee relationship(at all levels of the organizational chart). Please indicate your views using the following scale to answer each question:

Strongly Agree .... SA

Agree .... A

Not Sure .... NS

Disagree .... D

Strongly Disagree .... SD

PART TWO: _Degree of Participation_ – Please tick the column that best suits your opinion about how each of the statements below reflects your position at work:

Nos	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
1	I am involved in decisions related to my work unit.					
2	My suggestions are taken into consideration.					
3	I am committed to NDU.					
4	My leader decides; I am not involved.					
5	I am motivated to improve my performance.					
6	I am delegated authority to make decisions that fulfill the goals of NDU.					
7	I feel that I do make a difference in my unit at NDU.					
8	I am given a chance to prove my competence.					

Please give any examples of or further comments on your participation or lack of participation in the decision-making process at NDU.

_____

_____

_____

PART THREE: _Level of Satisfaction-_ Please tick the column that best suits your opinion about how each of the statements below reflects your satisfaction at work:

Nos	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
1	I am satisfied and motivated with the leadership of my unit.					
2	My needs are taken into consideration.					
3	I receive both monetary and moral compensation for my performance.					
4	I appreciate the qualifications of my leader.					
5	I am allowed flexibility with my duties at NDU.					
6	I am compensated well for my work.					
7	The environment at NDU is friendly.					
8	Teamspirit is practiced at NDU.					
9	I receive praise for my contributions to NDU.					
10	My self-esteem is supported and encouraged.					

Please give any examples of or further comments on your level of satisfaction with the organization of work at NDU.

_____

_____

_____

PART FOUR: _Measure of Communication-_ **Please tick the column that best suits your opinion about how each of the statements below reflects the channel of communication at work:**

Nos	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
1	I am always informed of what is happening at NDU.					
2	I am given the opportunity to express my concerns about NDU.					
3	My leader makes sure that I understand the goals of NDU.					
4	I am encouraged to express my ideas.					
5	My leader listens to issues other than about NDU.					
6	My leader communicates openly.					
7	I am told exactly what is expected of me.					

Please give any examples of or further comments on the communication process at NDU.

_____

_____

_____

PART FIVE: <u>*Quality of Leader-Employee Relationship:*</u> *Please tick the column that best suits your opinion about how each of the statements below identifies the interaction between you and your immediate supervisor:*

Nos	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
1	My leader knows how to keep me satisfied at work.					
2	How my leader works inspires me to follow his/her model.					

3	My leader keeps me motivated at work.					
4	My leader encourages teamspirit.					
5	My leader makes me proud to belong to NDU.					
6	My leader promotes a feeling of loyalty to NDU.					
7	My leader allows me to participate in decision-making because the decisions will ultimately affect me.					
8	My leader knows that if I am satisfied, my performance is enhanced.					
9	My leader appreciates my input.					

Please give any examples of or further comments on the relationship between you and your leader at work.

_____

_____

Please revise your answers. Thank you once again for your time and cooperation.
Please return to The Admissions Office by Friday, March 20, 2001.

APPENDIX D

My name is Elham S. Hasham. I am a Ph.D. student at the School of Education, University of Leicester, United Kingdom. My area of interest is Educational Management and Administration. In fulfillment for this Ph.D. degree, I am conducting a study on the relationship between employee satisfaction and productivity in institutions of higher education that follow the American credit system in English language instruction. The Lebanese American University has been chosen as the sample for a pilot study.

You have been selected as a respondent in this study. You are respectfully requested to consider this questionnaire and answer the items as genuinely as possible. Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

Please be informed that all identities and responses will be kept confidential and will be used for statistical purposes only. The findings of the study will be made available to you upon your request. By answering the following questions, you will have contributed to the success of my endeavor, a desire to serve higher education in Lebanon.

Thank you for your time, support and feedback.

PART ONE: Personal Questions

1. What is your gender?

   MALE_____   FEMALE_____

2. What age group do you belong to?

21-30	
31-40	
41-50	
51-60	
61-70	
71-	

3. What is the highest qualification that you hold?

DIPLOMA	
BA/BS	
MA/MS	
Ph.D.	
OTHER	

4. How long have you been at LAU? _____

5. Specify your line of work and/or title: _____

_____

The next four parts deal with a specific aspect of employer-employee relationships.
Please indicate your views using the following scale to answer each question:

Strongly Agree .... *SA*

Agree .... *A*

Not Sure .... *NS*

Disagree .... *D*

Strongly Disagree .... *SD*

PART TWO: <u>*Degree of Participation*</u> – *Please tick the column that best suits your opinion for each of the statements below:*

Nos	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
1	I am involved in decisions related to my unit.					
2	My suggestions are taken into consideration.					
3	I am committed to LAU.					
4	My leader decides; I am not involved.					
5	I am motivated to improve my performance.					
6	I am delegated authority.					
7	I feel that I do make a difference in my unit at LAU.					
8	I am given a chance to prove my competence.					

9. Are there any further comments or examples of your participation or lack of participation in the decision-making process at LAU?

_____

_____

_____

PART THREE: <u>*Level of Satisfaction*</u> *- Please tick the column that best suits your opinion for each of the statements below:*

Strongly Agree.......................*SA*

Agree...................................*A*

Not Sure...............................*NS*

Disagree...............................*D*

Strongly Disagree.....................*SD*

Nos	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
1	I am satisfied with the leadership of my unit.					
2	My needs are taken into consideration.					
3	I receive recognition for my performance.					
4	I appreciate the qualifications of my leader.					
5	I am allowed flexibility with my duties at LAU.					
6	I am compensated well for my productivity.					
7	The environment at LAU is friendly.					
8	Teamspirit is practiced at LAU.					
9	I receive praise for my contributions to LAU.					
10	My self-esteem is considered.					

11. Are there any further comments or examples of your level of satisfaction at LAU?

_____

_____

_____

PART FOUR: *Measure of Communication- Please tick the column that best suits your opinion for each of the statements:*

Strongly Agree.......................SA

Agree...............................A

Not Sure..............................*NS*

Disagree..............................*D*

Strongly Disagree.....................*SD*

Nos	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
1	I am always informed of what is happening at LAU.					
2	I am given the opportunity to express my concerns about LAU.					
3	My leader makes sure that I understand the goals of LAU.					
4	I am encouraged to express my ideas.					
5	My leader listens to issues other than about LAU.					
6	My leader communicates openly.					
7	I am told exactly what is expected of me.					

8. Are there any further comments or examples of the communication process?

_____

_____

_____

_____

PART FOUR: <u>*Extent of Employer-Employee Relationships:*</u> *Please tick the column that best suits your opinion for each of the statements:*

Strongly Agree...........................*SA*

Agree......................................*A*

Not Sure...................................*NS*

Disagree...................................*D*

_____

Strongly Disagree..........................SD

Nos	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
1	My leader understands my needs for satisfaction.					
2	My leader is a model for me to follow.					
3	My leader is an inspiration for me to follow.					
4	My leader encourages teamspirit.					
5	My leader makes me proud to belong to LAU.					
6	My leader promotes a feeling of loyalty to LAU.					
7	My leader allows me to participate in decision-making because the decisions will ultimately affect me.					
8	My leader knows that if I am satisfied, my performance is enhanced.					
9	My leader appreciates my input.					

10. Are there any further comments or examples of the relationship between you and your leader?

_____

_____

_____

Revise   your answers. Thank you for your cooperation. Please return to Miss Noha Azar's Office by Wednesday, January 10, 2001.

HAPPY NEW YEAR

APPENDIX E
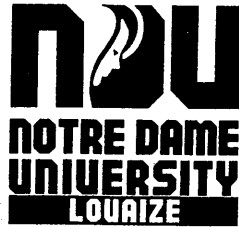
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nOTRE DAME
UNIUERSITY
LOUAIZE

Notre Dame University
Interview Questions
The Leader
(President, Vice-Presidents, Deans, Directors, Chairpersons)

1. *How do you think the changes at NDU have affected the relationship between you and your people?*

2. *How do you motivate your people?*

3. *How do you communicate with your people?*

4. *How do you enhance the performance of your people?*

5. *What impact will participative management have on people at NDU ?*

6. *How does personal regard give people job satisfaction ?*

7. *How do you prepare an ideal environment for quality work?*

8. *How does the corporate culture at NDU effect performance?*

9. *Whatever problems exist, are they unique to NDU? Give examples and explain.*

10. *Do you believe that satisfaction is a prerequisite for motivation which will in turn enhance performance and productivity?*

Comments... ... ...

APPENDIX F

Notre Dame University
Interview Questions
The People
(Interdepartment and interfaculty)

1. *How do you think the changes at NDU will effect the relationship between you and your leader?*

2. *How do you describe an effective leader?*

3. *How would participative management be beneficial to people at NDU ?*

4. *How do you interact with your colleagues?*

5. *How does your leader communicate with you?*

6. *How does your leader satisfy your needs ?*

7. *How does the corporate culture at NDU effect your work ?*

8. *Whatever problems exist, are they unique to NDU? Give examples and explain.*

9. *How does your leader show you personal regard?*

10. *Do you believe that satisfaction is a prerequisite for motivation which will in turn enhance performance and productivity?*

Comments..........

APPENDIX G

Dr. Nabeel Haidar

Vice-President, Academic Affairs

Lebanese American University
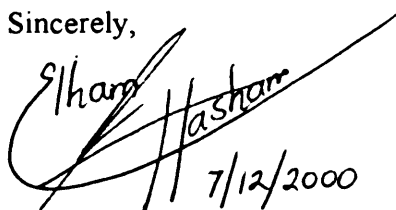
Dear Dr. Haidar,

I am a Ph.D. student at the University of Leicester, England. The area of interest is Educational Management and Administration. In fulfillment for this Ph.D. degree, I am conducting a study on the relationship between employee satisfaction and productivity in institutions of higher education that follow the American credit system in the English language. The representative sample is Notre Dame University.

My request is for permission to conduct a pilot study on the above-mentioned area of interest at The Lebanese American University. This would entail the distribution of about 50 questionnaires to faculty & staff, full-timers & part-timers at the various levels of the organizational structure of LAU.

Thank you for your cooperation and contributions to the enhancement of higher education in Lebanon.

Sincerely,

7/12/2000

Elham S. Hasham

APPENDIX H

الجـامعَة اللبـنانيـة الأميركيّة
LEBANESE AMERICAN UNIVERSITY
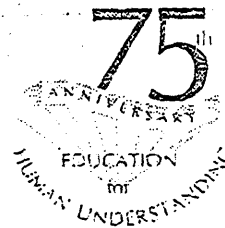
December 14, 2000

Ms. Elham S. Hasham
NDU Louaize
Fax: 218771

Dear Ms. Hasham:

This is to inform you that your request for permission to conduct a pilot study on the relationship between employee satisfaction and productivity in institutions of higher education is granted

Please coordinate with Dr. Nola Bacha, Chair of the Humanities Division at the School of Arts and Sciences, Byblos, to this respect.

Sincerely,

Nabeel F. Haidar
Vice President for
Academic Affairs

NFH/rk

PUS	BYBLOS CAMPUS	SIDON CAMPUS	NEW YORK OFFICE
ie	P.O.Box: 36	P.O.Box: 267	475 Riverside drive
5053	Byblos - Lebanon	Sidon - Lebanon	Room 1846
bn	Tlx : 48328 LE	Tel: (07) 728724/5	New York, NY 10115 USA
56/454	Tel: (09) 547254/52	Fax: (07) 728726	Tel.: (212) 870 - 2592
98	Fax: (05) 944851		Fax: (212) 870 - 2762
			Modem: (212) 870 - 2579

APPENDIX I

Office of President
Notre Dame University

November, 2000

Dear Reverend Father Butros Tarabay,

I am currently writing up a dissertation for a Ph.D. degree in Educational Management and Administration from Leicester University, United Kingdom.
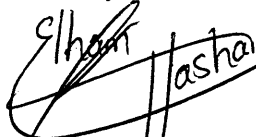
Specifically, the theme is "Employee Satisfaction and Motivation in Educational Environments: A Case Study of Notre Dame University".

Upon your consent, the PVP, Academic Affairs and the Director of Administration will also be asked for a written consent to distribute questionnaires and conduct interviews.

The objective is to investigate the corporate culture at NDU and offer constructive recommendations for improvement that the Administration may implement.

Thank you for your cooperation and contributions to the enhancement of higher education in Lebanon.

Sincerely,

Elham S. Hasham

NDU
NOTRE DAME
UNIUERSITY
LOUAIZE
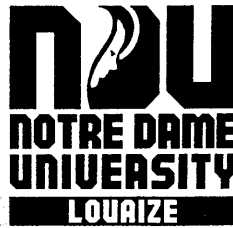
P.O.BOX: 72 ZOUK MIKHAEL
TEL:(09) 218950/1
FAX:(09) 218771
ZOUK MOSBEH, LEBANON

To   : Dr. G. M. Eid, PVP, Academic Affairs
From   : Elham S. Hasham
Date   : Thursday, October 26, 2000
Subject   : Permission for Survey

In fulfillment for my Ph.D. degree in Educational Management from Leicester University, United Kingdom, I hope to conduct a research survey on Leadership Techniques in Institutions of Higher Education in Lebanon. Specifically, the theme of my thesis is " Employee Participation Enhances Productivity: A Case Study of Notre Dame University."

I request permission to go ahead with my study which will entail the distribution of questionnaires to and interviews with administrators, faculty and staff.

These will be accompanied by a cover letter which explains that all information will be kept confidential and used only for statistical purposes.

Please find attached copies of relevant documents.

Thank you for your continuous support and contributions to the enhancement of education in Lebanon.

c.c. Fr. B. Tarabay, President

ESH/ks

APPENDIX K

NDU
NOTRE DAME
UNIVERSITY
LOUAIZE
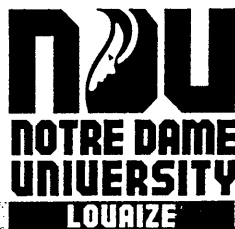
P.O.BOX: 72 ZOUK MIKHAEL
TEL:(09) 218950/1
FAX:(09) 218771
ZOUK MOSBEH, LEBANON

To   : Fr. W. Moussa, Director of Administration
From   : Elham S. Hasham
Date   : Friday, November 3, 2000
Subject   : Permission for Survey

In fulfillment for my Ph.D. degree in Educational Management from Leicester University, United Kingdom, I hope to conduct a research survey on Leadership Techniques in Institutions of Higher Education in Lebanon. Specifically, the theme of my thesis is " Employee Participation Enhances Productivity: A Case Study of Notre Dame University."

I request permission to go ahead with my study which will entail the distribution of questionnaires to and interviews with administrators, faculty and staff.

These will be accompanied by a cover letter which explains that all information will be kept confidential and used only for statistical purposes.

Thank you for your continuous support and contributions to the enhancement of education in Lebanon.

c.c. Fr. B. Tarabay, President
    Dr. G. Eid, PVP, Academic Affairs

ESH/ks

APPENDIX L

n⍵U
NOTRE DAME
UNIVERSITY
LOUAIZE

P.O.BOX: 72 ZOUK MIKHAEL
TEL:(09) 218950/1
FAX:(09) 218771
ZOUK MOSBEH, LEBANON

MEMORANDUM

TO	: Miss Elham S. Hasham, Director of Admission
FROM	: Fr. Walid Moussa, Director of Administration
DATE	: November 6 , 2000
SUBJECT	: Permission for survey
REF	: ADM/033/00

With reference to your memo dated November 3, 2000, you are given permission to proceed with your research and distribute your questionnaire to administrators, faculty & staff.

Good luck.

c.c: Fr. B. Tarabay, President
     Dr.G.Eid, PVP, Academic Affairs

APPENDIX M

SATIS2 * degrees

Crosstab

		degrees				
		Diploma	BA/BS	MA/MS	Ph.D	Other
SATIS2	Strongly Agree	4	7	6	4	2
		21.1%	25.9%	10.7%	7.0%	5.9%
	Agree	6	15	21	30	18
		31.6%	55.6%	37.5%	52.6%	52.9%
	No response	6	2	19	18	7
		31.6%	7.4%	33.9%	31.6%	20.6%
	Disagree	2	1	8	3	7
		10.5%	3.7%	14.3%	5.3%	20.6%
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	2	2	
		5.3%	7.4%	3.6%	3.5%	
Total		19	27	56	57	34
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

χ^2 =26.017; df=16; p<0.05

SATIS4 * degrees

		degrees				
		Diploma	BA/BS	MA/MS	Ph.D	Other
SATIS4	Strongly Agree	5	14	7	6	5
		26.3%	51.9%	12.7%	11.3%	14.7%
	Agree	9	11	29	31	16
		47.4%	40.7%	52.7%	58.5%	47.1%
	No response	3	1	11	11	6
		15.8%	3.7%	20.0%	20.8%	17.6%
	Disagree	2	1	8	3	7
		10.5%	3.7%	14.5%	5.7%	20.6%
	Strongly Disagree				2	
					3.8%	
Total		19	27	55	53	34
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

χ^2 =34.317; df=16; p<0.005

5-Position Analysis:

Position Analysis process is an important aspect of assessing jobs and can be achieved through completing an effective Position Analysis Questionnaire (P.A.Q).

P.A.Q lists the primary duties and responsibilities of the job under analysis and is an essential feature of the job evaluation and grading system, (P.A.Q) is also used as an aid for determining skill, knowledge, and ability requirements for recruitment and placement, developing worker/employee performance and identifying job training needs.

P.A.Q will include a description of each major duty followed by a description of the position in terms of seven evaluation factors. It is a straight forward presentation of the work of a position in clear, easy to understand language.

-Evaluation Factors:

- -Job requirement
- -Task level
- -Judgment and problem solving
- -Level of supervision and independence
- -Collaboration
- -Physical / Mental effort

NOTRE DAME UNIVERSITY

POSITION ANALYSIS QUETIONNAIRE

Instruction :- this questionnaire is designed to assist you in describing your position . please read through the entire questionnaire before beginning to answer the questions .this will provide a clear picture of the information required and its proper place on the questionnaire . keep in mind that no attempt is being made to evaluate individual performance , but rather to collect information about the position as it is today – not how it was , or might be in the future . be sure your statements give an accurate , clear and complete picture of what you do .

General Information

Employee name : ....

Campus : Main ?   Barsa ?   Shouf ?

Proposed position title : ....

School :................................

Supervisor : ....

Department : ....

Supervisor title : ....

Telephone : ....

Work phone : ....

For filling in created and existing positions and Reclassification/Review

1-Position Summary
In the space provided below only , briefly explain the general purpose of the position.

_____

_____

_____

_____

2-Essential functions

To the best of your ability , make a list of about 6 to 7 tasks you would identify as being essential to this position. Begin each statement with an action word . try to describe your position in such a way that it can be understood by Some one not immediately familiar with your work.

Task description

3-Knowledge , Skill level and Ability

Qualifications.

i.e To summaries , the job under analysis requires :

1-Experience and expertise in the management of human and material resources .
2-Extensive management expertise and experience .
3-May have licensing requirements such as Engineer , Doctors or relevant knowledge
   expertise.
4-May need extensive management expertise and experience .
5-Completion of university ,technical degree or relevant training with a range of 2
years experience.
6-Does not need extensive management expertise and experience.
7-May need completion of technical degree Baccalaureate (part 2) or relevant
knowledge & training.

4-task level

What knowledge and ability does this job require :

1-Comprehensive knowledge of programs in addition to **Generating** and using high level
of theoretical and applied knowledge . Reports to a position entitled director or above
such as vice president or president .
2-Abilitty to **develop and review** major professional management policies with high
level of planning and management skills.
3-Performs tasks requiring the **integration of theoretical and technical knowledge.**
4-Ability to **evaluate and interpret data** in addition to conceptual understanding of
policies and systems and **may have responsibility** for staff delivering significant
administrative , technical or professional services.
5-Provide **semi-professional technical support**, performs tasks requiring knowledge of
application of theoretical principles , procedures and techniques.
6-Ability to **apply instructed data** suggested by direct supervisor , and has no
responsibility for any staff.
7-Performs **routine physical work and duties** , tasks may involve data collection ,and
clerical processing .

List the reports and files required to prepare and maintain . State , in general , for whom each report is intended

report	Intended for

Files maintained :

_____

_____

_____

5-Judgement and problem solving

How frequent must the incumbent confer with his supervisor to make decision and what responsibilities must he hold ?

1-Receives little and/or infrequent direction from supervisor and is responsible for **directing a major function** in a program
2-Receives little direction from supervisor and responsible for **program development and implementation.**
3-Provide strategic support and advice to other units & programs ,take a leading role in the application of Techniques involving considerable theoretical and technical sophistication.
4-**May have authority to make decision** and expected to exercise initiative in the application of procedures and can make operational decisions
5-**Apply theoretical knowledge and techniques** to a range of tasks.
6-**Confers frequently with the supervisor** , may get instructions on daily basis , cannot exercise initiative in application if instructions
7-**Solve relatively simple problems** and expected to perform various routine tasks provided work priorities are achieved.
Typical Example:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

6-supervision and independence

Direction of others .

Is this position responsible in any way for the supervision of project direction of the university employees , student or others ?

(Yes)   (No)

Briefly describe the nature and extent of responsibility for supervising or directing the work of others .

1-Direction is provided in terms of objectives , which may require the **planning of staff , manage administrative ,professional staff** , supervises at least 2 or 3 employees .

2-**Directs a unit within a defined program** , responsibility includes the supervision of all types of employees .

3-May **have management responsibilities** as managing administrative , technical or professional staff .

4-**General supervision where activities are likely to be covered by procedures** . May supervise staff and have responsibility for the day to day operation of the unit.

5-Routine supervision to general supervision., **may supervise or co-ordinate others to achieve objectives** .

6-**No supervisory responsibilities** will be exercised at this level , instead receives frequent instructions with close supervision to routine supervision where clear and detailed instructions are provided.

7-Clear and detailed instructions are provided, **no supervisory responsibilities** will be exercised at this level.

Independence.

1-Control of the budget for major function , besides ,performance will be measured against objectives ,**plans activities of others by creating** / computing data or schedules and other policy data.

2-Controls expenses for a unit and have substantial influence over the establishment of priorities , programs ,**plans activities for month at a time** and takes individual initiative in performing work.

3-Unusual cases are **handled without resources to more senior staff** , and will exercise some judgment in determining when advice will be sought.

4-**plans some activities** of this job and takes some individual initiative in performing‘ work , may set priorities and monitor work flows within a unit.

5-May undertake stand-alone work ,**jobholder will rely on their knowledge to choose a course of action.**

6-**performs some activities planned and scheduled by others** , may undertake stand-alone work.

7-**Receive frequent instruction about specific assignment.**

Provide typical example(s) of decision (s) to illustrate the response you selected .

7-Collaboration

A- Internal

Select the response that best indicate the typical internal contacts within the university needed to do the work of this position.

1-Duties do not require contacts outside the immediate work group.

2-Work occasionally requires internal contact outside the work group to exchange work related information.

3-work requires occasional internal contacts outside the work group . Interactions can impact continued working relations with colleagues , students , faculty members,..........etc.

4-work requires occasional internal contacts outside the group , or to resolve mutual problems and/or collaborate on work procedures , including team projects.

5-Work requires occasional internal contacts outside the work group , to persuade or gain cooperation and acceptance of ideas . job requires tact and diplomacy to avoid conflict.

Provide example(s) to illustrate typical internal contact(s) required in this position

B- External

Select the response that best indicate the typical external contacts within the university needed to do the work of this position.

1-Dutes do not require contact external to the university

2-External contact involve furnishing or obtaining factual information over the telephone , in writing or in person Requires normal courtesy in dealing with others .

3-External contact involves service , and providing detailed information about a specific set of services ,issues or questions .

4-External contacts involves resolving complaints , make adjustments , or correct mistakes about a specific set of services , issues or questions .

5-External contacts involves services complaints , manage key relationship , make significant adjustment ,handle high profile meeting or deal with very sensitive issues or relationships .

*provide recent typical example(s) to illustrate your response.

8- Impact

_Please indicate the organization level typically affected by decision made in this position.

1-Decision typically **impact multiple or entire function** which may have some impact on the success of program or university (e.g. department , faculty library , facilities ....etc.).

2-Decision typically **impact multiple work group** because responsibility is on program involving major changes .

3-Make policy recommendation to others and implement programs which may have some impact on the institution.

4-Decision typically **impact its immediate work group and unit** .

5-May make recommendations to senior staff on changes to procedures ,or routine to facilitate good relation between work units.

6-Decision typically **impact this position** .

7-May provide **general information advice and assistance** to the public ,students and other staff **where problem solving is not required**. Use courtesy and tact in dealing with others.

Provide typical example(s) of decision(s) to illustrate the response you selected .

_____

_____

_____

9- Physical / Mental effort :

Describe the physical demands of the position and / or the degree to which the position requires intense mental Concentration and or visual strain.

_____

_____

_____

10- Organizational Reporting :

This information is very important .

Please attach a copy of an organizational chart of your division or department (if none is available let your Supervisor create a new one).

High light in yellow marker the position that is under review . include names and position titles for all positions .

11- Employee General Comment :

Please provide any additional information or unique demand that might be important in understanding This position .

_____

_____

_____

Employee signature : .... Date : ....

12- Supervisor comment section :
This position of the questionnaire is to completed by the immediate supervisor .

Please review carefully this questionnaire and add the level of formal education or technology , related experience You feel is required (not desired) for this position .
Formal Education

_____

_____

_____

Previous Experience

_____

_____

_____

Technical

_____

_____

_____

Non Technical

_____

_____

_____

After reading this questionnaire , what title would you give to this position?

_____

Immediate Supervisor's Signature : .... Date : ....

13- Management Comment Section

This position of the Questionnaire is reserved for comment by a second level of management above the Immediate supervisor who indirectly supervises the position.

As a higher level of management over this position , it is important that you review this Questionnaire And provide any general comment you may have .

_____

_____

_____

What title would you give to this position?

_____

Second Level Supervisor's Signature : _____

Date : _____

4-Position Levels Description:

Non Managerial – Level II (N M II):

- Skill Level

-Completion of a university degree with subsequent relevant work experience.

-Completion of a technical degree with a range of experience including at least 2 years relevant work experience.

-Or equivalent alternate combination of relevant knowledge training and/ or experience.

- Task level

-Provide semi-professional technical support in a specialized area.

-Duties ranges from simple to routine to complex

-Plans and conducts a complete project of a relatively limited scope, or part of a project of a large scope.

-Performs tasks which require a knowledge of and the standard application of theoretical principles, procedures and techniques.

-Knowledge is applied to recurring circumstances. For example using computer software applications to assist with job assignments, to selling-up and using equipment.

- Judgment and problem solving

-Extensive diagnostic skills.

-Apply theoretical knowledge and techniques to a range of tasks.

-Provide factual advice, which requires proficiency in the work areas, regulations and rules.

-Make recommendations for decisions, requiring the interpretation of a set of relatively straightforward rules, manuals and technical procedures.

- Level of supervision and independence
-

-Routine supervision to general supervision (no or minimal amount of independent judgment) where the jobholder will rely on their technical

knowledge to choose a course of action, depending upon experience and the complexity of tasks.

-May supervise or co-ordinate others to achieve objectives, including with staff at higher level.

-May undertake stand-alone work.

-Performs a variety of routine office practices and procedures.

-May receive frequent instructions about specific assignment.

Non Managerial Position – Level III (N M III):

- Skill level

-A university degree or 6 years of relevant experience to
    consolidate theories and principles learned.

-Or extensive experience and management expertise.

-Or equivalent combination of relevant knowledge, training and/ or experience.

- Task Level

-Regularly assist an executive.

-Has responsibility for office or manual work directly related to the business operation of the university.

-Tasks requires skills in research, evaluation and interpretation of data.

-May have operational responsibility for staff delivering significant administrative, technical or professional services, including giving advice to senior managers.

-Positions at this level require a conceptual understanding of relevant policies, and interpretation in the application of policy.

- Judgment and problem solving

-May have authority to make decisions.

-Has the ability to make sound decisions, recognizing the consequences of decisions taken or actions performed.

-Is expected to exercise initiative in the application of procedures and systems.

-May make operational decisions on the provision, availability or deployment of resources and services.

- Level of supervision and independence

-General supervision where activities are likely to be covered by procedures, but in other cases the job holders will rely on their theoretical and technical knowledge to choose a course of action within organizational objectives.

-May supervise staff and have responsibility for the day to day operation of the unit.

-Will set priorities and monitor work flows within the unit.

-May have indirect reports coming to the position.

- Impact

-Adapt procedures or techniques as required to achieve objectives, where the impact is restricted to the work unit concerned.

Managerial Position Level I (M I):

- Skill level

-Extensive Management Expertise and Experience.

-Graduate or postgraduate qualifications (Recognized Bachelor Degree and Six (6) years of Supervisory / Management Experience .

-Or Recognized Masters Degree and Three (3) years of supervisory / Management Experience .

-May have licensing requirements such as Engineer , Lawyer , Expert in Accounting

-Or an equivalent combination of relevant knowledge, expertise and/ or experience.

- Task level

-Ability to conceptualize develops and reviews major professional management policies.
-High level of planning and management skills.

- Judgment and problem solving

-Responsible for program development and implementation.
-Receive little direction from supervisor.
-Responsible for achieving objectives with a complex nature.
-Limited guidance is available.

- Supervision and Independence

-Directs a unit within a defined program.
-Controls expenses for a unit.
-The principle responsibility of the position is supervision of full-time, part-time and temporary employees.
-Have substantial influence over the establishment of priorities, programs or budgets.

- Impact

-Responsible for programs involving major changes, which may have some impact on the success of program on university.
-Make policy recommendation to supervisor.

1- a. Managerial Position – Level II (M II):

- Skill level

-Experience and expertise in the management of human and material resources.
-Graduate or postgraduate qualifications (Recognized Bachelor's Degree and Twelve (12) years of Supervisory / Management Experience .
-Or Recognized Masters Degree and Six (6) years of Supervisory / Management Experience.
-Knowledge of strategic planning.

- Task level

-Reports to a position entitled director or above such as Vice President and President.
-Complex planning.
-Comprehensive knowledge of programs.
-Generate and use high level of theoretical and applied knowledge.

- Judgment and problem solving

-Receives little and/or infrequent direction from supervisor.
-Responsible for directing a major function in a program.
-Responsible for the achievement of objectives and programs.

- Supervision and Independence

-Control of the budget for a major function
-Manage administrative, professional and /or technical staff.
-Direction is provided in terms of objectives, which may require the planning of staff, time and material resources for their completions.
-May have final responsibility for approving substantial budget expenditures.
-Supervises at least three employees.
-Performance will be measured against objectives.

1.E: How do you think the changes at NDU will effect the relationship between you and your leader?

2.R: According to me, I've changed five positions and it was both positive and negative and we have changes that affected my personal performance. Since I had five bosses and five different characters, that was something and I was lucky to change all these positions. I admit that I was unexperienced and didn't know how to communicate with people and I was nice. I was like when I was a student but now it's different, being with friends, colleagues and it is especially different when you must communicate with Ph.D. persons and intellectual persons.

3.E: How do you describe an effective leader? What qualities does that person need to have?

4.R: According to me, I describe an effective leader as respectable first, sociable, uhmm, expert in his domain and willing to give.

5.E: Thank you. How would participative management be beneficial to people at NDU? In other words, do you believe in participative management, making decisions, working together? Do you think this would be good for NDU?

6.R: I think it would be great and I think we lack it at NDU. I have changed my mind a little bit since I used to work in faculties at that time and we didn't have participative management at all. But now I have moved to another office and I can see some sort of participative management and I can see some teamwork.

7.E: So do you feel that you are part of the decisions that are being made in the office you are working in?

8.R: From three months till now, yes...

9.E: How does your leader communicate with you? By leader, I mean the Dean/Director of your office. Does he/she communicate with you and how does this take place?

10.R: Ah! Talking about my boss now, it's somehow different than the others since we just met three months ago. We had too much to do in too little time.

11.E: Yes.

12.R: So the communication was rare but we used to communicate rarely but work a lot...so...

13.E: but was there effective communication?

14.R: Yes, he was very respectful.

15.E: So this channel of communication affected you positively?

16.R: Yes, definitely.

17.E: So you believe it's very important to have open communication within the office and with the people you are working with?

18.R: Sure..sure..

19.E: So how would you describe the corporate culture at NDU? Would you describe it as friendly?

20.R: Not that much.

21.E: Do you think it should be friendlier?

22.R: In some places it's too friendly and in other places it's not, so you can't really determine if it's friendly or not.

23.E: How does your leader show you personal regard?

24.R: He respects and appreciate a lot..

25.E: ...and does this appreciation...

26.R: ..it motivates me..

27.E: and he takes your personal feelings into consideration?

28.R: Yes, and this is very important to me.

29.E: Do you believe that satisfaction is a prerequisite? That is, when you are satisfied, you are motivated and when you are motivated, your performance and productivity will be better? Do you believe this statement?

30.R: I believe in that but I have to add something. I think motivation is divided into three parts. First, the academic job part, when I finish my job on time and perfect and I find feedback of my work is good, then I am satisfied and this motivates me. Second, if there is appreciation in all means and moral means, if I am satisfied by satisfying others, that motivates me. Third, if the salary is good and satisfies me, that also motivates me. If you work a lot and don't have a good salary, that will never motivate you.

31.E: Do you have any additional comments?

32.R: Yes, I would like to mention that we lack workshops at NDU. Other institutions have workshops to learn new things, new technology, anything. Even about the work we know, there is always something new to learn. Thank you for allowing us to be heard.

Interview Code 02
Between Researcher (E) and Employee (P)

1.E: Good afternoon. How do you think that all the changes at NDU at large, faculty, staff, even the location, have had any effect on the relationship between you and your leader? By leader, I mean the person you directly report to.

2.P: The good changes have affected my performance positively but have not affected my relationship between me and my leader.

3.E: How would you describe an effective leader?

4.P: An effective leader has a vision, a goal, is not only a manager and a leader but a manager who can do his job well. He wants to reach something, he wants to make a change so he must be a person who takes decisions and acts upon his words and sticks to his decision. He is not effected by others and he should be hesitant.

5.E: How would participative management benefit the people at NDU?

6.P: At NDU, there is no participative management; there is no power delegated. In my office, we do have participative management and I always participate in decision making and my opinion is always taken into consideration.

7.E: Does this affect your performance?

8.P: Yes, it affects my performance positively; I am working and I know the problems and so I can contribute.

9.E: So, you feel you're part of the decision making process?

10.P: Yes, and it doesn't matter that my opinion isn't taken into consideration. If my suggestion isn't implemented then I know it isn't the best option.

11.E: How does your leader communicate with you? Do you feel there is open communication and how?

12.P: My leader always asks for my opinion and when he takes a decision, he also informs me.

13.E: Do you feel it's important for you to know what's happening in the office?

14.P: Yes, psychologically, it will affect my performance. By being informed, I am ready for anything and especially for change for as we know people resist change.

15.E: How does your leader satisfy your needs?

16.P: My leader is very straight forward, a very dynamic person and when I ask for something for the office and he believes it is for the benefit of the office, he directly takes action. There is no postponement or hesitation, he is very precise.

17.E: Do you think your leader also satisfies your personal needs?

18.P: Yes, he is very friendly. He is not the bossy type, I feel comfortable. When I need to say something, or I am in a bad mood, I don't feel afraid to approach him. Whereas, in other offices, the leaders are very authoritative and dictate.

19.E: What would you suggest for the problems you see at NDU?

20.P: We should consider specialization and change people who are positioned in jobs not in their field. For efficiency, there should be the right person in the right place.

21.E: How does your leader show you personal regard?

22.P: I never have any problems with my leader, he respects me and never humiliates or offends me; he respects himself.

23.E: Do you believe satisfaction is a prerequisite for motivation which in turn will enhance performance and productivity?

24.P: Yes, when I am satisfied, I am motivated and I give more. I always need to be motivated to reach my goal or aim; it all depends on the person you are dealing with.

25.E: Do you have any additional comments?

26.P: No, this is all and enough and I thank you for giving us the opportunity to express our feelings and this shows you are concerned for us as human beings.

APPENDIX R

Emergent Themes (Reference to Appendices P/Code 01 and Q/Code 02)

Time_____Appendix P/Code01/Line 4

Communication_____Appendix P/Code 01/Line 2

Communication_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 18

Respect_____Appendix P/Code 01/Line 4

Respect_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 22

Teamwork_____Appendix P/Code 01/Line 6

Friendliness_____Appendix P/Code 01/Line 22

Professionalism_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 16

Appreciation_____Appendix P/Code 01/Line 24

Vision_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 4

Opinions Voiced_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 10

Kept Informed_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 12

Person-job Fit_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 20

No Fear_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 18

Action..no postponement_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 16

Workshops and Meetings_____Appendix P/Code 01/Line 32

Concern_____Appendix Q/Code 02/Line 26

Sociable_____Appendix P/Code 02/Line 4

Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents' Attitudes

PART1   **APPENDIX S**

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	41	21.1
	2.00 Agree	95	49.0
	3.00 No response	29	14.9
	4.00 Disagree	25	12.9
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	4	2.1
	Total	194	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		196	

PARTI2

	N	%
1.00 Strongly Agree	34	17.3
2.00 Agree	100	51.0
3.00 No response	38	19.4
4.00 Disagree	20	10.2
5.00 Strongly Disagree	4	2.0
Total	196	100.0

PARTI3

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	82	42.1
	2.00 Agree	69	35.4
	3.00 No response	29	14.9
	4.00 Disagree	15	7.7
	Total	195	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		196	

PARTI4

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	11	5.9
	2.00 Agree	47	25.1
	3.00 No response	33	17.6
	4.00 Disagree	59	31.6
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	37	19.8
	Total	187	100.0
Missing	System	9	
Total		196	

PARTI5

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	38	19.6
	2.00 Agree	106	54.6
	3.00 No response	23	11.9
	4.00 Disagree	20	10.3
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	7	3.6
	Total	194	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		196	

PARTI6

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	20	10.3
	2.00 Agree	77	39.7
	3.00 No response	52	26.8
	4.00 Disagree	34	17.5
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	11	5.7
	Total	194	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		196	

PARTI7

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	46	23.6
	2.00 Agree	86	44.1
	3.00 No response	45	23.1
	4.00 Disagree	16	8.2
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	2	1.0
	Total	195	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		196	

PARTI8

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	29	14.9
	2.00 Agree	103	52.8
	3.00 No response	33	16.9
	4.00 Disagree	23	11.8
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	7	3.6
	Total	195	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		196	

SATIS1

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	33	17.2
	2.00 Agree	105	54.7
	3.00 No response	31	16.1
	4.00 Disagree	20	10.4
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	3	1.6
	Total	192	100.0
Missing	System	4	
Total		196	

SATIS2

		N		%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	24	12.2	12.3
	2.00 Agree	90	45.9	46.2
	3.00 No response	53	27.0	27.2
	4.00 Disagree	21	10.7	10.8
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	7	3.6	3.6
	Total	195	99.5	100.0
Missing	System	1	.5	
Total		196	100.0	

SATIS3

		N		%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	15	7.7	7.7
	2.00 Agree	63	32.1	32.5
	3.00 No response	57	29.1	29.4
	4.00 Disagree	48	24.5	24.7
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	11	5.6	5.7
	Total	194	99.0	100.0
Missing	System	2	1.0	
Total		196	100.0	

SATIS4

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	38	20.1
	2.00 Agree	96	50.8
	3.00 No response	32	16.9
	4.00 Disagree	21	11.1
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	2	1.1
	Total	189	100.0
Missing	System	7	
Total		196	

SATIS5

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	20	10.4
	2.00 Agree	109	56.5
	3.00 No response	39	20.2
	4.00 Disagree	23	11.9
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	2	1.0
	Total	193	100.0
Missing	System	3	
Total		196	

SATIS6

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	7	3.6
	2.00 Agree	54	28.1
	3.00 No response	69	35.9
	4.00 Disagree	48	25.0
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	14	7.3
	Total	192	100.0
Missing	System	4	
Total		196	

SATIS7

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	29	14.9
	2.00 Agree	97	50.0
	3.00 No response	46	23.7
	4.00 Disagree	19	9.8
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	3	1.5
	Total	194	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		196	

SATIS8

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	14	7.3
	2.00 Agree	75	38.9
	3.00 No response	72	37.3
	4.00 Disagree	28	14.5
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	4	2.1
	Total	193	100.0
Missing	System	3	
Total		196	

SATIS9

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	9	4.7
	2.00 Agree	68	35.4
	3.00 No response	66	34.4
	4.00 Disagree	41	21.4
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	8	4.2
	Total	192	100.0
Missing	System	4	
Total		196	

SATIS10

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	16	8.2
	2.00 Agree	84	43.3
	3.00 No response	55	28.4
	4.00 Disagree	32	16.5
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	7	3.6
	Total	194	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		196	

COM1

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	23	11.9
	2.00 Agree	71	36.6
	3.00 No response	57	29.4
	4.00 Disagree	38	19.6
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	5	2.6
	Total	194	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		196	

COM2

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	14	7.2
	2.00 Agree	84	43.1
	3.00 No response	57	29.2
	4.00 Disagree	34	17.4
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	6	3.1
	Total	195	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		196	

COM3

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	16	8.4
	2.00 Agree	98	51.3
	3.00 No response	43	22.5
	4.00 Disagree	28	14.7
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	6	3.1
	Total	191	100.0
Missing	System	5	
Total		196	

COM4

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	17	8.8
	2.00 Agree	97	50.0
	3.00 No response	43	22.2
	4.00 Disagree	31	16.0
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	6	3.1
	Total	194	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		196	

COM5

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	21	11.2
	2.00 Agree	82	43.6
	3.00 No response	48	25.5
	4.00 Disagree	32	17.0
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	5	2.7
	Total	188	100.0
Missing	System	8	
Total		196	

COM6

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	35	18.4
	2.00 Agree	85	44.7
	3.00 No response	38	20.0
	4.00 Disagree	28	14.7
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	4	2.1
	Total	190	100.0
Missing	System	6	
Total		196	

COM7

		N		%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	20	10.2	10.4
	2.00 Agree	97	49.5	50.5
	3.00 No response	43	21.9	22.4
	4.00 Disagree	28	14.3	14.6
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.1
	Total	192	98.0	100.0
Missing	System	4	2.0	
Total		196	100.0	

RELA1

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	21	11.2
	2.00 Agree	95	50.8
	3.00 No response	44	23.5
	4.00 Disagree	25	13.4
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	2	1.1
	Total	187	100.0
Missing	System	9	
Total		196	

RELA2

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	27	14.4
	2.00 Agree	80	42.8
	3.00 No response	46	24.6
	4.00 Disagree	26	13.9
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	8	4.3
	Total	187	100.0
Missing	System	9	
Total		196	

RELA3

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	23	12.2
	2.00 Agree	85	45.2
	3.00 No response	46	24.5
	4.00 Disagree	28	14.9
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	6	3.2
	Total	188	100.0
Missing	System	8	
Total		196	

RELA4

	N	%
1.00 Strongly Agree	31	16.4
2.00 Agree	87	46.0
3.00 No response	37	19.6
4.00 Disagree	28	14.8
5.00 Strongly Disagree	6	3.2
Total	189	100.0
Missing System	7	
Total	196	

RELA5

	N	%
1.00 Strongly Agree	22	11.8
2.00 Agree	78	41.9
3.00 No response	55	29.6
4.00 Disagree	28	15.1
5.00 Strongly Disagree	3	1.6
Total	186	100.0
Missing System	10	
Total	196	

RELA6

	N	%
1.00 Strongly Agree	31	16.6
2.00 Agree	91	48.7
3.00 No response	41	21.9
4.00 Disagree	23	12.3
5.00 Strongly Disagree	1	.5
Total	187	100.0
Missing System	9	
Total	196	

RELA7

	N	%
1.00 Strongly Agree	21	11.2
2.00 Agree	90	47.9
3.00 No response	42	22.3
4.00 Disagree	33	17.6
5.00 Strongly Disagree	2	1.1
Total	188	100.0
Missing System	8	
Total	196	

RELA8

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	26	13.9
	2.00 Agree	99	52.9
	3.00 No response	37	19.8
	4.00 Disagree	24	12.8
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	1	.5
	Total	**187**	**100.0**
Missing	System	9	
Total		**196**	

RELA9

		N	%
	1.00 Strongly Agree	27	14.4
	2.00 Agree	107	57.2
	3.00 No response	29	15.5
	4.00 Disagree	23	12.3
	5.00 Strongly Disagree	1	.5
	Total	**187**	**100.0**
Missing	System	9	
Total		**196**	

Frequency Distributions and Percentages of Respondents' Attitudes

GENDER gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	93	47.4	47.7	47.7
	2.00	102	52.0	52.3	100.0
	Total	195	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.5		
Total		196	100.0		

AGE age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	29	14.8	14.9	14.9
	2.00	98	50.0	50.5	65.5
	3.00	44	22.4	22.7	88.1
	4.00	16	8.2	8.2	96.4
	5.00	5	2.6	2.6	99.0
	6.00	2	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	194	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.0		
Total		196	100.0		

DEGREES degrees

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	19	9.7	9.8	9.8
	2.00	27	13.8	13.9	23.7
	3.00	57	29.1	29.4	53.1
	4.00	57	29.1	29.4	82.5
	5.00	34	17.3	17.5	100.0
	Total	194	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.0		
Total		196	100.0		

YEARS years

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	52	26.5	50.5	50.5
	2.00	24	12.2	23.3	73.8
	3.00	27	13.8	26.2	100.0
	Total	103	52.6	100.0	
Missing	System	93	47.4		
Total		196	100.0		

AREA

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	4	2.0	5.1	5.1
	2.00	3	1.5	3.8	8.9
	3.00	13	6.6	16.5	25.3
	4.00	1	.5	1.3	26.6
	5.00	19	9.7	24.1	50.6
	6.00	5	2.6	6.3	57.0
	7.00	3	1.5	3.8	60.8
	8.00	2	1.0	2.5	63.3
	9.00	2	1.0	2.5	65.8
	10.00	2	1.0	2.5	68.4
	11.00	4	2.0	5.1	73.4
	13.00	3	1.5	3.8	77.2
	14.00	18	9.2	22.8	100.0
	Total	**79**	**40.3**	**100.0**	
Missing	System	117	59.7		
Total		**196**	**100.0**		

FACULTY

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	10	5.1	10.8	10.8
	3.00	13	6.6	14.0	24.7
	5.00	24	12.2	25.8	50.5
	7.00	11	5.6	11.8	62.4
	10.00	7	3.6	7.5	69.9
	13.00	4	2.0	4.3	74.2
	14.00	24	12.2	25.8	100.0
	Total	**93**	**47.4**	**100.0**	
Missing	System	103	52.6		
Total		**196**	**100.0**		

POST post

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	40	20.4	44.9	44.9
	2.00	40	20.4	44.9	89.9
	3.00	9	4.6	10.1	100.0
	Total	**89**	**45.4**	**100.0**	
Missing	System	107	54.6		
Total		**196**	**100.0**		

APPENDIX T

Internal Consistency Results

Cronbach's Alpha for Participation Scale-items

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	PART1	1.8571	.9112	182.0
2.	PARTI2	1.7857	.8815	182.0
3.	PARTI3	2.1209	.9144	182.0
4.	PARTI4	2.3242	.8471	182.0
5.	PARTI5	1.7473	.9054	182.0
6.	PARTI6	1.9066	.8521	182.0
7.	PARTI7	1.9011	.8739	182.0
8.	PARTI8	1.7802	.8833	182.0

Cronbach = .82

Cronbach's Alpah for Satisfaction Scale-items

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	SATIS1	1.4130	.7037	184.0
2.	SATIS2	1.5543	.7372	184.0
3.	SATIS3	1.9239	.8328	184.0
4.	SATIS4	1.4239	.7049	184.0
5.	SATIS5	1.4783	.7240	184.0
6.	SATIS6	2.0054	.8064	184.0
7.	SATIS7	1.4783	.7009	184.0
8.	SATIS8	1.7011	.7413	184.0
9.	SATIS9	1.8424	.7976	184.0
10.	SATIS10	1.6902	.7939	184.0

Cronbach = .92

Cronbach's Alpha for Communication Scale-items

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	COM1	1.7446	.8064	184.0
2.	COM2	1.7120	.7953	184.0
3.	COM3	1.5924	.7838	184.0
4.	COM4	1.6141	.8016	184.0
5.	COM5	1.6576	.7942	184.0
6.	COM6	1.5435	.7741	184.0
7.	COM7	1.5598	.7659	184.0

Cronbach =   .92

Cronbach's Alpha for Relation Scale-items

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	RELA1	1.5304	.7419	181.0
2.	RELA2	1.6077	.7787	181.0
3.	RELA3	1.6022	.7795	181.0
4.	RELA4	1.5580	.7840	181.0
5.	RELA5	1.6354	.7599	181.0
6.	RELA6	1.4807	.7195	181.0
7.	RELA7	1.6022	.7866	181.0
8.	RELA8	1.4641	.7265	181.0
9.	RELA9	1.4144	.7146	181.0

Cronbach =   .96

Histogram of Respondents' Attitudes With Mean and Standard Deviation

Histogram

parti1

Std. Dev = 1.00
Mean = 2.3
N = 194.00

parti1

parti2

Std. Dev = .94
Mean = 2.3
N = 196.00

parti2

parti3

Std. Dev = .93
Mean = 1.9
N = 195.00

parti3

PARTI4

Std. Dev = 1.22
Mean = 3.3
N = 187.00

PARTI4

PARTI5

Std. Dev = 1.00
Mean = 2.2
N = 194.00

PARTI5

PARTI6

Std. Dev = 1.06
Mean = 2.7
N = 194.00

PARTI6

PARTI7

Std. Dev = .92
Mean = 2.2
N = 195.00

PARTI7

PARTI8

Std. Dev = .99
Mean = 2.4
N = 195.00
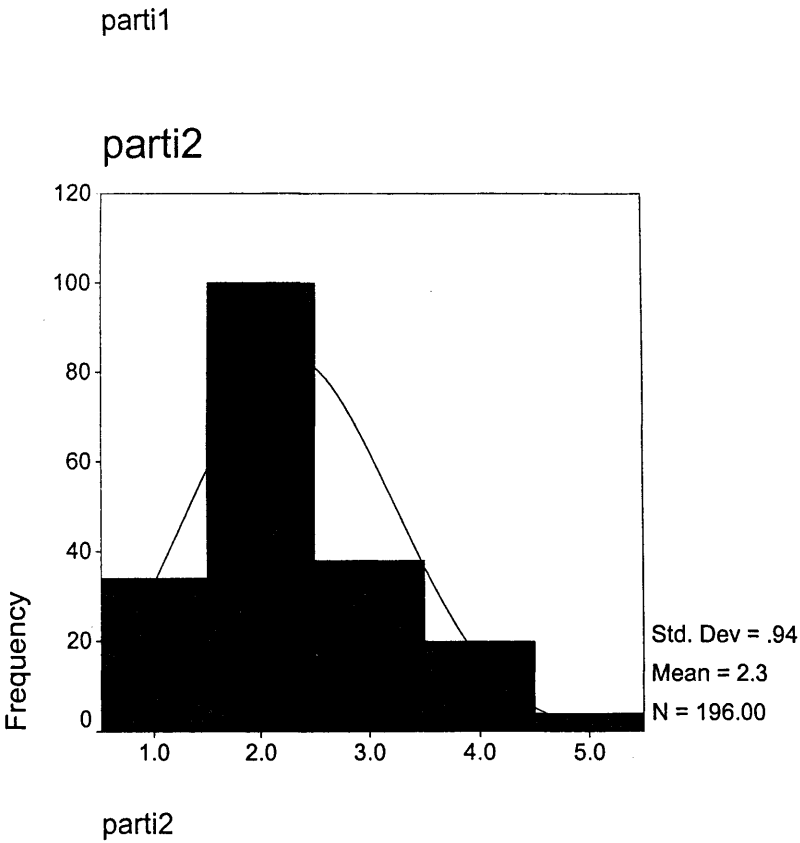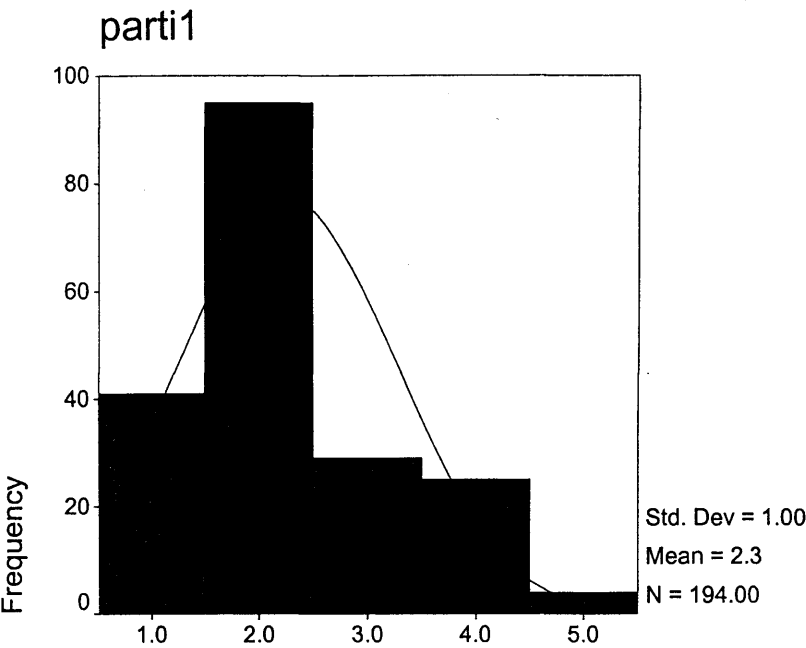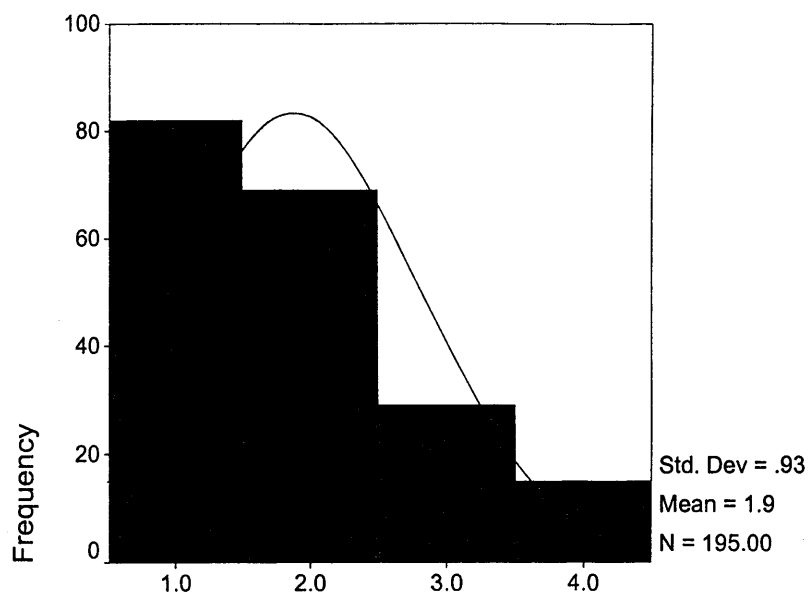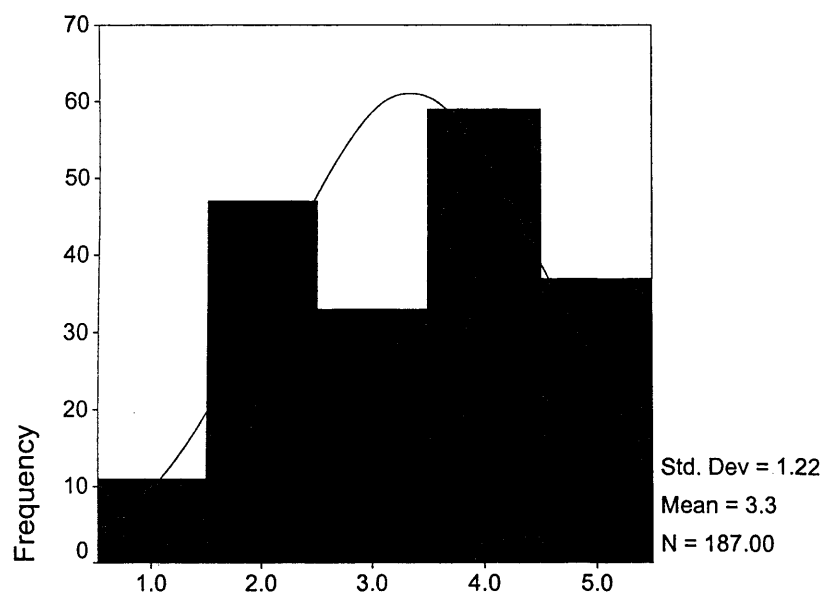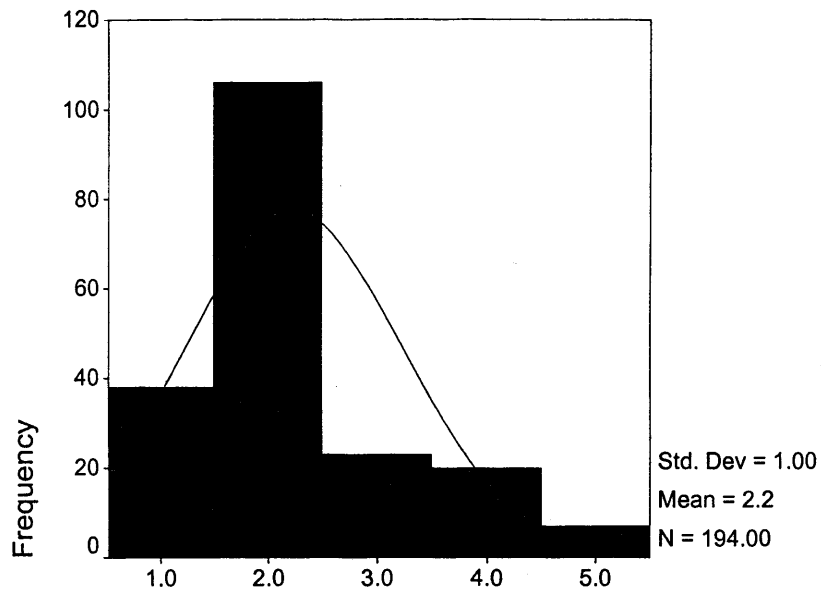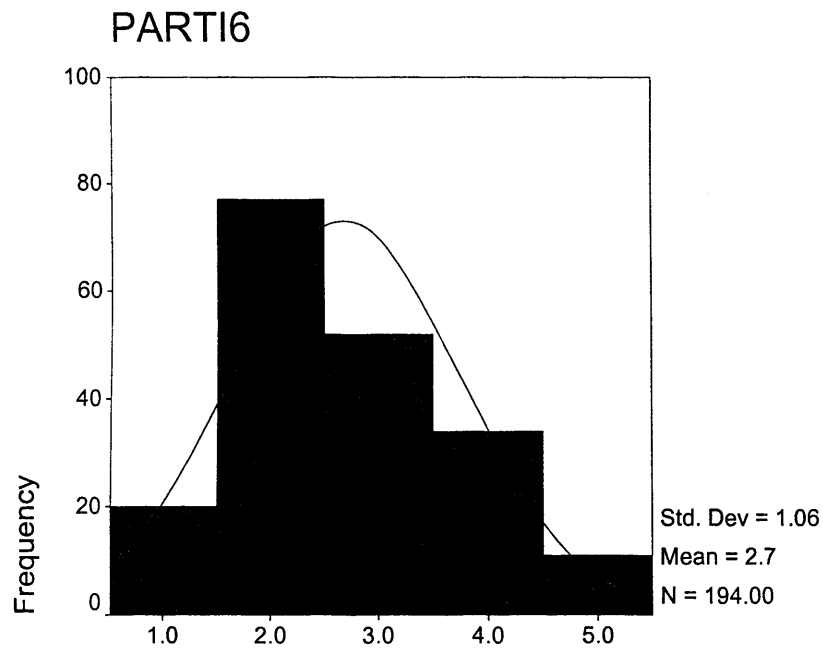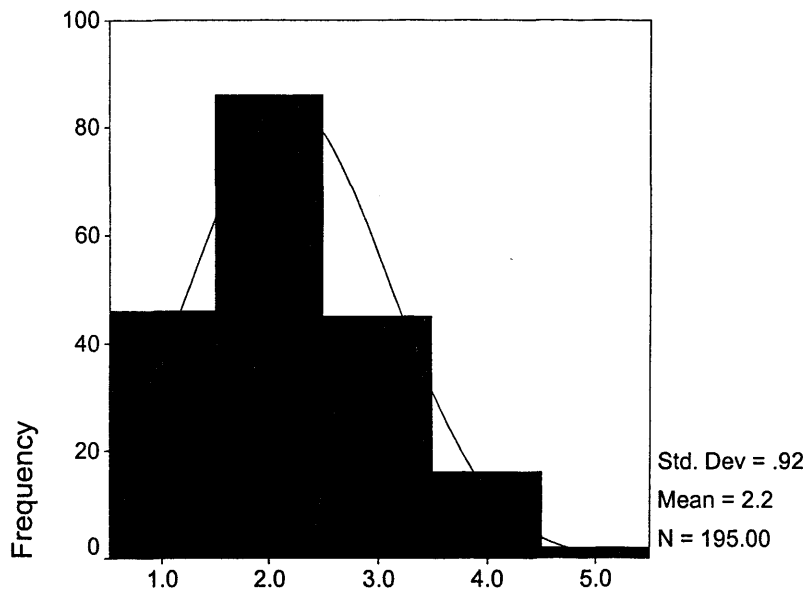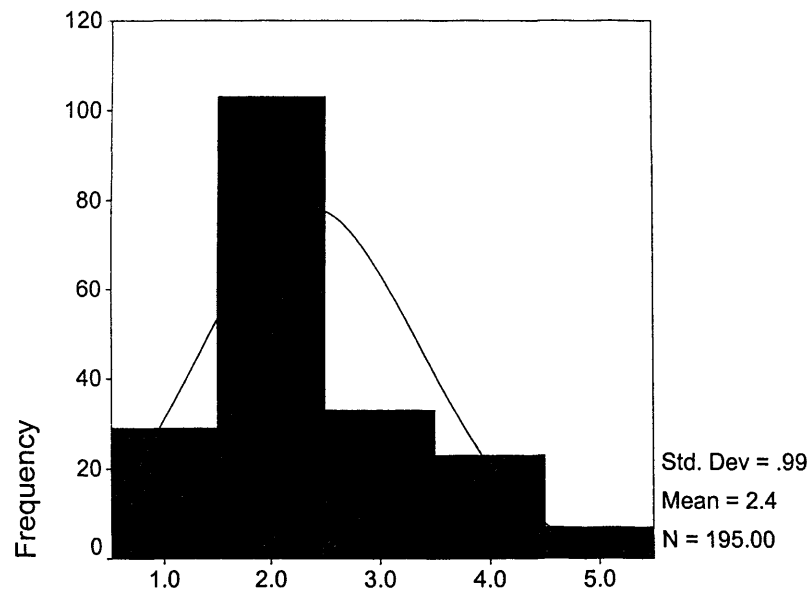
PARTI8
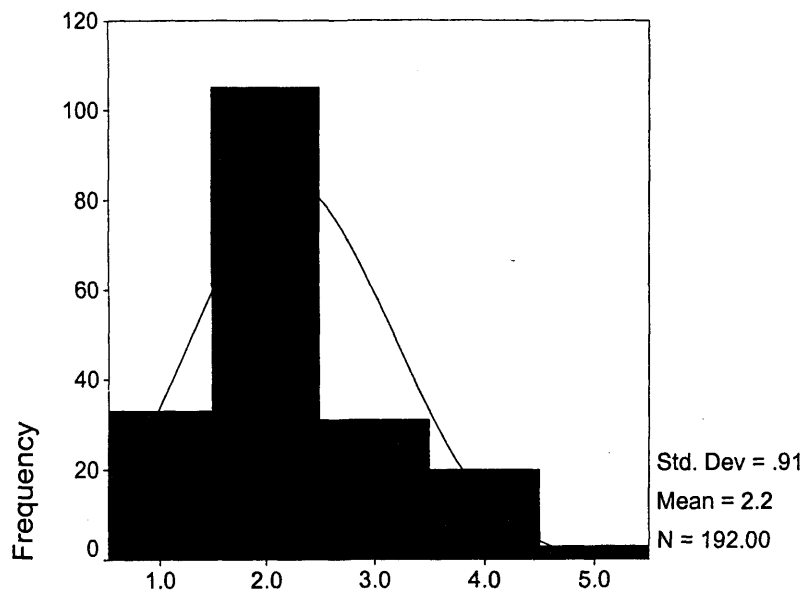
SATIS1

SATIS1

SATIS2

SATIS2

SATIS3

Std. Dev = 1.05
Mean = 2.9
N = 194.00

SATIS3

SATIS4

Std. Dev = .93
Mean = 2.2
N = 189.00

SATIS4

SATIS5

Std. Dev = .86
Mean = 2.4
N = 193.00

SATIS5

SATIS6

Std. Dev = .99
Mean = 3.0
N = 192.00

SATIS6

SATIS7

Std. Dev = .90
Mean = 2.3
N = 194.00

SATIS7

SATIS8

Std. Dev = .89
Mean = 2.7
N = 193.00

SATIS8

SATIS9

Std. Dev = .95
Mean = 2.8
N = 192.00

SATIS9

SATIS10

Std. Dev = .97
Mean = 2.6
N = 194.00

SATIS10

COM1

Std. Dev = 1.01
Mean = 2.6
N = 194.00

COM1

COM2

Std. Dev = .95
Mean = 2.7
N = 195.00

COM2

COM3

Std. Dev = .95
Mean = 2.5
N = 191.00

COM3

COM4

Std. Dev = .97
Mean = 2.5
N = 194.00

COM4

COM5

Std. Dev = .99
Mean = 2.6
N = 188.00

COM5

COM6

Std. Dev = 1.01
Mean = 2.4
N = 190.00

COM6

COM7

Std. Dev = .94
Mean = 2.5
N = 192.00

COM7

RELA1

Std. Dev = .90
Mean = 2.4
N = 187.00

RELA1

RELA2

Std. Dev = 1.04
Mean = 2.5
N = 187.00

RELA2

RELA3

Std. Dev = .99
Mean = 2.5
N = 188.00

RELA3

RELA4

Std. Dev = 1.03
Mean = 2.4
N = 189.00

RELA4

RELA5

Std. Dev = .94
Mean = 2.5
N = 186.00

RELA5

RELA6

Std. Dev = .91
Mean = 2.3
N = 187.00

RELA6

RELA7

Std. Dev = .94
Mean = 2.5
N = 188.00

RELA7

RELA8

Std. Dev = .89
Mean = 2.3
N = 187.00

RELA8

RELA9

Std. Dev = .88
Mean = 2.3
N = 187.00

RELA9