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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEPARTMENT CHAIRS' LEADERSHIP STYLE AND
FACULTY MEMBERS' JOB SATISFACTION IN THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
AT KING SAUD UNIVERSITY IN SAUDI ARABIA

by

Reem Abdulrahman Alsunaydi

A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of the University of the Incarnate Word
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF THE INCARNATE WORD

December 2020

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Acknowledgments—Continued

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Reem Abdulrahman Alsunaydi

DEDICATION

I dedicate this accomplishment to my beloved parents, husband, and children. I am so grateful to have you in my life.

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Reem Abdulrahman Alsunaydi

University of the Incarnate Word, 2020

This quantitative, correlation study explored the leadership styles of the department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by the full-time faculty members. This exploration was used to examine the relationship between leadership styles and faculty's overall job satisfaction, and to determine to what extent these leadership styles predicted the faculty's overall job satisfaction. The theoretical framework for this study was the Full Range Leadership theory, which consists of three leadership styles and considered the independent variables for the study: transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership. The dependent variable for the study was the overall satisfaction level of the faculty members. Data for the research were collected from an online survey through SurveyMonkey using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The sample consisted of 152 faculty members from the College of Education at King Saud University, which is considered to be one of the largest public universities in Saudi Arabia. The methods used to analyze the data and answer the research questions included descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation test, and multiple regression analyses. The findings of this study revealed that the transformational leadership style was the most often exercised style by the department chairs, followed closely by the transactional leadership style, while the passive/avoidant leadership style was perceived to be used the least. The correlation results

showed that a statistically strong positive relationship existed between the transformational and transactional leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction, while a statistically weak negative relationship existed between the passive/avoidant leadership style and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. The regression model was statistically significant, and the three independent variables explained approximately 47.8% of the variance in the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. The transformational leadership style was the only statistically significant predictor of the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. Finally, implications for theory and practice are offered and suggestions for future research are provided.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
Saudi Arabia’s Vision 2030	3
Statement of The Problem	5
Statement of Purpose	6
Research Questions.....	7
Hypotheses.....	7
Theoretical Framework.....	8
Significance of the Study	12
Definition of Terms.....	13
Limitations, Delimitations, and Assumptions.....	14
Limitations	14
Delimitations.....	15
Assumptions.....	15
Summary	16
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	17
Overview of Saudi Arabia	17
Overview of the Education System in Saudi Arabia	18
Overview of Leadership.....	22
Definition of Leadership.....	22

Table of Contents—Continued

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Leadership Theories.....	24
The Great Man Trait Theory.....	25
The Behavior Theories.....	25
The Contingency and Situational Theories.....	26
Contemporary Leadership Theories.....	26
Full Range Leadership Theory.....	27
Transformational Leadership.....	28
Transactional Leadership.....	32
Passive/Avoidant Leadership.....	34
Leadership in Higher Education.....	35
Leadership in Saudi Arabian Higher Education.....	37
Department Chairs in Higher Education.....	40
Overview of Job Satisfaction.....	41
Definition of Job Satisfaction.....	41
Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction.....	43
The Importance of Job Satisfaction.....	43
Main Theories of Job Satisfaction.....	45
Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory.....	45
Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory.....	47
Job Satisfaction in Higher Education.....	50
Relationship Between Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction in Higher Education.....	54

Table of Contents—Continued

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	
Synthesis of Research on the Relationship Between Leadership and Job Satisfaction	58
Gap in the Literature	59
Summary	60
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	
Research Questions	61
Hypotheses	62
Research Paradigm.....	62
Research Design and Rationale	63
Research Setting (King Saud University).....	64
Population and Sampling	67
Instruments and Measures.....	68
Demographic Questionnaire	68
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).....	69
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)	69
Reliability and Validity.....	70
Data Collection	71
Data Analysis	72
Ethical Considerations	74
Summary	75
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS	
Descriptive Statistics.....	76

Table of Contents—Continued

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Reliability Tests of the Instruments	76
Description of the Sample	77
Gender.....	78
Academic Department	78
Academic Rank	79
Participants' Working Experience With Their Department Chair.....	79
Scoring of the MLQ and MSQ.....	80
Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables.....	80
Analyses of the Research Questions	81
Research Question One.....	81
Statistical Assumption Checks.....	84
Absence of Outliers.....	84
Linearity	84
Normality	86
Homoscedasticity	88
Independence of Residuals	89
Multicollinearity	89
Research Question Two	90
Linking Leadership Behaviors to Faculty Overall Job Satisfaction	91

Table of Contents—Continued

CHAPTER 4:DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS	
Analyses of the Research Questions	
Research Question Three	94
Summary	95
CHAPTER 5:DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	
Summary of The Study	96
Discussion.....	98
Theoretical and Practical Implications	102
Implications for Leadership Theory.....	102
Implications for the Department Chairs at King Saud University	103
Implications for King Saud University	106
Implications for the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia.....	107
Recommendations for Future Research	109
Conclusion	110
REFERENCES	111
APPENDICES	124
Appendix A Permission for Use of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire	125
Appendix B Permission from King Saud University to Conduct the Study.....	126
Appendix C Institutional Review Board Approval.....	128
Appendix D Invitation E-mail	129
Appendix E Informed Consent Form.....	130

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Measure of Internal Consistency	77
2. Participants' Gender.....	78
3. Participants' Academic Departments.....	78
4. Participants' Academic Ranks	79
5. Participants' Working Experience With Department Chair	79
6. Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables.....	81
7. Summary of the MLQ Questionnaire Styles and Dimensions.....	83
8. Summary for the Skewness and Kurtosis for Each Variable.....	86
9. Collinearity Statistics	89
10. Summary of Pearson Coefficients for Leadership Styles and Overall Job Satisfaction.....	91
11. Summary of the Multiple Regression Analysis	95

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Scatterplot of Transformational Leadership Style and Overall Job Satisfaction	85
2. Scatterplot of Transactional Leadership Style and Overall Job Satisfaction	85
3. Scatterplot of Passive/Avoidant Leadership Style and Overall Job Satisfaction.....	86
4. Overall Job Satisfaction Q-Q plot.....	87
5. Transformational Leadership Style Q-Q plot	87
6. Transactional Leadership Style Q-Q plot	87
7. Passive/Avoidant Leadership Style Q-Q plot	88
8. Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals Against Predicted Values for Job Satisfaction.....	88

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Leadership is a complex concept and the literature has generated countless definitions reflecting different theories and/or schools of leadership (Vecchio, 2007). Bush (2003) argued no consensus exists on a definition for leadership, and every author has defined leadership based on his/her own interpretation and understanding. One of the most commonly used definitions of leadership was provided by Northouse (2013), who stated that leadership is “the process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 6). Yukl (2006) saw leadership as a collaborative approach and defined it as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (p. 8). Rost (1991) defined leadership as “an influence relationship among leaders and collaborators who intend significant changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (p. 102). Even though countless definitions of leadership exist in leadership studies, most involve the concept of an individual influencing a group to work towards a common goal (Northouse, 2013).

The leadership behaviors and practices of leaders are vital to the success of an organization and its followers (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009; Robbins & Judge, 2018). Over the years, the study of leadership has produced several approaches and theories to explain leadership effectiveness and expand our knowledge on how to apply different approaches in various contexts (Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2006). As no single approach of leadership is better than another, how a leader acts in a particular situation defines his/her leadership. To this end, effective leadership depends on the degree of fit between the nature of the organization, leader, and followers and how these variables interact with each other (Avolio, 2007; Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2013).

Leadership in higher education plays a critical role in improving institutional development and sustainability (Gonaim, 2016a) and creating a positive culture that ensures student and faculty development and success (Miller et al., 2016). Today, leaders in higher education face more challenges and have more responsibilities than in the past. Therefore, the need for effective leadership has become greater (Gonaim, 2016a) to address today's challenges of being different from competitors and ensuring that institutions of higher education thrive, rather than just survive, in the future (Alfred, 2006).

In higher education, the department chair plays an essential role on the university leadership team as they represent a critical link between the higher administration and the faculty, staff, and students (Gmelch, 2015; Gonaim, 2016a; Riley & Russell, 2013). According to Carroll and Wolverton (2004), department chairs are in a very strategic and challenging position as they make 80% of all the administrative decisions in institutions of higher education. A key role for the department chair is supervising and supporting faculty work as faculty members are an important resource within higher education institutions (Miller et al., 2016). The leadership behaviors and practices of academic administrators are paramount to the success of the institution and satisfaction of the faculty members (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Craig, 2005).

Hijazi et al., (2016) stated that leadership style and job satisfaction are key components in reaching institutional objectives. The success of an organization depends upon its ability to hire and retain satisfied employees (Cordeiro, 2010). With faculty being a critical component in the teaching and learning processes, faculty job satisfaction is an important focus because it is closely related to faculty performance (i.e., teaching quality), which influences students achievement and success (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015; Chen, 2011; Qayyum, 2013; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). Faculty job satisfaction is also associated with motivation, engagement, and intent

to remain in the profession (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015; Hijazi et al., 2016). Several research studies have shown that administrators' leadership is an important factor that affects faculty members' levels of satisfaction (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Amin, 2012; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hijazi et al., 2016).

Academic leaders should be aware of the factors influencing faculty to be either satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs in order to enhance their performances, engagement, and commitment (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015; Miller et al., 2016; Qayyum, 2013). There is a lack of clear understanding of how leadership style and job satisfaction interact in higher education contexts (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Samad et al., 2015) and in higher education in Saudi Arabia in particular. Few researchers have explored the relationship between higher education administrators' leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction within Saudi Arabian university settings (Alalwan, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016). Metcalfe and Mimouni (2011) indicting that "there is a remarkable scarcity of solid studies on leadership theory and practices in Saudi Arabia" (p. 180). The lack of research in this area supports the relevance of this study. This research study therefore examined the leadership styles of department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by the faculty members in order to determine whether they correlate with the overall faculty members' job satisfaction, and to determine to what extent these leadership styles predicted the faculty members' job satisfaction, using a quantitative, non-experimental, correlational design.

Saudi Arabia's Vision 2030

Prince Mohammed bin Salman Al-Saud —Saudi Arabia's deputy crown prince— announced Saudi Arabia's transformation and comprehensive plan, known as Saudi Arabia's Vision 2030, on April 26, 2016. This plan contains many initiatives across many industries and

sectors of society (Blanchard, 2018). Prince Mohammad (2016) stressed that Vision 2030 “is the first step on our journey toward a better, brighter future for our country and our citizens”. Vision 2030 is based on three main themes: creating “a vibrant society,” “thriving of economy,” and more “ambitious nation” (Saudi Vision 2030, 2020). Under Vision 2030 plan, the government plans to make Saudi Arabia’s economy less dependent on oil revenue by boosting investment in the private sector, focusing on long-term growth, and expanding opportunities for all Saudi Arabian citizens to achieve their dreams. The ambitious plan has several economic, social, and educational goals to produce a stronger and more diversified knowledge- based economy. The plan seeks to develop partnerships between the government and the private sector in the areas of economic development, such as industry, energy, technology, education, and health (Blanchard, 2018).

The Saudi Arabian government has realized the importance of education reform and development toward a knowledge-based society (Hamdan, 2016). As education is a top priority for the government of Saudi Arabia, Vision 2030 has many important objectives to improve higher education in the country and make it competitive with higher education systems around the world. The higher education sector is among the most important sectors facing tremendous development as it receives a large proportion of the government’s annual budget to address real social and economic needs of the country, in accordance with the religious values and cultural traditions of the kingdom. By 2030, the government hopes to have at least five local universities ranked among the top 200 institutions globally (Saudi Vision 2030, 2020).

Hence, leadership in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia are facing continuous pressure for change and improvement. Leadership in education affects the overall functioning of the institution since the leaders’ practices influence the quality of education, student

achievement, and institutional success and effectiveness (Hempsall, 2014). Thus, Saudi Arabian universities need skilled and effective leaders who create positive environments to promote change and foster development that aligns with Vision 2030 (Shafai, 2018).

Statement of the Problem

The success of an organization depends upon its ability to hire and retain satisfied employees (Cordeiro, 2010). Leaders in higher education play a critical role in creating a positive culture that ensures faculty development and success (Miller et al., 2016). This aligns with Bateh and Heyliger's (2014) statement that the style of leadership adopted by an academic administration plays a central role in promoting faculty commitment and job satisfaction. According to Miller et al. (2016), faculty performance and productivity are positively linked to workplace satisfaction. When faculty have high levels of job satisfaction in the workplace, their productivity and commitment increase, while rates of absenteeism, turnover, and attrition decrease (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015). On the other hand, faculty dissatisfaction has many adverse effects, including lower teaching effectiveness and research productivity (Reybold, 2005).

The results from previous studies have indicated that researchers have not reached a consensus on the optimum leadership style to promote faculty job satisfaction (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Several research studies have emphasized the lack of administrative leadership development among department chairs that would prepare them to perform as effective leaders (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Riley & Russell, 2013). Many department chairs are faculty who come to the position without leadership training or prior administrative experience, which becomes a source of stress and frustration for the chairs (Riley & Russell, 2013; Thrasher, 2017). Gmelch (2015) indicated that, in 2013, only 3.3% of department chairs in public and private universities the United States reported that they had received any type of ongoing leadership training. Shafai

(2018) found in her study that Saudi Arabian higher education leaders also lacked leadership knowledge and training on effective leadership and its application in the workplace. In addition, some administrators selected for new leadership positions may be unaware of how their leadership styles may impact faculty members' job satisfaction (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009).

Numerous studies have been conducted on the relationship between leadership and employee job satisfaction (Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006), but comparatively little research has examined institutes of higher education (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). In addition, the majority of the research on leadership and faculty job satisfaction that has been generated has focused on colleges and universities in Western countries through the lenses of Western perspectives. Few researchers have looked at the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction at the university level in Saudi Arabia (Alalwan, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016). Alsuood (2019) pointed out that a scarcity of research exists on leadership perceptions and practices in the context of Saudi Arabian higher education, which, in turn, reflects on the level of organizational performance. King Saud University is considered to be one of the largest universities in Saudi Arabia; however, few empirical studies have examined the impact of department chairs' leadership on faculty job satisfaction at this university (Alghamdi, 2016).

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental, correlational study was to explore the leadership styles of the department chairs within the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by full-time faculty members in order to examine the relationship between leadership styles and faculty's overall job satisfaction, and to determine to what extent these leadership styles predicted the faculty's overall job satisfaction. The independent variables were the transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant

leadership styles. The dependent variable was the overall satisfaction level of full-time faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University. The outcome of the study will help administrators, stakeholders, and Saudi Arabian policymakers gain a better understanding of various leadership styles and their impact on faculty job satisfaction, which is a critical factor in regard to making decisions concerning organizational improvement, training, and effectiveness.

Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

RQ1. What is the most predominant leadership style of the department chairs as perceived by faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia?

RQ2. What, if any, relationship exists between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia?

RQ3. To what extent does the leadership styles of the department chairs as perceived by the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, predict the faculty member's overall job satisfaction?

Hypotheses

H₂₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty member's overall job satisfaction in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

H_{2a}: There is a statistically significant relationship between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty member's overall job satisfaction in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

H3₀: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

H3_a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was the Full Range leadership theory. Antonakis et al., (2003) indicated that the Full Range leadership theory has been the most important and comprehensive theory used in leadership literature. The Full Range leadership framework allows for an examination of possible advantages and disadvantages of different leadership styles on the followers depending on the situation in which the leader finds himself/herself (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Samad et al., 2015). The Full Range leadership theory was developed initially by Burns (1978), who introduced transformational leadership. Later, Bass and Avolio (1994) incorporated two additional leadership styles, transactional and passive/avoidant. Bass (1985) argued that previous leadership theories emphasized follower role and goal clarification, as well as focused more on how leaders rewarded or punished follower behaviors than on the leaders' influence. Avolio and Bass (2004) determined that leaders tend to use all three styles to some degree based on the followers' maturity and situation. The recent revision of the model consists of nine leadership dimensions, of which five are transformational leadership dimensions, two are transactional leadership dimensions, and two are passive-avoidant leadership dimensions (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The first style is transformational leadership, which is considered as active leadership. Burns (1978; 1979) first introduced the concept of transformational leadership in his research on political leaders and Bass (1985) expanded upon the work of Burns (Avolio et al., 2009; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Burns (1978) defined the concept of transformational leadership as a process in which “leaders and followers help each other advance to a higher level of morale and motivation” (p. 382). Since the critical revisions made by Bass (1985) and Avolio and Bass (2004), transformational leadership has gained popularity and become one of the most researched theories in leadership and management research (Avolio et al., 2009; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Transformational leadership goes beyond an exchange between a leader and subordinates to focus on positive changes and creating positive working environments (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Marques, 2015). Li and Hung (2009) noted that transformational leadership shifted the emphasis from the leader to build a high-quality relationship between leaders and their followers through support, encouragement, and consideration.

Transformational leadership focuses on change, development, and motivating followers to perform beyond expectation (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007; Odetunde, 2013). In addition, transformational leaders are charismatic and seek different techniques and strategies to motivate followers and boost their performances (Northouse, 2013). Unlike other leadership styles, transformational leaders better understand their followers’ needs and strive to satisfy them (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Northouse, 2016). Transformational leaders give followers opportunities for development and personal growth, which enhance an organization’s ability to function smoothly and perform above expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2013). In transformational leadership, the leaders encourage open communication and involve their

followers in the processes of goal setting and decision-making, which boosts followers' communication, collaboration, and cohesiveness (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Johnson & Hackman, 2013). According to Dartey-Baah (2015), "transformational leadership explains leadership that adopts an effective combination of holistic and individualistic approaches to meeting the collective goals and ambitions of a group" (p. 102).

Furthermore, transformational leaders are charismatic, enthusiastic, and serve as role models who inspire others to be strong leaders and reach their fullest potential. In addition, they motivate their followers to find creative solutions and use different perspective to find solutions to problems, even if those solutions are in opposition to the leaders' perspectives (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Northouse, 2016; Shafique & Beh, 2017). Moreover, in transformational leadership, goals are shared between the leader and followers, which inspires the followers to transcend their self-interest to achieve common goals. In addition, transformational leaders build trust and positive relationships with their followers; as a result, followers are eager to increase their job commitments and performance beyond the leaders' expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Li & Hung, 2009). Transformational leadership includes five dimensions: idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2013).

The second style is transactional leadership, which focuses on achieving established goals by clarifying the roles, task requirements, and expectations. Transactional leadership was first described by Weber (1947) and expanded on by Burns (1978) and Bass (1981). The basis of transactional leadership is management through an exchange process between the leader and the followers through a system of rewards for acceptable performance and punishments for unacceptable performance (Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Dartey-Baah, 2015). This style of

leadership is considered to be the traditional style of leadership. Transactional leaders often use the exchange principle to fulfill their own interests and needs. The reward system may take many forms, including written recognition, pay increases, and/or promotions (Smith, 2015).

Transactional leaders take action only when organizational goals are not achieved or problems arise (Dartey-Baah, 2015; Northouse, 2016; Odetunde, 2013). In the workplace, employees may meet the organization's objectives and obligations through exchange processes or reward systems; however, transactional leadership does not guarantee employee commitment or increased productivity (Dartey-Baah, 2015).

Transactional leaders motivate followers to perform through rewards and punishments such as monetary incentives and determination of employment (Bass, 2008; Burns, 1978; Dartey-Baah, 2015; Johnson & Hackman, 2013). These systems may hinder the followers' innovative behavior and creative ideas related to solving the challenges they face for fear of repercussions (Pieterse et al., 2009). Additionally, transactional leaders' roles are to get tasks completed based on the procedures, norms, and rules of their organization, without any visionary leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1994; Dartey-Baah, 2015). This type of leader also tends to place an emphasis on short-term goals, short-term planning, and controlling processes (Avolio & Bass, 1994) because such leaders are more task-oriented than people-oriented and place the most focus on role performance (Dartey-Baah, 2015; Pieterse et al., 2009). Transactional leadership consists of two dimensions: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The third style is passive/avoidant leadership, which is significantly different from transactional and transformational leadership. A passive/avoidant leader usually avoids or delays involvement or making decisions until something goes wrong or when problems become serious.

In addition, the leader does not have a clear direction or provide constructive feedback that could help followers achieve common goals (Bass, 2008; Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Yukl, 2006). As a result, followers may feel lost and unsupported. Leaders who use this type of leadership tend to be inactive, give general instructions, and do not attempt to develop their followers or satisfy their needs (Bass, 2008; Johnson & Hackman, 2013). Therefore, passive/avoidant leadership is often associated with negative effects on the motivation, productivity, and job satisfaction of employees (Amin, 2012; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Johnson & Hackman, 2013).

However, the passive style of leadership may work in specific environments and circumstances. For example, when followers are highly skilled, are motivated, and have experience so that they do not need much supervision or facilitation, this type of leadership works well (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Shafique & Beh, 2017; Sharma & Singh, 2013). Dartey-Baah (2015) stated that this type of leaders gives followers opportunities to work on their own way and preferences to attain the goals and involve only when a problem occurs.

Passive/avoidant leadership is comprised of two dimensions: management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Significance of the Study

Few researchers have looked at the faculty members' perceptions of department chairs' leadership styles, or how these perceptions may have impacted faculty job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia (Alalwan, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016). This study addressed the gap in the literature by adding to the body of empirical research about department chairs' leadership styles as perceived by faculty members in Saudi Arabia.

Ensuring that employees are satisfied is a critical task of successful leadership in education because job satisfaction is closely associated with faculty's teaching effectiveness and

productivity (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015; Chen, 2011; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). The outcomes of this study help department chairs to determine the leadership behaviors that foster faculty job satisfaction. Also, the department chairs may benefit greatly from the findings of this study, as it provides insight into leadership behaviors that need improvement.

Moreover, determining the leadership styles that improve job satisfaction of faculty provides information to King Saud University's administrators when designing training and professional development programs for current and future department chairs to meet their full potential. In addition, determining the relationship between department chairs' leadership styles and faculty members' job satisfaction may offer an opportunity to revise the job requirements and hiring processes for department chairs in Saudi Arabia. Additionally, the results of the study may inform current and future leadership development programs provided by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia for higher education administrators and promising future leaders.

As the world is becoming increasingly diverse, more comparative and international studies are an important step in advancing our knowledge of leadership practices within different cultural contexts. A need exists for leadership studies within the Saudi Arabia culture and context, as they will add multicultural value to the body of leadership knowledge because culture plays a vital role in shaping the practices and expectations of leadership (Alsuood, 2019; Gonaim, 2016a). Gonaim (2016a) stated that "culture and leadership cannot be separated, as leadership is basically a social construct" (p. 43). Alfawaz et al., (2014) stated that "Saudi Arabia has a unique society appearance in its adherence to its inherited values" (p. 24). Saudi Arabian beliefs about leadership are informed by its Islamic values and principles (Alsuood, 2019).

Definition of Key Terms

The following definitions were used for this study:

Leadership: “the process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2013, p. 6).

Full Range Leadership Theory: The Full Range leadership theory classifies leadership into three categories: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Job Satisfaction: “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating one’s job values” (Locke, 1969, p. 317).

Department Chair: For this study, the department chair is defined as the faculty member who carries out certain administrative functions in addition to teaching for a department in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Faculty Members: For this study, faculty members are defined as those individuals who hold full-time positions as professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers, or teaching assistants in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Limitations, Delimitations, and Assumptions

The following is a list of limitations, delimitations, assumptions relevant to this study.

Limitations

The limitations of this study are as follows:

- The sample was limited to the education faculty at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia; thus, the findings cannot be generalized to all faculty or other universities.
- Another limitation was the use of a convenience sample, which limits the generalizability of the findings to the entire population and affects the representativeness of the research results.

- One limitation lies in using self-report perception data that may be subject to personal biases.
- Some intended participants may have chosen not to respond to the survey due to their concerns related to the anonymity of their responses. To minimize that potential, the researcher emphasized that the participants' identities would be protected, and the responses would be confidential.
- The study was limited to faculty members willing to respond by the given deadline.

Delimitations

The delimitations of this study are as follows:

- The study was limited to male and female faculty members teaching full-time in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.
- The study only looked at the perceptions of full-time faculty members (e.g., professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers, and teaching assistants). Adjunct and part-time faculty members were not included in the study.
- This survey addressed only faculty members' perceptions of the leadership styles of their department chairs.

Assumptions

The assumptions of this study are as follows:

- It is assumed that the participants answered all of the survey items honestly and to the best of their abilities.
- It is assumed that the instruments selected for this study were valid and reliable.

- It is assumed that the above instruments accurately measured the faculty members' perceptions of their department chairs' leadership styles and faculty members' overall level of job satisfaction.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore the leadership styles of department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by the faculty members in order to determine to what extent these leadership styles predicted the faculty's overall job satisfaction. Chapter one examined the background of the study. The chapter included the statement of the problem and details on the purpose of the study. In addition, the chapter contained a description of the study's theoretical framework and definitions of the key terms used throughout the study. The limitations, delimitations, and assumptions relevant to this study were presented. The next chapter includes a review of the literature relevant to this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Overview of Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is the largest Arab country and located in Western Asia with a land area of around two million square kilometers (Hilal, 2013). Saudi Arabia is bordered by eight countries: Jordan, Iraq, and Kuwait to the north; Qatar, Bahrain, and the United Arab Emirates to the east; and Oman and Yemen to the south (Alfayez, 2014). The total population in 2016 was estimated at 32.4 million people (55.2% men and 44.8% women) (Alharbi, 2016) and 67% of the population was under 35 (Blanchard, 2018). The population of Saudi Arabia has a growth rate of 1.536%. Arabic is the official language in Saudi Arabia, although English is widely used, especially in the business and medical fields (Alfayez, 2014; Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). Saudi Arabia was established in 1932 by King Abdulaziz bin Abdelrahman Al-Saud and has been ruled by the Al-Saud family ever since. Economically, the discovery of oil in the country in 1938 transformed the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and changed its economic position in the global economy (Blanchard, 2018; Pharaon, 2004). Today, Saudi Arabia is one of the world's top oil exporters and oil revenues make up 80% of the country's income (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015; Blanchard, 2018; Pharaon, 2004).

Saudi Arabia is the birthplace of Islam and “the home of the two holiest places for those of the Islamic faith: Almasjed Alharam in Mecca and Almasjid Alnabawi in Medina” (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015, p. 34). Islam shapes all aspects of the nation, including social, political, economic, and education systems at all levels (Pharaon, 2004). According to Saleh (1986), “Saudi Arabia follows an Islamic philosophy of education and the seeds of its educational system are founded in Islam” (p. 18). From its earliest beginnings, Islam places much importance on acquiring knowledge for lifelong learning, and how people should continuously strive for it. The first word

in the Holy Quran is 'Read'. The Prophet Muhammad (peace and blessings of Allah be upon him) indicated that seeking knowledge is an obligation upon every Muslim (Al-Hamidi, 1995).

Overview of the Education System in Saudi Arabia

The educational system and its policies in Saudi Arabia are derived from Islamic law, which is based on the Holy Quran and Sunnah (Pharaon, 2004). Saudi Arabia's education system divides students into five categories: kindergarten, elementary, intermediate, secondary, and higher education (Alghamdi, 2016). The country has a gender-segregated education system from first grade of primary education throughout higher education (Hein et al., 2015) except for King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (Hamdan, 2016). According to Smith and Abouammoh (2013), “education in Saudi Arabia has four defining characteristics: a focus on the teaching of Islam, a centralized system of control and educational support, state funding, and a general policy of gender segregation” (p. 2). Education is free at all levels for Saudi Arabian and non-Saudi Arabian citizens, except for students who attend private institutions. In addition, both genders have equal access to education (Alghamdi, 2016; Shafai, 2018). The education system of Saudi Arabia is centralized by The Ministry of Education, which responsible for policies, regulations, and practices of the system (Hein et al., 2015).

The K-12 education system in Saudi Arabia includes four levels: kindergarten (1 year), elementary (6 years), intermediate (3 years), and secondary (3 years). The Ministry of Education in the Kingdom controls all aspects of public and private schools and is responsible for the implementation of the government's educational policy (Hein et al., 2015). Its responsibilities include creating program plans, developing the curriculum, providing textbooks, and hiring and training teachers. All schools have the same programs and curricula. However, international and private schools may develop different programs and curricula to better meet the needs of the

students, such as teaching English (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015; Hein et al., 2015). In 2002, there were few private schools; however, as of 2015, private schools represented approximately 12.9% of the total number of schools in Saudi Arabia and their numbers are increasing. The rise of private education is driven by the population growth, the government's initiative to boost the role of private sector participation in education, and shift in preferences of parents (Hein et al., 2015). According to the Ministry of Education's statistics, more than five million students were enrolled in 37,447 schools during the 2017-2018 academic year (Ministry of Education, 2019a).

The Ministry of Higher Education was established in 1975 to regulate higher education, including public universities, public community colleges, and external education for Saudi Arabian students studying abroad, in accord with the adopted national policy. While private universities and colleges have independent governance and autonomy, the Ministry of Higher Education is responsible for supervising their operation and execution based on the government's education policy (Hamdan, 2016; Hein et al., 2015; Hilal, 2013).

The first public university in Saudi Arabia was King Saud University established in 1957 in Riyadh, the capital (Alharbi, 2016). The Ministry is responsible for funding, roles, regulations, standards, policy development and practices of the higher education sector (Hamdan, 2016; Smith & Abouammoh 2013). On January 29, 2015, the Ministry of Higher Education was merged with the Ministry of Education to become the Ministry of Education, which controls both K-12 and higher education (Ministry of Education, 2019b). The vision of the Ministry of Education as presented on its website is "to put in place an exceptional educational system that builds a globally competitive, knowledge-based community" (Ministry of Education, 2019c).

As a result of rapid population growth, the number of students enrolled in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia has also increased significantly (Hamdan, 2016). According to the Ministry of Education's statistics, 1,620,491 students were enrolled in higher education institutions during the 2017-2018 academic year compared to 571,813 students during the 2003-2004 academic year (Ministry of Education, 2019a). As a result, the government provides considerable attention to this sector. The number of universities and colleges increased significantly from eight in 2000 to 29 public and 14 private universities in 2019, located across different geographic regions in the Kingdom, to meet the higher demand for higher education located across different geographic regions in the Kingdom (Ministry of Education, 2019d).

Dar Al-Hekma University in Jeddah, which was founded in 1999, is considered the first private institution in the Kingdom. Some of private institutions worked hard to gain full accreditation to build the institution's reputation locally, regionally, nationally such as Prince Sultan University and Dar Al-Hekma University. Even though private higher education is a fairly new concept in Saudi Arabia, it is expected that it will expand to play a central role in reforming Saudi Arabia higher education (Hamdan, 2016).

It is worth mentioning that higher education in Saudi Arabia "has been one of the fastest growing education systems in the world over the past decade" (Abouammoh, 2018, p. 327). The rapid increase in higher education students has required the Saudi Arabian government to provide additional opportunities for education (Hamdan, 2016). The Ministry of Higher Education, for example, established the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP) in 2005, which is considered "the largest overseas scholarship program in the world" (Hilal, 2013, p. 201). The program awards scholarships to Saudi Arabian students so that they can study various disciplines needed in the labor market at universities in more than 25 countries, including the

United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, France, Japan, and Malaysia (Taylor & Albasri 2014). In 2010, more than 70,000 students continued their education under the program in order to obtain bachelor, masters, and doctorate degrees as well as medical fellowships (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). The KASP program provides scholarships for both genders equally based on specific conditions for acceptance, such as age, GPA, and area of study. The mission of the program is “to prepare and qualify Saudi Arabian human resources in an effective manner to compete on an international level in the labor market and in scientific research” (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). As of 2016, Saudi Arabian students were considered the third largest group in higher education in the United States after China and India with around 52,611 students or 4.9% of the international student population in the United States (The Institute of International Education (IIE), 2016). Also, in October 2019, Saudi Arabia announced new law to allow foreign universities to open local branches (Blanchard, 2018).

Public universities rely heavily on funding and support from the Saudi Arabian government. As such, the Saudi Arabia’s government invests heavily in education to support the Kingdom’s development and economic growth (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). For example, the public higher education sector receives a large proportion of the government’s annual budget, increasing by 155.9 % between 2009 and 2013. Education sector funding in 2019 reached 17% or \$51 billion of the total budget expenditure (Ministry of Education, 2019e). However, in recent years, Saudi Arabian universities have begun to develop several new funding sources, such as institutional endowments, alumni donors, sponsored research chairs, private philanthropy, and paid programs to support their academic missions and ensure long-term sustainability (Alqahtani, 2015).

Overview of Leadership

Definition of Leadership

Leadership is a complex concept and the literature has generated countless definitions that reflect different theories or schools of thought (Marques, 2015; Vecchio, 2007), yet no universal definition of leadership has been agreed upon (Bush, 2003). Over 200 definitions of leadership were published in the literature in the 20th century (Northouse, 2016). The reason for the difficulty in determining an agreed upon definition could be that the concept of leadership is dynamic (Dartey-Baah, 2015) and has evolved due to changes in globalization, economic, and demographics factors as well as social, technology, and business trends (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Some researchers have indicated that there are as many definitions of leadership as the number of individuals who have attempted to define the concept (Northouse, 2013; Vecchio, 2007).

One of the most commonly used definitions of leadership was provided by Northouse (2013) who focused on group influence and stated that leadership is “the process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 6). Defining leadership as a relational process emphasizes that leadership is not linear, but, rather, a dynamic and interconnected process that involves influence (Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2016). Also, consideration of leadership as a process implies that it is a two-way interactive relationship between the leader and his/her followers to accomplish group, organizational, and/or social goals (Bowman, 2002). Yukl (2006) saw leadership as a collaborative approach and defined it as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (p. 8). On the other hand, Fiedler (1967) indicated that leadership is an interpersonal

relationship where a leader's power influences his/her followers' behaviors. According to the author, leadership behavior refers to "... the particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of his group members" (p. 36). Rost (1991) defined leadership as "an influence relationship among leaders and collaborators who intend significant changes that reflect their mutual purposes" (p. 102).

Even though countless definitions of leadership exist in leadership studies, most involve the concept of an individual influencing a group to work toward a common goal. In this sense, a leader may influence followers' thoughts, attitudes, beliefs, values, and/or behaviors to act in a certain way to achieve intended goals (Johnson & Hackman, 2013). This type of influence comes through multi-level, dynamic processes and occur on multiple time scales that may take weeks, months, or years. In addition, many definitions are related to the characteristics, abilities, skills, and/or role functions of the leader, which predict leader effectiveness across many different contexts (Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2016).

Over the years, research on leadership has shifted from studying leaders' attributes to exploring leader responsibilities, exploring the leader-follower relationship, and focusing on the situational context (Avolio et al., 2009). One significant factor that should be considered in leadership is the context because it helps to determine the leader's actions in a way that fit the culture or condition of an organization. What is considered effective in one context might be inefficient in another (Pieterse et al., 2009). Another important consideration is that followers have different behaviors and needs that are shaped by cultural background and life experiences. Thus, effective leaders should understand the diversity of their followers and make necessary adjustments in their leadership styles along the way (Parvis, 2003).

Leadership is sometimes confused with management and, although they share similarities, they are two different concepts. Kotter (2008) stated that management focuses on providing order and stability to organizations, whereas the focus of leadership is to provide constructive change and movement in organizations.

Leadership Theories

Various leadership theories have been developed over the years. Dinh et al. (2014) located 66 different leadership approaches/theories by examining published leadership research in the top 10 academic journals on leadership. Meuser et al. (2016) reviewed 864 articles on leadership (2000 through 2013) and identified over 49 different styles of leadership. Even though having many different leadership theories enrich our knowledge about leadership and help to capture its complexity, many of the theories emphasize the outcomes of leadership more than the processes and dynamic interactions that affect the emergence of these outcomes (Meuser et al., 2016).

Early leadership theories too often focused on the leader and underestimated many other important elements of leadership, such as the context and the leader/follower relationship. Effective leadership depends on the degree of fit between the nature of the organization, its goals, and the followers as well as how each of these variables interact with each other dynamically over time (Avolio, 2007; Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2013). Avolio (2007) provided an integrative approach to leadership theory and stressed that leadership theory-building needs to move to the next level of integration considering the following five elements: a) cognitive elements that focus on leaders and followers relationship and self-awareness, b) individual and group behavior, c) the historical context, which highlights how past experience or factors impact what types of leadership and followership are considered appropriate, d) the

proximal context, which identifies how organizational climate and work characteristics impact on leaders and followers and their relationships, and e) the distal context that focus on how organizational cultural affects leader and follower behavior and perceptions. The following section will briefly discuss several theories of leadership. However, the focus of this study is transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership.

The Great Man Trait Theory. Early leadership theories in the 1900s focused on the personal characteristics or traits of effective and successful leaders. Those theories attempted to identify personal qualities that make leaders different from common individuals regardless of the context. During this period, people thought that leaders were born with given traits that cannot be made or learned, including physical, mental, and social characteristics (Middlehurst, 2012; Northouse, 2016; Yukl, 2006). According to the Five Factor Model (FFM), the five major characteristics or traits of effective leaders are “openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism” (Shafique & Beh, 2017, p. 135). The theory was later criticized because trait theorists focused exclusively on the leaders and ignored the relationships between leaders and followers as well as situational factors (Middlehurst, 2012; Northouse, 2016; Shafique & Beh, 2017). Bennis (1997) stated that:

the most dangerous leadership myth is that leaders are born – that there is a genetic factor to leadership. This myth asserts that people simply either have certain charismatic qualities or not. That’s nonsense; in fact, the opposite is true. Leaders are made rather than born. (p. 163)

The Behavior Theories. The behavior theories of leadership emerged in the 1960s and 1970s and focused on the actions and behaviors of successful leaders rather than who they were or their inherent qualities. Contrary to the trait theory, these theories challenged the idea that great leaders are made, not born, and established a new focus on how leadership could be learned

through training, observations, and experience. Researchers of the behavioral theories emphasis specific attributes that distinguish effective leaders from non-effective leaders (Shafique & Beh, 2017; Yukl, 2006). In the behavior approach, a leader focuses on tasks, behaviors, and relationship behaviors with his/her followers. The leader's success is based on his/her leadership behaviors (Northouse, 2016).

The Contingency and Situational Theories. The contingency theory of leadership was developed by Fiedler in 1958, while Hersey and Blanchard developed the situational theory in 1969. These theories emphasize that a leader may use different leadership styles in different situations (Thompson & Glaso, 2018). The situational theory consists of four styles of leadership: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. In this approach, a leader is effective when his/her style of leadership matches the situation. Therefore, a leader may use a mixture of different styles according to the requirements of the situation (Shafique & Beh, 2017). Both theories stress using flexible and adaptive behaviors based upon the current environment (Thompson & Glaso, 2018). In addition, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) illustrated that the appropriate leadership style depends greatly on the maturity level of the followers and their readiness to complete a task.

Contemporary Leadership Theories. For decades, leadership theories have evolved and changed from a focus on traits to a focus on behaviors to acknowledging the role of situations and context in leadership. Additionally, scholars have shifted from focusing on leaders to considering followers as valued contributors in the leadership process (Dartey-Baah, 2015). Contemporary approaches to leadership include the servant leadership theory, authentic leadership theory, and transformational leadership theory.

The servant leadership theory was developed by Greenleaf in 1970 and focuses on the leader putting his/her followers first rather than his/her personal interests and/or organizational needs. In this approach, the leader focuses on the followers by considering their needs, supporting their growth, and empowering them (Marques, 2015; Shafai, 2018). Servant leadership is defined as “a leader's desire to motivate and guide followers, offer hope, and provide a more caring experience through established quality relationships” (Schneider & George, 2011, p. 63).

Authentic leadership builds upon transformational and ethical leadership theories. In the authentic leadership theory, the leader demonstrates the highest moral standards and is ethical in his/her actions and decisions. Authentic leaders promote high moral values in their followers and empower them to lead (Marques, 2015). The key dimensions of authentic leadership are self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective (Gardner et al., 2005). Luthans and Avolio (2003) defined authentic leadership as “a process that draws from both psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated development” (2003, p. 321).

Full Range Leadership Theory. The Full Range leadership theory, which is based on more than 100 years of leadership research, consists of three leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Antonakis et al., (2003) indicated that the Full Range leadership theory has been the most important theory used in leadership literature. The Full Range leadership theory allows for an examination of possible advantages and disadvantages of different leadership styles on followers depending on the situations that leaders find themselves in (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Samad et al., 2015).

The Full Range leadership theory was developed by Burns (1978), who also introduced transformational leadership. Next, Bass and Avolio (1994) incorporated two additional leadership styles, transactional and passive/avoidant, into the theory. Bass (1985) argued that previous leadership theories emphasized follower role, goal clarification, and how a leader rewarded or punished follower behaviors more than the leader's influence. Avolio and Bass (2004) determined that leaders tend to use all three styles to some degree based on the followers' maturity and the situation. The recent revision of the model consists of nine leadership dimensions, of which five are transformational leadership dimensions, two are transactional leadership dimensions, and two are passive-avoidant leadership dimensions (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Transformational Leadership. Burns (1978; 1979) introduced the concept of transformational leadership in his research on political leaders and Bass (1985) expanded on this idea (Avolio et al., 2009; Bass, 2008). Burns (1978) defined the concept of transformational leadership as a process in which "leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation" (p. 382). Bass (2008) stated that "transformational leaders motivate their followers to do more than the followers originally intended and thought possible" (p. 618). Since the critical revisions made by Bass (1985) and Avolio and Bass (2004), transformational leadership has gained popularity. Today, it is one of the most researched theories in leadership and management research (Avolio et al., 2009; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Unlike transactional leadership, transformational leadership goes beyond an exchange between the leader and followers and focuses on positive change and creating positive working environments (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Marques, 2015). Transformational leaders display personal commitment and dedication to enact change (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007). Li and Hung (2009)

noted that transformational leadership shifted the emphasis from the leader to building a high-quality relationship between leaders and their followers through support, encouragement, and consideration.

Transformational leadership focuses on change, development, and motivating followers to perform beyond expectation (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007; Odetunde, 2013). In addition, transformational leaders are charismatic and seek different techniques and strategies to motivate followers and boost their performances Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2013). Therefore, most of the current research on leadership focuses on transformational leadership and its applications (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Omar & Hussin, 2013) and many researchers agree that applying various aspects of transformational leadership will benefit organizational decision-making processes (Bass & Avolio, 1994) and improve follower attitudes, behaviors, and performances (Li & Hung, 2009; McGuire & Hutchings, 2007).

Unlike other leadership styles, transformational leaders better understand their followers' needs and strive to satisfy the higher-order needs of their followers (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Northouse, 2016). Transformational leaders give their followers opportunities for development and personal growth, which enhance organizations' abilities to function smoothly and perform above expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2013). In transformational leadership, the leaders encourage open communication and involve their followers in the processes of goal-setting and decision-making, which boost followers' communication, collaboration, and cohesiveness (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Johnson & Hackman, 2013). According to Dartey-Baah (2015), "transformational leadership explains leadership that adopts an effective combination of a holistic and individualistic approach to meeting the collective goals and ambitions of a group" (p. 102). These leaders are charismatic and visionary and focus on empowering others. They not

only have a clear vision, but also inspire and push followers toward the vision (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; McGuire & Hutchings, 2007; Northouse, 2016). They are goal-oriented and direct followers' attention toward long-term goals and performance rather than short-term goals (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Furthermore, transformational leaders are charismatic, enthusiastic, and serve as role models who inspire others to be strong leaders and reach their fullest potential. They motivate their followers to find creative solutions and look at problems from different perspective to find solutions, even if those solutions are in opposition to the leaders' perspectives (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Northouse, 2016; Shafique & Beh, 2017). Therefore, the inspiring and motivating nature of transformational leadership has been positively linked with engendering followers' innovative behaviors and creativity (Henker et al., 2015; Pieterse et al., 2009). To promote a global mindset, transformational leaders motivate and support followers to think more globally rather than individually (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Applying various aspects of transformational leadership can promote greater employees job satisfaction, enhance organizational commitment, and improve leader-follower communication in order to achieve organizational goals (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Li & Hung, 2009; Northouse, 2013; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2013).

Moreover, in transformational leadership, goals are shared between the leader and followers, which inspire followers to transcend their self-interest to achieve common goals. Transformational leaders build trust and positive relationships with their followers; as a result, their followers are eager to increase their job commitments and performances beyond the leaders' expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Li & Hung, 2009). Transformational leaders use idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation,

intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration to transform and motivate their followers (Odetunde, 2013; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2013; Shafique & Beh, 2017).

Transformational leadership is composed of five main dimensions, which are often called the five 'I's: (a) idealized attributes, (b) idealized behaviors, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, and (e) individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Avolio and Bass (2004) have also grouped the idealized attributes and idealized behaviors dimensions and refer to them as idealized influence dimension, which are related to the charismatic's characteristics of the leader. The idealized attributes refer to how followers perceive their leaders in terms of commitment, moral standards, confidence, and persistence, which makes them role models for their followers. Idealized behaviors refer to how leaders behave and act in ways that make their followers admire, respect, and trust them, and, as such, desire to emulate the leaders' attitudes. This requires the transformational leader to be consistent over time with what he/she says and does and go beyond self-interest for the benefit of the group, which leads to more successful outcomes. In addition, the leader must have a clear vision and communicate his/her vision to his/her followers in a compelling way (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Northouse, 2016).

Inspirational motivation refers to how transformational leaders motivate and inspire followers to achieve ambitious goals. Leaders who exhibit inspirational motivation behaviors articulate their vision clearly and express confidence that the vision will be achieved. Leaders inspire their followers by setting high-performance expectations, using optimism, stimulating enthusiasm, and creating challenges. Also, leaders employ effective communication and show passion toward a common goal and the shared vision (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2016).

Intellectual stimulation refers to the process whereby transformational leaders encourage followers to be creative, be innovative, and solve problems in their own way, which increases independence and autonomy among followers. Through intellectual stimulation, followers are encouraged to try new ways of thinking and find creative solutions, even if it leads to making mistakes. Leaders use different techniques with their followers, such as rethinking traditional beliefs and assumptions, providing challenging tasks, and training to improve their followers' potential and performances (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1994; McGuire & Hutchings, 2007).

Individualized consideration refers to how transformational leaders support their followers' specific needs and personal development by giving them opportunities for achievement and growth based on their capabilities. Through mentoring and coaching relationships between leaders and his/her followers, leaders can create positive environments. Transformational leaders who provide individualized consideration listen attentively to their follower's concerns and needs and provide continuous feedback in order to create supportive and constructive work environments (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2016).

Transactional Leadership. Transactional leadership was first described by Weber in (1947) and further expanded on by Burns (1978) and Bass (1981). The basis of transactional leadership is management through an exchange process between a leader and his/her follower through a system of rewards for acceptable performance and punishments for unacceptable performance (Bass, 2008; Dartey-Baah, 2015). This style of leadership is considered to be the traditional style of leadership. Transactional leaders often use the exchange principle to fulfill their own interests and needs (Smith, 2015). The rewards system may take many forms,

including written recognitions, pay increases, or promotions. The transactional leadership approach differs from the transformational leadership approach because it focuses on achieving established goals by clarifying roles, task requirements, and expectations. Transactional leaders act only when organizational goals are not achieved or problems arise (Dartey-Baah, 2015; Northouse, 2016; Odetunde, 2013). In the workplace, employees may meet the organization's objectives and obligations through exchange processes or reward systems; however, transactional leadership does not guarantee employee commitment or increased productivity (Dartey-Baah, 2015).

Transactional leaders motivate followers to perform through rewards and punishments in order to attain organizational objectives, such as monetary incentives and determination of employment (Bass, 2008; Dartey-Baah, 2015; Johnson & Hackman, 2013), which may hinder followers' innovative behaviors and creative ideas to solve the challenges they face for the fear of repercussions (Pieterse et al., 2009). Transactional leaders' roles are to get tasks completed based on the procedures, norms, and rules of their organizations, without any visionary leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Dartey-Baah, 2015). These leadership techniques may be perceived by followers as controlling and restrictive and, thus, may reduce the followers' innovative behaviors and creative performances (Pieterse et al., 2009).

Transactional leaders also tend to place emphasis on short-term goals, short-term planning, and control processes (Bass & Avolio, 1994) because such leaders are more task-oriented than people-oriented and place much focus on role performance (Dartey-Baah, 2015; Pieterse et al., 2009). Additionally, Smith (2015) reported that this leadership type is not suitable for implementing a positive and successful change in an organization. Leaders who exercise

transactional leadership are not likely to establish strong, long-term leader-follower relationships (Dartey-Baah, 2015).

Transactional leadership consists of two dimensions: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Contingent reward is based on a mutual exchange between a leader and his/her follower to reach organizational goals. The leader sets clear goals and expectations for his/her follower and uses rewards for high performance and, sometimes, punishments to motivate his/her follower (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Dartey-Baah, 2015; Northouse, 2016). Active management-by-exception involves the leader closely monitoring his/her followers' performances and taking action when a problem occurs or when followers violate the rules (Antonakis et al., 2003; Dartey-Baah, 2015; Northouse, 2016).

Passive/Avoidant Leadership. A passive/avoidant leader usually avoids or delays involvement or making decisions until something goes wrong or when problems become serious. In addition, the leader does not have a clear direction or provide constructive feedback that could help followers achieve common goals (Bass, 2008; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Johnson & Hackman, 2013). As a result, followers may feel lost and unsupported. Leaders who use this type of leadership tend to be inactive, give general instructions, and do not attempt to develop their followers or satisfy their needs (Bass, 2008; Johnson & Hackman, 2013). Therefore, passive/avoidant leadership is often associated with negative effects on the motivation, productivity, and job satisfaction of employees (Amin, 2012; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Johnson & Hackman, 2013).

Passive/avoidant leadership is comprised of two dimensions: management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire (Avolio & Bass, 2004). In management-by-exception (passive), leaders wait for mistakes or problems to occur and then takes corrective actions or institutes

punishment as needed (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Northous, 2016). Management-by-exception (passive) generally involves criticism, negative feedback, and punishment (Northous, 2016). Laissez-faire was originally a French phrase that meant a hands-off approach. In this approach of leadership, the leader provides little guidance to his/her followers and allows them to make their own decisions. (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Sharma & Singh, 2013). Laissez-faire approach may have negative impact on followers' productivity and satisfaction and decrees followers' motivation (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2013; Sharma & Singh, 2013). However, the passive-avoidant style of leadership may work in specific environments and circumstances. For example, when followers are highly skilled, are motivated, and have experience so that they do not need much supervision or facilitation, this leadership style is ideal (Shafique & Beh, 2017; Sharma & Singh, 2013). Laissez-faire leadership gives autonomy and self-rule to followers to use their knowledge and expertise to do their work with minimum instruction or guidance from the leader (Johnson & Hackman, 2013). Yang (2015) stated that "laissez-faire leadership might be viewed as a sign of respect of subordinates' boundaries rather than [an] absence of leadership" (p. 1256). She further explained that leaders should understand the role of contexts and followers' capabilities in order to know the right balance between involvement and non-involvement with their followers. Wong and Giessner (2018) indicated that, when empowering behaviors of leaders do not match the followers' expectations, then the followers may perceive their leaders as laissez-faire and, subsequently, evaluate them as ineffective leaders.

Leadership in Higher Education

Leadership in higher education plays a critical role in improving institutional development and sustainability (Gonaim, 2016a) and creating a positive culture that ensures student and faculty development and success (Miller et al., 2016). According to Solis et al.,

(2011), “efforts to gain a better understanding of leadership have led scholars to take interest in the study of leadership in academic settings” (p. 3). Today, higher education leaders face many challenges, such as advances in technology, enrollment demand, competition, accreditation, globalization, and balancing the needs of multiple stakeholders. Therefore, the need for effective leadership has become greater (Gonaim, 2016a) to address today’s challenges of being different from competitors and ensure that their institutions thrive, rather than just survive, in the future (Alfred, 2006). The style of leadership adopted by an academic administration is paramount to the success of the institution and satisfaction of the faculty members (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Craig, 2005; Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). Each institution has its own unique culture and identity shaped by its mission, vision, values, faculty, and students. Hence, the effectiveness of the possible leadership styles depends on the degree of fit among the nature of the organization, its goals, and its followers (Avolio, 2007; Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2013). Hackman and Johnsons (2013) stated that “no single approach provides a universal explanation of leadership behavior, but each provides useful insights” (p. 73).

Previous studies have demonstrated that leaders at higher education institutions employ different leadership styles, such as transactional, transformational, and servant leadership (Abualhamael, 2017; Alghamdi, 2017; Shafai, 2018). Higher education leaders should be aware of the applications and appropriate uses of different leadership styles that correspond with their issues (Gonaim, 2019). To this end, several research studies have demonstrated that transformational leadership is effective in higher education (Alghamdi, 2017; Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Amin, 2012; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hijazi et al., 2016; Omar & Hussin, 2013).

On the other hand, research on transactional leadership has yielded contradictory results. Hijazi et al. (2016) found that transactional leadership had a negative relationship with the job satisfaction of employees at the private universities in the United Arab Emirates. Amin (2012) studied public universities in Pakistan and found that transactional leadership had non-significant negative relationship with the faculty's intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction. However, other studies have found positive relationships between transactional leadership and various effectiveness criteria, including job satisfaction (Abualhamael, 2017) and organizational commitment (Jackson et al., 2013). Abualhamael's (2017) study found that transactional leadership had a positive relationship with job satisfaction of academic and administrative staff members at King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia. Another study found only slight differences in the impact of transactional and transformational leadership on employees' proactive behaviors (Chiaburu et al., 2014). Conversely, laissez-faire leadership has been consistently found to be negatively correlated with leadership effectiveness and the job satisfaction of faculty (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hijazi et al., 2016; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2013).

Leadership in Saudi Arabian Higher Education

In the context of Saudi Arabia, higher education is a top priority for the government; thus, the Vision 2030 has many important objectives to improve the higher education and make it competitive with higher education systems around the world. The higher education sector is among the most important sectors facing tremendous development as it receives a large proportion of the government's annual budget to address the real, social, and economic needs of the country, in accordance with the religious values and cultural traditions of the kingdom. By 2030, the government hopes to have at least five universities ranked among the top 200 institutions globally (Saudi Vision 2030, 2020). Therefore, leadership in higher education

institutions in Saudi Arabia are facing continuous pressure to be more responsive to change. As the leadership styles chosen by university leaders influence the quality of the university's education, student achievements, and institutional success and effectiveness (Hempsall, 2014), Saudi Arabian universities need skilled and effective leaders who can create positive environments through which to promote change and foster development that aligns with the Vision 2030 plan (Shafai, 2018). However, Saudi Arabian higher education leaders still lack the leadership skills and practices necessary to promote creativity, innovation, and collaboration so as to make the process of change faster and enhance their institution's effectiveness (Gonaim, 2019; Shafai, 2018).

Currently, a change is occurring across institutions working within the higher education system in Saudi Arabia in terms of their missions, visions, structure, and governance in order to align with the ongoing social and cultural transitions in the country (Abouammoh, 2018; Smith & Abouammoh, 2013). Nevertheless, culture still plays a vital role in shaping the practices and expectations of leadership (Alsuood, 2019; Gonaim, 2016a). The collective and high-context nature of Saudi Arabian society have influence on individuals and the culture of organizations. According to a study by Shafai (2018), department chairs in the Saudi Arabian higher education sector still have the belief that power over others, instead of influence, is an essential element to leading people. Thus, in the years to come, leaders in Saudi Arabian higher education will continue to struggle to shift from traditional leadership practices that have been strongly inherited over time (e.g., centralization, strict regulations, the dominance of hierarchical and bureaucratic forms of leadership) to more effective leadership practices that will increase faculty and university effectiveness (Alsuood, 2019). The following section presents related studies in the context of Saudi Arabia higher education.

A research study performed by Alfayez (2014) investigated the perceptions of male and female department heads regarding their leadership practices in their departments at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, including an analysis of gender differences. The researcher used a quantitative descriptive research design to survey 150 department heads. The study used The Leadership Practices Inventory instrument created by Kouzes and Posner (1995), which consists of 30 statements on a 5-point Likert scale. To analyze the data, the researcher used descriptive statistics, an analysis of variance (ANOVA), and independent T-test. The results of this research showed that the department heads perceived that they were effective in the five studied categories: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. The results also indicated that no statistically significant differences existed in regard to the perceptions based on gender, years of experience, and/or academic rank.

Gonaim (2016a) carried out a study to identify effective leadership practices, characteristics, and behaviors that contribute to the effectiveness of female academic department chairs in Saudi Arabia. The researcher used a qualitative design informed by grounded theory techniques and semi-structured interviews to collect the data from five former department chairs, four current department chairs, and four faculty members in the Department of Education at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. The findings revealed that effective department chairs are characterized by a combination of skills, knowledge, and behaviors, such as time management, problem solving, organizational skills, working with vision, having knowledge in leadership theories and practices, and knowing their responsibilities. In addition, effective department chairs engage and interact with people; delegate tasks; consult with, listen to, and convince others; and justify their decisions.

Department Chairs in Higher Education

According to Gonaim (2016b), “the academic department is a fundamental unit for transforming the university’s visions and goals into reality” (p. 2). The department chair position is complex and has a wide range of responsibility (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004; Chu, 2006; Miller et al., 2016; Riley & Russell, 2013). Department chairs play an essential role on the university leadership team as they represent a critical link between the higher administration and the faculty, staff, and students (Gonaim, 2016a; Gmelch, 2015; Riley & Russell, 2013). According to Carroll and Wolverton (2004), department chairs are at a very strategic and challenging position as they make 80% of all the administrative decisions in institutions of higher education. The administrative roles and responsibilities of the department chair include resource management, developing departmental goals and objectives, external relations, and continuing as a scholar in the field. In addition, they supervise and support the faculty, which includes faculty recruitment, evaluation, and development (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004; Chu, 2006; Miller et al., 2016). Considering all these roles, department chairs must be skilled leaders to ensure their competency so that they can balance these complex duties and responsibilities (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004; Gmelch, 2015; Gonaim, 2019). Bowman (2002) emphasized that “the real work of academic chairs demands a diverse set of leadership capabilities” (p. 161). Therefore, the leadership styles that chairs adopt have notable impact on the effectiveness and progress of their departments (Gonaim, 2019).

Despite the important role that department chairs play, several researches have emphasized the lack of administrative leadership development among department chairs that would prepare them to perform as effective leaders (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Gonaim, 2019; Riley & Russell, 2013). Among common challenges for leadership development is that many

university leaders do not recognize the importance of leadership development. They often find it difficult to take time away from daily work for training. Also, training content does not meet the diverse needs of leaders (Hempsall, 2014). New department chairs often come to the position due to their success as a faculty member, but without leadership training or prior administrative experience, which becomes a source of stress and frustration for them (Gonaim, 2016a; Riley & Russell, 2013; Thrasher, 2017). Chu (2006) stated that “from the very first day, new chairs find that the disciplinary and scholarly skills that were primary criteria for career success as faculty members have little to do with the new requirements of managing and leading academic departments” (p. 13). Gmelch (2015) indicated that, in 2013, only 3.3% of department chairs in public and private universities in the United States reported that they had received any type of ongoing leadership training. Similarly, Shafai (2018) found that Saudi Arabian higher education leaders lacked leadership preparation and training. Preparing for the role shift from faculty to chair will increase department chairs effectiveness and ability to deal with many academic and administrative problems (Gmelch, 2015; Riley & Russell, 2013). Wolverton et al., (2005) stated that:

if individuals within departments could be identified at least one year prior to taking the department chair position and provided advance academic [of] leadership preparation, we could not only smooth their transition to the new post, but [also] provide departments, and the university, with more effective leaders. (p. 228)

Overview of Job Satisfaction

Definition of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a complex and comprehensive term and the literature has generated countless conceptual definitions for it (Fischer, 2003; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011; Sageer et al., 2012). It has been widely research in a variety of organizational settings and across

disciplines since the early 1970s, yet no general agreement exists upon its definition (Moradi et al., 2013; Zhu, 2012).

Job satisfaction has been defined and characterized in many ways. Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as an emotional state or attitude toward job experiences and job environments. Spector (1997) described job satisfaction simply as “how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs” (p. 2). Generally, job satisfaction is a combination of values, emotions, and attributes that one can have toward different facets of his/her job (Moradi et al., 2013).

Another characterization of job satisfaction is related to fulfilling employees’ needs and expectations. Porter and Lawler (1968) described job satisfaction as “the difference between what a person thinks he should receive and what he feels he actually does receive” (p. 128). Sageer et al. (2012) described job satisfaction as how employees feel their jobs fulfill their needs, wants, and desires. They also indicated that job satisfaction varies among employees. Fischer (2003) emphasized that “job satisfaction is a fairly stable evaluative judgment about how well one’s job compares to[one’s] needs, wants, or expectations” (p. 760).

Other researchers have identified different characteristics of job satisfaction and have tried to define job satisfaction by emphasizing these characteristics. According to Zhu (2012), “job satisfaction is an overall positive affective evaluation; from the cognitive perspective, job satisfaction is a more logical and rational evaluation of working conditions” (p. 294). Vroom (1964) described job satisfaction as an “affective orientation on the part of individuals toward work roles, which they are presently occupying” (p. 99). Early studies on job satisfaction looked at it from the perspective of need fulfillment and later researchers have looked at it as an “attitudinal psychological variable” (Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011, p. 111).

Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a multifaceted construct and numerous factors, external and internal, can positively or negatively affect job satisfaction and motivation (Seifert & Umbach, 2008). Organization factors, such as structure culture, working environment, and working conditions, can impact job satisfaction (Belias et al., 2013; Hsieh, 2013). In addition, job satisfaction is influenced by employees' personality characteristics and psychological factors (e.g., personal life, family, community) (Hsieh, 2013). Other influences on satisfaction include leadership practices (Amin, 2012; Chang et al., 2013; Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009) and leader-employee communication pattern (Robbins & Judge, 2018). Organizational culture is important factor that has influence on employees' attitudes and contribute to the level of employee job satisfaction in organizations (Moradi et al., 2013; Saari & Judge, 2004). Also, demographic factors, such as gender, age, and years of experience, have been shown to influence job satisfaction level of employees (Belias et al., 2013).

The Importance of Job Satisfaction

Employees are an essential part of any organization and have a direct influence on the organization's success (Moradi et al., 2013). Alghamdi (2016) stated that “retaining distinctive employees is one of the biggest challenges that organizations face because those distinctive employees seek to find appropriate jobs that meet their needs” (p. 9). Therefore, employee satisfaction, performance, and retention have always been popular research topics in employee management (Robbins & Judge, 2018). According to Chen (2011), “organizations can satisfy their external customers only if they also satisfy their employees” (p. 86). Job satisfaction is important for any organization as it makes employees more loyal and productive (Robbins & Judge, 2018). It is closely related to employees' productivity, motivation, commitment, and

creativity, which ultimately have positive impacts on the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization (Robbins & Judge, 2018; Zhu, 2012). Several research studies conducted on job satisfaction have revealed that a high level of job satisfaction increased employees' performances (Christen et al., 2005; Fischer, 2003; Hong & Waheed, 2011; Zhu, 2012) and productivity (Hong & Waheed, 2011; Miller et al., 2016), which are important goals of any organization (Robbins & Judge, 2018).

Job satisfaction has been connected with job commitment to the workplace, which refers to the significant involvement and contributions of individuals devoted to their organizations (Bangwal & Tiwari, 2019; Belias et al., 2013; Zhu, 2012) and employees' health and well-being (Bangwal & Tiwari, 2019). In addition, job satisfaction has a positive effect on employees' commitments as well as reduced absenteeism and turnover intentions, which can lead to more productivity (Bangwal & Tiwari, 2019; Fischer, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2018; Saari & Judge, 2004). It also plays an important role in improving employee engagement and organizational citizenship behavior (Fischer, 2003; Mohammad et al., 2011; Robbins & Judge, 2018).

Employees who experience high job satisfaction have healthy workplace relationships (Robbins & Judge, 2018) and are more likely to continue with their organizations for a longer period (Bangwal & Tiwari, 2019; Hong & Waheed, 2011) which, in turn, can reduce the costs of training new employees (Hong & Waheed, 2011). Also, job satisfaction impacts employees' engagement levels, persistence, and effort (Christen et al., 2005; Toker, 2017).

On the other hand, job dissatisfaction has many adverse effects as it leads to absenteeism, turnover, and a lack of engagement in work, which leads to an unhealthy work climate (Bangwal & Tiwari, 2019; Robbins & Judge, 2018). Studies have found that job dissatisfaction and a lack of organizational commitment are the most common reasons for turnover intentions of

employees (Chang et al., 2013; Luz et al., 2018). Furthermore, job dissatisfaction contributes to lower levels of productivity among employees, which negatively affect the overall success of the organization (Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011). Thus, keeping employees engaged and satisfied is an important organizational goal (Robbins & Judge, 2018). To this end, leaders should monitor employees' job satisfaction (Al-Smadi & Qblan, 2015) and not simply place an emphasis on the requirements of the jobs (Mohammad et al., 2011). Leaders should also offer a work environment that serves their employees' specific needs (Belias et al., 2013) and evaluate the effectiveness of work policies to keep job satisfaction high (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011).

Main Theories of Job Satisfaction

Extensive research has been conducted to aid in understanding why employees are satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs (Alghamdi, 2016; Bangwal & Tiwari, 2019; Robbins & Judge, 2018; Saari & Judge, 2004). Job satisfaction researchers have used several theories to understand employee satisfaction. Although many job satisfaction theories exist, two main theories are closely related to the current study: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory (1943) and Herzberg's Two-Factor theory (1959).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory. Maslow, a social scientist, developed the Hierarchy of Needs theory in 1943. The theory is one of the most popular theories of motivation and has received much criticism and support (Taormina, & Gao, 2013). Maslow (1943) stated that individuals are motivated to achieve certain needs based on a five-stage hierarchical model, represented as a pyramid, ranging from basic physiological needs at the bottom to higher and more complex needs at the top (i.e., self-actualizing). The five levels are physiological need, security need, social need, self-respect need, and self-fulfillment need. Maslow believed that people's needs drive their behaviors to fulfill them (Maslow, 1943).

According to Maslow's theory, when an individual satisfied one need, he/she moved to the next one in order and each level must be at least minimally satisfied before moving to the next level (Szilagy & Wallace, 1990). Maslow (1943) stated that when an individual satisfied a need, that need no longer motivated an individual, whereas the unsatisfied needs from the next higher level serve as motivators. Hall and Lindsey (1957) indicated that "when the needs that have the greatest potency and priority are satisfied, the next needs in the hierarchy emerge and press for satisfaction. When those needs are satisfied, another step up the ladder of motives is taken" (p. 326).

The first level in the theory is physiological need, which has the highest priority because it is necessary to continue life. This level consists of things such as water, food, sleep, and shelter. The second level of needs is security, which includes health, stability, and freedom from fear from threats to one's physical, mental, and emotional security. The third level of needs is social and belonging, which includes the need for social interaction in terms of friendships, acceptance by others, affection, and relationships. After an individual achieves the three basic levels of needs, he/she will begin to satisfy his/her need for appreciation and self-respect, which is the fourth level in Maslow's pyramid. At this point, individuals feel the need to accomplish things and have their efforts and contributions be recognized by others. Self-actualization is the last type of need and refers to the need of individuals to pursue and fulfill their unique potentials through the development of their unique abilities and qualities (Johnson & Hackman, 2013; Taormina & Gao, 2013).

When an employee's needs are met, job satisfaction occurs. In other words, leaders who want to satisfy followers should identify those needs and support followers' desires to fulfill the highest level of needs possible. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs "noted ways to motivate people

with existing requirements, such as offering competitive pay, workplace safety, and environment, as well as set goals that are achievable and treat employees with respect” (Sola, 2019, p. 11).

Although many studies have used Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs to understand job satisfaction, it has been criticized because the theory does not take into consideration situational and job-related factors (Amin, 2012). Other researchers have claimed that the order in which Maslow’s pyramid is arranged is ethnocentric and based on an individualistic perspective as it does not distinguish between individuals’ needs in collectivist societies and individuals’ needs in individualistic societies (Hofstede, 1984). It has also been criticized as being gender biased (Taormina & Gao, 2013) and failing to address the needs of various age groups (Goebel & Brown, 1981). In addition, Neher (1991) argued that motivations and needs are strongly shaped by cultural experiences and external environments, which Maslow disregarded. Neher (1991) stated that fulfilling lower-level needs does not guarantee that their urgency/necessity will be reduced; thus, they must be satisfied continuously.

Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory. Herzberg and his colleagues conducted a study in 1959 in which they interviewed 200 accountants and engineers about their positive and negative experiences at work utilizing a critical incident methodology. From the findings, they were able to identify two factors that impact job attitude and satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the workplace (Herzberg et al., 1959; Stello, 2011). The Two-Factor theory is considered to be one of the most influential and widely used theories in understanding job satisfaction and work motivation in different disciplines, such as business, the medical field, and education (DeShields et al., 2005). Many studies have utilized this theory to examine faculty job satisfaction at higher educational institutions (Alghamdi, 2016; Alhumaidhi, 2015).

According to Herzberg's theory, motivation in the workplace is driven by certain factors that can affect employees' behaviors on the job. Herzberg classified these factors into two dimensions; thus, the theory is also known as the motivation-hygiene theory. The first dimension consists of hygiene (extrinsic) factors. These factors contribute to dissatisfaction, but not satisfaction. If hygiene factors are missing in the workplace, it can lead to dissatisfaction. Hygiene factors come from the work environment, and they are sources of job dissatisfactions of employees. Hygiene factors include salary, status, job security, work conditions, fringe benefits, supervision, and relationships (Chu & Kuo, 2015; Herzberg, 1968; Smerek & Peterson, 2007).

The second dimension consists of motivator (intrinsic) factors, which contribute to job satisfaction. Motivator factors include meaningful work, challenging work, recognition, achievement, increased responsibility, personal growth, and the job itself (Chu & Kuo, 2015; Herzberg, 1968; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). Motivators factors satisfy the employee's "need for growth or self-actualization" (Herzberg, 1966, p. 75).

The factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are independent from one another and, therefore, "cannot be measured on the same continuum" (Stello, 2011, p. 2). According to the theory, "the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but rather, no job satisfaction; similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction" (Herzberg, 1968, p. 91). In other words, the presence of hygiene factors does not motivate or create satisfaction, but their absence can create job dissatisfaction, whereas the fulfillment of motivator factors results in job satisfaction.

The Herzberg's Two-Factor theory has important implications for leaders seeking to satisfy their employees. Leaders should first identify and eliminate issues that lead to job dissatisfaction before trying to motivate their employees (Chu & Kuo, 2015; Smerek & Peterson,

2007). According to Dartey-Baah and Amoako (2011), “to motivate and satisfy employees, managers need to effectively blend the factors well to suit the special needs of their employees” (p. 7). In addition, Herzberg emphasized job enrichment, which focus restructured the job by providing the employee with more autonomy and responsibility so as to increase employee satisfaction and boost performance on the job (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011).

The Herzberg’s two-factor theory, although popular, has received several critiques. Ewen (1964) indicated that the critical incident method that Herzberg used to collect and analyze the data had several deficiencies, which affected the validity of his research. As such, he questioned Herzberg's methodology, specifically in the following: “offering no evidence of validity and reliable data, the absence of a measure of overall job satisfaction, investigating a limited scope of jobs, and the application of only one measure of job attitudes” (as cited in Nagel-Bennett, 2010, p. 29). Another point of criticism is that the theory fails to account for individual differences, such as age, gender, and characteristics of personality, as well as how those factors may affect job satisfaction and motivation (Baridam, 2002). Another common criticism is the Herzberg’s study consisted only of accountants and engineers; thus, scholars criticize the generalization of the study findings (Ewen, 1964). Locke (1969) criticized Herzberg's classification system, claiming a lack of a parallel relationship between the factors. Hong and Waheed (2011) stated that:

extensive criticism has emerged in making [a] distinction between hygiene factors and motivators .While some factors have proved to fall accurately within the two groups, certain factors, particularly salary, [are] ambiguous in the position as a motivators or hygiene factor. (p. 6)

Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

Higher job satisfaction provides many advantages for an organization (Robbins & Judge, 2018). The success of an organization depends upon its ability to hire and retain satisfied employees (Cordeiro, 2010). With faculty being a critical component in the teaching and learning process in higher education, faculty job satisfaction is an important focus because it is closely related to faculty performance (i.e., teaching quality), which influences students' achievements and successes (Al-Smadi & Qblan, 2015; Chen, 2011; Qayyum, 2013; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). In addition, faculty members' job satisfaction is associated with motivation, engagement, and intent to remain in the profession (Al-Smadi & Qblan, 2015; Bass, 2008; Miller et al., 2016). McLawhon and Cutright (2011) stated that "highly satisfied faculty members experience higher levels of motivation to perform their duties" (p. 344). Therefore, faculty productivity is strongly related to workplace satisfaction (Miller et al., 2016).

On the other hand, faculty dissatisfaction has many adverse effects, including lower teaching effectiveness, research productivity (Chen, 2011; Reybold, 2005), and higher rates of turnover intentions (McLawhon & Cutright, 2011). Additionally, faculty members who are dissatisfied with their work may experience a decrease in motivation and morale, which could impact student learning (Chen, 2011). Moreover, job dissatisfaction at work has been associated with a low quality of faculty work in terms of research and instruction (Al-Smadi & Qblan, 2015), which, in turn, may affect student persistence and retention (McLawhon & Cutright, 2011). Mamiseishvili and Rosser (2011) stressed that:

higher education institutions clearly need to rethink their reward structures, value systems, and expectations placed on faculty work in order to keep highly productive faculty more satisfied with their jobs and, thus, provide them with [an] academic workplace that is more appealing and attractive. (p. 125)

Moreover, institutions of higher education should invest appropriately in creating environments that promote faculty job satisfaction, reduce turnover, and improve retention rates to save their time, money, and resources (Ambrose et al., 2005; Chen, 2011). Faculty turnover has financial implications at multiple levels in terms of recruiting, orientation, and training (Ambrose et al., 2005). Therefore, institutional leaders should build a positive culture and ethical climate through the establishment of policies and procedures that take care of all students and the faculty members' needs and expectations (Alfred, 2006).

Job satisfaction in relation to higher education has been examined by several studies utilizing both quantitative and qualitative methods (Alghamdi, 2016; Alhumaidhi, 2015; Al-Maqbali, 2017; Chen, 2011; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011). Past studies have revealed that faculty job satisfaction varies by academic rank, tenure status, gender, and race/ethnicity (Al-Maqbali, 2017; Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011; Qayyum, 2013). Bozeman and Gaughan (2011) stated that "faculty members, like other types of workers, tend to be satisfied if they feel their pay reflects their market value and if they have the respect of their co-workers" (p. 178). The following section presents related studies in the context of Saudi Arabian higher education.

Abdullah et al., (2009) conducted a quantitative study to explore the level of job satisfaction among the academic staff at King Faisal University in Dammam, Saudi Arabia. The researchers used a modified version of Herzberg's job satisfaction scale as the satisfaction measurement to sample 248 academic staff. The results showed that most of the staff were satisfied (73.6%) with their jobs in general. The academic staff were dissatisfied with several job-related factors, such as salary, working conditions, and job advancement. The results also

indicated that the female academic staff members were significantly less satisfied than their male counterparts.

Al-Smadi and Qblan (2015) used a quantitative method to examine the impact that gender, teaching experience, and college type had on the level of job satisfaction among the faculty of Najran University in Najran, Saudi Arabia. The researchers used a sample of 262 male and female faculty members from different colleges who were randomly selected. The participants were asked to complete a 23-item survey, developed by the researchers, that used a 5-point Likert scale. The results showed that (a) the faculty members' overall level of job satisfaction was moderate, (b) statistically significant differences existed in the level of job satisfaction among the faculty based on gender in favor of the male faculty members, (c) statistically significant differences existed in regard to the level of job satisfaction among the faculty based on college type in favor of the scientific colleges, and (d) statistically significant differences existed in the level of job satisfaction among the faculty based on experience in favor of faculty who were more experienced.

Alhumaidhi (2015) examined the level of job satisfaction for Saudi Arabian female department heads at King Saud University and Princess Noura University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The researcher surveyed 49 female department heads at King Saud University and 48 female department heads at Princess Noura University. A modified version of Smerek and Peterson's (2007) job satisfaction survey that consisted of 64 questions measuring Herzberg's 13 dimensions of job satisfaction on 10-point Likert scale was used. The data analysis involved using independent sample t-tests and a regression analysis. The results showed that (a) the female department heads' overall level of job satisfaction was high at both universities; (b) no statistically significant differences existed across the dimensions of job satisfaction and overall

level of job satisfaction between the two universities other than pay variable in favor of Princess Noura University; (b) the pay level was the only statistically significant factor as a predictor for female department heads' job satisfaction; (c) the pay level and policies of the institutions were identified as two important factors related to overall job satisfaction; and (d) the open-ended questions revealed new aspects that affect female department heads positively, such as flexibility and ease of communication, or negatively, such as lack of appreciation of the responsibilities of working women.

Alghamdi (2016) investigated the factors that influence job satisfaction among faculty members at the Education Department at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, using a quantitative study. The study utilized Herzberg's motivator-hygiene as the theoretical framework and the researcher used a modified version of Smerek and Peterson's (2007) job satisfaction scale that consisted of 30 items on a 5-point Likert scale. The participants consisted of 64 faculty members (35 females, 29 males) from different academic ranks (i.e., teacher, instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, professor) who taught in the Education Department. Pearson correlations and a regression analysis were utilized in order to determine the significant factors relating to job satisfaction. Notable findings included that (a) the work itself was the only statistically significant predictor for faculty job satisfaction; (b) the faculty were least satisfied with their benefits and most satisfied with the work itself factor; (c) the work itself, professional growth opportunities, recognition, and relationships with co-workers were the factors that had positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction; and (d) no statistically significant differences existed in the levels of job satisfaction among the faculty based on gender.

Relationship Between Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

Several studies have shown that administrators' leadership styles are an important factor affecting faculty members' levels of job satisfaction (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Amin, 2012; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hijazi et al., 2016).

In a quantitative study, Hijazi et al. (2016) examined the relationship between leadership styles (i.e., transformational and transactional) and job satisfaction among private university employees in the United Arab Emirates. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss et al. (1967) were used to measure the variables in the study. A total of 241 completed surveys were collected from seven private universities. The findings indicated that the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' job satisfaction was significant and positive. In addition, transactional leadership negatively impacted the job satisfaction of the employees.

Amin (2012) gathered data on 287 faculty members at public universities in Pakistan and found a significant and positive relationship between transformational leadership and the faculty members' intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction, whereas transactional leadership negatively affected faculty job satisfaction. The laissez-faire leadership style had non-significant positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction.

Sadeghi and Pihie (2013) conducted a study to examine the role of transformational leadership style in enhancing faculty members' job satisfaction. The MLQ and Wood faculty job satisfaction/dissatisfaction scale developed by Wood (1976) were used to measure the study variables. The sample consisted of 305 faculty members from three leading research university in Malaysia. The results indicated that department heads were more often exhibiting the idealized

influence (attribute and behavior) and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership, while individualized consideration was exhibited less often than other dimensions. The researchers found that transformational leadership style was the dominant predictor of faculty members' job satisfaction and laissez-faire leadership behavior reduced faculty members' job satisfaction. The results of this study revealed that department chairs can be more effective in satisfying faculty members when they more frequently practice transformational leadership behaviors.

In a correlational study, Bateh and Heyliger (2014) examined the relationship between full-time faculty members' perceptions of administrators' transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles and their job satisfaction at a state university in Florida. The MLQ and job satisfaction survey designed by Spector (1997) were used to measure the study variables. A total of 104 participants completed the surveys and the results showed a statistically significant and positive correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. In addition, the results showed a statistically significant positive relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction, but passive/avoidant leadership had a negative relationship with job satisfaction.

Alonderiene and Majauskaite (2016) explored the impact of direct supervisors' leadership styles on the job satisfaction of the faculty in Lithuanian public and private universities using a quantitative, correlational design that involved regression and predictive correlation analyses. The sample consisted of 72 faculty members and 10 supervisors. The results indicated that all of the perceived leadership styles had significant and positive relationships with the faculty members' job satisfaction (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, overall). In addition, the results showed that the servant leadership style had the highest significant positive influence on job satisfaction (i.e.,

overall, extrinsic, intrinsic), whereas the controlling, autocrat leadership style had the lowest positive, significant impact.

The following section presents the few related studies in the context of Saudi Arabia higher education. Alalwan (2016) investigated the relationship between the managerial style of the leadership and the levels of job satisfaction among employees at the University of Tabuk in Tabuk, Saudi Arabia. The researcher used a quantitative design and multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between two types of managerial leadership styles (i.e., initiating structure and consideration) and job satisfaction levels (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, overall) among non-academic staff. The researcher gathered data from 77 male non-academic staff members. To collect the data, the researcher used the leader behavior description questionnaire that consists of 40 items on a 5-point scale and (MSQ) short form developed by Weiss et al. (1967) that consists of 20 items to measure the perceptions of intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction on a 5-point Likert scale. The research findings indicated that the job satisfaction levels (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, overall) among the participants were high. The initiating structure and consideration styles of leadership had significant and positive relationships with the job satisfaction levels (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, overall) of the participants.

Alghamdi (2017) investigated the relationships among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University in Al-Baha, Saudi Arabia, using a quantitative, correlational design. The study also examined the extent to which differences in demographic characteristics (i.e., gender, age, current position, years spent in current position) were associated with the degrees of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality. The researchers used three surveys: the MLQ to measure transformational leadership dimensions, the MSQ to measure faculty members' levels of satisfaction, and the

service quality questionnaire developed by Cronin and Taylor (1992) to measure academic service quality from the faculty members' perspectives. The sample consisted of 336 faculty members. The researchers used Pearson correlation, multiple regression analysis, and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to analyze the data. The results showed statistically significant, positive relationships among all of the transformational leadership dimensions (i.e., idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration), job satisfaction, and academic service quality. No statistically significant differences existed in the self-perceived levels of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality among the faculty members based on gender, current position, or years spent in current position. However, age was found to differentiate faculty members' perceived levels of individual consideration and job satisfaction.

Abualhamael (2017) conducted a study to examine the relationship between the leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional), productive organizational energy, and job satisfaction of academic and administrative staff members at King Abdulaziz Public University and Dar Alhekma Private University in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. The researcher used a casual comparative quantitative design and the sample consisted of 553 participants. For the study, three surveys were used: the MLQ; productive organizational energy measure developed by Cole et al. (2005); and Mohrman-Cooke-Morman job satisfaction scale developed by Mohrman et al. (1977). A regression analysis, a factor analysis, and structural equation modelling were performed to analyze the data. The results of the study indicated that top management at King Abdulaziz University practiced transactional leadership behaviors; whereas the top management at Dar Alhekma University practiced transformational leadership behaviors based on the perceptions of academic and administrative staff members. The results of this study showed that

the transformational leadership had a negative impact in relation to productive organizational energy and job satisfaction at King Abdulaziz University, though transactional leadership had a positive impact. On the other hand, at Dar Alhekma University, transformational leadership had a positive relationship with productive organizational energy and job satisfaction, though transactional leadership had a negative impact. Abualhamael explained that public sector organizations in Saudi Arabia tended to prefer transactional leadership practices, whereas commercial organizations tended to use more effective models of leadership practices.

Synthesis of Research on the Relationship Between Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Many studies reported a link between leadership style and job satisfaction. The studies presented above revealed that different leadership styles affect job satisfaction differently. Alonderiene and Majauskaite (2016) in their study, concluded that leadership styles had significant and positive relationships with the faculty members' job satisfaction at public and private universities in Lithuanian. The results also showed that the servant leadership style had the highest significant positive influence on job satisfaction (i.e., overall, extrinsic, intrinsic), whereas the controlling, autocrat leadership style had the lowest positive, significant impact. Hijazi et al. (2016) found in their study at private universities in United Arab Emirates a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction and a negative relationship between transactional leadership and employee job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with Abualhamael's (2017) study at private Dar Alhekma University in Saudi Arabia, which found that transformational leadership had a positive impact on job satisfaction, while transactional leadership had a negative impact on job satisfaction of academic and administrative staff members. Amin (2012) studied public universities in Pakistan and found that transactional leadership had non-significant negative relationship with the faculty's intrinsic,

extrinsic, and overall job. However, the findings of Bateh and Heyliger's (2014) study revealed that both transformational and transactional leadership of academic administrators had positive relationship with job satisfaction of faculty members at a state university in Florida. The result of Alghamdi's (2017) study confirmed the findings of previous research studies and revealed that positive relationships existed among all of the transformational leadership dimensions (i.e., idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration) and faculty members' levels of satisfaction at Al-Baha University in Saudi Arabia.

Conversely, Abualhamael's (2017) study found that transformational leadership had a negative relationship with job satisfaction, while transactional leadership had a positive relationship with job satisfaction of academic and administrative staff members at King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia. For the passive leadership style, Bateh and Heyliger's (2014) study found that passive/avoidant leadership of academic administrators had a negative relationship with faculty members' job satisfaction. Amin's (2012) study revealed that the laissez-faire leadership style had non-significant positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Sadeghi and Pihie's (2013) study found that exhibiting laissez-faire leadership behavior reduced faculty' job satisfaction.

Gap in the Literature

Despite the existence of many studies investigating the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction, most of the research has been generated at colleges and universities in Western countries through the lens of Western perspectives. Few researchers have looked at the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction in the Middle East. Gonaim (2019) and Alsuood (2019) stated that a general scarcity of research on leadership perceptions and

practices in the context of Saudi Arabian higher education exists. As such, great opportunities exist to examine the impact of department chairs' leadership on faculty job satisfaction at the university level in Saudi Arabia (Alalwan, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016). In addition, a need exists for leadership studies within the Saudi Arabia culture and context because culture plays a vital role in shaping the practices and expectations of leadership (Alsuood, 2019; Gonaim, 2016a).

Gonaim (2016a) stated that "culture and leadership cannot be separated, as leadership is basically a social construct" (p. 43). This study adds to the body of empirical research about department chairs' leadership styles as perceived by faculty members in Saudi Arabia.

Summary

This chapter examined existing literature published in academic books, peer-reviewed journals, and other scholarly sources related to the topics of leadership and job satisfaction in higher education. The first section of this chapter addressed a brief overview of Saudi Arabia and a description of the education system. The second section addressed leadership. The third section focused on job satisfaction. The fourth section discussed the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction in higher education, summarized related research studies, and presented research gap.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental, correlational study was to explore the leadership styles of the department chairs within the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by full-time faculty members. This exploration was used to examine the relationship between leadership styles and faculty's overall job satisfaction, and to determine to what extent these leadership styles predicted the faculty's overall job satisfaction. The independent variables were the transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles. The dependent variable was the overall satisfaction level of full-time faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology used in this study.

Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

RQ1. What is the most predominant leadership style of the department chairs as perceived by faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia?

RQ2. What, if any, relationship exists between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia?

RQ3. To what extent does the leadership styles of the department chairs as perceived by the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, predict the faculty member's overall job satisfaction?

Hypotheses

H2₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty member's overall job satisfaction in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

H2_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty member's overall job satisfaction in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

H3₀: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

H3_a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Research Paradigm

The philosophical framework for this study relies on the post-positivist perspective because it is aligned with the research purpose and reflects my personal philosophy. The post-positivist paradigm holds several assumptions about the nature of knowledge and reality. Ontologically (the nature of reality), the post-positivist perspective considers that the researcher's objectivity is critical to reaching the truth without influencing it or being biased. Epistemologically (the nature of knowledge), the post-positivist perspective emphasizes the use of a scientific approach to reach true knowledge by using empirical evidence and measurements. The methodology of the post-positivist perspective adopts a deductive and highly structured approach by using scientific methods and statistical analyses to understand reality. Post-

positivism evolved from positivism; however, a post-positivist believes that reality can be known based on probability, rather than absolute certainty (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Research Design and Rationale

This study implemented a quantitative, non-experimental, correlation design to explore the leadership styles of department chairs (independent variables) as perceived by their faculty in order to determine whether they correlate with overall faculty job satisfaction (dependent variable) at the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. A quantitative approach was chosen for this study because it provided the best approach by which to collect the necessary data in order to answer the research questions because the research variables are known, and the researcher is not seeking further exploration on the participants' perspectives about personal experiences, perceptions, or motivations. Therefore, a quantitative approach is more effective in answering the research question than the qualitative approach. Using a quantitative approach is usually preferred when evaluating existing theories that have predefined variables, and it could help in reaching a broader conclusion using a statistical analysis (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

Since this study examined the relationship between department chairs' leadership styles and overall faculty job satisfaction, the correlational design was the most appropriate option for achieving the study's goals. A correlational design is appropriate when "a need exists to study a problem requiring the identification of the direction and degree of association between two sets of scores" (Creswell, 2012, p. 345). Such a design helps to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables, but not a cause-and-effect relationship (Field, 2013; Howell, 2017; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In addition, the researcher incorporated regression analysis to determine whether the independent variables predicted the dependent variables in this

study. Although regression and correlation are closely related and have points in common, they answer different questions. Correlation focuses on the strength of the relationship between variables and regression is used for prediction purposes (Howell, 2017).

Via SurveyMonkey, the researcher used two closed-ended, cross-sectional survey to gather the data needed for this study. Survey method is commonly used in quantitative design (Leavy, 2017). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), “survey research involves acquiring information about one or more groups of people – perhaps about their characteristics, opinions, attitudes, or previous experiences – by asking them questions and tabulating their answers” (p. 183). A cross-sectional survey design seeks to collect data from a sample at single point in time, in contrast to a longitudinal design which collects data at multiple times (Leavy, 2017; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Using online surveys offers multiple advantages compared to other approaches, such as a paper format, as such surveys are cost-efficient, easily administered, and allow researchers to gather data from a large number of participants in a short amount of time. Furthermore, many online surveys offer features that can help with data collection and analysis processes (Wright, 2005).

Research Setting (King Saud University)

The study was conducted at King Saud University, one of the most prestigious universities in Saudi Arabia. The university, established in 1957, is recognized as the first public university in Saudi Arabia and is considered to be one of the largest university in Saudi Arabia with an approximate student population of 65,000 and 7,400 faculty members (Alqahtani, 2015). The university contains 24 colleges and 153 academic departments for males and almost the same for females. Each college is divided into different academic departments. The university

provides a wide range of undergraduate and graduate programs in humanities, natural and health sciences, and social sciences (King Saud University, 2020c).

The university's main campus is in the capital city, Riyadh, and has two separate campuses, one for male students and one for female students. The university's vision, mission, and values are rooted in the Islamic faith and Saudi Arabia's cultural values. King Saud University's vision is "to be a world class university and a leader in building the knowledge society" and its mission is to "provide distinctive education, produce creative research, serve society, and contribute in building the knowledge economy and community through learning, a creative thinking environment, the optimal use of technology, and effective international partnerships". The university's core values are excellence, leadership, teamwork, freedom of inquiry, fairness, integrity, transparency, accountability, and lifelong learning (Alqahtani, 2015; King Saud University, 2020d). According to Sim (2016), "King Saud University has ranked first among Arab countries since 2008" (p. 60). In 2012, King Saud University ranked 197 among the top 400 universities in the U.S. News and World Report, while the Shanghai Academic Ranking ranked King Saud University in the 151-200 among the top universities worldwide (Saudi Universities in World Map, 2013).

The College of Education, one of the oldest and largest colleges at the university, was founded in 1967 and has 10 departments: Educational Policy, Psychology, Curriculum and Instruction, Art Education, Educational Technology, Special Education, Educational Administration, Pre-school Education, Islamic Studies, and Quranic Studies. The College provides 48 programs: 19 bachelor's programs, 19 master's programs, and 10 Ph.D. programs (College of Education, 2019). Each department includes two department chairs: one at the

women's campus and one at the men's campus except for the Pre-school Education department, which has only female department chair.

As part of the university's initiative for achieving excellence in teaching and leadership, the university established the deanship of skills development to improve the skills of university faculty members, leaders, and administrators. The deanship focuses on five main skills: teaching, research, personal and inter-personal, and leadership skills. This is done through training programs, workshops, seminars, lectures, and panel discussions. Also, the deanship collaborates with a diverse set of international actors to share best practices and expertise in education and leadership. Among the objectives of this unit is to provide leadership development programs to institutional leaders, so they can effectively carry out their roles at the department, college, or institution level. Other programs focus on identifying the training needs of the faculty and provide support to new faculty to familiarize them with the regulations and instructions applicable at the university (King Saud University, 2020a).

In the past, the university was teaching-focused. However, in the last two decades, the university significantly shifted its priority to scientific research. To this end, it increased its research budget and built fruitful research collaborations with local industry to serve the community and economic development of the Kingdom. In seeking excellence, the university has established a massive endowment program project, which considered the largest endowment in the history of Saudi higher education to enhance the financial abilities of the university to support different research activities and initiatives aligned with national priorities and Vision 2030 (Alqahtani, 2015). King Saud University's strategic plan contains nine strategic objectives supported by 49 initiatives. The Strategic objective as following:

1. Strengthen the academic areas of research and teaching excellence to reach national and international distinction
2. Recruit and develop distinctive faculty members
3. Reduce the number of undergraduate students, increase the share of graduate students, and set higher selection criteria
4. Develop quality graduates by learning hard and soft skills that aligned with market demand
5. Build local and international partnerships
6. Create an engaging and supportive environment for faculty, students, and staff.
7. Create a sustainable future by diversify sources of funding
8. Create a performance agreement between King Saud University and the government
9. Establish an organization and governance model that support King Saud University's mission (Alqahtani, 2015; King Saud University, 2020b)

Population and Sampling

The population of this study included male and female faculty members teaching in the College of Education at King Saud University during the 2019-2020 academic year. The college has around 600 faculty members spread across the two gender-segregated campuses (College of Education, 2019).

The researcher used a non-probability, convenience sampling method where participants are selected because of their availability and accessibility to the researcher (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). For the purpose of determining the minimum participants needed for the correlation and multiple regression analyses, the researcher conducted a G*power analysis using the software application with three predictors: a small effect size of .3, an alpha level of .05, and a minimum

power of .80 (Cohen, 1988). Using these settings, the G*power indicated that a minimum sample size of 84 participants was required. However, considering the expected response rate and the issues of missing and outlier data, the survey was distributed to all population members. The study included professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers, and teaching assistants from the 10 departments. Adjunct and part-time faculty were not included in the study. According to Al-Sarrani (2010), in Saudi Arabian universities, “lecturers and teaching assistants have full-time positions and are accorded status as faculty should they obtain a doctorate” (p. 25). Of the distributed surveys, only 302 were opened. Of the opened surveys, only 170 participants proceeded and completed the survey. Of the completed surveys, 15 participants did not meet the criteria, and as such, the surveys were considered unusable. Therefore, 155 complete and usable surveys were included in the sample. This number represents an approximate 26% response rate.

Instruments and Measures

The researcher used an online survey that utilized three instruments. The researcher combined the demographic questionnaire, the MLQ, and the MSQ into a single survey using SurveyMonkey. The entire survey was estimated to take about 20 minutes to complete.

Demographic Questionnaire

The survey contained a demographic questionnaire created by the researcher so as to collect information on the faculty member’s gender, academic department, academic rank, and working experience with their department chair in his/her leadership role. The researcher used the information from this questionnaire to describe the sample and ensure the participants met the required criteria to participate in the study.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The MLQ questionnaire (5X-Short Rater Form), developed by Avolio and Bass (2004), was completed by the participants in order to determine what they perceived their department chairs' leadership styles to be. The questionnaire consisted of 36 behaviors (items) that measured the traits of the Full Range Leadership Theory, including transformational, transactional, and passive\avoidant leadership on a 5-point Likert scale, where 0=not at all, 1=once in a while, 2=sometimes, 3=fairly often, and 4=frequently if not always. The MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form) is comprised of five dimensions containing 20 items (behaviors) related to transformational leadership, two dimensions containing eight items (behaviors) related to transactional leadership, and two dimensions containing eight items (behaviors) related to passive\avoidant leadership. The MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form) Arabic version was used because faculty members in the College of Education are native Arabic speakers. The Arabic translation was provided by Mind Garden, Inc., who is the developer and distributor of the instrument.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The MSQ questionnaire, developed by Weiss et al. (1967), was completed by the participants in order to determine their overall job satisfaction level. Two versions of the MSQ exist: the long form (100 items) and short form (20 items). For this study, the short form of the MSQ was used. The short form consists of 20 items utilizing a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1=very dissatisfied, 2=dissatisfied, 3=neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 4=satisfied, and 5=very satisfied. A higher score on the MSQ represents a higher level of job satisfaction. The MSQ is based upon Herzberg's Two-Factor theory (1959) and measures two constructs: intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. It includes the following items: ability utilization, achievement, activity, advancement, authority, company policies and procedures, compensation, co-workers,

creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision, supervision-technical, variety, and working conditions. The University of Minnesota and The Vocational Psychology Research no longer sell the MSQ questionnaire and have made it free without written consent; however, the researcher should provide acknowledgment for these organizations as the source of the questionnaire (Vocational Psychology Research, 2019). The MSQ short form Arabic version was used because the faculty members in the College of Education are native Arabic speakers. The Arabic translation was provided by the VPR at the University of Minnesota, who is the developer and distributor of the instrument.

Reliability and Validity

Validity refers to judging whether a measure in the research accurately measured the construct or dimension; whereas reliability refers to the consistency of a measure when given in the same condition at a different point in time (Heale & Twycross, 2015; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Pallant, 2016). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is commonly used to determine the internal consistency reliability of an instrument. The Cronbach's alpha is a number ranging from 0 to 1, with acceptable levels for reliability being .7 or higher (Heale & Twycross, 2015; Pallant, 2016). The reliability and validity of both instruments have been repeatedly proven.

The MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form) instrument has been used extensively in education leadership studies for more than 20 years, and many studies have affirmed its reliability and validity with multiple cultures and organizations (Antonakis et al., 2003; Abualhamael, 2017). Avolio and Bass (2004) used confirmatory factor analysis and the result showed strong construct validity. As for reliability, the Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency for the total scale of the MLQ was .93 and ranged from .89 to .94 for each factor scale. The test-retest reliabilities of the

MLQ over 6 months period ranged from .74 to .90 (Avolio & Bass, 2004). In addition, the MLQ Arabic version was validated in the context of Saudi Arabia in different settings (Alghamdi, 2016; Al-; Alturiqi, 2019; Yami et al., 2018). Abualhamael (2017) has used the MLQ to investigate the relationship between the leadership styles, productive organizational energy, and job satisfaction of academic and administrative staff members in Saudi Arabia. The researcher found that the Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.88 to 0.94, which indicated good reliability.

The MSQ is considered to be one of the most widely used measures of job satisfaction and has been used in many studies in the last 50 years (Abualhamael, 2017; Alalwan, 2016). The internal consistency reliability of the MSQ short form ranged from .84 to .91 for the intrinsic scale, .77 to .84 for the extrinsic scale, and .87 to .92 for the general satisfaction scale. The test-retest reliability for general satisfaction was .89 over 1 week period and .70 over 1 year period (Weiss et al., 1967). In addition, the MSQ Arabic version was validated in the context of higher education in Saudi Arabia (Alalwan, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016; Almutairi, 2013). Almutairi (2013) reported that the Cronbach's alpha was .87, and Alghamdi (2016) reported that it was .92, which indicated good reliability.

Data Collection

The researcher followed several steps for the data collection process. First, the researcher obtained permission to use the MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form) instrument in the study from the developers (Appendix A). Second, the researcher obtained written approval from the Scientific Research Department at the research site to conduct the research (Appendix B) and then permission from the Institutional Review Board at University of the Incarnate Word prior to collecting the data (Appendix C). After getting the necessary approvals, the researcher contacted

the Scientific Research Department at King Saud University to distribute the online survey link to all of the full-time faculty members at the College of Education.

Each participant was provided with an invitation email (Appendix D) that contained two sections. The first section included a brief description of the study's objectives, participation criteria, assurances of confidentiality, instructions for completing the survey, and consent form. The invitation stated that participation was voluntary, and the participants could choose to withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences. The participants were informed that the university would not have access to the data. The second section included an online link to the website, SurveyMonkey, to take the survey. The researcher also included her contact information in order to answer any questions that the participants may have about the study or their rights as research participants. The participants were asked to agree to the consent form electronically before accessing the questionnaire link. It was anticipated that completing the questionnaire would take each participant about 20 minutes. The researcher tested the survey from multiple devices (e.g., computer, smart phone, iPad) to make sure it was easily accessible.

The survey was first distributed on December 11, 2019, through the Scientific Research Department at King Saud University. The researcher contacted the administration at the research site to send a follow-up email reminder on February 3, 2020, to encourage the participants to complete the survey. The survey was open to the participants for roughly three months.

Data Analysis

The data were transferred from SurveyMonkey into software package SPSS version 25 for further analysis. The data analysis included the following steps. The researcher first examined the data for any missing data or outliers. Descriptive statistics, including percentages and frequencies, were used to learn about the characteristics of the sample. Descriptive statistics,

including mean, standard deviation, and percentages for each of the variables were calculated. The assumptions for each test were checked and then inferential statistics were calculated.

For this study, the researcher used an alpha level of $p < .05$ as the criterion to reject the null hypothesis. Even though both questionnaires were Likert-based (i.e., ordinal in nature), a Likert scale that includes multiple points can be treated as an interval scale (Norman, 2010; Brown, 2011). Brown (2011) stated that Likert scales with multiple points “can be taken to be interval scales so descriptive statistics can be applied, as well as correlational analyses, factor analyses, and analysis of variance procedures” (p. 13).

The type of statistical analyses selected to analyze the data were based on the purpose of the study. For RQ1, the researcher used descriptive analyses, including means, ranges, and standard deviations, to examine the leadership styles of the department chairs as perceived by the education faculty. For RQ2, the researcher used Pearson’s correlation test to examine whether relationships existed among the three independent variables (transformational, transactional, passive-avoidant leadership) and the dependent variable (overall job satisfaction of faculty) and also the strength and direction of such relationships, if they existed. The researcher used the total of the three scores for each leadership style from the MLQ questionnaire and the job satisfaction score from MSQ questionnaire. Before conducting the correlation test, the researcher checked the assumptions of outliers, normality, and linearity to make sure that the Pearson’s correlation test could be used (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2016). When analyzing the data at the item level, the Spearman Rho test was used due to its suitability with items that are measured individually.

For RQ3, the researcher used a multiple regression analysis to evaluate the ability of the independent variables (transformational, transactional, passive-avoidant leadership) to predict the dependent variable (overall job satisfaction of faculty) and illustrate the relative contribution of

each independent variable in the regression model. Multiple regression requires one dependent variable measured at a continuous level and two or more independent variables measured at continuous or categorical levels. The researcher used the total of the three scores for each leadership style from the MLQ questionnaire and the job satisfaction score from MSQ questionnaire. Before conducting the regression analyses, the assumptions of absence of outliers, linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, independence of residuals, and multicollinearity were checked to make sure that the multiple regression analyses could be used (Meyers et al. , 2017; Pallant, 2016).

Ethical Considerations

Prior to beginning any research activities, the researcher obtained permission from the Institutional Review Board at the University of the Incarnate Word. Prior to taking the survey, every participant received an informed consent form (Appendix E) with detailed information regarding the nature of the study, voluntary participation, any inherent risks, and his/her right to withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences. In order to maintain the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants, the researcher did not ask about any personally identifying information on the demographic questionnaire that could link the participants to their responses. In addition, the participants were informed that the results of the study may be published or presented at professional conferences, but their identities would not be. All of the data files were password-protected, stored in an external drive, and accessed through a password-protected computer only used by the researcher. At the end of the 3rd year after the completion of the study, the researcher will destroy all of the data files.

Summary

Chapter three explained the research design and methodology used in the study. The rationale for using a quantitative, correlational design was discussed. The purposes of the research, hypotheses, and variables were presented. In addition, the population and sample of the study were described. The instruments used in the study, including the reliability and validity, were discussed. Finally, the data analyses procedures were explained. Chapter four will present the research results from the data analyses.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental, correlational study was to explore the leadership styles of the department chairs within the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by the faculty members. This exploration was used to examine the relationship between leadership styles and faculty's overall job satisfaction, and to determine to what extent these leadership styles predicted the faculty's overall job satisfaction. The independent variables were the transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles. The dependent variable was the overall satisfaction level of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University. The total number of survey items was 60, with four demographic questions, 36 MLQ items, and 20 MSQ items. The data were collected from an online survey through SurveyMonkey between December 11, 2019 and March 11, 2020. The data were transferred from the online SurveyMonkey into SPSS version 25 for further analysis. The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the data analysis and the findings starting with the descriptive statistics and then the inferential statistics.

Descriptive Statistics

Reliability Tests of the Instruments

Cronbach's alpha values for each of the scale variables are summarized in Table 1. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency reliability coefficients for both instruments (i.e., the items consistently measured the same constructs). The Cronbach's alpha is a number ranging from 0 to 1, with higher scores indicating better reliability. A score of .70 is the cutoff value for being acceptable in regard to internal consistency (Heale & Twycross, 2015; Pallant, 2016). In all cases, the reported Cronbach's alpha exceeded the .70 benchmark, thus indicating acceptable reliability for all four scales.

Table 1*Measure of Internal Consistency*

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
MSQ – Overall	.95	20
MLQ – Overall	.92	36
Transformational Leadership	.96	20
Transactional Leadership	.85	8
Passive/Avoidant Leadership	.77	8

Description of the Sample

The survey was distributed to all population members, which include male and female faculty members who are teaching full-time in the College of Education at King Saud University. The College of Education has 10 departments: Educational Policy, Psychology, Curriculum and Instruction, Art Education, Educational Technology, Special Education, Educational Administration, Pre-school Education, Islamic Studies, and Quranic Studies. There were around 600 faculty members at the College of Education (College of Education, 2019). Of the distributed surveys, only 302 were opened. Of the opened surveys, only 170 participants proceeded and completed the survey. Of the completed surveys, 15 participants did not meet the criteria, and as such, the surveys were considered unusable. Therefore, 155 complete and usable surveys were included in the sample. This number represents an approximate 26% response rate. However, during the assumption checking, an additional three cases were removed because they were identified as outliers based on the Mahalanobis Distance test. Therefore, a total of 152 surveys were utilized for the data analysis, which fulfilled the recommended G*Power analysis of 84 participants. The following sections present the demographical data of the participants in this study.

Gender

Table 2 shows that 51% ($n = 78$) of the participants were male and 49% ($n = 74$) were female.

Table 2

Participants' Gender

Gender	<i>N</i>	Percent
Male	78	51
Female	74	49
Total	152	100

Academic Department

Table 3 presents the academic departments of the participants. The top three highest percentages of the participants were from the Curriculum and Instruction Department (25%, $n = 38$) followed by the Islamic Studies Department (13%, $n = 20$), and Educational Administration Department (13%, $n = 20$). The lowest two percentages of the participants were from the Quranic Studies Department (4%, $n = 6$) followed by the Pre-school Education (5%, $n = 8$).

Table 3

Participants' Academic Departments

Department	<i>N</i>	Percent
Curriculum and Instruction	38	25
Educational Administration	20	13
Islamic Studies	20	13
Educational Technology	16	11
Special Education	14	9
Psychology	11	7
Educational Policy	10	7
Art Education	9	6
Pre-School Education	8	5
Quranic Studies	6	4
Total	152	100

Academic Rank

Table 4 displays the academic ranks of the participants. Of the 152 participants across all ranks, the highest percentage of the participants were assistant professors (38%, $n = 57$) and the lowest percentage were teaching assistants (7%, $n = 10$).

Table 4

Participants' Academic Ranks

Rank	<i>N</i>	Percent
Professor	28	18
Associate Professor	20	13
Assistant Professor	57	38
Lecturer	37	24
Teaching Assistant	10	7
Total	152	100

Participants' Working Experience With Their Department Chair

Table 5 represents the working experience of the participants with their department chair in his/her leadership role. While 14% ($n = 21$) of the participants reported having worked with their department chair from 1 to 2 years, the majority of the participants reported having worked with their department chair from 2 to 3 years (34%, $n = 51$). In addition, 28% ($n = 43$) of the participants indicated that they worked with their department chair for more than 4 years.

Table 5

Participants' Working Experience With Department Chair

Number of Years	<i>N</i>	Percent
One to two years	21	14
Two to three years	51	34
Three to four years	37	24
More than four years	43	28
Total	152	100

Scoring of the MLQ and MSQ

As stated in the methodology and the literature review sections, the MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form) questionnaire contains nine dimensions measured using 36 leadership behaviors (items) on a 5-point Likert scale, where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently if not always. Each dimension contained four items (leadership behaviors). Following the MLQ manual instructions, the responses for each of these items were summed and then divided by the number of items. The average score of the dimensions across each leadership style determined the average scores for transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership. The average scores for each leadership style ranged from 0 to 4. The perceived leadership behaviors with the higher mean scores indicated that they were more exhibited by the leader than those behaviors with lower mean scores (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The MSQ questionnaire consists of 20 items on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 4 = satisfied, and 5 = very satisfied. A higher average score on the MSQ represented a higher level of job satisfaction. All 20 items were summed in order to generate an overall faculty satisfaction score with a range of possible scores from 20-100 and 60 as middle point (Weiss et al., 1967). Therefore, an overall score of 20 would indicate that respondents were very dissatisfied, while an overall score of 100 indicates that respondents were very satisfied. In addition, an overall score below 60 would indicate that respondents would be closer toward dissatisfaction, while a score of above 60 suggests that respondents are closer to be satisfied.

Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

Table 6 displays the overall ratings for the transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles and the overall job satisfaction score. For the MLQ (5X-Short

Rater Form) questionnaire, the participants rated transformational leadership as the most practiced style of leadership ($M = 2.36$, $SD = .9$), followed by transactional leadership ($M = 2.30$, $SD = .83$), and passive/avoidant was the least practiced leadership style ($M = 1.44$, $SD = .76$).

This means that the behaviors embedded within both transformational and transactional leadership styles that had a mean score of around 2.30 were perceived by faculty members to be exhibited sometimes by the department. On the other hand, the behaviors embedded within the passive/avoidant leadership style that had a mean score of 1.44 were perceived to be exhibited occasionally by the department chair.

In relation to the MSQ questionnaire, the mean score for the faculty members' overall job satisfaction was ($M = 70.34$, $SD = 16.57$). Therefore, based on a mean score of 70.34, the researcher may conclude that the faculty members who responded to the survey were found to be neither dissatisfied nor satisfied. However, a score of 70.34 is a little closer towards the satisfaction than dissatisfaction.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

Variable	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Job Satisfaction Overall Average	21	99	70.34	16.57
Transformational Leadership	.05	3.90	2.36	.90
Transactional Leadership	.00	4.00	2.30	.83
Passive/Avoidant Leadership	.00	3.63	1.44	.76

Analyses of the Research Questions

Research Question One

RQ1: What is the most predominant leadership style of the department chairs as perceived by faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia?

Table 7 displays the overall ratings for the transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles. The participants responded to 36 items related to different behaviors and attributes of leadership as measured by the MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form) questionnaire. Based on the participants ratings, transformational and transactional leadership were the styles most practiced by the department chairs of the College of Education. However, transformational leadership was marginally higher ($M = 2.36$, $SD = .9$) than transactional leadership ($M = 2.30$, $SD = .83$). On the other hand, passive/avoidant leadership were the least practiced by the department chairs of the College of Education ($M = 1.44$, $SD = .76$).

Furthermore, the dimensions of each leadership style, as measured by the MLQ questionnaire, were not equally perceived to be exhibited by department chairs (Table 7). For example, the overall average mean score for the transformational leadership style, was more influenced by the relatively higher existence of the idealized attributes dimension ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 1.04$). Within the idealized attributes dimension, the respondents indicated that displaying a sense of power and confidence ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 1.06$) as well as behaving in way that builds respect ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.27$) were the behaviors most often exhibited by their department chairs. On the other hand, the individualized consideration dimension, as illustrated in Table 7, had the least influence on the overall average mean score of the transformational style ($M = 1.91$, $SD = 1.08$). Within the individualized consideration dimension, the respondents indicated that the least often behavior exhibited by the department chairs was spending time to coach his/her department members ($M = 1.29$, $SD = 1.22$). In fact, the coaching behavior was the least practiced behavior among all of the transformational behaviors measured by the MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form) in the study sample. In addition, based on the perceptions of the faculty members, the department chairs did not frequently exhibited behaviors that were directed at developing

their strengths ($M = 1.98$, $SD = 1.36$), which contributed to the lower mean score for the individualized consideration dimension.

For the transactional leadership style, the MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form) measured leadership behaviors in two dimensions (i.e., contingent rewards, management-by-exception in its active form). According to respondents, behaviors within contingent rewards dimension ($M = 2.37$, $SD = 1.02$) were exhibited more than management-by-exception active dimension ($M = 2.24$, $SD = .82$). However, the relatively higher standard deviation of contingent rewards dimension indicated that the measured behaviors within this dimension had variations higher than the management-by-exception active dimension. The highest mean score within the contingent rewards dimension was for the behavior measuring the department chair perceived assistance to faculty members in exchange of their efforts ($M = 2.72$, $SD = 1.11$). On the other hand, the lowest measured behavior within the contingent rewards dimension was related to providing clear explanations about what faculty members should expect to receive when they meet performance goals ($M = 1.97$, $SD = 1.26$).

Table 7

Summary of the MLQ Questionnaire Styles and Dimensions

Style/Dimension	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Transformational Leadership Style	.05	3.90	2.36	.90
Idealized Attributes			2.65	1.04
Idealized Behaviors			2.44	.88
Individualized Consideration			1.91	1.08
Inspirational Motivation			2.56	.99
Intellectual Stimulation			2.26	.95
Transactional Leadership Style	.00	4.00	2.30	.83
Contingent Reward			2.37	1.02
Management-by-Exception (Active)			2.24	.82
Passive/Avoidant Leadership Style	.00	3.63	1.44	.76
Management-by-Exception (Passive)			1.65	.77
Laissez Faire			1.23	.91

Statistical Assumption Checks

Before performing any inferential statistics, it was important to evaluate a set of statistical assumptions in order to determine whether the data supported the required assumptions for Pearson's correlation and multiple regression analyses. The researcher checked the assumptions related to the absence of outliers, linearity, and normality to determine whether the Pearson's correlation test could be used (Pallant, 2016). In addition, the researcher checked the assumptions related to the absence of outliers, linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, the independence of residuals, and multicollinearity to determine whether the planned multiple regression analyses could be used (Meyers et al., 2017; Pallant, 2016). How each assumption was assessed is presented below followed by the results obtained related to the research questions.

Absence of Outliers. Outliers are points that have extreme lower or higher values compared with the other data points in a dataset. The identification of outliers is important because outliers can distort the statistical analysis and reduced the overall strength of the multivariate relationship (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2016). In order to determine whether outliers existed in the data for this study, Mahalanobis Distance was examined. Mahalanobis Distance is an important tool for detecting outliers in multivariate data using chi-square distribution (Pallant, 2016). A total of three cases were removed because they had a Mahalanobis Distance values exceeding the critical chi-square value of 16.27 (Pallant, 2016). This removal resulted in the reduction of the dataset to 152 cases that qualified for further analysis.

Linearity. Linearity means that a straight-line relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables. The assumption of linearity was checked using scatterplots, which is the most common way of assessing linearity between two variables

(Meyers et al., 2017; Pallant, 2016). The scatterplots in Figures 1, 2, and 3 indicate good linear relationships with a few outliers.

Figure 1

Scatterplot of Transformational Leadership Style and Overall Job Satisfaction



Figure 2

Scatterplot of Transactional Leadership Style and Overall Job Satisfaction

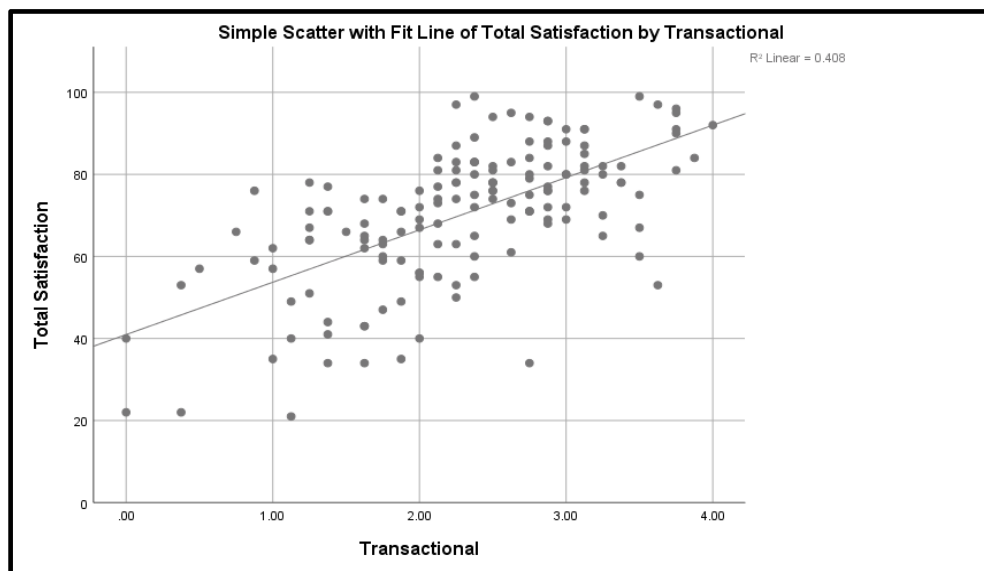
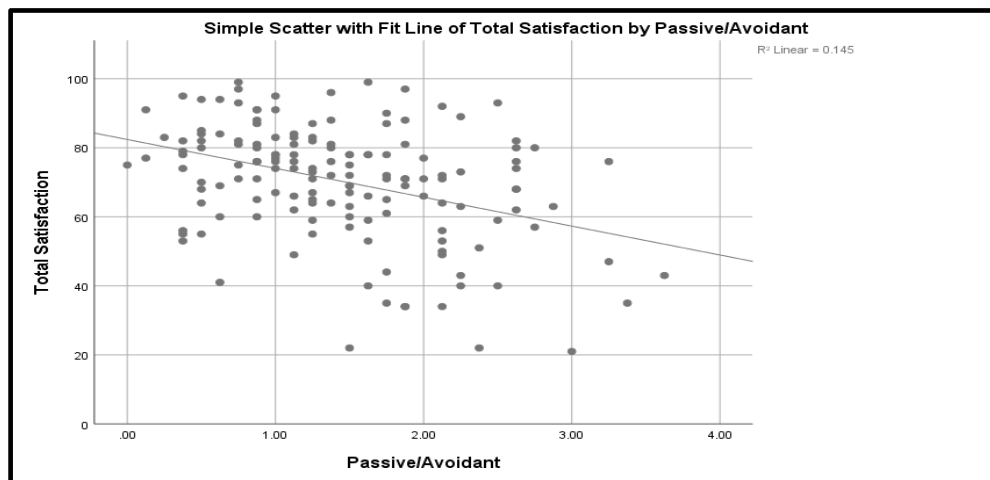


Figure 3

Scatterplot of Passive/Avoidant Leadership Style and Overall Job Satisfaction



Normality. The assumption of normality was assessed statistically by examining the skewness and kurtosis for each leadership style and job satisfaction (Table 8). Overall, the values for skewness and kurtosis were between the recommended range of +1 and -1 for identifying normal distributions (Meyers et al., 2017). In addition, the assumption of normality was assessed graphically by examining the normal probability plot (Q-Q plot) (Figures 4-7), which is a more precise graphical method for testing the normality assumption than a histogram (Meyers et al., 2017). The examination of the normal Q-Q plot showed that the plot points were roughly close to the diagonal line. Therefore, the assumption of normality was met.

Table 8

Summary for the Skewness and Kurtosis for Each Variable

Variable	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Overall Job Satisfaction	152	-.779	.197	.480	.391
Transformational Leadership	152	-.568	.197	-.344	.391
Transactional Leadership	152	-.355	.197	-.123	.391
Passive/Avoidant Leadership	152	.467	.197	-.249	.391

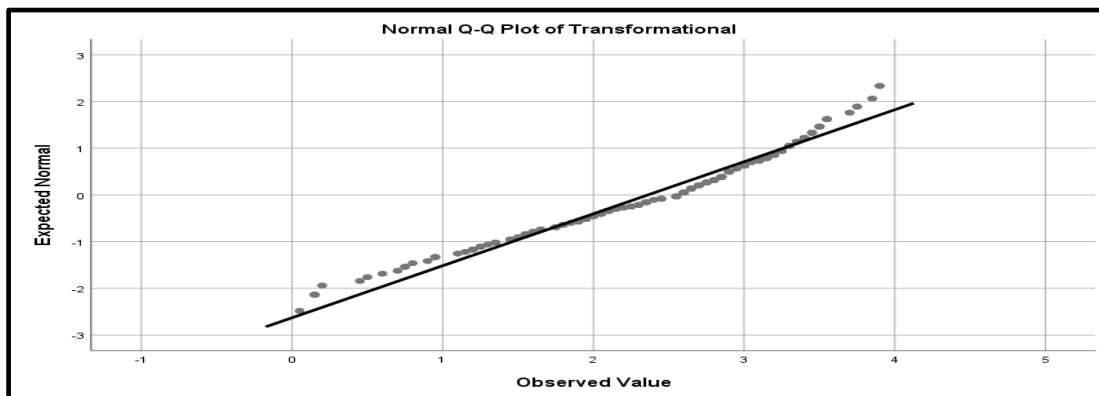
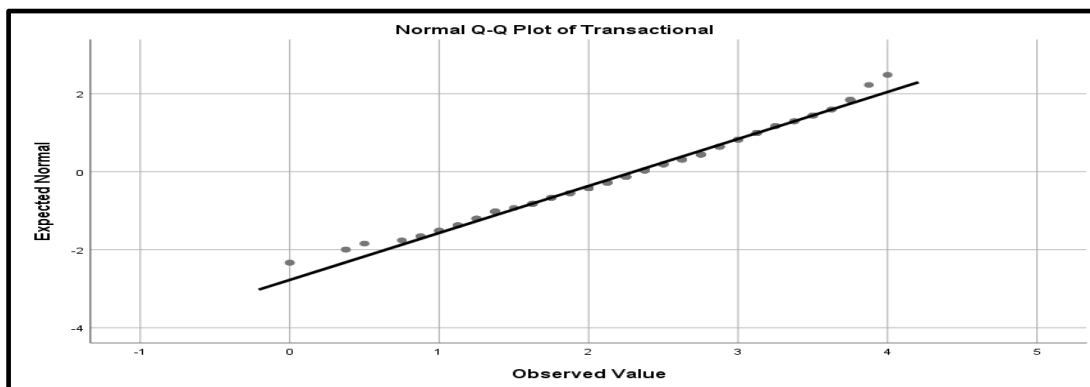
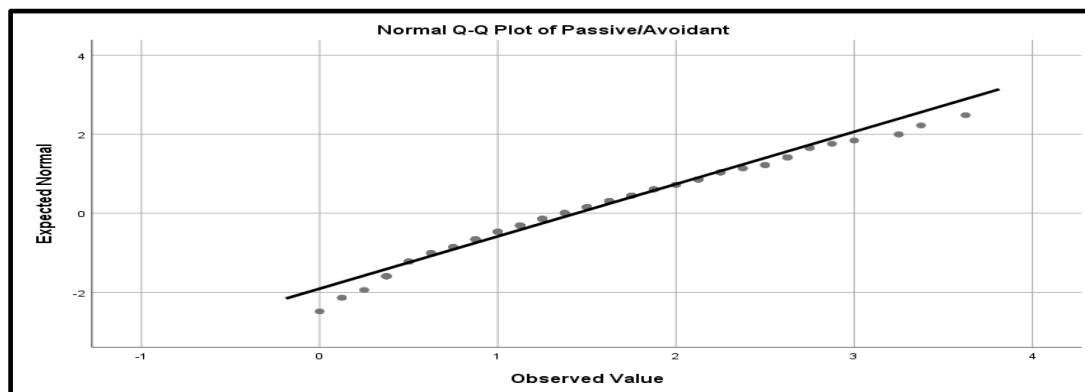
Figure 4*Overall Job Satisfaction Q-Q plot***Figure 5***Transformational Leadership Style Q-Q plot***Figure 6***Transactional Leadership Style Q-Q plot*

Figure 7

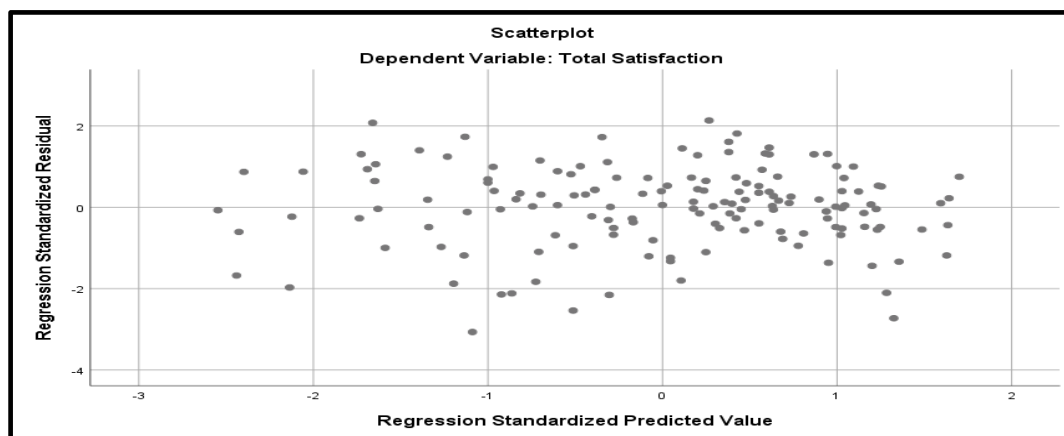
Passive/Avoidant Leadership Style Q-Q plot



Homoscedasticity. The homoscedasticity is an assumption relevant to regression tests which means that the variance of the residuals is approximately equal for all predicted dependent variable scores. This assumption was tested using a visual examination of the scatterplot of standardized residuals against the predicted values of faculty members overall job satisfaction scores (Figure 8). The pattern of residual plots takes approximately a rectangular shape and does not show a funnel or fan shape (Pallant, 2016). Thus, the assumption of homoscedasticity was satisfied.

Figure 8

Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals Against Predicted Values for Job Satisfaction



Independence of Residuals. The assumption of independence of residuals implies that the residuals of the dependent variable scores are independent of each other. This assumption was tested using the Durbin-Watson test (Meyers et al., 2017). Durbin-Watson test values range between 0 and 4, where a value close to 2 suggests less auto-correlation, while values close to 0 or 4 indicate strong positive or negative auto-correlations, respectively (Field, 2013). In this study, the value of the Durbin-Watson test was 1.622, indicating no violation in this assumption.

Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity issues occur when the independent variables are highly correlated with each other (Field, 2013; Meyers et al., 2017). The initial statistical test analysis performed to evaluate multicollinearity is Pearson's correlation coefficients. In this study, the correlation coefficients of the transformation and transactional leadership variables were found to exceed .70, which raised a concern and required further investigation. Therefore, the Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) tests were performed to indicate whether this high correlation represented a violation to the multicollinearity assumption. In general, a Tolerance value less than .10 and VIF value above 10 are considered violations of the multicollinearity assumption (Meyers et al., 2017; Pallant, 2016). In this study, the Tolerance and VIF values for all of the independent variables were found to be within the normal ranges (Table 9). Therefore, the multicollinearity assumption was not violated.

Table 9

Collinearity Statistics

Variable	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Transformational Leadership	.17	5.94
Transactional Leadership	.19	5.28
Passive/Avoidant Leadership	.74	1.36

Research Question Two

RQ2: What, if any, relationship exists between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia?

H2₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty member's overall job satisfaction in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

H2_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty member's overall job satisfaction in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

The researcher tested the hypotheses using the Pearson's correlation test to assess the relationship between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs (transformational, transactional, passive-avoidant leadership) and faculty's overall job satisfaction. The researcher used an alpha level of $p < .05$ as the criterion to reject the null hypothesis. Correlation coefficients values range between +1 and -1, where zero correlation indicates that no relationship exists between the two variables (Pallant, 2016). For this study, the following interpretive guide provided by Evans (1996) was used to describe the strength of the relationships: very weak = .00 - .19, weak = .20 - .39, moderate = .40 - .59, strong = .60 - .79, and very strong .80 – 1.0.

Table 10 summarizes the Pearson correlation coefficients between the perceived leadership styles of the department chairs and faculty members' overall job satisfaction. The null hypothesis (H2₀) was rejected. A statistically significant strong positive correlation existed between the transformational leadership style of the department chairs and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction $r(152) = .70, p < .001$ as well as between the transactional leadership style

of the department chairs and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction $r(152) = .64, p < .001$. However, a statistically significant weak negative correlation existed between the passive/avoidant leadership style of the department chairs and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction $r(152) = -.38, p < .001$. The results suggested that the more often the faculty members perceived transformational and transactional leadership behaviors from their department chair, the higher their job satisfaction.

Table 10

Summary of Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Leadership Styles and Overall Job Satisfaction

Variable	Job Satisfaction	Transformational		Transactional		Passive/avoidant	
		Pearson	<i>p</i>	Pearson	<i>p</i>	Pearson	<i>p</i>
Job Satisfaction		.70	.000	.64	.000	-.38	.000
Transformational	.70						
Transactional	.64						
Passive/Avoidant	-.38						

Linking Leadership Behaviors to Faculty Overall Job Satisfaction

In previous sections of this chapter, the data led to conclude that the research sample perceived their department chairs to exhibit more transformational leadership behaviors followed closely by transactional leadership behaviors as measured by MLQ (5X-Short Rater Form). However, this conclusion is generic and needs to be further explained. The data collected through the leadership questionnaire allowed the researcher to provide deeper analysis for the nature of the relationship between leadership styles and overall job satisfaction at the measured 36 behaviors (item analysis). Following the item analysis approach, the researcher linked each measured behavior to the reported overall job satisfaction score. This type of linkage provided specific details regarding which of the measured 36 leadership behaviors might have influenced the overall job satisfaction score. By linking the leadership behaviors' correlation coefficients

with their correspondent means, the researcher was able to identify areas of improvement and provide recommendations for this research beneficiaries that will be discussed in the following chapter. At the item level analysis, the Spearman Rho (r_s) correlation test was used due to its suitability with items that are measured individually.

In this section, an area of improvement is identified whenever a leadership behavior has a high positive correlation with job satisfaction and a low mean score. This means that this area requires more attention as these results indicate that the leadership behavior was less noted by the faculty members and among the less exhibited behaviors by the department chair. Therefore, the identified area of improvement would represent a better opportunity to improve job satisfaction since the gap is larger between what faculty feels and the behaviors exhibited by the department chair.

The data analysis indicated that the individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation dimensions of transformational leadership emerged to have more areas of improvement for the department chairs than the other dimensions within the transformational leadership style. The individualized consideration leadership behaviors had high correlation coefficients with job satisfaction and low mean scores. For example, the developing faculty strengths behavior had a statistically significant strong positive correlation with the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members $r_s(152) = .65, p < .001$. However, the relatively lower mean score for this behavior ($M = 1.98, SD = 1.36$). In addition, within the individualized consideration component, the data indicated that the faculty members' overall job satisfaction had significant moderate correlation when the department chairs acknowledge that each faculty member had different needs and abilities $r_s(152) = .52, p < .001$. Nevertheless, the mean score for this behavior was not among the highest reported to be perceived by the faculty members (M

= 2.03, $SD = 1.29$). Additionally, as the correlation coefficient for coaching faculty members behavior had a significant moderate correlation $r_s(152) = .42, p < .001$ and a very low mean score ($M = 2.03, SD = 1.29$), it represented a strong area for improvement.

For the intellectual stimulation dimension, two of its four measured behaviors were less noted by faculty members and had relatively high correlation coefficients with job satisfaction. First, the behavior related to the department chair suggesting new ways for faculty members to accomplish tasks was found to strongly and positively correlate with faculty members' job satisfaction $r_s(152) = .66, p < .001$. However, the mean score for this behavior was relatively low ($M = 2.09, SD = 1.21$). Second, the behavior related to the department chair encouraging and supporting faculty members looking at problems from different angles had a mean score of ($M = 2.17, SD = 1.18$) and a statistically significant moderate positive correlation with the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members $r_s(152) = .54, p < .001$.

Through the contingent rewards dimension, the transactional leadership style showed opportunities via which the department chairs could improve the job satisfaction of the faculty members. The first behavior was related to the clarity between reward expectations and achieved performance targets. This relationship had a strong positive correlation $r_s(152) = .61, p < .001$ and a relatively low mean score ($M = 1.97, SD = 1.26$). The second behavior was related to setting well-defined tasks and responsibilities for each faculty members in regard to achieving performance targets. This relationship had a moderate positive correlation $r_s(152) = .51, p < .001$ and a relatively low mean score ($M = 2.09, SD = 1.28$).

Research Question Three

RQ3: To what extent does the leadership styles of the department chairs as perceived by the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, predict the faculty member's overall job satisfaction?

H3₀: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

H3_a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

The researcher tested the hypotheses using a multiple regression analysis, which was used to evaluate the ability of the independent variables (i.e., transformational, transactional, passive-avoidant leadership styles) to predict the dependent variable (i.e., overall job satisfaction of the faculty members) and illustrate the relative contribution of each independent variable in the regression model. The researcher used an alpha level of $p < .05$ as the criterion to reject the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis (H3₀) was rejected. The multiple regression model was statistically significant $F(3,148) = p < .001$. The total model illustrated that 47.8% of the variance in the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members was explained by the three independent variables $R^2_{adj} = .478$. As shown in Table 11, the transformational leadership style was the only statistically significant predictor that contributed to the model (Beta = .597, $p < .001$). Neither the transactional leadership style (Beta = .083, $p = .540$) nor passive/avoidant leadership style (Beta = -.050, $p = .468$) were statistically significant predictors of faculty members' overall job satisfaction. One possible explanation might be the high correlation

between transformational leadership and transactional leadership. However, in this study, the researcher kept the two independent variables because the Tolerance and VIF values were found to be within the normal ranges and also due to their importance in the Full Range leadership theory.

Table 11

Summary of the Multiple Regression Analysis

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	<i>p</i>
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>		
Constant	42.08	4.56		.000
Transformational Leadership	11.01	2.64	.60	.000
Transactional Leadership	1.66	2.70	.08	.540
Passive/Avoidant Leadership	-1.10	1.50	-.05	.468

Summary

Chapter four began with the reliability results of the instruments and description of the sample in the study ($N = 152$). Following the description of the demographics of the participants, the descriptive statistics for the study variables were presented. Information pertaining to the required assumptions for the inferential analyses were presented and discussed. Next, a discussion was presented on the inferential analyses that used Pearson's correlation and multiple regression analyses to address the research questions. All of the inferential analyses were performed using SPSS version 25. The researcher used an alpha level of $p < .05$ as the criterion to reject the null hypothesis. Chapter five concludes the research with a summary of the study, a discussion of the results, and implications for theory and practice.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental, correlational study was to explore the leadership styles of the department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by full-time faculty members. This exploration was used to determine the extent to which the styles predict the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. In this chapter, the researcher will provide a summary of the main findings and a discussion that includes a comparison of the current findings with previous research. The implications of the findings for theory and practice will also be described. Finally, the chapter concludes with recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

This study was designed to explore the leadership styles of the department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by full-time faculty members. This exploration was used to examine the relationship between leadership styles and faculty's overall job satisfaction, and to determine to what extent these leadership styles predicted the faculty's overall job satisfaction. This study was framed within a post-positivist perspective. The theoretical foundation of this study was the Full Range Leadership theory, which consists of three leadership styles and considered the independent variables for the study: transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The dependent variable for the study was the overall satisfaction level of the faculty members. The study focused on one Saudi Arabian public university (i.e., King Saud University), which is considered to be the largest university in Saudi Arabia. The data were collected from an online survey through SurveyMonkey. The researcher combined the demographic questionnaire, MLQ questionnaire, and MSQ questionnaire into a single survey. A total of 152 complete responses

were used for the data analysis. The data were analyzed using SPSS version 25. The methods used to analyze the data and answer the research questions included descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation test, and multiple regression analyses. Few researchers have examined how faculty members' perceptions of department chairs' leadership styles have impacted faculty members' job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia (Alalwan, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016). As such, this study adds to the body of empirical research about department chairs' leadership styles as perceived by faculty members in Saudi Arabia.

The findings indicated that the transformational leadership style was the most often used style by the department chairs ($M = 2.36, SD = .9$), followed closely by the transactional leadership style ($M = 2.30, SD = .83$), which clearly highlighted that the behaviors of these two leadership styles were practiced more frequently. On the other hand, the passive/avoidant leadership style was perceived to be used the least ($M = 1.44, SD = .76$).

In addition, within this study, nine leadership dimensions were measured through the leadership questionnaire, which varied in their practicing levels based on the perceptions of the faculty members. For example, the highest practiced dimension of the transformational leadership style was the idealized attributes dimension ($M = 2.65, SD = 1.04$), whereas the least practiced dimension of the transformational style was the individualized consideration dimension ($M = 1.91, SD = 1.08$). Within the transactional leadership style, which contains only two dimensions, the contingent rewards dimension was rated as more often practiced ($M = 2.37, SD = 1.02$) by the department chairs than the management-by-exception active dimension ($M = 2.24, SD = .82$).

When examining the relationship between the three measured leadership styles and overall job satisfaction, the correlation results showed that a statistically strong positive

relationship existed between both the transformational and transactional leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. However, the results indicated a statistically weak negative relationship between the passive/avoidant leadership style and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction.

When examining the full regression model, the results revealed that the model was statistically significant and that 47.8% of the faculty members' overall job satisfaction was explained by the three independent variables. However, the transformational leadership style was the only statistically significant predictor of the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. The transformational leadership style explained approximately 60% of the variance in the faculty members' overall job satisfaction.

Discussion

The results of this study indicated that the behaviors categorized under the transformational leadership style were rated as the most used form of leadership by the department chairs in the College of Education, followed closely by the transactional leadership style behaviors. However, the behaviors categorized under the passive/avoidant leadership style were the least exhibited by the department chairs. One explanation could be attributed to the current change within the organizational culture at King Saud University toward more supportive and effective leadership practices (Alqahtani, 2015). For example, as mentioned in chapter three, the Deanship of Skills Development at King Saud University provides leadership training programs to institutional leaders, so they can effectively carry out their roles at the department, college, or institution level. This finding is consistent with Wirbaa and Shmailan's (2015) study. The researchers found that the majority of middle managers in various universities in the Eastern Region of Saudi Arabia reported that they exercised transformational leadership behaviors more

often, followed by the transactional leadership behaviors, while the laissez-faire leadership behaviors is the least practiced. Likewise, the result is in accord with the research findings of Amin's (2012) study, who examined the relationship between the leadership styles of the campus leaders and the faculty members' job satisfaction at public universities in Pakistan. The researcher found that transformational leadership style is comparatively being more often exercised by the leaders than the transactional leadership style, whereas the laissez-faire leadership style is the least practiced. Also, Bateh and Heyliger (2014) found in their study that academic administrators exhibited the transformational leadership behaviors more often than transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviors based on the perceptions of faculty members at a state university in Florida.

However, Abualhamael (2017) found in his study that top management at the public King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia practiced transactional leadership behaviors more than transformational leadership behaviors based on the perceptions of academic and administrative staff members. In a qualitative study, Alsuood (2019) interviewed 15 academic deans from eight public universities in Saudi Arabia to explore how leadership is perceived and practiced. The researcher concluded that transformational leadership behaviors are not adequately practiced among academic deans. The inconsistent results between studies conducted in Saudi Arabia might be due to ongoing struggle to shift from traditional leadership practices that have been strongly inherited over time (e.g., centralization, strict regulations, the dominance of hierarchical and bureaucratic forms of leadership) to more effective leadership practices.

Moreover, the findings of this study revealed that the highest practiced dimension of the transformational leadership style was the idealized attributes, whereas the least practiced dimension was the individualized consideration. This finding was consistent with research

conducted by Alghamdi (2017) who investigated the relationships between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and academic service quality at Al-Baha University in Saudi Arabia. Sadeghi and Pihie (2013) also found in their study at three leading research universities in Malaysia that department heads were more often exhibiting the idealized influence (attributes and behaviors) and inspirational motivation dimensions, while individualized consideration was exhibited less often than other dimensions of transformational leadership.

This study supports the literature, as detailed in the second chapter, in confirming the relationship between leadership style and faculty members' job satisfaction. The study demonstrated the importance of transformational leadership and its positive relationship on job satisfaction in the higher education sector, which is consistent with other studies that found similar associations (Alghamdi, 2017; Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Amin, 2012; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hijazi et al., 2016; Omar & Hussin, 2013).

Results of this research study found that transformational leadership style was the only significant predictor of the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. This finding was consistent with the results of Bateh and Heyliger's (2014) study, who found transformational leadership style contained most of the predictive power of faculty members job satisfaction. Also, Sadeghi and Pihie's (2013) study found that transformational leadership style was the dominant predictor of faculty members job satisfaction. On the other hand, the results of this current study contradict the result of Abualhamael's (2017) study, which showed that transformational leadership did not predict job satisfaction of academic and administrative staff members to a significant level, but transactional leadership did so.

The results of the study further indicated that, as the use of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors increased, the faculty members' overall job satisfaction

increased, while the increased use of passive/avoidant leadership behaviors was associated with a decreased in the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. These results contradict the result presented by Abualhamael (2017) who found that transformational leadership had a negative relationship with job satisfaction of the academic and administrative staff members at King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia. In another related study, Hijazi et al. (2016) examined the relationships between leadership styles and the job satisfaction of employees at seven private universities in the United Arab Emirates. The researchers found that transactional leadership had a negative and significant relationship with the job satisfaction of the employees. Additionally, Amin (2012) found that transactional leadership had non-significant negative relationship with the faculty members' intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction of faculty members at public universities in Pakistan.

The findings of the current research have indicated that exercising leadership behaviors that are associated with the passive/avoidant leadership style will result in decreased job satisfaction for faculty members. Although passive/avoidant leadership promotes autonomy for followers, passive/avoidant leaders provide little guidance to their followers and wait for mistakes or problems to occur before taking corrective actions or instituting punishments. This process might explain the negative association with job satisfaction as found in this study. This type of leadership generally involves criticism, negative feedback, and punishment. Leaders who use passive/avoidant behaviors usually avoid or delay involvement or important decision making. As a result, the followers may feel lost and unsupported (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northous, 2016; Sharma & Singh, 2013). Unlike the King Saud University College of Education faculty members, some college professors, in other work environments, might find working with a passive/avoidant leader to be satisfying. For example, Amin's (2012) study found that the

laissez-faire dimension had non-significant positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction at public universities in Pakistan. However, most prior research has demonstrated that the passive/avoidant leadership style is negatively correlated with leadership effectiveness and faculty job satisfaction (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hijazi et al., 2016; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2013).

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The study investigated the leadership styles of the department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, as perceived by the full-time faculty members in order to determine whether they correlate with the overall faculty members' job satisfaction, and to determine to what extent these leadership styles predicted the faculty members' job satisfaction. The findings of this study have several important implications for theory and practice.

Implications for Leadership Theory

This study was focused on the leadership defined by the Full Range leadership theory, which consists of three leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The study contributed to leadership theory research by confirming the positive relationship of transformational and transactional leadership to faculty members' overall job satisfaction and the negative relationship between the passive/avoidant leadership style and faculty members' overall job satisfaction in the higher education sector at Saudi Arabia.

The findings indicated that the as use of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors increased, the faculty job satisfaction increased, while the increased use of passive/avoidant leadership behaviors was associated with a decreased in the faculty job satisfaction. The result confirmed what Avolio and Bass (2004) reported that the Full Range

leadership theory “links each leadership style to the expected performance outcome” (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 5). Avolio and Bass (2004) determined that leaders tend to use all three styles to some degree based on the followers’ maturity, needs, and situation. The results of the current study indicated that the department chairs in the College of Education are exhibiting, to varying degrees, transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership behaviors.

In addition, the study analysis showed that, regardless of the differences between the nature of Saudi Arabia collective culture and Western individualistic cultures, the Full Range leadership theory might be applicable in Saudi Arabian’s public higher education institutions. This result supports Bass (1999) observation that “although the original theory, model, and measurements emerged in the individualistic United States, it appears equally or even more applicable in the collectivist societies of Asia” (p. 17).

Implications for the Department Chairs at King Saud University

The results of the study also highlighted the department chairs’ roles in enhancing faculty members’ job satisfaction by demonstrating certain leadership behaviors. Because faculty members’ job satisfaction is associated with higher motivation, effective engagement, and lower turnover rates (Al-Smadi & Qblan, 2015; Bass, 2008), the role played by the department chair as a leader is critical. On the other hand, faculty dissatisfaction has many adverse effects, including lower teaching effectiveness and research productivity (Reybold, 2005). Within the changing environment in Saudi Arabia's higher education system and the limited resources available for leaders working in the education sector, it is expected that the roles of the department chairs will become even more crucial in the coming years. Therefore, it is important for department chairs to know what leadership behaviors promote the maximum possible faculty members’ job satisfaction with the minimum use of resources. As a result, the findings of this

study shed light on those leadership behaviors that would help department chairs improve their faculty members' job satisfaction, which will ultimately enhance their motivation and engagement. In addition, the knowledge obtained from this study may help the department chairs refine their leadership behaviors and acquire, or develop, new effective leadership behaviors to encourage the job satisfaction of their faculty.

The correlations and descriptive analyses discussed in detail in chapter four provided specific details regarding which of the 36 leadership behaviors included in the MLQ questionnaire might have influenced the faculty members' overall job satisfaction in the College of Education at King Saud University. In particular, the individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation dimensions of transformational leadership and contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership represent areas of improvement for department chairs more than the other dimensions within Full Range leadership theory.

In regard to the individual consideration dimension, even though the data analysis indicated that the behaviors measured in this dimension were among the highest in relation to faculty members' overall job satisfaction, department chairs practiced them less often. Therefore, it is recommended that the department chairs focus more on the faculty members' individuality instead of group-focused leadership. This change will require the department chairs to take extra time and effort to understand the differences in the faculty members' needs, wishes, and skills. By providing faculty members with individualized attention, the department chairs can determine what motivates each faculty member. It is recommended that the department chairs familiarize themselves with the faculty members' strengths and weakness so as to provide proper guidance and support. In addition, the department chairs should provide support to the faculty members in order to maximize their strengths and minimize their weaknesses. The department chairs are

encouraged to be patient and open-minded when listening to the perceptions and needs of their faculty members. When faculty members feel that their leaders display more frequent individualized consideration behaviors by listening to their concerns and wants attentively, paying attention to the differences among them, and acting as mentors and coaches, the faculty members are more likely to have positive feelings about their jobs.

Moreover, the data analysis indicated that, within the intellectual stimulation dimension of transformational leadership, only two of its four measured behaviors (i.e., suggesting new ways to accomplish tasks, encouraging looking at problems from different angles) were found to be among the highest that correlate with the overall job satisfaction of the faculty members. However, the department chairs were perceived to demonstrate these two behaviors less often. Therefore, the researcher recommends that the department chairs encourage innovation and creativity among faculty members in regard to their work and welcome new ideas for solving problems. The department chairs should create positive environments that encourage faculty members to think critically. It is suggested that department chairs avoid criticism of potential mistakes. This environment, in turn, will lead to greater job satisfaction among the faculty members.

Furthermore, the data analysis indicated that, within the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership, two behaviors of the department chairs needed more attention (i.e., the clarity between reward expectations and achieved performance targets, setting well-defined task responsibilities for each faculty member). Although both behaviors were among the highest to be correlated with the faculty members' overall job satisfaction, the department chairs demonstrated them less often. Therefore, it is recommended that the department chairs clearly and specifically explain what is required and expected from each faculty member. It would be beneficial for the

department chairs to clearly communicate to the faculty members the performance expectations for their jobs as well as the benefits for meeting these expectations. The clear communication of expectations and rewards associated with any accomplished task provides faculty members with a better opportunity to align their work with the desired outcomes and creates a win-win situation. In addition, it is important for the department chairs to recognize individual differences, as the faculty members may differ with regard to what they consider rewarding outcomes. Providing a rewards system congruent with the faculty members' interests and is clearly explained at the beginning of the semester will more likely increase the faculty members' job satisfaction.

Implications for King Saud University

This study's findings offer guidance to King Saud University's administrators, including human resources managers, when conducting needs analyses for training for current and potential department chairs. The results of this study show that the department chairs in the College of Education require more training, especially in regard to the development of the behaviors embedded within the individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and contingent reward dimensions. The administrators at King Saud University may use these findings to develop training programs that are designed specifically for promoting those behaviors as they were the least practiced by the department chairs, although they were highly related to job satisfaction. Craig (2005) claimed that department chairs hold "pivotal positions to the organization, [and, therefore, for them] training, mentoring, and other leadership developmental activities are imperative" (p. 86). Leadership training may include collaboration, networking, and mentorship programs across different departments. This will encourage the sharing of the best knowledge on applying effective leadership practices to various departmental situations and

contexts. Lima (2015) indicated that training programs for department chairs “are most effective when they focus on real-life applications that address the uniqueness and importance of their roles” (p. 272). Moreover, the researcher emphasizes the importance of department chair training, as they often come to the position due to their success as faculty members but lack leadership training or prior administrative experience, which becomes a source of stress and frustration for them (Gonaim, 2016a; Riley & Russell, 2013; Thrasher, 2017). Chu (2006) stated that “from the very first day, new chairs find that the disciplinary and scholarly skills that were primary criteria for career success as faculty members have little to do with the new requirements of managing and leading academic departments” (p. 13).

Additionally, it is important to involve the faculty members in the training process to build a common understanding on what are considered effective leadership practices. This is because what leaders think are effective leadership practices might not correspond with their faculty members’ perceptions. Also, the leadership training should be combined with ongoing evaluations and reassessments to make sure that the training programs are meeting the desired criteria. It would be beneficial for King Saud University’s administrators to ensure that the leadership training keeps up with the rapid changes happening in Saudi Arabian higher education to support Vision 2030. In addition, insights gained from this study regarding effective leadership behaviors that enhance faculty job satisfaction may provide opportunities to revise the job requirements and hiring processes for department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University.

Implications for the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia

The knowledge obtained from this study will contribute to ongoing professional development and training programs in leadership for current and future leaders in higher

education in Saudi Arabia. The information gleaned clearly illustrates effective leadership behaviors that are more likely lead to greater job satisfaction among faculty members at public institutions. In 2009, the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Higher Education, now Ministry of Education, established the Academic Leadership Center (ALC) to provide training and development programs in leadership for higher education administrators and promising future leaders. The ALC also provides examples on successful leadership practices locally and globally. The results of the study may inform current and future leadership development programs provided by the ALC, especially since leadership development programs in Saudi Arabia are still in development. For example, Shafai (2018) interviewed 10 department chairs from different institutions in Saudi Arabia and found that Saudi Arabian higher education leaders lacked leadership knowledge and training on effective leadership and its application in the workplace. In a recent study, Gonaim (2019) emphasized that, despite many leadership roles that department chairs play, they do not receive adequate leadership development opportunities that could prepare them to perform as effective leaders.

As leadership in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia faces continuous pressure to be more responsive to change, the Ministry should consider focusing training on transformation leadership behaviors. This style of leadership goes beyond an exchange between a leader and subordinates to focus on positive changes and creating positive working environments (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Marques, 2015). Going forward, the Ministry of Education should focus on evidenced-based best practices when designing and implementing leadership training programs. New programs that focus on leadership training must take into consideration the perceptions of those being led, such as faculty members. Therefore, the most influential

leadership behaviors that were previously discussed would increase the knowledge, as they were found via evidence-based research.

Recommendations for Future Research

This section provides recommendations for future research based on the results and limitations of this study. The study sample was limited to the faculty members in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh; therefore, future studies should include faculty members from other colleges within the same university and/or other Saudi Arabian universities. Future research could also be conducted in order to explore leadership practices in private versus public universities in Saudi Arabia. Also, while the current study implemented a quantitative design, future research could be conducted using a qualitative method to obtain deeper knowledge about the relationship between the leadership styles and faculty members' job satisfaction. The qualitative approach may allow participants to share their knowledge, opinions, and experiences more in-depth than they could in the survey format.

Moreover, further research could explore the department chairs' perception about their leadership practices and compare the results with the perceptions of the faculty members illustrated in this study to develop a gap analysis. In addition, it is important for future research to examine whether gender, age, academic rank, institutional size, and/or work experience play a role when exploring leadership styles and faculty members' job satisfaction.

The present study explored the relationship between leadership styles and overall job satisfaction. Future research might examine the relationship between leadership styles and other variables, such as commitment, motivation, or job engagement. While this study focused on transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership, future research could look at other leadership theories and their effects on faculty members' job satisfaction. Another

important area of research would be to conduct a leadership development needs analysis for the department chairs in Saudi Arabia.

Conclusion

This study addressed the gap in the literature by adding to the body of empirical research about department chairs' leadership styles as perceived by faculty members in Saudi Arabia. The study found the behaviors of the transformational leadership style were rated as the most used form of leadership by the department chairs in the College of Education, followed closely by the transactional leadership style behaviors. However, the behaviors categorized under the passive/avoidant leadership style were the least exhibited by the department chairs. The study revealed that a positive relationship existed between both the transformational and transactional leadership styles of the department chairs and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction, whereas a negative relationship existed between the passive/avoidant leadership style and the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. The present study's findings also emphasized the importance of the individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation dimensions of transformational leadership and the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership that will assist in enhancing faculty members' overall job satisfaction. Furthermore, this study illustrated the need for department chairs to focus more on developing strategies to improve on the aforementioned dimensions, in order to increase the faculty member's overall job satisfaction. The multiple regression analysis revealed that the transformational leadership style was the only significant predictor of the faculty members' overall job satisfaction. The findings of the study demonstrated that department chairs can be more effective in satisfying faculty members when they more frequently practice transformational leadership behaviors.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Permission for Use of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

For use by Reem Alsunaydi only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on July 15, 2019



www.mindgarden.com

To Whom It May Concern,

The above-named person has made a license purchase from Mind Garden, Inc. and has permission to administer the following copyrighted instrument up to that quantity purchased:

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The three sample items only from this instrument as specified below may be included in your thesis or dissertation. Any other use must receive prior written permission from Mind Garden. The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material. Please understand that disclosing more than we have authorized will compromise the integrity and value of the test.

Citation of the instrument must include the applicable copyright statement listed below.

Sample Items:

As a leader

- I talk optimistically about the future.
- I spend time teaching and coaching.
- I avoid making decisions.

The person I am rating...

- Talks optimistically about the future.
- Spends time teaching and coaching.
- Avoids making decisions

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Published by Mind Garden, Inc. www.mindgarden.com

Sincerely,

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

Appendix B: Permission from King Saud University to Conduct the Study



MY Consultant For Translation
Membership No. 95863
057066335





مستشاري للترجمة المعتمدة
ترخيص رقم ٤٢٠ عضوية رقم ٩٥٨٦٣
٠٥٣٧٥٦٨٢٣٥

KING SAUD UNIVERSITY
Ref. No: KSU-HE-19-289

H.E. Researcher/ REEM ALSUNAYDI

After greetings,,

Regarding to recommendation of chairman of sub-commission of colleges of humanities for research ethics on living beings.

This is to inform you of approval of the standing committee for scientific research ethics by authorized rewarded to H.E. Dean of scientific research during summer vacation on the procedure of applied tool as in following table

serial	Name of Researcher	Thesis	tool	Status
1	REEM ALSUNAYDI	"Relationship between leadership style of Chief of Section and job satisfaction of Deanship of Faculty and Staff members of King Saud University.	Questionnaire	Approved

Based on that hope the concerned parties in University facilitate researcher mission

Best regards

Dean of Scientific Research
Vice president of standing committee for scientific research ethics

Prof. Dr./ Mohammed Ibrahim Alwabel

Official Seal.

Copy to secretary of standing committee for scientific research ethics

4/67/483512
20/12/1440 H (21/08/2019)





نشهد بأن الترجمة صادقة
وصحيحة للنص المرفق
We certify that this is a true and accurate
translation of the attached text

الرياض : حي المرسلات - شارع الملك عبد العزيز - مقابل صحارى مول - تليفاكس : 011-4562549 تحويله : 103
جدة : طريق المدينة - هاتف : 012-6510079
Riyadh : King Fahd District - King Abdulaziz Street - Exit 5 - Befor hayat mall - T/Fax : 011-4562549 - 102
jeddah : Madinah Road - Tel : 012-6510079
Web: Www.Mostashaary.com Email : my.cons10@gmail.com

Ref No: KSU- HE-19-289

حفظها الله

سعادة الباحثة/ ريم عبدالرحمن السندي

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

إشارة إلى توصية رئيس اللجنة الفرعية للكليات الإنسانية لأخلاقيات البحوث على الكائنات الحية.

نفيدكم بموافقة اللجنة الدائمة لأخلاقيات البحث العلمي بالتفويض الممنوح لسعادة عميد البحث العلمي خلال الإجازة الصيفية، على إجراء تطبيق الأداة الموضحة في الجدول التالي:

م	اسم الباحث	البحث	الأداة	الحالة
١	ريم عبدالرحمن السندي	"العلاقة بين النمط القيادي لرئيس القسم والرضا الوظيفي لأعضاء هيئة التدريس بجامعة الملك سعود"	استبانة	الموافقة

و عليه نأمل من الجهات المعنية بالجامعة تسهيل مهمة الباحثة.

وتفضلوا بقبول وافر الاحترام

عميد البحث العلمي

نائب رئيس اللجنة الدائمة لأخلاقيات البحث العلمي

أ.د محمد بن إبراهيم الوابل



مصورة إلى سكرتير اللجنة الدائمة لأخلاقيات البحث العلمي

٤/٦٧/٤٨٣٥١٢

١٤٤٠/١٢/٢٠ هـ

Appendix C: Institutional Review Board Approval



November 6, 2019

To: Mrs. Reem Alsunaydi

From: University of the Incarnate Word Institutional Review Board, FWA00009201

Reem:

Your request to conduct the study titled The Relationship Between Department Chairs' Leadership Style and Faculty Job Satisfaction at King Saud University was approved by exempt review on 11/06/2019. Your IRB approval number is 19-11-001. You have approval to conduct this study through 11/6/2020.

The stamped informed consent document is uploaded to the Correspondence section in the Research Ethics Review system. Please use only the stamped version of the informed consent document.

Please keep in mind the following responsibilities of the Principal Investigator:

1. Conducting the study only according to the protocol approved by the IRB.
2. Submitting any changes to the protocol and/or consent documents to the IRB for review and approval prior to the implementation of the changes. Use the **IRB Amendment Request** form.
3. Ensuring that only persons formally approved by the IRB enroll subjects.
4. Reporting immediately to the IRB any severe adverse reaction or serious problem, whether anticipated or unanticipated.
5. Reporting immediately to the IRB the death of a subject, regardless of the cause.
6. Reporting promptly to the IRB any significant findings that become known in the course of the research that might affect the willingness of the subjects to participate in the study or, once enrolled, to continue to take part.
7. Timely submission of an annual status report (for exempt studies) or a request for continuing review (for expedited and full Board studies). Use either the **IRB Study Status Update** or **IRB Continuing Review Request** form.
8. Completion and maintenance of an active (non-expired) CITI human subjects training certificate.
9. Timely notification of a project's completion. Use the **IRB Closure** form.

Approval may be suspended or terminated if there is evidence of a) noncompliance with federal regulations or university policy or b) any aberration from the current, approved protocol.

If you need any assistance, please contact the UIW IRB representative for your college/school or the Office of Research Development.

Sincerely,

Mary Jo Bilicek
 Research Compliance Coordinator
 University of the Incarnate Word
 (210) 805-3565
bilicek@uiwtx.edu

Appendix D: Invitation E-mail

Dear faculty,

My name is Reem Alsunaydi and I am currently a doctoral candidate under the direction of Professor Sharon Herbers in the College of Education at the University of the Incarnate Word. For my doctoral dissertation, I am exploring the leadership styles of department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia as perceived by the faculty to determine to what extent they predict faculty job satisfaction.

I would like to invite you to take part in my research study. The results of this study may reveal valuable information about leadership attributes that affect faculty job satisfaction. Also, it may provide information that is needed to design training and professional development programs for current and future department chairs in Saudi Arabia. Your participation is estimated to take approximately 15-20 minutes.

To participate in the study, you must meet all the following requirements:

- Be a faculty member teaching in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia during 2019-2020 academic year
- Be a full-time faculty member

If you have any questions about the research study or your rights as a research participant, please contact the researcher via email at alsunayd@student.uiwtx.edu or via phone at 832-277-7672 or the faculty adviser Dr. Sharon Herbers via email at herbers@uiwtx.edu or via phone at 210 8053073

Thank you for your time and effort,

Reem Alsunaydi

Doctoral Candidate

The University of the Incarnate Word

Appendix E: Informed Consent Form

Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Title of this Research Study: The Relationship Between Department Chairs' Leadership Style and Faculty Members' Job Satisfaction in the College of Education at King Saud University.

My name is Reem Alsunaydi, and I am currently a doctoral candidate in the College of Education at the University of the Incarnate Word. You are invited to take part in this research study named above. The information in this form is meant to help you decide whether or not to participate. If you have any questions, please ask.

Why are you being asked to be in this research study?

You are being asked to be in this study because you are a full-time faculty member teaching in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia during the 2019-2020 academic year.

What is the reason for doing this research study?

The purpose of this study is to explore the leadership styles of department chairs in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia as perceived by the faculty to determine to what extent they predict faculty job satisfaction.

What will be done during this research study?

After signing this informed consent, you will be proceed with answering the survey questions. You will need to complete three questionnaires which will take approximately 20-25 minutes. The first questionnaire is the Demographic Survey which will provide a demographic profile of the survey participants. The second questionnaire is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Survey. This instrument will rate the leadership behaviors of your department chair. The third questionnaire is Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). This instrument will rate your satisfaction with work.

What are the possible risks of being in this study?

Your participation in this study does not involve any physical or emotional risk to you beyond that of everyday life.

What are the possible benefits to you?

You are not expected to receive any benefits from being in this study.

What are the possible benefits to other people?

The results of this study may reveal valuable information about leadership attributes that affect faculty job satisfaction. Also, it may provide information that is needed to design training and professional development programs for current and future department chairs in Saudi Arabia.

What are the alternatives to being in this research study?

Instead of being in this research study you can decide not to take part in this study without any consequences.

What will being in this research study cost you?

There is no cost to you to be in this research study.

Will you be compensated for being in this research study?

You will not be paid for your participation in this research study.

How will information about you be protected?

Everything we learn about you in the study will be confidential. The only persons who will have access to your research records are the study personnel, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), and any other person, agency, or sponsor as required by law. If I publish with results of the study, you will not be identified in any way. The data will be stored electronically on a secure server and will only be seen by the research team during the study and for three years after the study is complete.

What will happen if you decide not to be in this research study or decide to stop participating once you start?

You can decide not to be in this research study, or you can stop being in this research study at any time, for any reason. You do not have to answer any question you do not want to answer. Deciding not to be in this research study or deciding to withdraw will not affect your relationship with the investigator, the University of the Incarnate Word, or King Saud University. You will not lose any benefits to which you are entitled. Any information collected from the participant will not be used if the participant decides to withdraw before finishing the study.

What should you do if you have a problem or question during this research study?

If you have a problem as a direct result of being in this study, you should immediately contact the researcher via email at alsunayd@student.uiwtx.edu or via phone at +1 832-277-7672 the Faculty Advisor Dr. Sharon Herbers via email at herbers@uiwtx.edu or via phone at +1 210 8053073. If you have additional questions about your rights or wish to report a problem that may be related to the study, please contact the University of the Incarnate Word Institutional Review Board office at +1 210-805-3036 or +1 210-805-3565.

Consent

Your signature indicates that you (1) consent to take part in this research study, (2) that you have read and understand the information given above, and (3) that the information above was explained to you.

 Name of Participant

 Signature of Participant

 Date

 Name of Principal Investigator

 Signature of Principal Investigator

 Date