The Role of Need for Leadership on The Relationship between Implicit Leadership Theories and Leader-Member Exchange in the Saudi Business Context: A follower-perspective

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Abstract

This research examines the moderating effect of need for leadership on the relationship between ILT-similarity and multi-dimensional LMX from followers' perspective. Moreover, it examines the influence of individuals' cultural orientations on perceived need for leadership and multi-dimensional LMX. The researcher conducted three studies (i.e. two pre-studies and a main study) using samples of Saudi full-time employees drawn from profitable companies operating in the oil and petrochemical sector in Saudi Arabia. The sample sizes were 49, 160, 333 for the first pre-study, the second pre-study, and the main study, respectively.

The two pre-studies utilised qualitative and quantitative approaches to explore the Saudi ILTs and develop a more culturally adequate instrument to measure ILTs in the Saudi context. The first pre-study was concerned with generating items describing Saudi leaders, following the procedure of Schyns and Schilling's (2011) study. The second pre-study was concerned with identifying factors from the items generated in the first pre-study. The first pre-study's findings show that the Saudi ILTs of leaders in general consist of positive and negative attributes. Interestingly, more negative attributes emerged when describing Saudi leaders than in previous studies. Overall, the attributes reflected all of Schyns and Schilling's 15 categories plus one new category. A two-factor solution emerged in the second pre-study, and a 36-item scale was developed for use in the main study.

The main study examined the hypothesised model which investigates the moderating effect of need for leadership on ILT-similarity and LMX relationship, and the influence of cultural orientations on perceived need for leadership and LMX, using the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique. The analysis revealed a significant effect of ILT-similarity on followers' perception of LMX, however no significant effect was found for the hypothesised moderating role of need for leadership. Further, mixed results were found in terms of the cultural orientations' influence on perceived need for leadership and LMX multi-dimensions.

This study contributes to the existing literature by providing evidence for the effect of followers' perception of ILT-similarity at the perceptual level on LMX, and the effects of cultural orientations on need for leadership and LMX.

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my parents who always inspire me with their prayers, love and support.

Chapter 1: Research Introduction

1.1. Introduction

Earlier theories of leadership heavily focused on what leaders are and do, assuming that leaders are the main producers of leadership, while followers are viewed as either receivers or moderators in that process (Lord & Maher, 1993; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Shamir, 2007). However, this assumption has been criticised for providing an unrealistic view of leadership because, in reality, all significant successes are achieved through many individuals' contributions (e.g., Bennis, 1999). Leadership scholars have started to acknowledge the neglected role of followers, and therefore have moved toward more follower-centred approaches of studying leadership. Van Knippenberg and colleagues pointed out that "leadership research can be criticised for overly focusing on leader characteristics and behaviour, and paying less attention to the role of followers than probably it should have" (2007, p. 52).

Two important theories have acknowledged the role of followers in the leadership process, namely the perceptual theory which includes research into implicit leadership theories, and the relational theory which comprises approaches such as leader-member exchange (LMX) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). Research around implicit leadership theories proposes that followers recognise and assess leaders based on their cognitive schemas that contain certain prototypical characteristics of leaders (e.g., Lord et al., 1984; Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994), and organise their response to leaders based on that perception. The more a leader's behaviour and attributes are perceived to be similar to their followers' ILT, the more he or she is granted influence on followers. Therefore, the perceptual theory posits that leadership is determined, to a large extent, by the way followers perceive leaders' characteristics and behaviours. The

relational theory (or LMX) considers leadership as a social relation process, and therefore suggests that leadership emerges in the exchanges between leaders and followers. Viewing leadership as a form of social relationship implies that, as in any relationship, both parties (here leaders and followers) actively contribute to its nature, development, and maintenance. Based on this conceptualisation, understanding leadership requires the attention to three domains; the leader, the follower, and the relationship between them (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This theory recognises the followers' involvement in creating leadership as it assumes that the nature of this relationship is determined by leaders' characteristics and behaviours as well as followers' characteristics and behaviours. Therefore, the leadership process, according to this theory, is viewed as jointly produced by followers and leaders.

Only a few studies have combined these two approaches, and investigated the influence of perceived similarity of ILT on the perception of LMX (Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). In addition, the few studies that have focused on both approaches have revealed mixed findings. This might be because of the different ways they operationalised ILT-similarity. Engle and Lord (1997) focused on comparing the ILT held by leaders to those held by followers (i.e. implicit-implicit similarity), and then inferred the actual similarity by calculating the difference between followers-rated ILT and leaders-rated ILT. The results did not show a significant relationship between the ILT-similarity and LMX. Epitropaki and Marin (2005) focused on comparing followers' ILT and leaders' exhibited behaviour (implicit-explicit similarity), and measured the ILT-similarity as a followers' perception of the match between their implicit ILTs and their perception of leaders' behaviour/trait. In this case, the results supported the relationship between perceived ILT-behaviour/trait similarity and LMX. Nevertheless, these studies generally agree that ILT is relevant in determining LMX if LMX is measured from the followers' point of view (Engle & Lord, 1997). That is, because leadership qualities are

expected of effective leaders, followers will likely rely on their implicit leadership theories when making judgments of the interaction with their leaders (LMX).

The literature shows that the ILT-similarity is related to LMX if the similarity is subjectively measured as a follower's perception, rather than an objective calculation of the actual similarity. However, another possibility to measure perceived ILT-similarity has been left unexamined so far. That is, measuring the similarity between ILTs held by followers and those held by leaders (i.e. implicit-implicit similarity) as perceived by followers. In other words, assessing in how far followers believe they share similar ILT with their leaders. This is an important possibility because of results found when studying the role of similarity on attraction in relationship contexts (D. E. Byrne, 1971; Montoya, Horton, & Kirchner, 2008) which is relevant to LMX. A meta-analytic study of the similarity effect on interpersonal attractions shows that, in a relationship context, individuals feel attracted to similar others on many aspects including personal traits and attitudes (Montoya et al., 2008). More importantly, the study found that perceived similarity is more predictive of attraction in existing relationships than actual similarity. That is, it is sufficient for the effect to take place if individuals believe that their partners are similar, regardless of whether or not those partners are actually similar to them. Therefore, what matters is the perception rather than the reality of similarity.

Applying this to the leadership relationships (or LMX) domain, it can be assumed that followers' perception of having similar ILT to their leaders' will enhance the attraction element in their relationships and subsequently their perceived LMX. If this is true, it can be hypothesised that followers' perception of ILT similarity at the perceptual level plays a role in the perception of relationships with leaders. If this assumption is supported, that would have important implications as assumption about cognitive similarity could be quickly made, and subsequently influence the perception of LMX in early stages of the interaction.

Another gap in this literature stems from the fact that research has shown that the relationship of LMX with its predictors is complex and can be better explained by studying potential variables interacting with this relationship (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016).

So far, the impact of these moderating variables, particularly those perceptual-related, on the relationship between ILT similarity and LMX is rarely addressed in the literature. Epitropaki and Martin (2005) examined some situational and individual variables (i.e. job demands, duration of manager-employee relationship, and employee motivation) that could potentially impact the relationship between perceived ILT similarity and LMX. They assessed motivation as the degree to which the employees were motivated to perform well in their job roles. The results showed that only intrinsic motivation affected the strength of that relationship. Employees with low levels of intrinsic motivation reported a stronger relationship between ILT similarity and LMX. This important finding suggests that followers' self-perceptions could affect the perceptual processes regarding the relationship with leaders, which indicates that including other variables could expand our understanding of this matter. Specifically, no further variables related to followers' self-concept have been examined in this area.

Another limitation in this research area is that all previous studies associated ILT-similarity and LMX have been conducted in the West. However, perceptions of ILT and LMX are contingent on culture, thus potentially show different patterns in different societies (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012). Triandis (1995) found that individuals are not only influenced by the culture of the society they live in but also hold individually different cultural orientations which make them focus on certain values that guide their behaviours and perceptions. Given that leadership perception is contingent on cultural context (Lord & Maher, 1993),

this area could also benefit from studying these constructs in cultures different from the West, and from including individual cultural orientations.

1.2. Research contributions

The current research makes several contributions to the leadership literature as it will overcome some of the limitations found in the studies concerned with the relationship between ILT similarity and LMX. The above discussion highlighted three main limitations. First, the followers' perception of the similarity between their ILTs and their leader's ILTs has not been assessed previously, to the best of my knowledge. Understanding whether or not the relationship between this perceived similarity and LMX will still hold if similarity is assessed as an implicit-implicit congruence may extend the relevant literature. Followers perceived similarity might go beyond the explicit aspects (e.g., perceived shown behaviour), and thus followers might form impressions about the extent to which they share implicit cognitive schemas with their leaders. The current research will examine the potential effect of followers' perceived ILT-similarity with their leader on LMX. Therefore, the first contribution of this study is to show whether the effect of followers' perceived similarity on LMX will extend beyond the implicit-explicit level, and continue to hold even at the implicit perceptual level. In this thesis, similarity at the implicit perceptual level refers to followers' evaluation of followers' pre-existing ILTs compared to the ILTs they think their leaders hold, that is, similarity between perceptual components (i.e. ILT) held by leaders and followers. This is important, because ILTs are existing and available to apply to a leader even before that leader has shown any behaviour (Lord & Maher, 1993). Equally, individuals often assume similarity to others even when they have no evidence of similarity yet (e.g., at the beginning of relationships) (Cronbach, 1955). Consequently, perceived ILT similarity could influence LMX relationships at the very first stage of acquaintance (or even before), making this an important area of study.

The second limitation of previous research was that there is a dearth of studying potential variables that could influence the relationship between ILT similarity and LMX although research has indicated that the antecedents-LMX relationship can be complex (Dulebohn et al., 2012). The complex nature of the LMX relations will be acknowledged in this study, and therefore, it will expand the relevant literature by examining a new moderator of this relationship. Given that this research focuses on the followers-perspective, considering variables related to followers' self-perceptions is in line with the scope of this research. Moreover, Lord and colleagues (1999) pointed out the need for studying the self in the leadership research and assert that "clearly, the self-concept represents a potentially important psychological mechanism through which researchers can understand the processes associated with leadership" (1999, p. 168). However, self-perceptual variables, despite their importance, have been neglected in the literature studying the ILT-similarity and LMX relationship. Therefore, this research will make an attempt to fill this gap and will examine a potential moderating variable that could influence this relationship, namely followers' need for leadership (NfL).

The concept of need for leadership refers to the "extent to which an employee wishes the leader to facilitate the paths toward individual, group, and/or organisational goals" (De Vries & van Gelder, 2005, p. 281). I maintain that followers' need for leadership is relevant in studying ILT-LMX relationship for three reasons. First, followers' needs are central to the exchange between leaders and followers, where followers grant influence to leaders while expecting them to fulfil their needs. Therefore, perceptions related to need for leadership could influence the perceived relationship with leaders. Second, the concept of need for leadership is considered as a socially driven need that emerges within the relationship context, and therefore it potentially plays a role in the perceptions related to relational concepts such as LMX. Third, need for leadership is a broad concept which combines the effects of many situational and personal

characteristics (De Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 2002), and examining a concept through which many effects could be transmitted may be more useful in explaining the complex nature of ILT-LMX relation than examining "too refined" situational moderators individually (De Vries et al., 2002, p. 122). That is, the effect of some situational moderators such as task ambiguity for example, on leadership may appear through the follower's assessment of what they imply for the need of a leader's intervention.

Previous research has found a moderating role of NfL in the relationship between leadership and several outcomes, as will be explained in the next literature review chapter. However, no previous research has examined its moderating effect on the relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX. As we know little about how LMX develops, this is an interesting area to pursue as it examines cognitive processes involved in the development of LMX. The hypothesised moderating role of NfL on this particular relationship can be explained by its potential effect on determining which cognitive process that followers will rely on when making judgements about their relationships with leaders. Followers could rely on their categorical thinking and recognition-based processes to make judgements about their social interactions with their leaders. However, Macrae and Bodenhausen (2000) argued that perceivers are more likely to refer to this automatic and intuitive cognitive process if their motivational state is low. This also means that this categorical thinking could partly be inhibited when the perceivers' motivation is high. This was further detailed by the authors' argument that "category application is likely to occur when a perceiver lacks the motivation, time, or cognitive capacity to think deeply (and accurately) about others" (2000, p. 105). Since need for leadership expresses a follower's feeling of insecurity due to unfulfilled needs, and implies the desire for their leaders' intervention, higher need for leadership may provoke deliberate thinking when evaluating the interaction with leaders. That is, followers high in need for leadership will be more motivated to dedicate cognitive resources to process

information and think deeply about leaders before making inferences about their interaction with them. In contrast, it can be assumed that followers with low need for leadership will probably be less motivated to think deeply and rather resort to categorical thinking (to achieve cognitive economy) prior to making judgements about their interactions with leaders.

Therefore, NfL is likely to serve as a moderator of the relationship between ILT similarity and LMX: For those individuals high in NfL, similarity will be less important for their LMX perceptions as these perceptions will be driven by their needs. However, for those low in NfL, the relationship will be stronger as here the similarity is the driver, rather than the need.

Given the assumed importance of need for leadership, this research will examine followers' need for leadership as a moderator to the ILT similarity-LMX relation. This will contribute to the relevant literature by providing a deeper understanding of the processes associated with the development of LMX. Further, it will enhance the understanding of the follower-centred approach which focuses on studying the role of followers' characteristics and perceptions in the leadership process.

The third contribution stems from examining the relation of ILT-similarity and LMX in a different culture context, and from including individual cultural orientations in the model. This study is concerned with investigating how perceptions interact with each other, and culture impacts such leadership perceptions (House et al., 2004). Therefore, studying these concepts in a culture that is different from the Western culture would be insightful. Relevant to this study context, research exploring the content of ILTs has not been conducted in the Saudi context so far, and the same can be said regarding the concept of need for leadership. Thus, one of the contributions of the study is to explore the content of ILT in the Saudi Arabian oil industry. It thus follows calls to assess ILT not only on a

general level but also on a level specific to the context (in line with Lord, Foti, & de Vader's, 1984, leader categorisation theory) in order to improve its prediction (see Schyns, Schilling, & Coyle, Under Review).

Moreover, LMX studies in the Middle East remain scarce in the literature (Dulebohn et al., 2012), and therefore, the question of how generalisable the results of previous studies on LMX are in the Saudi context has not been clearly answered. To the best of my knowledge, this research is the first to examines the relationship between ILT similarity and LMX in a different culture (i.e. Saudi Arabia), as it is the first study that explores the Saudi ILT of leaders in general. This could expand our understanding of how culture might affect the perceptual processes associated with leadership. Cultural-based knowledge may help global leaders who work in a culturally different setting to be more effective. In addition, I acknowledge that culture is not only a phenomenon on a societal level but that individuals differ in their cultural orientations. Given the importance of culture in the leadership context and specifically when looking at leadership from a social construction point of view, I will include individual cultural orientations in my model as a predictor of need for leadership and LMX dimensions.

Rationale for the variables' selection in the current study:

It has been pointed earlier that a comprehensive understanding of leadership requires the attention to move beyond the leader domain, which has been extensively researched. Other important domains to which researchers need to pay attention to include: followers, the relationship between leaders and followers, and the context in which this interaction occurs (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lord & Maher, 1993). To fill some of the gap in these areas, the researcher decided to study variables that are related to the follower, relationship, and context domains.

In terms of attention towards followers in this research, implicit leadership theories (ILTs), and need for leadership as a follower characteristic were included in this thesis. While the relationship domain has been acknowledged by studying perceived leader-member exchange (LMX). Moreover, since perceptions are contingent upon context, including the follower's cultural orientations as a variable in the research model was important especially in this study context, which is very different to the more 'normative' Western culture, as will be explained later. The research model, through addressing these three domains, attempts to fill some gaps in research concerned with followership and follower-centred approaches.

Overall, the research will examine the perceptions of leadership constructs from a follower-perspective in the Saudi business context. That is, measuring how followers' need for leadership (NfL) will influence the relationship between similarity of implicit leadership theories (ILT) and the leader-member exchange (LMX), and how followers' cultural orientations will influence their perception of need for leadership and LMX. This thesis will focus on the *follower* and *context* in response to the calls to include factors related to followers (such as their perception) and context (such as culture) in future research (Lord & Maher, 1993).

1.3. Follower-centred approach to leadership study

Leadership has almost as many definitions as those who tried to define it (Bass & Bass, 2009). This is because the term leadership can be defined from different perspectives. This research views leadership as a process which sees leadership as "a dynamic system involving leaders (or leading) and followers (or following) interacting together in context" (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014, p. 89). In line with this perspective, this thesis follows the definition suggested by Lord and Maher (1993, p. 11) which defines leadership as: "the process of being perceived by others as a leader." This definition implies that leadership is a social interactive process which involves the mutual

behaviours and perceptions of both leaders and followers. Viewing leadership as a process also means that the leadership is not necessarily a top-down transaction initiated by leaders, rather it is influenced by everyone including followers. That is, it is an emerging event resulting from the reciprocal interactions between leaders and followers.

Despite the power of formal leaders, several studies have shown that followers can affect or even constrain leaders' activity (Hollander, 1985). Specifically, research has found that the effect of followers' perception of leaders on the leader-follower relationship is central to the success or failure of leadership (Hollander & Offermann, 1990a, 1990b). Moreover, several studies have shown that some follower-related leadership qualities and skills are more important for leaders than others. McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988) conducted a study of four hundred promising managers and found that those who failed to reach their expected potential were more likely to be perceived as lacking interpersonal skills. Similarly, a study by Kouzes and Posner (1987) with a sample of 2,600 top level managers, found that interpersonal qualities that are more related to followers' needs such as being honest and inspiring were frequently selected to be among the admired qualities in leaders. Additionally, Hollander and Kelly (1990) have found, from a study of 81 respondents (40 men and 41 women) with work experience, that sensitivity to followers, support, and praise were used to describe good leadership but absent or negative when describing bad leadership.

Therefore, it can be argued from the above studies that traits which demonstrate responsiveness to followers' needs could play an important role in differentiating good leaders from bad leaders. To put this differently, effective leadership is more likely to be achieved through reciprocity than on a mere reliance on legitimate power (Hollander & Offermann, 1990b). This is also reflected in a common definition of effective leadership as "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute

toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members" (House et al., 2004, p. 15).

An overview of the followers' role in the leadership literature

For over a hundred years of leadership literature, the focus on leaders has dominated the research investigating leadership (Carsten, Harms, & Uhl-Bien, 2014). This leader-centric approach of studying leadership considered leadership as a top down process where leaders are the "heroic" actors who initiate the necessary influence and affect the group or organisational outcomes. On the other hand, followers have been defined as those who lack leadership qualities or simply cannot lead (Carsten et al., 2014). Further, followers were viewed as recipients or moderators of the leader's influence who carry out the orders without resistance (Shamir, 2007; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In other words, leaders are the "order givers" and followers are the "order takers".

Most early theories, such as trait, behavioural, contingency, and charismatic and transformational theories, have followed this leader-centric approach. For illustration, the trait theory focused on investigating the crucial traits for leaders to occupy leadership positions and motivate followers towards achieving goals (Dinh & Lord, 2012) whereas followers' traits have received much less attention (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Similarly, studies focusing on leader behaviours such as those conducted in Ohio State University and the University of Michigan (Bass & Bass, 2009) identified two types of leaders' behaviours: goal-oriented behaviours, which focus on the task performance, and relationship-oriented behaviours, which focus on showing consideration to followers as this might motivate them to higher levels of performance. Again, leaders here were viewed as the key cause for followers to perform. Similarly, the focus on leaders is also apparent in the charismatic and transformational leadership theories, which focus on the role of leaders as an instrumental factor to inspire and

motivate followers to develop and perform (e.g., Bass & Riggio, 2006; Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Although these theories have important contributions to the literature, they cannot fully explain the leadership process since most organisational achievements are a result of the active contributions of many people including leaders and followers. The leadership process is "a term used to signify a connectionist view (Lord & Brown, 2001) that sees leadership as a dynamic system involving leaders (or leading) and followers (or following) interacting together in context" (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014, p. 89). The neglected active role of followers in the early theories not only resulted in incomplete view of leadership, but more importantly a misunderstanding of the important role of followers and followership in the leadership equation (Carsten et al., 2014).

Some scholars have criticised this romanticised view of leaders in early studies of leadership, and raised calls to "switch lenses" by focusing on followers and their influence on the leadership process. Mary Follett was one of the earliest scholars who rejected the idea that outcomes should always be credited to leaders (Follett, 1924, 2003). She argues that team success depends on the relationship between leaders and followers, and that leaders may also have to take orders, sometimes, from their followers. Despite this early rather important comment, the focus on followers' role and what followership means did not capture the attention of researchers until decades later.

Edwin Hollander was one of the first scholars who pointed to the active role of followers in leadership by emphasising the relational view of leadership, and that leadership as a process should be distinguished from the leader as a person (Hollander & Julian, 1969). He argued that leadership is an influence relationship between leaders and followers in which both parties depend on each other to attain group goals. Leaders

provide resources in terms of adequate behaviours directed towards groups' goal attainment, and in return receive more "legitimacy" to exert influence upon followers.

Another notable scholar is James Meindl who introduced, with colleagues, a concept called "romance of leadership" which describes the tendency to over-attribute the causality of outcomes to leaders while neglecting many other factors (Meindl et al., 1985). In this sense, followers' role becomes important because leadership is viewed as a social construction that is partly created in the followers' minds.

Following the calls from these scholars and many others, researchers have shown interest in studying followers and thus studies into followership have been growing in numbers rapidly. This fact has led Michelle Bligh in her recent review on follower-centred research to conclude that "there is evidence that followership is entering the second stage of conceptual development, one of evaluation and conceptual development" (Bligh, 2011, p. 431).

In the following section, I will present a review of research studying followership and the active role of followers in leadership, using a recent review paper by Uhl-Bien and colleagues (2014) as a framework.

Follower-centred and followership research

In a recent review of followership, Uhl-Bien and colleagues (2014) systematically reviewed the leadership literature and classified research concerned with the active role of followers and followership into three categories. I will briefly describe these categories with an example research representing each category, and then will position the current thesis considering this classification.

The first category is the "follower-centric" approach which rose in response to the leader-centric approach. Research following the follower-centric perspective addressed the role of followers in constructing leaders and leadership in terms of cognitive, attributional and social identity processes. This category includes studies on implicit

leadership theories (ILTs) (Eden & Leviatan, 1975) which suggest that followers have cognitive schema for leaders attributes and behaviours which they use to rate leaders' effectiveness and determine the willingness to follow leaders (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offermann et al., 1994).

The second category is the "relational view" approach which views leadership as a mutual influence process between a leader and his/her followers. Research following this approach addresses the relational dynamics in the leadership process. An example is Leader-Member Exchange which suggests that the quality of exchange between leaders and followers will determine many positive leadership outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The third category is the "followership" approach which focuses on investigating the role of followers and what followership as a process means. This approach acknowledges that followership is a research area in its own right and it is as important as leadership. Research under this category can be classified into two types, namely role-based followership, and constructionist followership. The role-based approach views followership as a *role*, and investigates the impact of followers, as causal agents, on leaders' behaviours and outcomes. This approach includes studies on implicit followership theories, followership role orientations, and the influence of follower's characteristics and identities on leaders' effectiveness. For example, Sy (2010) examined the content of implicit followership theories (IFT) using five studies involving 1362 participants. Results of factor analyses revealed 18 items, describing follower's characteristics, which represent six factors: Industry, Enthusiasm, Good Citizenship, Conformity, Insubordination, and Incompetence. The first three are the prototypic factors while the latter three are the anti-prototypic factors. Another example is the Carsten and colleagues' (2010) qualitative study which examined the beliefs regarding the responsibilities and behaviours that are important to the role of followers.

Their results identified behaviours which are represented on a continuum of passive to proactive follower's roles with the active role reflecting the midpoint of the continuum.

The constructionist approach views followership (and leadership) as a *process* that is co-constructed in the social interactions between individuals, rather than a formal role played by certain people. This research focuses on how leadership identity claims are met with followership granting leadership identity. For example, De Rue and Ashford (2010) explained the reciprocal interaction between leaders and followers which make them both actively contribute to the leadership process. They proposed that leader and follower identities are not static cognitions that reside within individuals' self-concept. They rather suggest that granting leader identity to someone initiates follower identities for others, and conversely claiming leader identity for oneself causes granting follower identities for others. This constant process of 'claiming' and 'granting' identities that results from the social interaction among individuals means that identities shift over time or across situations. De Rue and Ashford also proposed that the process of granting/claiming leader identity is partly dependent on the implicit theories of leadership/followership held by individuals. The more congruence between the focal leader and a person's implicit leadership theories the more he or she will grant the leader identity to that leader. This relational nature of leadership construction suggests that followers, in some situations, could be equally important as leaders in creating and developing leadership.

Overall, the attention towards follower-centric and followership research has important implications for the way we study leadership. First, such studies broadened the traditionally limited view of followers as passive recipients. Uhl-Bien and colleagues (2014) asserted that "it is now widely accepted that leadership cannot be fully understood without considering the role of followers in the leadership process" (p. 89). Another implication is that leadership is viewed as a dynamic process in which

leaders and followers could be equally important in playing the leadership (and followership) roles.

Despite that followership could play an important role in leadership, the research gap in this area is wide and needs more studies focusing on followers and followership, and on many levels. As pointed by Bligh (2011), among the articles published in The Leadership Quarterly over the 19-year period from 1990 to 2008, only 14% had some version of the word follower appeared in the abstract or title. Therefore, studying followers is important as this could provide new insights to further our understanding of the leadership phenomenon. Shamir (2007) suggested that the literature would benefit from more research focusing on followers in order to have a balanced view into leadership. Following a review of the leadership literature, Shamir raised a call for researchers to focus more on followers claiming that "at this stage, the study of leadership would benefit from a more follower-centred perspective" (2007, p. xxi). This will correct the overreliance on leaders in the traditional leadership literature, and hopefully restore the balance of leadership studies which is overly leader-centred.

Given this call and the need for more followers-focused studies, this thesis is an attempt to fill some of the gap in this area. It is important however to note that this is not to say that the leader's side of leadership is not relevant or should be ignored, rather the focus on followers is to acknowledge their important position in the leadership process. In response to this call, the current study will follow a follower-centred approach since the researcher considers this approach as complementary to leader-centred research.

The positioning of current thesis

This thesis focuses on the followers' side of leadership in general. Specifically, it examines LMX and its relation to an antecedent, ILT congruence, as perceived by followers. Further, need for leadership were examined as a potential moderator in that relationship. According to the classifications of Uhl-Bien et al. (2014), this research

combines the relational approach (i.e. LMX) with the follower-centric approach (i.e. ILT) in studying the active role of followers in the leadership process.

Research questions and model

The aim of this research is to understand how followers' ILT of leaders in general and need for leadership, in the Saudi cultural context, may affect the perceived quality of their interaction with leaders (LMX). Following the perception approach of studying leadership, the goal of the research is to examine the potential moderating role of followers' need for leadership on the relationship between followers' perceived similarity of ILTs and perception of LMX, in the Saudi business context. It also will examine how individual cultural orientations influence the perception of need for leadership and the LMX dimensions. The next section will briefly introduce the research questions, and proposed model.

- *Research questions:*

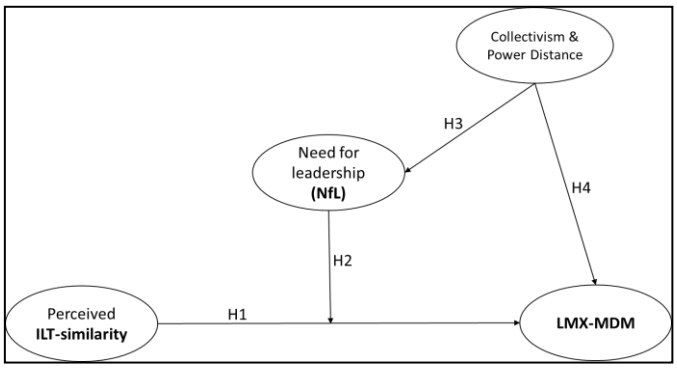
Specifically, the current research is concerned with the following questions:

1. What is the content of Saudi ILT in the context of oil and petrochemical industry?
2. Does followers' need for leadership moderate the relationship between the followers' perceived similarity of ILTs and perception of LMX?
3. How might followers' cultural orientations influence the kind of needs for leadership expressed in this context?
4. How might followers' cultural orientations affect their perception of the LMX dimensions?

- *Proposed Research Model:*

As illustrated in the research model below (see figure 1-1), the research will examine four proposed relationships among the constructs included in this study.

Figure 1-1:Research model



First is the relationship between the followers' perception of ILT-similarity and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). Second, the study will examine the moderating effect of follower's need for leadership (NfL) on the relationship between perceived ILTs similarity and LMX. The third and fourth proposed relationships will examine the effects of the individuals' cultural orientations (in terms of collectivism and power distance) on the perceived levels of NfL and LMX dimensions, respectively.

1.4. Thesis structure

To achieve the research objectives, this thesis is divided into eight chapters including this introduction chapter.

Chapters Two: Literature review and research hypotheses: This chapter addresses the relevant leadership literature. This includes reviews of implicit leadership theories, leader-member exchange, followers' need for leadership, and the cultural orientations. The second part of this chapter will summarise the proposed hypotheses.

Chapter Three: Research context: This chapter aims to briefly explain the context of the study to enable the reader to comprehend interrelated issues that will be discussed in the remainder of this thesis. The first part will describe the private sector in Saudi Arabia. The second part provides a general overview of the oil and petrochemical industry by addressing the history of the oil discovery and its implications for the people and the country.

Chapter Four: Research design and method: This chapter introduces the methodology for the current research, presents the data sampling and collection procedures, followed by descriptions of the data analysis techniques utilised in this research.

Chapter Five: Pre-studies results and discussion: In the first part of this chapter the data analysis, results, and discussion are presented for the first pre-study. The second part presents the data analysis, results, and discussion for the second pre-study.

Chapter Six: Main study analysis and results: This chapter will describe in detail, the data collection, analysis and results for the main study.

Chapter Seven: Main study discussion: This chapter provides, in light of the literature review, a comprehensive discussion of the results reported in the previous chapter.

Chapters Eight: Contributions, recommendations, and limitations: This chapter states the contributions and the limitations of the study, and provides some recommendations for practitioners and researchers to consider in the future.

1.5. Summary

This chapter highlighted the shift from the traditional approaches in the literature that focused intensively on leaders at the expense of followers (see for example the trait approach as reviewed by Stogdill, 1948) towards a more follower-centred approach which

sees followers as co-producers of leadership. Leadership operates within constraints offered by followers (Stewart, 1982). One of which is the followers' perceptions and expectations of leaders' attributes and behaviours can affect the evaluation of leaders (e.g., Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001; Lord & Maher, 1993). These perceptions will guide followers' reaction and relationship with leaders, which could also determine leader subsequent responsive behaviour (Hollander, 1992; Lord et al., 1984). The reciprocal interaction between leaders and followers makes them both actively contribute to the leadership process.

This thesis builds on this acknowledgment of the followers' role in the leadership process by investigating the effect of their cognitive schema or implicit leadership theories (ILTs) on their perceived interaction with leaders (LMX), and how that effect could be moderated by their need for leadership (NfL). Further, it also acknowledges that leadership perceptions operate within a context, and thus cultural orientations were examined as a potential determinant of LMX and need for leadership. The research questions, model, and contributions were described.

The next chapter provides a review of the literature, discusses the constructs under study and identify the gaps in the literature, and describes the research hypotheses.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Research Hypotheses

This chapter is divided into two parts. Part one will review the relevant literature of the main constructs of this study, namely, implicit leadership theories (ILT), leader-member exchange (LMX), followers' need for leadership (NFL), and culture, respectively. Based on the critical evaluation of the previous studies, I will identify the gaps in the literature and argue for the proposed hypotheses. Part two will summarise and present the research hypotheses.

2.1. A review of implicit leadership theories (ILTs)

Traditional approaches to studying leadership which focus on leaders' styles and behaviours have been criticised by leadership perception theorists (Calder, 1977; Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord et al., 1984). They argue that what is more important in the leadership process than actual traits and behaviours of a leader is how these traits and behaviours are perceived by followers (Eden & Leviatan, 1975, 2005; Lord & Maher, 1990; Phillips & Lord, 1982). According to this perceptual approach, leadership is defined as "the process of being perceived as a leader" (Lord & Maher, 1993, p. 11). Lord and Maher (1990) assert that it is the individual's interpretation of traits and behaviours, rather than the objective reality that influences leadership.

There are two types of processes which shape leadership perception: recognition-based processes and inferential processes (Lord & Maher, 1993). Recognition-based processes are utilised to interpret incoming social information through *categorisation* while inferential processes are used to reflect on salient events (e.g. success or failure) through *attribution* (Meindl et al., 1985). The attribution process occurs because people believe that the primary role of any leader is to facilitate goals' achievement and group success. Consequently, observers perceive more leadership in the cases of successful

performance condition, and others are seen as effective leaders when success is attributed to them. This process of inferring leadership from performance information is known as *performance cue effect* (Lord & Maher, 1993). Since this research is more concerned with the former type of processes, the next lines will give more details to explain the categorisation process and how it is applied to leaders. It should be noted that perceivers, fairly automatically, rely on this categorisation process when perceiving objects and people to achieve cognitive economy and invest less effort in processing a large amount of information.

The categorisation process is based on the cognitive concepts of schemas and prototypes. Schemas are the pre-existing cognitive models which individuals use to interpret incoming information about stimuli (including objects and people). Individuals' subsequent judgments about the stimuli are then affected by their schemas (Phillips & Lord, 1982; Rosch, 1978). Prototypes are commonly used forms of schemas which summarise the most salient characteristics of members in some category (e.g. leaders; Rosch, 1978). Therefore, prototypes summarise the most common features or attributes of a category, whether that category concerns objects or people (Phillips & Lord, 1982).

Lord, Foti, and Phillips (1982) proposed that people use these cognitive categorisation processes when processing information about leaders. In other words, the leader prototypes allow people to look for expected traits and behaviours they associate with leaders. That is, people refer to their existing schemas and prototypes of leaders to compare incoming information about their actual supervisor before a categorisation is made, depending on the resulting match (or mismatch) between schemas and actual leader traits and behaviours (Lord & Maher, 1993). This process is known in the literature as *leadership categorisation* (Lord et al., 1982). If a person is not categorised as leader-like by others, that person will not be regarded as equally effective as a person who is

perceived to be leader-like (Lord & Maher, 1993). In this case, a leader will not be able to exert the necessary influence on followers to fulfil wanted goals.

People, consequently, make sense of a social process such as leadership based on internal representations they hold. Eden and Leviatan first introduced the concept of "implicit leadership theories" (ILT) in 1975 to describe individuals' internal beliefs and expectations about leaders (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). They conducted a study on a sample of 250 students who were asked to rate a fictitious leader of "plant X" about whom they were given little information. The purpose of providing minimal information was so that participants would use their implicit theories when responding. The aim was to see if the responses would reveal the same factor structure as questionnaires used to measure actual organisational leaders. If so, existing schemas are a source of the perceptions of the fictitious leader. To further explore this notion, the authors separately analysed the responses of participants who had work experience, had an organisation in mind when answering the questions, and those who had responded at random. They conducted factor analyses and found that almost exactly the same factor structure emerged even in conditions in which respondents claimed that they had responded at random. That is, the same factor structure emerged regardless of these manipulations. They concluded that people have implicit leadership theories which they use when rating leaders.

Implicit leadership theories can be defined as "the image that a person has of a leader in general or of an effective leader" (Schyns & Meindl, 2005, p. 21). Individuals utilise their implicit leadership theories to recognise, interpret and respond to their leaders' behaviour (Lord et al., 1984). Implicit leadership theories play an important role in perceiving leaders. This can be further understood by illustrating the mechanism of the ILT categorisation process.

Different levels of ILT:

Implicit leadership theories can be differentiated on different levels (Lord et al., 1982). On the highest level (i.e. superordinate level), leaders are differentiated from non-leaders. That is, the aim is to find characteristics that most people consider relevant for leaders and that make them distinct from people who are not considered leader-like. However, people also hold more specific implicit leadership theories about leaders in different contexts, such as business or sport and so on (Lord et al., 1984). Implicit leadership theories can also exist at a lower (subordinate) level, in which, for example, gender or hierarchy are used to further differentiate between leaders. To illustrate this further, "business" leader might be a basic level, and the subordinate level may further differentiate business leaders to executive, middle-level, and lower-level leaders. The superordinate level is the most inclusive while the subordinate level is the least inclusive. Lord and colleagues (1982) suggested that categorising leaders at the subordinate level may be affected by the perceiver's cognitive capacity. That is, distinguishing categories at this level is more difficult because it requires processing more detailed information which is cognitively demanding. According to their argument:

> *"Regardless of which classification schema is used, based on Rosch's work we would expect members of one subordinate category to be quite similar to members of other subordinate categories under the same basic level cateogrisation. Thus the detail gained by using more specific categories at the subordinate level, thereby enabling a more vivid description of typical members, would be gained at the expense of reduced category distinctiveness."*
>
> (Lord et al., 1982, p. 110)

Consequently, the basic-level seems to be the most meaningful level of leader categorisation. The study presented here will also adopt this level of categorisation, looking into implicit leadership theories in a specific context. That is, rather than differentiating between implicit leadership theories about leaders versus non-leaders, the author is interested in the characteristics attributed to leaders in a specific cultural context

(i.e. the oil and petrochemical industry in the Saudi business context), thus focusing on the (basic) level, as described by Lord and colleagues, of the leadership categorisation approach (Lord et al., 1984).

According to implicit leadership theories, followers implicitly compare their supervisors, for example, to their leadership prototypes to form perceptions of their supervisors (Lord et al., 1984). The more the target leader shows prototypical characteristics (characteristics positively associated with leaders), the more he or she is perceived as a leader (Lord, 2005), and the more likely he or she is to gain the support of his or her followers (De Rue & Ashford, 2010; Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2011). Moreover, once a person is perceived and categorised as a leader, followers may selectively focus on schema-consistent information, so that memory retrieval can become biased (Phillips & Lord, 1982). For example, if traits such as intelligent, dedicated and decisive are considered as prototypical leader's characteristics, then followers may perceive such characteristics in the categorised leader because they are consistent with the leader category even if that leader does not specifically show behaviour related to these characteristics. It is important to note that this categorisation process occurs in the perceiver's minds very quickly, automatically, and pre-consciously (Lord, 2005). Further, "people use their implicit theories to construct a simplified understanding of events that emphasise human qualities rather than the more complex effects of organisational and inter-organisational systems" (Lord, 2005, p. xi).

The effects of prototypes extend beyond leadership ratings. For example, research has found that the leaders' fit with followers' ILT predicted the quality of LMX (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). In addition, followers' expressed higher levels of satisfaction, organisational commitment and well-being if their leaders fit their ILTs, and these effects are mediated by LMX (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

From a static to a dynamic perspective of ILT

According to the classical view of the leader's categorisation theory, perceivers assess the match of a target leader to a certain leader category which could be defined using two approaches, namely, category-based representations (a prototype), and target-based representations (an exemplar) (Epitropaki, Sy, Martin, Tram-Quon, & Topakas, 2013; Shondrick & Lord, 2010). In the prototype approach, perceivers compare a stimulus to a set of prototypical attributes representing a leader category. In the exemplar approach, perceivers define the leader category in terms of the most representative person, and categorise a target person based on how similar his or her shown traits/behaviour to the most representative person of the leader category. The exemplar approach of categorisation is deemed complementary to the prototype approach (E. R. Smith & Zarate, 1992). Shondrick and Lord (2010) argued that there may be important moderators that determine which approach perceivers will use for this categorisation. Such moderators may include the availability of exemplars, the perceiver's motivation, perceiver's experience in the domain of a social category, and knowledge about the target category.

Although the above-mentioned symbolic models of categorisation offer an important insights into the cognitive structure of leadership (ILT). However, they also have some limitations. First, the symbolic models focused on explaining the matching stage of the categorisation process but did not provide a deep understanding of the category activation stage. Second, they propose that each context activates a different but stable prototype which has been learned through extensive social experience (Lord et al., 2001), which may not be in line with recent research suggesting that ILTs are dynamic (Shondrick & Lord, 2010).

To overcome such limitations, Lord and colleagues (2001), based on recent advances in cognitive science, propose an alternative model known as the connectionist model. The connectionist models "move from the current, essentially static models of

prototype-based leadership perception, to models capable of representing dynamic changes in perceptions over time and across contexts, while still exhibiting stability when appropriate" (Lord et al., 2001, p. 312). This model attempts to understand the schema-activation stage where potentially many critical dynamic processes take place. Particularly, it explains how information from contextual factors such as individual, task, and culture can simultaneously act to generate contextually sensitive leadership categories.

This can be explained through the mechanism of connectionist networks which are "networks of neuron-like processing units that continuously integrate information form input sources and pass on the resulting activation (or inhibition) to connect (output) units" (Lord et al., 2001, p. 314). In the neural networks, prototypes are considered as stable regions, however sensitive to factors related to contextual constraints, exhibited traits/behaviours by social targets, and individual differences in perceivers' network structure (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Input from these factors dynamically interact to ultimately activate the schema used to interpret social stimuli. For example, research has shown that the race and gender of a leader, and the cultural background and active identity of the perceiver could influence the dynamic aspects of ILT (see for details, Shondrick & Lord, 2010).

Lord and colleagues (2001) explained that activations in such networks represent positive constraints among units that fit together, while inhibitions represent negative constraints among units that are likely in conflict with each other. The amount of activation or inhibition among units depends on the strength of those positive or negative constraints (i.e. weight). The weights linking units in a certain pattern are learned over time and tend to change slowly which explains the relative stability of ILTs over time. However, the activated pattern can vary as different input and constraints are experienced, and this process explains the dynamic aspects of ILTs and their sensitivity to context. The

process of units-activation within a pattern goes in many cycles until a coherent interpretation is produced (i.e. solution state). In other words, “coherence in leadership perceptions comes from satisfying multiple constraints on prototypes that vary, depending upon factors such as national cultures, organisational context, specific task, leader qualities, perceiver expectations and implicit theories, and immediate history.” (Lord et al., 2001; p. 314). The connectionist model is useful in explaining the variations in leadership prototype across contexts, such as the current study where ILTs were examined in the Saudi cultural context.

Relevant to the dynamic interaction of ILTs and contexts, Shondrick and Lord (2010) proposed that the Adaptive Resonance Theory (ART) can be utilised to explain the cognitive process related to ILT. ART suggests that via bidirectional feedback process, perceived external stimuli (i.e. patterns of behaviours) are automatically compared to a mental structure such as ILTs. A resonance state is only achieved if the matching process was successful, and the target person will thus be identified as a leader. If the match is unsuccessful, the search process continues until another appropriate category is achieved, or a new cognitive category may be developed if the observed pattern of behaviours was sufficiently interesting. Shondrick and Lord assert that the adaptive resonance theory “is capable of reconciling the stability and plasticity of ILTs. Stability involves matching existing structure, but plasticity occurs when we create new schema because matches to extant schemas cannot be found” (2010; p.26).

In summary, perceptions of leaders seem to be guided by internal constructs that help individuals to understand and react to the world (Lord, 2005). In line with this stream of research, this thesis will focus on exploring the content of Saudi ILTs and assessing followers' perception of the congruence between followers' and leaders' implicit leadership theories. The following section will shed light on the contents of the implicit leadership theories that describe leaders.

2.1.1. Previous research investigating the content of ILTs

The powerful influence of ILTs on the perception of leadership has encouraged many researchers to investigate the content of implicit leadership theories. Lord et al. (1984) examined the structure of ILTs by asking a group of 220 undergraduate students to write down attributes that they thought would describe leaders and non-leaders. Another independent group of 43 students was then asked to rate the prototypicality of those attributes on a 5-point scale. The researchers found a pool of 59 attributes describing leaders (e.g., intelligent, honest, educated, and dedicated) and subsequently distinguished between two main categories of ILTs traits: prototypic (i.e., positively associated with leadership) and anti-prototypic (i.e., negatively associated with leadership).

Similar to the work by Lord et al. (1984), Offermann and colleagues (1994) examined the content of implicit leadership theories by asking 192 undergraduate American students to name traits of leaders and supervisors. This resulted in a pool of 160 traits which reflected more than half of the 59 items generated by Lord et al.'s (1984) study. A different group of 763 undergraduate students were asked to rate, on a 10-point scale, the generated 160 traits as characteristic or non-characteristic for leaders, effective leaders or supervisors. Using factor analyses, they identified eight distinct factors underlying implicit leadership theories. These factors are sensitivity, dedication, tyranny, charisma, attractiveness, masculinity, intelligence and strength. They differentiated between proto- and anti-prototypical dimensions. The study also generated a 41-item scale which was validated using a sample of 260 full-time employees.

In a later study, Epitropaki and Martin (2004) tested the Offermann et al.'s (1994) 41-item scale on working samples from the UK and refined the factor structure. They asked the participants to rate how characteristic each of the 41 traits was of a "business leader". The factor analysis revealed a 6-factor structure reflecting 21 items to be the most representative of ILTs in organisational settings. The factors are: sensitivity, dedication,

intelligence and strength (prototypic attributes), and tyranny and masculinity (anti-prototypical attributes). Their study also examined the stability of implicit leadership theories over time (i.e. a 12 months' interval) and settings. The results showed a reasonable generalisability of implicit leadership theories in terms of age and tenure of raters, while some differences emerged in terms of gender and professions (services versus manufacturing). Services and manufacturing employees reported different ratings in terms of the specific dimensions of sensitivity and tyranny. Additionally, they showed different rating of the general Leadership Anti-prototype dimension. Manufacturing employees rated sensitivity lower than services employees, whereas they reported higher ratings of tyranny and the Leader Anti-prototype compared to services employees. The authors explained that the results show that perhaps negative attributes such as pushy and manipulative prevail in manufacturing environments more than traits such as helpful.

Schyns and Schilling (2011a) carried out a further study into the content of implicit leadership theories that challenged the assumption made in other studies that ILTs of "leaders" are described by the prototypical attributes, while the anti-prototypic attributes are mainly descriptions of non-leaders. They suggest that ILT of leaders in general may also contain prototypical/ unfavourable attributes, and thus investigating the content of ILT should go beyond the favourable/prototypical leader traits. Therefore, they explored the ILTs about leaders in general which may contain negative as well as positive attributes. Knowing that leaders in general can be regarded as negative has important practical implications since negative perceptions may hinder leaders' influence on followers. Schyns and Schilling argue that implicit leadership theories, which tacitly focus on ideal or effective traits of leaders, are a subcategory of implicit leadership theories, rather than reflecting implicit leadership theories as a whole.

The study revealed that implicit leadership theories can be negative as well as positive. Using a Dutch sample of 76 working adults, the authors found a pool of 349

attributes describing leaders in general which were subjected to content analyses and subsequently classified into categories. The analyses resulted in 15 categories that describe leaders in general (e.g.; team player, organised, communicative, unpleasant, disinterested, and weak). Based on the participants' own rating of the effectiveness of the attributes they mentioned, Schyns and Schilling concluded that implicit leadership theories of leaders in general and effective leaders are not the same. They recommend that in future studies, researchers need to be clear about what they are actually asking their participants when assessing implicit leadership theories. The current study will follow their recommendation by exploring the Saudi implicit leadership theories of leaders in general, which includes considering the negative as well as the positive attributes of leaders.

In summary, the above review shows that research into the content of ILTs is concerned with studying the attributes and behaviours that differentiate effective leaders or in some cases leaders in general from non-leaders (see for example, Offermann et al., 1994; Schyns & Schilling, 2011a). Some of the described studies used only student samples, while others used working samples or a mix of both. This research will examine ILT in the Saudi context, however it will build on the strengths found in the mentioned studies, such as recruiting working samples rather than students, and following the assumption that implicit leadership theories can also be negative rather than just positive (see Schyns & Schilling, 2011a).

Although all the above studies were conducted in Western societies, other research has examined the content of ILTs in different cultures. The following section will review studies that have examined implicit leadership theories in different cultures. It is important to understand how a cultural context affects the structure of the ILT content as this research will explore the content of implicit leadership theories (ILTs) in the Saudi business context.

2.1.2. Implicit leadership theories and culture

The concept of implicit leadership theories has been shown to be sensitive to cultural context (House et al., 2004; Lord, 2005). Since part of this study will measure the followers' ILTs in Saudi Arabia, this section aims to demonstrate the role of cultural contexts in explaining differences in the ILT. In the following, I will review studies that examined implicit leadership theories in different cultures, assess the generalisability of their findings to the Saudi context, and then argue for the necessity to develop a more adequate instrument to measure Saudi ILTs.

The Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) project is a major cross-cultural research project examining how people from different cultures view leadership. The project included 62 nations to empirically investigate the relationship between societal culture, organisational processes, and leadership.

The study empirically divided those 62 societies into ten clusters based on several factors such as geography, language, religion, and historical accounts. These clusters are: Latin America, Anglo, Latin Europe, Nordic Europe, Germanic Europe, Confucian Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, Middle-East, Southern Asia, and Eastern Europe. To describe the culture of each cluster, the project developed and applied nine cultural dimensions: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation, and humane orientation. These dimensions resulted from the participants' reports of what their societies *are* and what their societies *should* be. The aim was to explicitly differentiate between what is actually practiced from what is desired in each cluster.

Saudi Arabia was not included in the GLOBE study, however it is assumed to belong to the Middle East cluster. Countries studied in that cluster include Egypt, Kuwait, Qatar, Morocco, and Turkey. The Middle Eastern countries, compared to the other

GLOBE clusters, scored highly on in-group collectivism, and low on uncertainty avoidance, gender egalitarianism, and future orientation. People in these countries tend to show devotion to their families and loyalty to their own people. Moreover, people place limited focus on the future and less reliance on policies and procedure.

The GLOBE study's questionnaire items consisted of 112 leadership attributes (e.g., "intelligent"). The respondents were asked to rate on a 7-point scale whether each attribute contributes (or inhibits) a person form being an outstanding leader. Therefore, it is clear that the measured implicit leadership theories in GLOBE study are focusing on describing effective leaders. The factor analyses reduced the large number of the original items to 21 items and then six leadership dimensions. The six dimensions of implicit leadership theories about effective leaders found in the study are: charismatic, team-oriented, self-protective, participative, human-oriented, and autonomous leadership.

The primary aim of the study was to find which implicit theories of effective leadership (in terms of 21 leadership attributes) are shared across the countries under study. The GLOBE researchers used a standardised questionnaire to gather responses from 17000 managers in 951 organisations (from the food processing, finance and telecommunication sectors) in 62 different societies. They measured implicit theories of effective leadership (ILTs) of individuals from different cultures to explore what they called Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory (CLT). Culturally endorsed leadership theories (CLT) describe the beliefs about leaders (ILT) that are shared among individuals in common cultures. Based on the six leadership dimensions, the GLOBE team developed CLT profiles for each national culture and cluster of cultures.

Interestingly, the results have revealed similarities and differences of perceptions about the attributes contributing to effective leadership across cultures. While charismatic leadership attributes are perceived to be important in all cultures, the importance of other

attributes are perceived differently between cultures (House et al., 2004). Relevant to my context, the participants from the Middle Eastern countries consider self-protective behaviours such as face saving and status as important elements of effective leadership. Additionally, they view being independent and human-oriented as essential for effective leadership. In contrast, charismatic, team-oriented and participative styles were found to be less important for effective leadership.

The GLOBE findings extended the previous ILT-content studies by empirically showing that ILTs (at the cultural level) could reveal commonalities and differences between cultures. Exploring the intersection of culture and ILTs was based on the general assumption that culture could explain different views of leaders between societies.

- *Criticisms of the GLOBE study:*

Despite being a large multi-cultural endeavour, the GLOBE project has received some criticisms. The first criticism is that GLOBE has examined implicit leadership theories that were only concerned with effective leaders. Schyns and Schilling (2011a) criticised this limited view of ILT. According to Schyns and Schilling (2011a), the GLOBE assessment was limited to attributes that facilitate or inhibit effective leadership. Finding attributes that are inhibiting effective leadership is not enough for drawing conclusions about ineffective leadership as these attributes could simply mean that they are not relevant to effectiveness or perhaps do not contribute much to effectiveness. Consequently, the authors concluded that ILT of effective leaders (as measured in the GLOBE study) is only a subcategory of ILT, and therefore recommended for future studies to differentiate between implicit leadership theories of leaders in general and effective leaders.

Second, the project instrument focused on assessing six global leadership behaviours (i.e., charismatic/ value-based, team-oriented, participative, humane-oriented, autonomous, and self-protective leadership). These six behaviours were obtained from an analysis of hundreds of other attributes believed to be associated with effective leadership. However, the six behaviours used as a standard measurement represented a very broad range of behaviours and hence limiting their measurement to only represent these six leadership behaviours. This means that the researchers have ignored many other alternative behaviours that may be more relevant for some cultures (Graen, 2006; Northouse, 2010). In other words, the instrument may not be suitable to capture the idiosyncrasies of the studied cultures. This particular suspicion regarding the measurement precision has been confirmed by the GLOBE researchers from Iran. They included additional 54 attributes thought to be relevant to leadership in that context to the basic list of characteristics developed by GLOBE (Dastmalchian, Javidan, & Alam, 2001). As a result, four additional leadership behaviours were identified, namely familial, faithful, humble and receptive. This important finding indicates that the GLOBE questionnaire may not be sufficient to precisely measure ILTs in some contexts.

The third criticism concerns the way GLOBE divided societies into clusters. Geographical location is considered important for identifying clusters as Dastmalchian and Kabasakal (2001) argued that geography precedes some important variables like language, ethnicity and religion that impact cultures. This seems intuitive and even true for some clusters; however, this may not be suitable for other clusters like the Middle East. The next lines show that the Middle Eastern countries, despite their geographic proximity, are considerably different which means that generalising findings drawn from few selected countries to others within this cluster could be questionable.

The Middle East region is very large stretching from Mauritania in the West to Iran in the East including the East coast of sub-Saharan Africa, Turkey and Afghanistan.

Within this vast area, considerable differences with respect to historical backgrounds, economic conditions, social demographics and governance regimes exist across the region thus indicate more diversity than homogeneity (Metcalfe & Mimouni, 2011). Kabasakal et al. (2012) asserted that for the Middle East region "geographical proximity should not be confused with cultural proximity. Many socio-cultural elements, such as ethnicity, languages spoken, and political systems, may lead to variations among countries sharing the same geography and make each culture unique" (p. 521).

Such differences could be illustrated, for example, by comparing the economic figures of the richest country in the Middle East (i.e. Qatar) to the poorest one, Yemen, showing that it has an average income 43 times of Yemen (Metcalfe & Mimouni, 2011). There are also considerable historical differences as countries such as Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Egypt, and the Gulf countries were all subject to the colonial powers in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries while others such as Saudi Arabia were not. Moreover, Turkey, Afghanistan, and Iran, unlike others, are ethnically diverse. In addition, political systems are different across Middle Eastern countries. For example, the government type in Turkey is a secular republic with a parliamentary system while Egypt is also a republic but with a weak parliamentary system. Qatar and Saudi Arabia are governed by monarchies with a completely centralised government and no political parties. The head of these states (called King or Amir) normally consults with the leading family members and the religious authorities. Although the vast majority of Middle East countries are Muslim countries and apply religious laws to run the states, Turkey has a secular political system. Morocco is a constitutional monarchy and Kuwait is somewhat similar to that (Kabasakal et al., 2012). Finally, Iran is an Islamic republic. Therefore, it is evident that the differences of the political systems in these countries add to their cultural uniqueness. Therefore, all the above differences, and others, cast doubts on the credibility and generalisability of GLOBE findings within this cluster.

Finally, GLOBE used, as a standard, samples of middle managers working in one of three different industrial sectors (food processing, finance and telecommunication). These sectors may not be optimal in representing the economy of some countries. This is particularly true for Saudi Arabia which is an oil-based economy (SAMA, 2014), and thus the oil and petrochemical industry is the largest where the majority of Saudi leaders are expected to be found. Given that the three sectors included in the GLOBE study are not very representative of the Saudi economy, it is difficult to generalise the results to the Saudi context.

In another cross-cultural study concerned with implicit leadership theories, Gerstner and Day (Gerstner & Day, 1994) have studied how business leaders are perceived as prototypical across eight cultures. The participants were students from eight different countries including France, Germany, Honduras, India, the United States, Taiwan, China, and Japan. The participants were presented with a questionnaire consisting of a list of 59 attributes relevant to leadership that were identified previously by Lord et al. (1984) using an American sample. For each attribute, subjects were asked, based on a five-point scale, to assign a prototypicality rating for a business leader. The results showed that not a single trait appeared in the top five leadership attributes across eight cultures suggesting that individuals may view leaders differently in different cultures. It is noteworthy here that idiosyncrasies across cultures in terms of ILT could not be found due to the (quantitative) nature of the research using predetermined attributes. In addition, none of the Middle East countries were included in the study and hence its findings cannot be generalised to this context.

Relevant to the influence of culture on ILTs, it is important to point to a third study conducted by Ling et al. (2000) in China. Based on a similar approach to Offermann et al. (1994), namely, starting out with a qualitative collection of implicit leadership theories, Ling and colleagues collected attributes from 133 Chinese participants including

students and working adults, and went through a refinement process before they retained a total of 163 attributes of leaders. These attributes were presented to another group of 622 Chinese participants (students and working adults), and were asked to rate how characteristic they are using a 10-point scale. The responses were subjected to factor analyses, and the study revealed four factors describing the Chinese implicit leadership theories: personal morality, goal efficiency, interpersonal competence, and versatility. The highest ratings were given to the interpersonal competence factor which the researchers find to be consistent with the Chinese cultural value of collectivism. Moreover, the researchers found no correspondence of their findings to the eight factors of leadership that Offermann et al. (1994) found for U.S. participants. This study clearly shows that as we move away from the Western culture, the differences in ILT become clearer.

Overall, two relevant points can be inferred from these cross-cultural studies. The first is that they show that ILTs differ across cultures and that there are substantial variations in the ILTs when obtained from countries with different cultures compared to the Western contexts. This is evident from the Chinese study which found very different ILT factors than those revealed in the Offermann et al. (1994) study. This leads to the second point which is that researchers should be cautious when using instruments developed in different contexts or standard instrument, such as the GLOBE's, as these may not be optimal to precisely capture the ILTs in a specific context, as confirmed by the study conducted in Iran (Dastmalchian et al., 2001). Therefore, it can be concluded from the ILT differences found in these studies and the inadequacy of applying standard instruments on some other contexts, that it is important to investigate what actually defines implicit leadership theories in a particular context (i.e. Saudi Arabia), rather than applying dimensions previously found in other cultures to a culturally different context. Although this thesis is not a cultural comparison study, the following lines will assess the

generalisability of ILTs obtained from vicinity countries on the Saudi context to build the case for the importance of investigating Saudi ILTs and develop an instrument that is more sensitive to the Saudi context. This instrument will be used to test the hypothesised research model.

Assessment of the generalisability to SA context:

Drawing on the aforementioned conclusion about the different ILTs found in different contexts, I argue here that ILT could also considerably show a different pattern in Saudi Arabia, as the Chinese study did. This is because the Middle Eastern culture is remarkably different form the Western culture.

In fact, the differences found in the GLOBE results from seemingly similar contexts indicate that they cannot be confidently generalised to the Saudi context. This is supported by Kabaskal and colleagues' study (2012) who used data from the GLOBE project to perform a comparative study of seven countries in the Middle East and North African region. The countries included Egypt, Iran, Israel, Kuwait, Morocco, Turkey, and Qatar. The study aims to deeply assess how the cultural commonalities and differences among these countries play a role in the leadership prototype in this region. The results found considerable differences in ILTs which supported their proposition that "although countries in the MENA region have some commonalities in their societal norms, they have also some differing socio-economic, demographic and ethnic dynamics which may also differentiate their cultural norms and related preferences" (2012, p. 520).

The generalisability on Saudi Arabia remains questionable even when we look at GLOBE findings from contexts closer to Saudi Arabia. Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001), who were part of the GLOBE project, studied implicit leadership theories in Kuwait and Qatar of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries (Saudi Arabia is a neighbouring country to Kuwait and Qatar, and member of the GCC countries), and found some

differences between the two countries, in addition to similarities. For example, their study has revealed that in Qatar, the inhibitors of effective leadership are autocracy, irresponsibility, weak personality, inexperience, and poor knowledge and social skills. In Kuwait however, the inhibitors are indecisiveness and lack of vision (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). Judging from the differences between those seemingly culturally similar countries, the findings of the GLOBE study on Kuwait and Qatar cannot be simply generalised to Saudi Arabia despite the shared characteristics of religion, language and tribalism among GCC countries. Saudi Arabia may show considerable differences to these countries since it has many sub-cultures and it is significantly larger in terms of size, population and economy.

Overall, the above discussion shows a lack of ILT research in the Saudi context and the difficulty to generalise the findings of research conducted in even seemingly similar contexts. This fact stresses the need to explore ILTs and find an instrument that is more sensitive to the local Saudi culture. To do this, the two pre-studies in this thesis will explore the Saudi ILT with the aim of developing a more adequate ILT instrument to the Saudi context. The pre-studies however, will overcome the limitations identified in the reviewed literature. First, the assessment here will go beyond the assumption of GLOBE by investigating ILT about leaders in general, not only effective leaders. This will give the opportunity to capture the positive as well as negative attributes associated with Saudi leaders. Second, unlike the GLOBE study, the samples in the pre-studies will be drawn from the largest and most representative industry of the Saudi economy; the oil and petrochemical industry. This potentially will help gain better view about Saudi ILT, than samples drawn from substantially smaller industries such as those used in the GLOBE.

It should be noted though that, to the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study which examines the ILTs of leaders in general in the Saudi context. Although Saudi Arabia has its important position in the global economy based on its exports of oil and

petrochemicals all over the world, the Saudi context seems to have been largely ignored in previous cross-cultural research on ILTs, including the major research project; the GLOBE (House et al., 2004). Studying the specific context of SA with regard to ILTs is generally in line with the recommendation that in order to better understand the Middle East countries "the culture, wealth and development of each state should be critically analysed on a case-by-case basis" (Metcalfe & Mimouni, 2011, p. 46).

Besides the theoretical need to find a better ILT instrument for the Saudi context, exploring the Saudi ILTs could reveal results that are beneficial to improve the organisational practice particularly in the private sector. To illustrate this need, the Saudi government recently has started an intensive "Saudisation" program to quickly increase the number of Saudis working in the private sector. This massive process of replacing foreigners with local citizens suggests that those new employees are entering the market with different ILTs and expectations of leaders. For example, Mellahi (2007) interviewed Saudi Arabian managers working at private sector companies about the likely effects of Saudisation laws on management practices. The interviewees relayed that as more Saudi nationals entered the private sector labour force under Saudisation quotas, they anticipated a need to shift from an authoritarian to a participative decision making. However, the study also expressed doubts about the extent to which Saudi leaders in the private sector would be ready to actually share the decision-making power with followers. If sharing decision making with leaders, for instance, was part of the Saudi followers' ILT, and leaders are unwilling to align their behaviour with followers' expectations, then the leadership process could be harmed. Whatever is the case, the question is what images of leaders (ILTs) those Saudi recruits carry with them that will influence how they perceive leaders and grant them leadership (see for example, De Rue & Ashford, 2010). This study could provide a basic understanding of what Saudi ILTs might be, thus potentially helping leaders to align their behaviour with their followers' expectations.

Since this thesis assumes that implicit leadership theories play a role in predicting the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX), the next section will review the studies that examined the relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX.

2.1.3. Studies linking ILT to LMX:

A central premise of the Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is that leaders develop different quality relationships with their followers (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), and the quality relationships could lead to positive outcomes (see for example, Dulebohn et al., 2012) as will be explained further in the next section. Lord and Maher (1993) proposed that recognition-based processes could determine the leader-follower relationship. Specifically, they argued that followers often refer to their ILTs to interpret the behaviour of leaders, and leaders rely on ILTs to generate their own behaviour. Consequently, the perceived fit of the shown behaviour with the followers ILT could enhance the acceptance of leaders, establish a common understanding, and facilitate the interaction with leaders. In other words, the perceived similarity allows for automatic and intuitive social interactions between followers and leaders, which will produce higher ratings of quality LMX (Engle & Lord, 1997). According to Lord and Maher's argument, "the extent to which schemas are shared between leaders and subordinate governs the degree to which the exchange is characterised by trust, motivation, and performance" (1993, p. 136). Based on this assumption, empirical research has examined the hypothesis that the perceived ILT-similarity plays a predicting role of LMX. The next lines will review studies that examined this relationship, identify some gaps in this area, and then argue for the hypothesised ILT-similarity and LMX relationship which will be tested in this study.

The first relevant empirical study was conducted by Engle and Lord (1997). They investigated the effects of leader-follower cognitive similarities on LMX. These included ILTs, implicit performance theories, perceived attitudes and liking. They proposed that

the degree of similarity of leaders' and followers' ILT will have a significant effect on follower-rated LMX. This proposed relationship was tested on a working sample of 76 followers (57 were men, and 19 were women) and 18 leaders. In a cross-sectional design, Engle and Lord assessed 23 leader traits previously identified as prototypical by Offermann et al. (1994) and Lord et al. (1984). ILT congruence was measured here as the similarity between leaders' and followers' ratings of the presented traits. That is, the congruence was inferred by computing the square root of the mean of squared differences between leaders' and followers' ratings of these traits. The analysis showed, contrary to the hypotheses, no significant relationship exists between ILT congruence and follower-rated liking and LMX. However, a significant relationship has been found between the congruence of leaders and followers' implicit performance theories and leader-rated LMX, and liking is mediating this relationship. Although the analysis did not support the link between ILT congruence and LMX, it is important to note that the study did not assess the congruence as a perception held by followers, however as an objective reality. Moreover, perhaps the effect was difficult to find with the relatively small sample size.

In the second empirical study, Epitropaki and Martin (2005) argued that followers will likely rely on their own perception to judge the ILT congruence rather than on the actual distance between their and their leaders' ILT as measured by Engle and Lord (1997). Therefore, they proposed that the congruence should be conceptualised as the match between the followers ILT and the recognition of those prototypical attributes in their leaders (implicit-explicit ILT congruence). They argue that if a leader is perceived as prototypical by followers, he or she will be perceived as more influential and this can also influence the followers' affective reactions in the workplace.

They conducted a longitudinal study using 436 employees, 271 of whom participated in the second study one year later. Using the 21-item scale (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), they measured the participants' ILT and constructed congruence as the

absolute difference of the followers' ILT minus their ratings of ILT recognition in their manager. The analysis showed that the ILT congruence has a positive effect on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and well-being, and that these relationships were fully mediated by LMX. Interestingly, their analysis showed that it is only the prototypical traits congruence, not the anti-prototypical ones, that predicted LMX and outcomes. Moreover, this relationship was found to hold across all followers regardless of their differences in job demands and relationship tenure with leaders, except for their level of motivation. Additionally, Topakas in her PhD thesis (2011) also found a relationship between ILT congruence and LMX which supports what is found in the Epitropaki and Martin's study.

Overall, the reviewed literature shows that few studies examined the relationship between the ILT-similarity and followers' perception of LMX. In addition, these studies have revealed mixed results. This might be because of the different ways they operationalised ILT-similarity (Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). When Engle and Lord (1997) inferred the actual similarity by calculating the difference between followers-rated ILT and leaders-rated ILT, the results did not show a significant relationship between the ILT-similarity and LMX. However, when Epitropaki and Martin (2005) measured the ILT-similarity as followers' perceptions of the match between their implicit ILTs and their perception of leaders' behaviour, the results supported the relationship between followers' perceptions of ILT-behaviour/trait similarity and LMX.

Therefore, the literature so far shows that the ILT-similarity is related to LMX, if the similarity is subjectively measured as a follower's perception, rather than an objective inference. Despite the important contributions of the previous studies, one important possibility to measure perceived ILT-similarity has been left unexamined so far. That is, measuring the similarity between ILTs held by followers and those held by leaders (i.e. implicit-implicit similarity) as perceived by followers. That is, in how far followers

believe they share similar ILT with their leaders. In line with the social cognition research, followers (as individuals) in real life will depend on their perception and inferences to make sense of the world (Fiske & Taylor, 2013), and the perceived similarity between their ILT and leaders' ILT assumingly is not an exception.

This is an important possibility because of results found when studying the role of similarity on attraction in relationship contexts (D. E. Byrne, 1971; Montoya et al., 2008) which is relevant to LMX. Research found that individuals will relate more with whom they feel similar (D. E. Byrne, 1971). In contrast, dissimilarity between followers and leaders may set distance or barriers for high quality interactions (Uhl-Bien, 2006). A meta-analytic study of the similarity effect on interpersonal attractions shows that, in a relationship context, individuals feel attracted to similar others on many aspects including personal traits and attitudes (Montoya et al., 2008). More importantly, the study found that perceived similarity is more predictive of attraction in existing relationships than actual similarity. That is, it is sufficient for the effect to take place if individuals believe that their partners are similar, regardless of whether or not those partners are actually similar to them. Therefore, what matters is the perception rather than the reality of similarity.

Applying this to the leadership relationships (or LMX) domain, it can be assumed that followers' perception of having similar ILT to their leaders' will enhance the attraction element in their relationships and subsequently their perceived LMX. It can be hypothesised then that followers' perception of ILT similarity at the perceptual level plays a role in the perception of relationships with leaders. If an empirical support was found for this assumption, that would have important implications as judgment about cognitive similarity could be quickly made, and subsequently influence the perception of LMX in early stages of the interaction. This study will examine this potential effect of ILT-

similarity (i.e. implicit-implicit similarity) on the followers' perceived LMX. Therefore, the first hypothesis in this study will be:

H1: Followers' perceived similarity of their and their leaders' ILTs is positively correlated with LMX.

It should be noted that measuring ILT-similarity as perceived by followers is consistent with the focus on the followers-perspective in this research. It is also in line with Lord and Maher's (1993) argument that similarity in terms of ILTs could be more useful for understanding the follower's perspective of the quality of LMX. Moreover, focusing on followers when measuring ILT-similarity could be appropriate for reasons related to my research context. Saudi culture, as will be explained later, has a very high power distance and is high in collectivism in which followers generally avoid repetitive contact with leaders, even when their intervention is needed, and thus stay distant from leaders as a face-saving behaviour (P. B. Smith, Achoui, & Harb, 2007). In addition, leaders in this hierarchical culture are expected to act and decide alone and this generally limits their communications and engagement with followers. Taken together, this generally suggests that an element of psychological distance could exist between followers and leaders. Because of that, followers will be inclined to rely more on their subjective inferences and perception when making judgements about leaders including leaders' ILTs than the actual leaders' ILTs. Given this context, followers' perception of implicit-implicit ILT congruence is worth investigating.

Therefore, further reference to ILT congruence (or similarity) in this thesis reflects the perceptual similarity of leaders and followers ILTs as perceived by followers. The importance of the predictive role of ILT-similarity on LMX can be understood if we know that many positive outcomes are associated with high quality LMX. These outcomes and

other issues related to LMX will be explained in the following review of the LMX literature.

Similarity assessment and measurement issues

It is important to know that there is a debate in the literature on the appropriateness of statistical approaches commonly used to measure congruence or similarity in organisational research (e.g., Edwards, 1994). The two mentioned studies focusing on ILT-congruence (Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005) utilised absolute difference scores to capture the congruence (Epitropaki et al., 2013). However, Edwards (1994) criticised methods that rely on collapsing two components into a single index; such as an algebraic, absolute, squared difference, or an index of profile similarity. Such methods generally suffer from difficulties with reliability, interpretation, and confounding effects on components. Recently, alternative approaches such as the polynomial regression (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards, 2001) and Latent Congruence Modelling (Cheung, 2009) are thought to provide a more robust test of the congruence than the absolute difference scores. However, Topakas (2011) compared the Latent Congruence Modelling method with four types of difference scores (i.e. algebraic, absolute, squared difference, and the profile similarity index) to capture the implicit-explicit ILT congruence. Her results revealed, no matter which methodology was used, a significant effect of the ILT congruence on LMX. Epitropaki and colleagues (2013) suggested that "additional research is clearly needed in order for more solid conclusions to be drawn regarding the utility of congruence scores in this particular context." (p. 864).

In this thesis, the ILT congruence is assessed using one item as a direct comparison measure which ask the respondent to report the degree to which the components (here follower's and leader's ILTs) are similar. The researcher used this approach for two reasons. First, the limited time and accessibility did not allow asking leaders as well as followers to report their ILTs. Second, given that the interest of this

research is on followers' perception of similarity, self-report of ILT-similarity was both necessary and desirable.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that results from this direct comparison approach should be interpreted with caution as it could suffer from the common method bias and the problems associated with difference scores (Edwards, 2001). Edwards warned that "asking respondents to compare components may invoke cognitive processes other than the simple comparisons presumed in much congruence research" (P.269).

2.2. A review of leader-member exchange (LMX)

A large body of the current leadership research views leaders and followers as co-producers of leadership through their interaction and relational processes. Relationships between leaders and followers in the workplace play an important role in organisation effectiveness (Schyns & Day, 2010). An important relationship-based leadership theory is Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) which examines the quality of this relationship between a leader and each of his / her followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Van Breukelen, Schyns, & Le Blanc, 2006).

The concept of LMX was developed by Graen and colleagues and refined through several studies (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975). It was first labelled as Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) and introduced as an alternative to average leadership style (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). That is, the VDL theory assumes that leaders do not use an average leadership style when dealing with followers, rather they develop differentiated relationships within their teams. The VDL theory subsequently passed through several stages of development until it was named as Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). The difference between the two is that the vertical dyad linkage focused on differentiating leader-member dyads within the group, whereas the LMX focused on

studying the relationship itself and thus can be broadly used to measure interactions at dyadic, group or organisational levels (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999).

A central premise of the LMX theory is that a leader tends to form different relationship qualities with different followers and accordingly treats each follower differently (Liden & Graen, 1980). In low quality relationships, the interaction between leaders and followers is based on the formal employment contract and tends to be hierarchically formalised. Followers in such relationships receive little support and are considered members of the leader's out-group. In contrast, high quality relationships are based on mutual trust and reciprocal influence. Followers in high quality relationships are provided with more reward, support and opportunities, and are considered members of the leader's in-group (Dansereau et al., 1975). Martin and colleagues (2010) have argued that within-groups, high differentiation of LMX among members may provoke perceptions of injustice and lack of fairness which could lead to negative individual and group outcomes.

The LMX concept has been inconsistently defined (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Earlier research viewed LMX as a unidimensional construct (presented as in/out dichotomy). However, Dienesch and Liden (1986) criticised this overly narrow conception of LMX claiming that the unidimensional model is not supported by clear conceptual or empirical justifications. Another criticism is that prior empirical studies suffered from different operationalisations of LMX, and used scales that are neither based on systematic psychometric studies nor explicit construct validation. Alternatively, they argued that exchanges between leaders and followers could vary on multiple dimensions. Consequently, they proposed the following dimensions to measure the quality of LMX: perceived contribution, loyalty and affect. These dimensions are viewed as “currencies of exchange which both parties in an LMX can bring to the relationship” (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 625). Therefore, the exchange may be based on some or all of these dimensions,

and the importance of each dimension could be contextual and thus vary across individuals and situations. For example, some followers may value task contribution more than social interactions, while others may value both. Furthermore, the multidimensionality of LMX opens the possibility that particular dimensions in some situations may be more predictive of certain outcomes than others depending on which currencies have been exchanged (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). For example, organisational commitment which is associated with the organisation rather than the leaders may be less determined by the affect towards a leader however significantly by the task contribution (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) outlined that the development of LMX theory went through four stages. The first stage was the discovery of differentiated leader-follower relationships. The second stage focused on the relationship and its outcomes. Studies in this stage examined the characteristics of LMX relationship, and the LMX relationships with antecedents and certain organisational outcomes such as performance, turnover, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, and empowerment (see for review, Dulebohn et al., 2012). The third stage was the description of dyadic partnership building. Studies in this stage shifted the focus from how leaders differentiate among followers to how leaders should build partnerships with each follower by making the initial offer to develop LMX relationships. The implication of these studies stressed that improving leaders' ability to develop more quality relationships will ultimately generate more effective leadership processes. The fourth stage was the extension of the dyadic partnership to the group and network levels. In this stage, studies addressed LMX not as independent dyads, rather as systems of dyadic relationships, or network assemblies. This way, relationships move beyond the leader-follower relationship to include leadership relationships among teammates and across

organisational levels. The quality relationships in one part could influence the relationships quality in other parts of the network.

2.2.1. LMX measurements

To measure the quality of LMX, many different measures have been used although the LMX-7 items measure is most popular in the literature. However, Liden and Maslyn (1998) criticised the accuracy of LMX-7 measurement as it lacks the psychometric testing to ensure its validity. They also claim that the 7-item measurement is not capable of capturing the multiple dimensions of LMX. Subsequently, they conducted empirical studies to develop a sounder multidimensional measure of LMX (known as LMX-MDM). They collected data from 302 working students for item analysis followed by construct validation using data from 249 employees. The analysis showed a support for a four-dimension model for measuring LMX: *loyalty*, *affect*, *contribution*, and *professional respect.* Loyalty involves expression of public support and consistent faithfulness to the other individual. Affect represents the interpersonal attraction or friendship between the dyad members. Contribution measures the perceived level of work-related activity each member puts to accomplish the mutual goals. Professional respect measures the degree to which each member is considered by the other one to be excellent in his/her job.

The current study will adopt the LMX-MDM scale when measuring the perception of LMX because its development procedure went through a rigorous process which involved the assessment of content, construct and predictive validity (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). This is evident from the analysis that Liden and Maslyn (1998) conducted to compare the LMX-MDM correlations with outcomes and the LMX-7 correlations with the same outcomes. Using hierarchical regression analyses, LMX-7 was entered first into the equation, followed by the LMX dimensions as a composite. The results showed that the LMX-MDM explained an additional 18% of the variance in performance, and 8% of

the variance in supervisor satisfaction after controlling for LMX-7. The researchers suggest that LMX-MDM could be more capable than the LMX-7 in explaining the variance in the relationship between LMX and some outcomes.

2.2.2. Antecedents and consequences of LMX

LMX has been associated with many antecedents (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Van Breukelen et al., 2006) as well as positive personal and organisational outcomes (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2016; Rockstuhl et al., 2012). In a recent meta-analysis of LMX consequences and antecedents, Dulebohn et al. (2012) examined 247 studies of the LMX literature with 290 samples, and found that LMX quality has been associated with 21 antecedents and 16 outcomes. Positive outcomes occurred at both the individual level such as job performance, and job satisfaction (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984), and at organisation level such as commitment (Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986), low turnover (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982), and overall organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB; see also for review Dulebohn et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2016). As for the antecedents associated with LMX, Dulebohn et al. (2012) categorised these 21 antecedents into three domains, that is, leader characteristics (e.g., agreeableness, transformational leadership qualities; see also Schyns, Maslyn, & van Veldhoven, 2012), follower characteristics (e.g., locus of control, extraversion, and neuroticism), and interpersonal relationship characteristics (e.g., perceived similarity, affect, and trust).

More importantly, research has found that the nature of LMX relationships with some antecedents and outcomes is complex and thus can be affected by moderating/mediating variables. For example, Dulebohn et al. (2012) examined potential contextual variables that could moderate some antecedents-LMX relationships. The variables included, cultural dimensions, work settings, the LMX measure used, and participants' location. The study found that only power distance and individualism (i.e.

cultural dimensions) moderated some of the antecedents and LMX relationships. In another study using a Dutch sample of 52 leaders and 389 followers, Schyns et al. (2012) have found that some leader personality characteristics (i.e. extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness) moderated the effect of leaders' span of control on LMX dimensions.

Moreover, Rockstuhl and colleagues (2012) conducted a meta-analytic study to specifically examine the moderating role of national culture on the relationship between LMX and its correlates. The results, based on 282 independent samples from 23 countries, found a moderating role of national culture on LMX relationships with some outcomes and antecedents. Specifically, the relationships with outcomes including, organisational citizenship behaviour, justice perceptions, job satisfaction, turnover intentions were stronger in horizontal-individualistic (i.e. Western) contexts than in vertical-collectivistic (e.g., Asian) contexts. Similarly, the relationship between LMX and leader trust as an antecedent was stronger in horizontal-individualistic contexts. In the same vein, Martin and colleagues (2016) found that trust, motivation, empowerment and job satisfaction mediated the LMX relationships with task and citizenship performance, with trust in the leader showing the largest effect.

The above studies provide evidence that the LMX relationships with outcomes and antecedents are likely to be complex and can be better explained by moderating/mediating variables. Relevant to the current study which examines the relationship between ILT-similarity and LMX, Epitropaki and Martin (2005) tested three moderators of this particular relationship, namely, job demand, the duration of leader-follower relation, and follower's motivation. Using multi-group analyses, the results showed that only motivation (as an individual factor) that negatively moderated the relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX. The authors explained that

followers with low intrinsic motivation are more likely to be in a state of limited processing of cognitive resources, and thus rely more on categorical thinking (to achieve a cognitive economy) when making judgments about their relationships with leaders. This finding shows that the degree to which followers use their categorical thinking or ILT to evaluate their relationship with leaders (LMX) could be affected by individual characteristics.

Moderators of the ILT-similarity and LMX relationship

Given that dearth of studies that explicitly examined potential moderators to the relationship of perceived ILT-similarity and LMX, it seems useful to investigate more moderating variables to further our understanding of this important relationship. This could extend the LMX literature, and deepen our knowledge on the mechanism of developing quality leader-follower relationships which are associated with many positive outcomes (e.g., Dulebohn et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2016). The researcher proposes that adding a perceptual variable as a moderator may further explain the relationship between ILT-similarity and LMX. Specifically, this research suggests that followers' self-perception of need for leadership (NfL) may play a role in the magnitude of that relationship. Need for leadership measures "the extent to which an employee wishes the leader to facilitate the paths towards individual, group, and/or organisational goals" (De Vries et al., 2002, p. 122).

The selection of need for leadership as a potential self-perception moderator was based on various reasons. First, it builds on Epitropaki and Maritn's (2005) study which found that motivation as a follower's self-perception affects the perceptual processes regarding the relationship with leaders. This suggests that including other perceptual-related variables, such as NfL, could also expand our understanding of this matter, especially when we know that no further perceptual variables related to followers' self-

concept have been examined in this particular area. This is also supported by Lord and colleagues' (1999) argument that studying perceptions related to followers' self-concept is important for understanding leadership processes.

Second, Villa and colleagues (2003) recommended that researchers should be careful when choosing moderators in leadership research. That is, they should only consider moderators that are relevant to the tested relationship. Since need for leadership expresses the follower's desire for leader's interventions, "need for leadership seems to be of immediate relevance for what happens in the interaction between the leader and the subordinate" (De Vries et al., 2002, p. 123). Based on this, I argue that need for leadership is central in the leader-follower relationship domain, and therefore could potentially intervene with the relationship between ILT-similarity and LMX.

Third, De Vries and colleagues (2002) argued that need for leadership is a "catch-all" variable which mediates the effect of many personal, task and organisational factors, such as personal competence, task ambiguity, and reliance on written rules. They further argued that investigating the moderating effects using a single variable is superior to using all proposed factors separately "since a simultaneous test of multiple moderating effects is almost impossible to conduct" (De Vries et al., 2002, p. 123).

Finally, since this research is mainly concerned with studying the perceptual approach of leadership, scholars following this approach recommends that "if leadership resides, at least in part, in the minds of followers, then it is imperative to discover what followers are thinking" (Lord & Emrich, 2001, p. 551). Examining perceptual moderators such as need for leadership may further our understanding on how followers' self-perceptions interact with other cognitive processes including the perception of ILT-similarity and LMX. It can be argued that when perceptual processes (such as the perception of ILT-similarity and LMX) occur in the followers' minds, they do not

necessarily isolate other perceptions from interacting with such processes. If this is true, then examining NfL as a moderator may extend our knowledge of the mechanism underlying such cognitive processes.

2.2.3. Summary

In conclusion, the reviewed LMX literature shows that the relationship quality between leaders and followers is associated with positive outcomes. It has been found that many antecedents might predict the quality of LMX including perceived similarity of ILTs. However, some of these relationships might be influenced by moderating/mediating variables, and thus including moderating variables when studying such relationships is important. This recommendation is particularly important in the case of ILT-similarity and LMX relationship given that only few studies examined this relationship so far (Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). Therefore, to deepen our understanding of this specific relationship, this study will examine need for leadership (NfL) as a potential moderator of the followers' perceived ILT-similarity and LMX relationship. This inclusion of need for leadership as a follower characteristic is generally in line with the scope of my research which focuses on the follower side of leadership. The next section will describe the concept of need for leadership in more details, followed by the argument for the hypothesised moderating role of need for leadership.

2.3. A review of the need for leadership (NfL)

The literature shows that a main factor which can predict the perceptions of leadership is the follower's characteristics (e.g., Keller, 1999; Schyns, Kroon, & Moors, 2008). De Vries and Van Gelder (2005) stressed that scholars should focus on the follower characteristics that may shape leadership perceptions, since the main determinant of such perceptions may be the characteristics of followers themselves (Hollander & Offermann, 1990a; Meindl, 1995).

One of the follower characteristics that may influence the perception of leadership is need for leadership (De Vries, 1997). The concept of "need for leadership" describes the extent to which a follower desires the leader to facilitate the paths towards individual, group, and/or organisational goals (De Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 1999). De Vries (1997, p. 94) has defined the concept of need for leadership (NfL) as "the social-contextual perception of an employee of the relevance of the leader's legitimate acts of influence towards him/herself or the group (s)he belongs to." Although NfL is regarded as a social-contextual quasi-need that is derived from the individual's personality and social circumstances, De Vries further explained that need for leadership is not a brief temporal state (1997, p. 94). That is, given the follower's repetitive encounters with a present leader in a given organisational context, it can be argued that an element of stability may prevail in the types or level of need for leadership as expressed by that follower. In this sense, need for leadership can be conceptualised as a follower characteristic which describes the extent to which a follower desires the leader to facilitate the paths towards individual, and/or organisational goals. This thesis consider NfL as a personal characteristic that determines a follower's perceived value of a leader's presence.

Considering NfL as a social-contextual quasi-need means that it is different from central needs such as the need for competence and the need for affiliation, although it can serve as a means for fulfilling a central need. Instead of directly fulfilling their needs, followers high in need for leadership can turn to a leader to facilitate the need fulfilment. Therefore, NfL is a personal characteristic that determines the perceived value of a leader's presence, however it is different from necessity for leadership which refers to necessary leadership behaviours, such as direction and coordination, to achieve organisational aims regardless of whether this behaviour is valued by followers or not.

Aspects of followers' needs for leadership

De Vries (1997) has identified 17 aspects of needs that are based on leadership functions and roles distinguished by Yukl (1994), Quinn (1988), and Luthans and Lockwood (1984). These 17 needs measure the follower's general need for leadership in organisational contexts (see the 17 needs listed in table 2-1). Underlying these functions is a general need for leadership.

Table 2–1: 17 aspects of need for leadership. Source: De Vries (1997).

1	Need for a leader to… set goals.	10	to maintain external contacts.
2	to decide what work should be done.	11	to provide information.
3	to transfer knowledge.	12	to gear all activities of the team for one another.
4	to motivate.	13	to create a good team spirit.
5	to coordinate, plan and organise work.	14	to handle conflicts.
6	to inspire.	15	to give work-related feedback.
7	to provide support.	16	to correct mistakes.
8	to arrange things with upper management.	17	to help solve problems.
9	to recognise and reward contributions.		

A review study by De Vries and colleagues has shown that the most needed functions are those related to support with upward influence and providing information, while the least needed are those related to coordinating and decision making functions (De Vries, Roe, Taillieu, & Nelissen, 2004). The authors explained that this might be the case because followers gain more from information provided by their leaders than their input related to coordination. It should be noted though that the expressed level of needs

may best represent the Dutch sample used in their study, however may not necessarily generalise on individuals in other contexts. In the following, I will turn to predictors of need for leadership.

2.3.1. Predictors of need for leadership

Generally, research has found that in the absence of a leader, need for leadership is remarkably lower than when a leader is present (De Vries, 1997). Thus, the presence of a leader can be considered as a prerequisite for need for leadership to develop. Even with the presence of a leader, many other contextual and personal factors in particular can predict the level of need for leadership an individual might have. Specifically, the follower's age, emotional stability, and education predict the level of need for leadership. That is, followers who were younger, scored higher on emotionality, and had a higher education, were found to have higher needs for leadership, than followers who were relatively older, emotionally stable, and had a lower level of education (De Vries et al., 2004). Moreover, a follower's job-related expertise and need for independence are negatively related to need for leadership (De Vries et al., 2004). Interestingly, leaders' style could also predict the followers' perceived need for leadership.

De Vries and colleagues (1999), based on a Dutch sample and analysis of 958 questionnaires, found that charismatic leadership is positively related to need for leadership, which suggests that a follower perceives a higher need for leadership when a charismatic leader is present. In a later study, De Vries and colleagues (2011) found that leadership styles predict the team (i.e. group level) need for leadership. Specifically, charismatic leadership and participative leadership were both related to higher need for leadership. The authors explained that when a leader uses a more participative style, the difference in expertise between a leader and followers becomes more apparent which consequently strengthen followers' need for leadership. In contrast, the presence of

charismatic leadership may invoke higher need for leadership in a team because of the heightened sense of a desired goal visualised by the leader.

Therefore, the above factors could explain why the need for leadership varies across individuals. However, these factors are not exclusive and other factors could be considered as predictors of need for leadership. Since need for leadership is a perception and perceptions are sensitive to culture, it is hypothesised in this study (i.e. H3a and H3b) that the level of expressed needs will also differ based on followers' cultural orientations. As will be explained later in the next section, culture is a strong contextual factor that influences work interactions, and thus investigating followers' cultural orientations as a predictor of need for leadership may improve on the literature in this area. This hypothesis will be outlined in detail under the next section which reviews the literature related to culture.

After the predictors of need for leadership has been reviewed, I turn to the research which found that need for leadership can also be a predictor for some outcomes, as well as moderator of some relationships. In the following, I will review studies that examined need for leadership as a predictor, followed by a review of studies concerned with need for leadership as a moderator.

2.3.2. Need for leadership as a predictor

There is evidence that need for leadership affects leadership perceptions. For example, in an experimental study using a sample of 150 Dutch university students, De Vries (2000) manipulated followers' need for leadership and the department performance to examine their effects on perceived leader effectiveness, leadership traits, and prototypicalilty of a leader. The results showed that leaders who had followers with high need for leadership (regardless of the performance level) were given higher prototypical leadership ratings than leaders who had followers with low need for leadership. In a high

need for leadership and high performance condition, the perceived leader's effectiveness and goal-orientation was substantially higher than in other conditions. Moreover, it was found that only need for leadership that affected the perceived leader's support orientation, in a way that a leader was perceived to be having a high support orientation when need for leadership was high.

In another study, De Vries and van Gelder (2005) conducted experimental studies on 113 students (57.5% were women) to examine the effect of observed need for leadership and performance on leadership perceptions (i.e. charismatic leadership, leader's expertise, human-oriented, and task-oriented leadership). Participants were presented with one of four randomly distributed written vignettes about a banking company with a fictitious team leader and his members. The vignette had a two (strong versus weak need for leadership) by two (strong versus weak performance) manipulation design. After reading the vignette, the participants were given a questionnaire to rate leadership; namely, charismatic leadership, human-oriented leadership, task-oriented leadership, and leader's expertise. The results revealed that observed need for leadership has more influence than performance cues on the perception of charismatic leadership and ratings of the leader's expertise. Moreover, need for leadership performance showed a significant effect on human-oriented and task-oriented leadership, however need for leadership did not reveal a stronger effect than performance in this case. These findings show that information about followers' need for leadership indeed influenced how people perceived leadership.

Schyns and colleagues (2008), using a sample of 588 Dutch employees, have examined the effects of followers' characteristics (i.e. need for leadership, dependence, romance of leadership and idealised supervisor) on perceived LMX. Using hierarchical regression analyses, they found that romance of leadership and idealised supervisors are not significantly related to LMX. However, followers high in need for leadership and

dependence perceived higher quality of LMX. They explained that probably followers with high need for leadership (and dependence) are sensitive to the support their leaders may provide, and thus perceive higher LMX.

Therefore, the reviewed studies show that need for leadership plays a predicting role for many leadership perceptions. Next, I will review studies that examined the moderating role of need for leadership on some relationships, followed by the argument for the hypothesised moderating role of NfL in the ILT-similarity and LMX relationship which is examined in the current research.

2.3.3. Need for leadership as a moderator

Previous research shows evidence for the moderating role of need for leadership. De Vries (1997) examined the moderating effect of need for leadership on the relation between leadership and outcome criteria, using a sample of 958 employees from different organisations. The results show that NfL reduces the charismatic leadership and leader's expertise relationships with follower's satisfaction. Moreover, NfL was a positive moderator of leader's expertise and task-oriented leadership's relationships with follower's commitment. A negative moderating effect of NfL was also found on the human-oriented leadership and performance relationship.

In another study, De Vries and colleagues (1999) examined the moderating effect of need for leadership on the relationships between charismatic leadership and four followers' outcomes, namely, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work stress, and role conflict. They conducted a moderated multiple regression (MMR) analysis using a Dutch sample of 958 employees. The results found the moderating effect in three out of four cases. Need for leadership positively moderated the relationships with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Moreover, it moderated the negative relationship between charismatic leadership and role conflict. That is, the relationship was

stronger in the case of high need for leadership. Finally, need for leadership did not moderate the charismatic leadership and work stress relationship.

Using the same sample in the previous study, De Vries and colleagues (2002) conducted another investigation to examine the moderating effect of need for leadership on 15 proposed relationships. Specifically, they examined the relationships of three independent variables (i.e. leader's inspirational skills, leader's support, and leader's structure) and five outcomes, namely, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work stress, role conflict, and performance. The results found moderating effects in only 5 out of the 15 relationships. A small positive moderating effect was found on the relationship between leader's inspirational skills and job satisfaction. There is also a positive moderating effect of need for leadership on the leader's structure and organisational commitment's relationship. Moreover, NfL moderated the relationship between leader's support and work stress. That is, a high need for leadership strengthened the (negative) relationship between the leader's support and work stress. Furthermore, need for leadership was a pure moderator of the leader's support and self-rated performance. That is, high need for leadership is correlated with a negative relationship between leader's support and self-rated performance, whereas low need for leadership is correlated with no or positive relationship between the two variables. Finally, NfL weakened the negative relationship between leader's inspirational skills and self-rated performance. However, no moderating effect was found in all relationships with role conflict. The authors explained that the relatively weak effects found in this study might be because of the field study design, and therefore suggested the use of experimental studies as they are more optimal in finding moderating effects.

Bodla and Hussain (2010) examined the moderating effect of need for leadership using a working sample form Pakistan. Specifically, the effect was examined on the relationships between the four leadership characteristics (i.e. Human-oriented leadership,

task-oriented leadership, charismatic leadership, and leader's expertise) and three followers' outcomes (i.e. employee performance, satisfaction, and organisational commitment). The analysis of 313 questionnaires revealed that the significant moderating effect was found in 11 out of the 12 examined relationships, i.e. exceptionally, no significant moderation was found on the relationship between leader's expertise and performance.

In a later study, Breevaart and colleagues (2015) examined the moderating effect of need for leadership on the transformational leadership and self-leadership strategies' relationships with followers' work engagement. They used a sample of 57 unique leader-follower dyad to fill out a quantitative diary survey at the end of each week, for a period of five weeks. The analysis of structural equation modelling confirmed the moderation effect in the two relationships. That is, the relationship between weekly transformational leadership and followers' weekly work engagement was stronger when need for leadership was higher, while the positive relationship between weekly self-leadership and weekly work engagement was stronger when need for leadership was lower.

These reviewed studies confirm that need for leadership plays a moderating role in leadership-outcome relationships. However, there are no studies so far which examined the moderating effect of need for leadership in the LMX domain although LMX has been associated with many positive outcomes. It has been argued earlier, that need for leadership is a relevant variable to the interactions between leaders and followers, and it is a useful single moderator which combines the effects of many personal, task and organisational factors (De Vries et al., 2002). Therefore, the current research will fill this gap by investigating the moderating effect of need for leadership on the relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX. In the following, I will explain the hypothesised moderating role of need for leadership in this study.

Need for leadership as a moderator in the ILT-similarity and LMX relationship

It has been found that followers' perceived ILT-similarity predicts their perception of LMX (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). That is, followers could rely on their categorical thinking and recognition-based processes, to make judgements about the social interactions between followers and leaders. However, Macrae and Bodenhausen (2000) argued that perceivers are more likely to refer to this automatic and intuitive cognitive process if their motivational state is low. This also means that this categorical thinking could be partly inhibited when the perceivers' motivation is high. This was explained by the authors' argument that "category application is likely to occur when a perceiver lacks the motivation, time, or cognitive capacity to think deeply (and accurately) about others" (2000, p. 105).

The social cognitive science can provide an explanation of how need for leadership may provoke deliberate thinking. The difference between an automatic thinking and a deliberate thinking about a stimulus is that the latter is activated when something becomes the focus of attention and thus occupies consciousness (Fiske & Taylor, 2013, p. 60). One of the factors that capture attention in social settings is the salience of a social stimulus (e.g. a leader), which is the extent to which people stand out relative to others in their environment. This salience, as Fiske and Taylor explained, "depends partly on perceiver goals. People attend to significant others, those on whom their outcomes depend" (2013, P.68). Drawing on this, I argue that in organisational settings, followers' goals are manifested in the need for leadership, and it could contribute to the salience of the target leaders. Such leaders then become in the followers' focus of attention when perceiving those leaders, including the relationships with them (or LMX). In other words, when a follower highly desires a leader intervention to achieve goals, thinking about that leader in that case is likely to be deliberate rather than automatic given that he or she is the focus of follower's attention.

Based on this, I argue here that since need for leadership expresses the follower's feeling of insecurity due to unfulfilled needs, and implies the desire for leaders' intervention, higher need for leadership may provoke the deliberate thinking when evaluating the interaction with leaders. That is, followers with high need for leadership will be more motivated to dedicate cognitive resources to process variety of information and think deeply about leaders before making inferences about their interaction with them. On the other hand, it can be assumed that followers with low need for leadership will probably be less motivated to think deeply, rather resort to categorical thinking (to achieve cognitive economy) prior to making judgements about their interactions with leaders.

Therefore, the second hypothesis in the current study assumes that followers' need for leadership may serve as a moderator in the relationship between perceived ILTs similarity and LMX. The hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H2: Need for leadership will negatively moderate the relationship between followers' perceived ILT-similarity and leader-member exchange (LMX).

In summary, the above review showed that need for leadership is an important follower's characteristic which could play predicting and moderating roles when studying leadership outcomes and relationships. The current study seeks to examine the moderating effect of NfL on the relationship between ILT-similarity and LMX. NfL is a perception which emerges from the follower's simultaneous assessment of the self in a current situation with the presence of a leader. In this sense, NfL is a relevant variable to the interaction domain, and therefore worth investigating in the antecedent-LMX relationships studies as this could further our understanding of the mechanism of the predicting processes of LMX. Studying need for leadership as a follower characteristic is in line with this research focus on the follower' side of examining leadership process.

Burns (2010) stressed on that leadership is inseparable from followers' needs and goals, which indicates how important is to include followers' needs in leadership studies.

Since culture consists of a set of shared values, norms, and assumptions, it could affect individuals' cognitions and perceptions because "cultures develop conventions about what to pay attention to" (Triandis, 2001, p. 908). As culture will likely affect individuals' leadership perceptions, it is important to include the culture element in studies concerned with leadership perceptions. The research model acknowledges this important role of culture and thus will examine the influence of culture as a determinant of LMX and NfL. The following section will introduce the concept of culture, and review the studies concerned with linking culture with LMX and NfL to formulate the hypothesised effect of culture on LMX and NfL.

2.4. A review of culture

Lord and Maher (1993) stressed the importance of investigating leadership conceptions within different cultural contexts (see for example, House et al., 2004). Every society has a culture that distinctively shapes individuals' attitude, perception and behaviour (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede defined the societal culture as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others" (2011, p. 3). In this sense, culture describes the accepted values and broad tendencies toward certain issues in a society. Triandis asserted that each culture has "shared standard operating procedure, unstated assumptions, tools, norms, values, habits about sampling the environment, and the like" (2001, p. 908).

However, culture could be differentiated on societal and individual levels, as will be explained further. Since the researcher in the current study will assess culture at the individual level, the following lines will explain how culture is measured, the difference between cultures at the societal and individual levels. After that, I will review the

literature which specifically studied culture and LMX and need for leadership to identify research gaps in this area, and then will argue for the hypothesised effect of followers' cultural orientations (i.e. culture at the individual level) on the perception of NfL and LMX.

2.4.1. The societal culture

Hofstede (1980) proposed that the perceptual programming within different societies provides a reasonable explanation for many differences in leadership styles. Researchers started to look for ways to classify nations according to the complex reality of culture. However, the earlier attempts, according to Hofstede, suffered severe methodological weaknesses by mixing level of analysis (individual versus group level) (Hofstede, 2011). Inkeles and Levinson tried to overcome this weakness by reviewing research that only studied culture at the national level (1969; cited in Hofstede, 2011). Accordingly, they concluded that national or societal cultures can be differentiated based on three dimensions: relation to authority, conception of self, such as the concept of masculinity and femininity, and the way of dealing with conflicts and expressions of aggression and affect.

A major empirical study of societal culture was conducted by Hofstede in the 1970s. He analysed a survey database of people's values in 53 countries who were working in the local subsidiaries of the IBM multinational corporation (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede found certain patterns of values when he analysed the data at the country level. He subsequently applied the same study outside IBM on a sample of 400 participants from 30 countries and found significant correlations with results obtained from the IBM database which supported his claim that the IBM data has implication beyond the corporation context. He explained that IBM samples were very similar in almost every aspect except nationality and hence the differences found probably reflect the effect of national culture.

Further analysis led Hofstede (1980) to extract four dimensions of national culture, namely, power distance, individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity-femininity. Based on these dimensions, nations can be described and compared with each other. In the 1980s, a fifth dimension "long-term versus short term orientation" was added based on Michael Bond's research (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). Similarly, in the 2000s a sixth dimension has been added based on Michael Minkov's work (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). The six dimensions are: *Power distance* which measures the peoples' acceptance of social inequality and distribution of authority; *individualism-collectivism* which measures the extent to which the society encourages collective actions; *uncertainty avoidance* which refers to how people feel threatened by ambiguous future situations. The fourth dimension is *masculinity-femininity* which focuses on measuring the values of success, competition and emotional involvement with others. The fifth dimension is *long-term versus short-term orientation*, which measures the extent to which people invest in the future and engage in future-oriented behaviours such as planning. Finally, the *indulgence versus restraint* dimension which measures the level of control over human desires related to enjoying life and having fun.

Hofstede measured societal culture on each dimension based on the scores of the majority in that society and then compared it to other societies. The scale of each dimension runs from 0-100 with 50 as a midpoint. If the score lower than 50 emerged, the culture is relatively low on that dimension. For example, on the individualism dimension, a country with a score of 40 (under 50) would be considered as "collectivist" however less collectivist than a country with a score of 25. According to Hofstede's points system, Saudi Arabia's profile showed different scores from the UK profile (www.geert-hofstede.com, 2016). Table 2-2 presents the scores of Saudi Arabia and the UK on each cultural dimension.

Table 2–2: Saudi Arabia vs. UK profiles of Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Culture dimension	Score of Saudi Arabia	Score of UK
Power distance	95	35
Collectivism	75	11
Masculinity	60	66
Uncertainty avoidance	80	35
Long-term orientation	36	51
Indulgence	52	69

After Hofstede's research, other research projects have examined some dimensions to measure societal culture, however their results showed considerable correlations with some dimensions found in Hofstede's original study. For example, the psychologist Shalom Schwartz conducted further research into cultural dimensions (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Schwartz, 1994). He collected scores of 56 values measured from samples of elementary school teachers and college students in over 50 countries. His analysis revealed seven dimensions: Conservatism, Hierarchy, Mastery, Affective autonomy, Intellectual autonomy, Egalitarianism and Harmony. However, the scores were significantly correlated with IBM scores for individualism, masculinity and uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 2011).

Another large research attempt to study the national culture, besides leadership, is the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness) project. In the period of 1994-1997, the project collected data from around 17000 managers working in 951 local organisations in 62 societies (House et al., 2004). The respondents used half of the 78 survey questions to describe their culture ('as is') and the other half to evaluate it as ('should be'). Their findings partly correlated with Hofstede's dimensions, however expanded the five Hofstede's dimensions to nine. They are; Power Distance, Uncertainty

Avoidance, Institutional Collectivism, In-Group Collectivism, Assertiveness, Gender Egalitarianism, Future Orientation, Humane Orientation and Performance Orientation.

It is important however, to note that Hofstede's study has received criticisms for its methodology since the collected data was part of a consulting project and hence, basically designed for IBM's needs rather than for research purposes (Baskerville, 2003; Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & De Luque, 2006). This was evident in the later inclusion of the fifth dimension which was ignored in the original study because it was not of IBM's interest at that time, according to Javidan and colleagues. They also mentioned another criticism of Hofstede's work which is that his measurement lacks psychometric assessment for validity. Furthermore, GLOBE team argued that a rigorous measure of culture should separate the assessment of peoples' values and practices, and they should not be assumed that they are automatically aligned, which Hofstede did not pay attention to (see for more details; Javidan et al., 2006).

Nevertheless, Hofstede supported his original findings when he replicated his original work by conducting studies outside IBM, and found similar results. Moreover, results from all other research attempts including GLOBE have reflected the original work of Hofstede to a certain degree (Hofstede, 2011). Therefore, his study is probably the most popular work of cultural differences studies to the extent that it has become the standard to validate subsequent research in this area (Minkov & Hofstede, 2011; Triandis, 2004).

Two important notes should be made clear at this point. First, describing the dominant culture of a society does not imply that all individuals in that society have the same tendencies, rather considerable differences could exist at the individual level. The second note is that variations exist not only between opposite cultures (as explained in the SA and UK profiles), but also within societies described as collectivist, for example.

Triandis argued that “there are as many varieties of collectivism as there are collectivist cultures” (2001, p. 909). According to Triandis, Korean collectivism is different from the collectivism of Israel. He explained that the existence of this wide variety is because “in addition to the vertical-horizontal dimension, there are many other dimensions defining different varieties of individualism and collectivism” (2001, p. 910). Based on this, it can be argued that Saudi Arabia has a distinctive collectivism because it is driven by values inherited from tribalism and Islamic traditions (Ali, 2009). Such driving values are rarely found anywhere else in the world.

Overall, the above literature shows that culture varies at the national level. Despite the differences between research attempts, all studies investigating culture (e.g.; Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004) have arguably formulated dimensions that could measure the common values that guide individuals' expectations, behaviour and goals in any society. These dimensions represent basic problems that all societies have to deal with (Minkov & Hofstede, 2011). Understanding culture is crucial for leaders as Hofstede asserted that "whatever a naïve literature on leadership may give us to understand, leaders cannot choose their styles at will; what is feasible depends to a large extent on the cultural conditioning of a leader's subordinates" (1980, p. 57). Culture in the sense that it represents the shared values and standard procedures in a certain context, is particularly important in studying leadership perceptions since “perception and cognition depend on the information that is sampled from the environment” (Triandis, 2001, p. 908). These assertions indicate that culture is an important determinant of the leadership process, and thus should not be neglected in studies concerned with leadership. Therefore, the current study takes culture into consideration when studying leadership concepts (i.e. LMX and NfL).

The adopted approach in studying culture in this research

The next lines will highlight the approach adopted in studying culture in the current research in terms of which cultural dimensions have been included, and the level of analysis.

The researcher will focus on particularity two dimensions, that is, collectivism, and power distance. There are two reasons for this selection. First, these two cultural dimensions are often included in LMX research (Anand, Hu, Liden, & Vidyarthi, 2011), and they were found to be the strongest predictors for some organisational outcomes at the societal level (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). Triandis (1988, p. 60) noted that collectivism is 'perhaps the most important dimension of cultural differences in social behaviour.' Secondly, the study context, Saudi Arabia, scored substantially higher on these two dimensions compared to the other dimensions (www.geert-hofstede.com, 2016). Thus, collectivism and power distance dimensions are expected to be stronger determinants for organisational outcomes, and therefore relevant for the study context and purpose.

However, this study adopts a novel approach when examining the effects of collectivism and power distance. That is, it did not examine the effects of each dimension separately. Rather, it used configurations based on the interaction of collectivism and power distance dimensions. Triandis and colleagues (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998; Triandis, 1995) found that societies high in collectivism are likely to be higher in power distance, and those lower in collectivism are likely to be lower in power distance. Since these two dimensions co-occur in any society and tend to interact with each other, Triandis and colleagues proposed four configurations which describe culture in terms of collectivism and power distance. These configurations are; vertical collectivism, horizontal collectivism, vertical individualism, and horizontal individualism.

It is important however, to note that researchers should be careful when including culture in their studies because culture could also vary on other levels such as the individual level. That is, individuals can have cultural orientations that are relatively different from the prevalent societal culture. Triandis warned that "when studying the relationship of culture and psychology, it is imperative to keep the level of analysis distinct, because the results obtained when the number of cultures is the unit of analysis (*K* cultures) are often different from results obtained when the number of participants (*N*= participants in one culture) are the units of analysis" (2001, p. 910).

Based on the above, the current study will specifically examine the effect of culture at the individual level (i.e. cultural orientations) on perceived need for leadership and LMX. Since leadership perceptions are contingent upon culture, it is likely that individuals will rely on their cultural orientations to guide their perceptions of need for leadership and LMX. The justifications for choosing this level will be outlined after I introduce the concept of cultural orientations and how it differs from the societal culture.

2.4.2. The individual's cultural orientation

The above reviewed research studied culture on the national level. Although research has shown the correspondence between society's culture and personality, they are not assumed to be identical (Hofstede, 2006; Triandis, 2001). Hofstede (1980) analysed the IBM data at the individual level and found significantly different patterns when compared to the national level, and thus warned that ignoring the level of analysis could result in meaningless or false interpretations (Hofstede, 2011).

Triandis (1995) proposed that culture at the individual level can be differentiated based on the interaction between the two collectivism and power distance dimensions (see also,Triandis & Singelis, 1998). Triandis and Gelfand (1998) conducted empirical research to test the interaction of collectivism and power distance on a sample of 326

students from South Korea. The factor analysis has found that the second dimension (i.e. power distance) interacts with the first one (i.e. collectivism-individualism), and consequently generates different types of both collectivism and individualism. As a result, they split the collectivism-individualism dimension into horizontal and vertical individualism, and horizontal and vertical collectivism. The difference between these four orientations is presented in table 2-3.

Table 2–3: The difference between cultural orientations

Type of cultural orientation	Description
Vertical Individualism (VI)	Individuals with this orientation want to do things in a personal way with the focus on being the best.
Horizontal Individualism (HI)	People with this orientation are mainly concerned with being unique and doing things as they personally desire.
Horizontal Collectivism (HC)	Individuals with this orientation focus on identifying themselves with in-group members.
Vertical Collectivism (VC)	People with this orientation are willing to sacrifice themselves for the in-group, and submit to the authorities of the in-group.

To validate these four constructs, Triandis and Gelfand (1998) conducted a study on 127 undergraduate students in Illinois, and the analysis showed that in general the constructs had acceptable convergent and divergent validity. However, they reported that the differentiation between vertical and horizontal collectivism (VC, HC) did not show a good divergence suggesting an overlap between the two aspects. Because of that, Triandis and Gelfand argued that it may be expected to see similar results when VC and HC constructs are correlated with other variables. This could be reflected in the current study

as the Saudi context shows vertical collectivism as the dominant culture (Rockstul et al., 2012).

The differences between culture at the individual and societal level

To explain the difference between culture at the national and individual level, it is important to understand that the former differentiate between societies, rather than differentiating the individuals' cultural orientations within one society. In general, it is possible that some individuals may show cultural orientations different from their societal culture. For example, individualistic people may exist in a collectivistic society and the other way around. According to Triandis' argument, "it should not be assumed that everybody in individualist culture has all the characteristic of these cultures, and that everyone in collectivist culture has the characteristics of those cultures. Rather, people sample from both individualist and collectivist cognitive structure, depending on the situation" (2001, p. 909). However, it is normally expected to find more collectivists than individualists in collectivistic cultures, and more individualists than collectivists in the individualistic cultures (Triandis, 2001).

Triandis (2001) suggested to explain the difference between cultural levels, that societal culture can be thought of in terms of values, norms and customs, while the individual culture can be thought of in terms of habits and patterns of individual behaviour. Therefore, he explained collectivism/individualism at the individual level by highlighting the difference between collectivistic and individualistic individuals in terms of their patterns of behaviour and attitudes. For example, collectivists normally are interdependent within their in-groups, adjust their behaviour according to external factors such as norms and roles, and give priority to collective goals. In comparison, individualists are more independent, behave according to their internal attitude and personal judgment, and consider their personal goals as more important than the

collective goals. That is, individualists view the self as stable and the environment as changeable. Moreover, in conflict situations, collectivists are more concerned with maintaining the relationship with others, whereas individualists are more focused on achieving justice (Triandis, 2001). An important implication is that the behaviour of a collectivistic person is more determined by situational cues than in the case with an individualistic person. That means the collectivists may show less consistency between cognitive and psychological processes, and behaviour than individualists do.

Triandis used another way to explain the difference of the cultural levels. He argues that collectivism and individualism are assumed to be opposites at the national level; however, they should not be considered as such at the individual level. Collectivism and individualism rather become types of personal orientation which makes it possible for individuals, depending on the situation, to be individualistic, collectivistic or even both, regardless of what the national culture might be (Yamada & Singelis, 1999). This means that an individual could show different orientations in different contexts. For example, one can be individualistic in the work context, however collectivistic in contexts involving family and friends. This flexibility of culture at the individual level implies that although an individual may personally adopt a main orientation, it is possible that he or she shows different orientations if the contextual cues dictate so.

It is important to note however, that this flexible variation between orientations may not be always feasible. This is because it is partly dependent on the tightness level of the national culture where individuals have very limited chance to deviate from the collective norms and values (Gelfand et al., 2011). Research found that cultural tightness is highly correlated with collectivistic societies. Given that Saudi Arabia is a very collectivistic culture (Hofstede, 1980), culture tightness is expected to prevail in this context. Although culture tightness is not particularly measured in this study, it could provide a possible explanation if the individual's cultural orientations, especially

orientations that are different from the dominant national culture, did not account for the expected variance in the current study. Triandis (2001) pointed that empirical evidence shows that when the effect of situational and personal characteristics were examined together, the situational component (i.e. societal cultural) accounted for more variance than the personality component (i.e. cultural orientation). He concluded that the maximum variance is expected when the cultures at the individual and societal levels are both aligned. This does not mean however, that a cultural orientation (i.e. personality) becomes irrelevant if it is not aligned with the national culture (i.e. situation).

Reasons for adopting the cultural orientations in the current study

The current research will measure culture at the individual level for two reasons. First, it seeks to capture the potential variations of individuals' culture within the same society, rather than neglecting that everyone is unique by simply assuming that all individuals have cultural tendencies similar to that of the national culture. This is important because given that culture is an important determinant of perception, ignoring individuals' cultural orientations when studying leadership perceptions means that a proportion of the effect could be overlooked by neglecting the variations of individuals' cultures. Therefore, considering culture at the individual level in this study is a step further in examining the effect of culture on leadership perceptions, and will extend the literature in this area. This also has a practical implication because it could provide insights for leaders to consider how their followers' perceptions in organisations can be shaped by their cultural orientations, and therefore should put them into consideration when they interact with culturally diverse followers.

Second, the study considers individuals as units of analysis, and thus will assess ILT, NfL and LMX quality at the individual level. To ensure the accuracy and consistency of results, culture should also be examined at the same level. As mentioned earlier, Triandis (2001) stressed on the importance of maintaining a consistent level of analysis

when culture is examined with other constructs, as evidence showed that different cultural levels revealed different results.

The next section will review the studies concerned with linking culture with LMX and NfL, identify the gaps in this literature, and accordingly formulate the hypothesised effects of cultural orientations on LMX and NfL.

2.4.3. Culture, LMX, and need for leadership

It has been argued in the literature that leadership as a social-perception phenomenon is sensitive to culture (Lord & Maher, 1993). That is, perceptual constructs related to leadership will be affected by cultural contexts, and therefore they are likely to show different results because of these cultural variations. Since this research is partly concerned with followers' perception of LMX and NfL, and these constructs are assumed to be sensitive to culture. The researcher incorporates culture as an important element in studying LMX and NfL as perceived by followers.

It is notable that research in the leadership literature has generally given attention to examining the influence of societal culture and how leadership constructs behave in different societies, however variations within a society in terms of individual cultural orientations, should not be neglected. Societal culture is important to be considered particularly in leadership studies that aim to compare different societies. However, studies conducted in a certain society, focusing on the individual level of analysis, should not assume that all individuals within this society will show cultural tendencies similar to the societal culture. Therefore, such studies should consider that cultural differences in terms of individuals' cultural orientations could exist within one context, and may also have influence on perceptions of the studied leadership constructs.

Since this research measures the perception of followers (i.e. as individuals) within a society (i.e. Saudi context), it acknowledges that those followers may show

different cultural orientations which may influence their perceptions. Specifically, this study will examine how cultural orientations (i.e. culture at the individual level) may affect the perceived levels of LMX-dimensions and NfL. Moving beyond the societal culture could add to the relevant literature by providing a deeper understanding of how these constructs may be sensitive to culture at the individual level (as a follower characteristic). Moreover, focusing on cultural orientations is consistent with the strategy followed in this study which focuses on the followers-perspective, and the individual level of analysis.

The following sections will review the literature that links culture to NfL and LMX to highlight the importance of studying cultural orientations effect on NfL and LMX, as there is a dearth of research in this area. Following that, the researcher will argue for the hypothesised effect of cultural orientations on NfL and LMX.

Culture and need for leadership:

It has been argued earlier that need for leadership is not considered as a core need, rather a quasi-need that develop due to the exposure to a certain context (De Vries, 1997). That is, contextual factors are important determinant of the perception related to need for leadership, and thus it is possible to find differences of perceived NfL because of individual (e.g. gender and personality) or situational variables (e.g., task and organisational characteristics; De Vries, 1997). De Vries (1997) argued that culture, as a contextual factor, could be an important determinant of NfL, as he stated that since "people in countries with a large power distance have strong dependence needs. They may be expected to have a stronger need for leadership" (1997, p. 224). Consequently, he raised the call that "future research on need for leadership in different cultures should be conducted" (1997, p. 224). Despite his call however, almost all studies examined need for leadership so far, have been conducted in Western contexts with individualistic

cultures (e.g., De Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 2002; De Vries & van Gelder, 2005; De Vries, 1997; Schyns, Kroon, & Moors, 2008). Therefore, there is a clear dearth in studies concerned with culture and need for leadership, and particularly in a context different from the Western countries. This study seeks to fill this gap by examining the influence of culture however in terms of cultural orientations (not the societal culture) on the perceived need for leadership.

The question is, in what way cultural orientations are expected to influence the perception of need for leadership? The influence can be hypothesised based on the values embedded in the collectivism and power distance dimensions on which Triandis and colleagues relied to propose the four cultural orientations (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998; Triandis, 1995). That is, these four orientations (i.e. VC, HC, VI, and HI) are differentiated based on the high/low levels of collectivism and power distance, as explained earlier. Generally, the collectivism-individualism dimension indicates the difference between the interdependent versus independent self, whereas power distance indicates the acceptance level of unequal status and respect for hierarchy.

Specifically, collectivism emphasises values such as sociability and interdependence (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). While individualism focuses on values such as self-reliance and emotional distance from the group. Since collectivism focuses on being interdependent and working closely with others, it is expected that collectivists will feel more dependency in the presence of a leader than individualists who normally distance themselves from others and prefer self-reliance. Therefore, in terms of the collectivism-individualism dimension, the collectivism is expected to be more related, than individualism, to higher need for leadership.

In terms of power distance, high power distance is associated with values such as respect for authority and acceptance of differentiated power. Individuals with high power distance orientation may find their leaders (as individuals with more power) important to get positive rewards and thus express a stronger reliance on leaders to achieve their personal gains. Therefore, high levels of power distance are expected to be more related to high need for leadership than low levels.

Taken together, it can be hypothesised that an orientation characterised by high collectivism and power distance will be related to the highest need for leadership when compared to other orientations. In contrast, an orientation low in both collectivism (i.e. high individualism) and power distance will be related to the lowest need for leadership when compared to other orientations. To express these hypothesised relationships using the Triandis and colleagues' terms, a vertical collectivism (VC) orientation will be comparatively associated with the highest need for leadership, while a horizontal individualism (HI) orientation will be comparatively associated with the lowest need for leadership. Therefore, the third set of hypotheses seeks to examine these proposed comparisons, and can be formulated as follows:

H3a: Followers with vertical collectivism orientations (VC) will express the highest perceived need for leadership, compared to those with other orientations.

H3b: Followers with horizontal individualism orientations (HI) will express the lowest perceived need for leadership, compared to those with other orientations.

Culture and LMX:

Research has shown that LMX, and its relationship with correlates, is sensitive to culture. Dulebohn and colleagues (2012) in a part of a meta analytic study, have investigated the relationship between the LMX and its antecedents. They have analysed some potential moderators of the antecedents-LMX relationship including: the type of

LMX-measurement used, the work settings (e.g., business, educational... etc.) and the cultural characteristics of participant location. They found that only culture moderated the magnitude of the antecedents-LMX relationship. Generally, high levels of power distance and collectivism weakened some relationships between antecedents and LMX. Specifically, the trust-LMX relationship was weaker when individualism was low, however a stronger relationship was found when power distance was low. Furthermore, the relationship between transformational leader behaviour and LMX was weaker when the individualism was low. These findings suggest that in collectivistic cultures, leader's behaviour may be less relevant in determining the quality of relationship between followers and leaders. The authors explained that "this is because collectivists focus more on the success of the group and thus are less likely than individualists to evaluate their LMX relationships based on individual-level rewards that they receive from their leaders" (Dulebohn et al., 2012, p. 1725). The culture influence found in this study have led the authors to suggest deeper investigations of the generalisability of LMX antecedents and consequences relationships in non-Western cultures especially those with high collectivism and power distance contexts. Consequently, they have called for more research in different cultures as LMX and its correlates may operate differently (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

In response to their call, Rockstuhl and colleagues (2012) conducted a meta-analysis to investigate the societal culture influence on LMX relationships. Specifically, they examined studies concerned with LMX and its correlates across 23 countries. Based on 282 independent samples from 23 countries, the results show that relationships of LMX with organisational citizenship behaviour, justice perceptions, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and leader trust are weaker in vertical-collectivistic (e.g. Asian) contexts than in horizontal-individualistic (e.g. Western) contexts. The authors explained that the LMX perceptions of individuals in VC contexts are likely influenced by collective

interests and role-based obligations because of the prevalent tendency to give respect to the group and authority. However, the effect of culture was found in only seven out of 11 LMX correlates, which has led the authors to conclude that the influence of culture on LMX relationships is very complex. More importantly, the authors found the results showing the influence of national culture encouraging, and explicitly recommended researchers in future LMX studies to go beyond the societal level and examine followers' cultural orientations "to see whether effects at the individual level are similar to what we found at the national level" (Rockstuhl et al., 2012, p. 8).

Although the above studies were mainly concerned with the effect of national culture on LMX relationships, they clearly show that culture in general is relevant and important element in studying LMX. In response to the Rockstuhl et al.'s (2012) call to study the effect of culture at the individual level, this research will examine the potential influence of followers' cultural orientations on their perception of LMX. I argue that including cultural orientations, as a follower characteristic, will enhance the literature by providing a more in-depth investigation of the underlying mechanism of the leader-follower exchange. Consequently, this could lead to more precise insights on how leaders could effectively build quality LMX with culturally diverse followers. Examining culture at the individual level is consistent with the strategy of this research which focuses on the followers-perspective and the individual level of analysis.

Particularly, this study will examine how cultural orientations will predict the perceived LMX dimensions. It was mentioned earlier that Liden and Maslyn (1998) identified four dimensions which represent "currencies" of exchange between leaders and followers. The four dimensions are; affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. Dienesch and Liden (1986) proposed that the exchange could be based on some or all LMX dimensions. They further argued that followers may perceive the value or importance of each dimension differently. Understanding how the dimensions' perceived

importance varies across individuals has an important implication on predicting some LMX outcomes. To illustrate, Liden and Maslyn (1998) argued that, for instance, organisational commitment (as an LMX outcome) is associated with the larger organisation more than the supervisor, and therefore could be more predicted by the contribution dimension than affect or loyalty since these are more associated with the supervisor.

Drawing on the above discussion, I argue that followers' cultural orientations, as a follower characteristic, is a potential determinant of the perceived importance of LMX dimensions. The hypothesised effect of cultural orientations is based on the values associated with the collectivism and individualism, and how these values correspond to the dimensions' characteristics.

The items of loyalty and affect dimensions emphasise the relational aspect or personal connection with supervisors, and thus can be characterised as relational-based dimensions. On the other hand, the items of professional respect and contribution emphasise the task-related competence and support, and therefore can be characterised as task-based dimensions. Given that collectivism stresses on values related to sociability and connectivity with others, it is expected that collectivistic orientations will be more related to relational-based than task-related orientations. Individualism on the other hand, is associated with competitiveness and personal goals' attainment (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998), and therefore individualistic orientations are expected to be more related to task-based dimensions.

Based on the above argument, the fourth set of hypotheses, using cultural orientations, can be formulated as follows:

H4a: Vertical and horizontal collectivism orientations (VC, HC) will show higher positive correlations with affect and loyalty dimensions of LMX (relational-based dimensions) than vertical and horizontal individualism orientations (VI, HI).

H4b: Vertical and horizontal individualism orientations (VI, HI) will show higher positive correlations with contribution and respect dimensions of LMX (task-related dimensions) than vertical and horizontal collectivism orientations (VC, HC).

To summarise, the reviewed need for leadership literature showed that there is a dearth of research examining the cultural variations' effect on need for leadership since almost all the studies so far have been conducted in individualistic Western contexts. To fill this gap in literature, the researcher formulated hypotheses to examine the variations of followers' cultural orientations on the perception of NfL. In respect to LMX, the literature shows that cultural variations affect LMX relationships with antecedents and outcomes. However, these studies are concerned with societal cultures, and thus calls to examine culture at the individual level in future LMX studies have been raised (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). To fill this gap, the researcher formulated hypotheses to examine the potential effect of followers' cultural orientations on the perceived LMX dimensions.

After the literature of the study constructs have been reviewed, the next section will summarise and present the study hypotheses.

2.5. Research hypotheses

Following the perception approach of studying leadership, the aim of the research is to examine the potential moderating role of followers' need for leadership on the relationship between followers' perceived similarity of ILTs and LMX, in the Saudi business context. The research also aims to examine how individual cultural orientations

influence the perception of need for leadership and the LMX dimensions. Therefore, four hypotheses will be examined to achieve the research goals, as summarised below.

The first hypothesis assumes a potential effect of ILT-similarity (i.e. implicit-implicit similarity) on the followers' perceived LMX.

H1: Followers' perceived similarity of their and their leaders' ILTs is positively correlated with LMX.

The second hypothesis assumes that followers' need for leadership plays a moderating role in the relationship between perceived ILTs similarity and LMX.

H2: Need for leadership will negatively moderate the relationship between followers' perceived ILT-similarity and leader-member exchange (LMX).

The third set of hypotheses seeks to examine the role of follower's cultural orientations in predicting need for leadership.

H3a: Followers with vertical collectivism orientations (VC) will express the highest perceived need for leadership, compared to those with other orientations.

H3b: Followers with horizontal individualism orientations (HI) will express the lowest perceived need for leadership, compared to those with other orientations.

Finally, the fourth set of hypotheses, seeks to examine the role of follower's cultural orientations in predicting LMX dimensions.

H4a: Vertical and horizontal collectivism orientations (VC, HC) will show higher positive correlations with affect and loyalty dimensions of LMX (relational-based dimensions) than vertical and horizontal individualism orientations (VI, HI).

H4b: Vertical and horizontal individualism orientations (VI, HI) will show higher positive correlations with contribution and respect dimensions of LMX (task-related dimensions) than vertical and horizontal collectivism orientations (VC, HC).

2.6. Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature of the concepts studied in the thesis, and the hypotheses were formulated based on the identified research gaps. It explains that people make sense of a social process such as leadership based on internal cognitive representations they hold, known as ILT. A central notion of implicit leadership theories is that followers form perceptions of their managers, for example, as a result of the comparing process of how those managers fit with their ILTs. One of the important perceptions that is predicted by the ILT fit is the quality of exchange between leaders and followers (LMX) (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). However, the nature of the LMX relationships with antecedents is likely complex and could be better explained by moderating/ mediating variables.

Three gaps have been identified in the research area linking ILT-similarity and LMX, as perceived by followers. The first is that previous studies focused on leaders fit in terms of traits/behaviours to the followers ILT, however little is known about how ILT similarity will predict LMX if it is conceptualised as the extent to which followers believe that they share similar ILT with their leaders. This possibility is deemed important based on the evidence found, from the social cognitive research, of the effect of similarity on attraction in relationship contexts (D. E. Byrne, 1971; Montoya et al., 2008). The second gap is that more moderators need to be examined to better understand the ILT-LMX relationship. This research suggests that follower's self-perception of need for leadership may affect the magnitude in that relationship. This is because NfL seems to be relevant

for what happens in the interaction between leaders and followers (De Vries et al., 2002) and its inclusion on the other hand, as a follower characteristic, is in line with the scope of this research which focuses on the follower side of leadership. The third gap is that culture is an important determinant of leadership perceptions, yet there is a dearth of studies examining perceptual concepts in a context different from the Western individualistic culture. Therefore, given the sensitivity of perceptions to culture and the different context of the current research, the researcher included cultural orientations as a potential determinant of LMX and NfL. Finally, the researcher proposed four hypotheses, based on the reviewed literature and the identified gaps, for further empirical investigations.

Chapter 3: Research Context

As this research has been conducted in the oil and petrochemical industry in Saudi Arabia, this chapter will shed some light on the Saudi private sector, and explain the background of oil and petrochemical industry in Saudi Arabia with a brief description of the two most representative companies of this industry; Saudi Aramco from the oil sector and SABIC from the petrochemical sector. I will then outline the industry's impact on the economic, political and social developments in the country.

3.1. The private sector context

The private and public sectors in Saudi Arabia has two distinct work cultures. The public sector management practice is described as slow, less efficient and more traditional. In comparison, the private sector is characterised as more competent, efficient and bureaucratic (Al-Aiban & Pearce, 1993). The Saudis constitute 93% of the total employees in the public sector while only 13.4% of the Saudis work in the private sector (SAMA, 2013). The preference of the public sector jobs among Saudis is driven by status, job security and the relatively high salaries. The private sector however is dominated by the foreign workers who mainly come from other Arab and Muslim countries including many Asian countries. Fewer than 100,000 Westerners work and live in Saudi Arabia (Elamin & Alomaim, 2011).

Employers in the private sector partly prefer the employment of foreigners due to their very low wages. In 2000, the average salary of foreigners relative to Saudi nationals was 33 percent (Mellahi, 2007). In addition, the private sector managers believe that foreigners are easier to control than national workers. This is because the Saudi labour law dictates that foreigners who intend to work in Saudi Arabia must hold work permits for a specific job with a specific employer, and changing their jobs by moving to other

companies is not allowed for them without the permission of their sponsoring employer. This means that the labour turnover among expatriates does not exist (Mellahi, 2007).

In recent years however, the government has launched Saudisation programs to reduce the over-reliance on expatriates and promote the contribution of the national workforce in the private sector. One program is "Nitaqat" which provides incentives and employment channels for the private sector to hire Saudi professionals. Another program is "Hafiz" which supports Saudi job seekers (SAMA, 2013). The results of these initiatives showed that in 2012, the number of Saudi male workers in the private sector increased by 23.3 % over the preceding year, and that of Saudi female significantly increased by 117% over the preceding year (SAMA, 2013). The government seems to be committed to support these programs for many years to come, as they are parts of a strategy to reduce the unemployment rate among Saudis. The number of unemployed Saudis accounted for 12.1% of the total Saudi labour force, based on 2012 statistics (SAMA, 2013). Specifically, the unemployment rate of Saudi male was 6.1% of the total Saudi male labour force, while the ratio of unemployed Saudi female stood at 35.7% of the total Saudi female labour force (SAMA, 2013).

Although these programs are designed to increase the national recruitment in the private sector in terms of quantity, the organisations have not witnessed an improvement in terms of organisational effectiveness blaming the poor quality of those hires (Al-Dosary & Rahman, 2005). While this is probably true, an alternative explanation may be linked to ILTs. That is, replacing foreigners, after a long period of heavy reliance, with Saudi employees probably indicate a shift in ILTs, however the current leadership practices may not be aligned with such expectations to facilitate an effective leadership process. Although this is beyond the scope of this research, part of this study will examine the Saudi ILTs and that may provide useful insights for future investigation into its role in organisational effectiveness.

Moving from the private sector context to the specific context of the oil and petrochemical industry, the next section will briefly describe the history of oil discovery and its economic, political and social implications on Saudi Arabia.

3.2. An overview of the oil and petrochemical industry in Saudi Arabia

Prior to the discovery of oil, the Saudi economy depended on commercial exports, agriculture and tourism. Tourists were mainly pilgrims who came to Mecca and Madina to perform Hajj (Zuhur, 2011). However, in 1932 the Kingdom faced a critical financial crisis caused indirectly by the worldwide depression, which had caused a decrease in pilgrimage revenues (Safran 1985, 60; cited by (Zuhur, 2011). In the same year, the American company, Standard Oil of California (SOCAL), had fortunately noted geological signs of oil and thus offered the Kingdom a free geological survey. In 1933, the company and the Saudi government began negotiating an agreement granting rights to explore and develop oil resources in return for rents and a loan. The oil company discovered oil later in 1938 after four years of unsuccessful trials. The oil revenues were negatively impacted when the Second World War began, however by the end of the war, oil revenues again accrued, reaching $10 million in 1946, $53 million in 1948, and $212 million in 1952. In 1944, the company name became the Arabian American Oil Company, known as Aramco which, in 1948, was owned by Standard Oil of New Jersey, Socony Vacuum, SOCAL, and the Texas Oil Company (Zuhur, 2011).

Aramco ran the company; however, it began to share the profits with the Saudi Arabian government. In 1973, the Saudi government acquired a 25 percent share of Aramco, then a 60 percent by 1974, and finally acquired full control of Aramco by 1980. In November 1988, the company changed its name from Arabian American Oil Company to Saudi Arabian Oil Company, also known as Saudi Aramco (Maisel & Shoup, 2009). Currently, Saudi Aramco operates nearly 20,000 kilometres (12,500 miles) of pipelines

to carry oil, gas, gas condensates or refined products (Clark, Tahlawi, Facey, Pledge, & Saudi Aramco, 2006).

In the petrochemical sector, Saudi Basic Industry Corporation (SABIC), the largest company in the Arab world, was established in 1976 with the aim to invest some of the oil revenues in order to diversify the Saudi economy. The competitive advantage was to rely on the cheap energy provided by the government to feed SABIC plants. The corporation was established through creating joint ventures with global companies in this field such as Exxon mobile, to benefit from their technical expertise and facilitate the output global marketing. However, as the company matured, it started in the 1990s to handle its global marketing itself by establishing its offices in Singapore, New Delhi, France and the UK. The corporation's annual report informs that its net assets worth $90.7 billion, with sales of $50.2 billion annually and a net income of $6.2 billion (SABIC Report, 2014). The Saudi government owns 70 percent of SABIC, and 30 percent is owned by public investors. SABIC has a total of 37 manufacturing affiliates operating across the Middle East, Asia, Europe and the Americas (SABIC Report, 2014). The company is the seventh largest petrochemical producer in the world. There are also other operating petrochemical companies that are privately owned by investors such as Sipchem and TASNEE companies.

Overall, since the vast oil reserves have been discovered, Saudi Arabia has become an oil-based economy with its revenues being the main source for the government budget. The huge assets owned by Saudi Aramco and SABIC companies illustrate that the Saudi government sees the potential to grow this industry further as its economic productivity is largely based on the sale of oil and its related products. In fact, some resources have estimated that, in the near future, expansion projects in the oil and petrochemical industry would offer around 500 thousands new job opportunities for Saudi nationals (www.argaam.com, 2014).

Although these Saudi oil investments has made it the largest and strongest economy in the Middle East region, it should be noted that the over-reliance on oil has also contributed to its economic fragility whenever turbulences occur in the global oil markets. This means that leading effectively in this crucial industry is a continuous concern and therefore more research into leadership and what makes it effective is important for this context. Moreover, this research is particularly needed in this industry because its exposure to the Western culture through long partnerships and joint ventures with American companies could have implications on the leadership perceptions and practices inside organisations. For example, these companies utilise Western-based leadership training programs to develop their Saudi leaders, however these programs which are driven by the American values may result in a misfit between leaders' behaviour and the local ILTs. This assumption should carefully be investigated though. The next section will explain some of the implications of the oil discovery on the economic, social, and political aspects of Saudi Arabia.

3.3. The implications of oil discovery on Saudi Arabia

The oil discovery has substantial impacts on the Kingdom and global economy. At present, the kingdom possesses 25 percent of the world's oil reserves. It has 265.79 billion barrels of crude oil reserves, and 293,685 billion cubic feet of natural gas reserves (SAMA, 2014). In 2013, its exports of crude oil reached 2,763.31 million barrels (SAMA, 2014). Based on 2012 records, the daily average for Saudi oil production is 9.8 million barrels, the oil revenues is about 1,144.8 billion Riyals, and the oil GDP rose by 5.5% in 2012 (SAMA, 2013). The oil revenues accounts for around 90% of the government budget revenues, and 47% of the gross domestic product (GDP) (SAMA, 2014). These figures show how oil has put the country in a strong economic position as Saudi Arabia has become the world's largest exporter of petroleum.

Socially, the citizens have engaged in the modern style of living because, in the mid-1970s, the oil prices rose sharply which enabled Saudi Arabia to heavily invest in developing infrastructures. Developmental projects included the construction of massive roads, networks, bridges, dams, airports, seaports, and desalination plants.

The government has also invested in modernisation by building modern electricity and communication infrastructures. Health and educational projects included building specialised hospitals, schools, colleges, universities and a massive scholarship programs. The Human Development Index (HDI) which ranks the world countries according to the average achievements in three aspects of human development (health, knowledge, and income) has positioned Saudi Arabia at 57 out of 187 countries (HDR, 2013). This relatively high position in the HDI ranking indicates how the huge revenues generated by the oil sales enabled social developments to take place in a very fast way. It should be noted that the sudden exploration of oil made the process of the social engagement in modern life style very quick. This means that the young generation, which constitutes the majority of the current Saudi population, has been raised and living in a very different conditions comparing to the previous generations.

Politically, the oil has a substantial impact on the political position of Saudi Arabia. The country has become the largest economy in the Middle East and one of the G-20 major economies in the world. Saudi Arabia is a founding member of Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and thus a key player in the global economy. In December 2005, Saudi Arabia joined the World Trade Organisation (WTO) to more engage itself in the global trade (Zuhur, 2011).

Although the authorities have recognised the need for economic diversification and thus encouraged other non-oil industries, the huge reserves of oil and its efficiency

compared to other industries suggest that the Saudi economy will remain heavily dependent on oil, at least in the foreseeable future.

Drawing on the above discussion, it is imperative to mention two things that signal to potential shift in people's perceptions. First, on the societal level, the non-gradual development and accelerated modernisation has set the life style of the new generation apart from the previous generations. This new living condition will probably affect the way people perceive things in the broader life and inside organisations. Observations tell that leadership positions are often occupied by old people with long tenures as leadership positions are often associated with status and seniority (Ali, 2009). It is plausible then to assume that the new generation who lived in different life conditions may have different ideas about leadership than their leaders.

Secondly, on the organisational level, the context of Saudi oil and petrochemical industry has a high exposure to the Western culture. As explained earlier that Saudi Aramco, the leading oil company, was originally established and managed by US companies for decades before it came under the sole ownership of the Saudi government. Similarly, Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC), the leading corporation in the Saudi petrochemical sector, was developed based on creating joint ventures with Western and Japanese partners including ExxonMobil, Shell, and the Mitsubishi Corporation. This exposure has been reflected in practice. For example, English is the formal language used in these organisations, and leadership training programs provided to employees are western-based. It is interesting to understand how the coexistence of the Western values and the opposing tribalism values inside these organisations will affect peoples' perception of leadership. The potential counteract of these two value systems on shaping perceptions encourage researchers to investigate this context further.

3.4. Summary

This chapter briefly described the contexts of Saudi Arabia, the private sector, and the oil and petrochemical industry where this research has been conducted. The review in this chapter has pointed to three important reasons that make the study of ILT and LMX concepts relevant and vital in such a context.

First, because of the sudden exploration of oil in 1938, the Saudi people have embraced a modern lifestyle very quickly. This means that the young generation which constitutes the majority of the current population have been raised and are living in a very different conditions compared to the previous generations. This difference may be reflected in their expectations towards leaders. Secondly, the private sector recently has been replacing foreigner employees, after a long period of heavy reliance, with Saudi employees in compliance with the government Saudisation laws. This quick transition may indicate a shift in ILTs, however the prevalent leadership practices may not be aligned with such new expectations. Therefore, exploring Saudi expectations of leaders could be timely and informative for better leadership in this sector. Finally, the history of the oil and petrochemical industry shows a high exposure to the Western culture and values through the joint ventures with western companies. This exposure is manifested in some organisational practices, however the opposing tribalism values also prevail inside organisations. It is interesting to investigate how perceptions are shaped given this dual existence of two different value systems.

Taken together and considering how central the oil and petrochemical industry is to Saudi Arabia, while at the same time there is a lack of leadership studies in this context, I will focus on this important industry as my research context since the findings may result in beneficial recommendations for theory and practice.

Chapter 4: Research Design and Method

Having reviewed the literature related to implicit leadership theories, leader-member exchange, need for leadership, and cultural orientations, four main hypotheses were developed to address the research objectives. This chapter presents the research design and method approaches employed to empirically test the research hypotheses. First, I will outline the philosophical debate underlying the choice of methodology and research design. Second, I will explain issues related to the data collection including measures, ethics, sampling, and translation. Finally, I will provide a brief discussion of the data analysis techniques utilised in the main study as well as the two pre-studies.

4.1. Research paradigm positioning

In principle, there are multiple research paradigms that social scientists have followed in conducting social studies. A paradigm is "an integrated set of assumptions, beliefs, models of doing good research, and techniques for gathering and analysing data" (Neuman, 2007, p. 41). However, there are two dominant main schools of thought: positivism and interpretivism. The differences between positivism and interpretivism can be briefly explained as follows:

- Positivism approach

Positivism, which is the most practiced approach in social science, assumes that social science research is fundamentally similar to the natural science research (Neuman, 2007). That is, a social reality consists of objective facts that can be precisely measured using statistics to test causal theories. Positivism supports facts, numbers and strict rules, and therefore the vast majority of its studies are quantitative. Social scientists adopting this philosophy can produce knowledge through hypothesising relationships between particular variables, then using objective methods to test whether or not these hypotheses

are true (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson, & Lowe, 2008). Normally, quantitative techniques such as experiments and surveys are used with this research approach.

- Interpretive approach

Unlike the positivist approach, interpretive scientists consider social reality as perceptions of participants rather than objective or factual reality. They favour qualitative methods as they focus more on situational aspects and complexity of context (see Robson, 2002). In qualitative research, the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis as he or she focuses on providing highly detailed insights and descriptions of the studied context.

Furthermore, two research logics can be followed in the process of developing accepted explanations for social phenomena (Neuman, 2007): testing of a theory (i.e., deductive logic), and building of a theory (i.e., inductive logic). Researchers using a deductive logic start with a proposed theory and then move towards empirical evidence by testing the collected data to draw conclusions that may confirm, modify or reject the proposed theory. In contrast, researchers adopting inductive logic start with broad concepts gathering detailed observations, and over time concepts emerge into more abstract theory (Neuman, 2007). Researchers can typically follow either of these two types of logic as guided by their research purpose and questions (Neuman, 2007).

4.2. Rationale of the research methodology

Although all the approaches described above coexist in the social science literature (Neuman, 2007), it is imperative for a researcher to understand the strengths and weaknesses of each approach, and then appropriately select the one that suites the nature of the studied problem. A quantitative approach is appropriate if the goal of a study is to seek answers to a specific research problem, address specific research questions, and test hypotheses statistically (Creswell, 2013). Whereas qualitative methods are favoured

if the research seeks to answer questions about complex phenomena, or explore in-depth the life experiences of the participants.

Given that the nature of this research is mainly explanatory, in so far that it aims to examine specific hypotheses about the effect of a new moderator (i.e. the need for leadership) on the relationship between the perceived similarity of implicit leadership theories and follower-rated LMX, I decided to follow the positivist deductive-quantitative approach. First, this approach allows to build on the existing literature and to precisely examine the correlation between various variables as proposed in the research model. Second, it enables the researcher to utilise instruments existing in literature, which would be useful in directing data collection and analysis. Finally, since my research is conducted in a different culture, adopting this approach will allow for comparability with similar previous studies in the literature that had often utilised the same approach. However, it is important to note that a qualitative approach was also used however only in the first pre-study because of its exploratory nature, where no hypothesis was specified and tested. Specifically, it explored the followers' ILTs of leaders in general in the context of Saudi oil and petrochemical industry.

4.3. Data collection

Methods of collecting data vary according to the adopted research approach; namely, they can be quantitative or qualitative (Thietart, 2001). The current (pre- and main) studies used on-line distributed questionnaires using a survey distribution software (i.e. Qualtrics). A questionnaire is "a set of carefully designed questions given in exactly the same form to a group of people in order to collect data about some topic(s) in which the researcher is interested" (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p. 252). Questionnaires have been utilised as a method of collecting data because it fits the adopted positivism-deductive approach in this research. It is also suitable for the aim of the current study as it allows

for collecting a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economic way (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006; M. N. K. Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Other advantages of questionnaires include: money saving, time saving, reduction in biasing error, greater anonymity and considered answers and consultations (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Cooper, Schindler, & Sun, 2003; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007; M. N. K. Saunders et al., 2009). However, researchers should also consider drawbacks associated with questionnaires such as, questions have to be simple and clear, and the limited control over the response rate (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007). It should be noted that the first pre-study which utilised a qualitative approach as no specific hypotheses were tested, on-line questionnaires were distributed on participants to list six characteristic traits of Saudi leaders.

4.4. Translation

A decision had to be made regarding whether or not to translate the questionnaire into Arabic or whether to administer it to the participants in English. The participants for the present study work in environments where employees normally use English in the formal business communication, which suggests that they have at least a certain level of English. However, since part of this research was concerned with describing perceptions of leaders, using Arabic as a primary language could offer them a better access to vocabulary which is necessary when describing deep inner thoughts. Therefore, the researcher decided to administer the questionnaires in Arabic to avoid the potential risk of language barriers.

The translation has to go through a careful process because a slight mistake in the translation can have serious effects on the results. Prior to the translation, the researcher prepared the English version of the questionnaire and received the supervisors' approval of its content and structure. The researcher translated with careful consideration of all possible equivalents for the key words. The aim was to find the most suitable words that

would have a similar effect on the reader as that intended by the instruments' developers. Specifically, the researcher checked the appropriateness of the words' connotations. As a result, in the Arabic questionnaire, the word "leader" appeared in the questions about ILT was replaced by "manager" followed by an illustrative statement: (a "manager" here is a person whose role involves leadership and decision making activities). This is because the equivalent Arabic translation of the word "leader" has a positive connotation and using that, as a result, may not be conductive to achieving the aim of the study (Scandura, Von Glinow, & Lowe, 1999). To illustrate, the Arabic word of leadership is *alkiyada* and it refers to officers in the military. Historically, a leader in the Arab world is typically associated with a great hero who leads warriors to fight into battle. Also, this positive connotation of the word "leader" is currently enhanced by the wide spread of the translated American commercial leadership books which normally promote the heroic view of leaders. Since using the word "leader" could provoke a positively biased view of leaders, it was decided to avoid using the direct translation of the word "leader" as this may not serve the purpose of this study which looks at positive as well as negative attributes of leaders. Additionally, the term "manager" is relevant to the participants' context as it is commonly used in these companies to describe an individual occupying a supervisory position.

After the researcher completed the translation, it was then double-checked by two independent bilingual individuals to ensure equivalence. Both of them are fluent in Arabic and English and lived abroad for more than a year in an English-speaking Western country. Following this, the researcher used the back-translation technique to identify any potential ambiguity in the translated questionnaires (Brislin, 1986). This technique involves the independent translation of the translated version back into English, and making any necessary adjustments that result from the comparison between the back-translation and the original translation. Therefore, an independent linguist who had no

knowledge of the original source content conducted a back translation. The back-translation was later reviewed by the researcher's academic colleague who is fluent in both in English and Arabic. As a result, some changes were made to produce the final version of the questionnaires.

The Arabic questionnaire then was given for a final review to a group of Arab colleagues to ensure that it is clear and understandable.

4.5. Ethics

Social research entails some ethical issues because the research involves collecting data about people and from people (Punch, 2005). Ethics refers to "the appropriateness of your behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of your work, or are affected by it" (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2003, p. 129). Prior to conducting the research, the researcher obtained the Durham University Business School's approval (see appendix 12). Furthermore, the researcher developed the proposal questionnaire and sought supervisors' approval before its use. The nature of the questions asked cannot reveal specific personal identities. Moreover, this study is carried out in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University. This entails the following: the participation is entirely voluntary, the participant may withdraw at any time during the study; the data will be held confidentially and may be stored for a period of five years after the appearance of any associated scientific publications; there are no reasonable physical or mental risks of participating in this study; the study is 100% confidential. These guidelines were clearly presented to participants at the beginning of the survey.

In the following section, I will describe the sampling, measures, data collection and analysis for the first pre-study, second pre-study, and main study; respectively.

4.6. Studies' descriptions

The aim of the two pre-studies was to explore Saudi ILT and develop an adequate instrument to measure implicit leadership theories of leaders in general in the study context. However, the aim of the main study was to test the research model which includes examining the moderating role of the need for leadership (NfL) on the relationships between perceived ILT-similarity and leader-member exchange (LMX). Moreover, the examination of individuals' cultural orientations as predictors of the need for leadership and LMX dimensions.

4.6.1. Pre-study one

The first pre-study followed the qualitative approach used by Schyns and Schilling (2011b) to generate descriptive items of leaders in general and classify them into categories.

Sampling and process

The researcher used the snowball technique to recruit participants for the first pre-study. The snowball technique was selected due to the limited time and resources. This technique is efficient and effective in the Saudi context where achieving goals can largely be facilitated through personal networks and relationships. Specifically, scientific research in the Saudi context is not very common and employees, due to unfamiliarity with questionnaire research, may show reluctance to participate in surveys. Therefore, using personal relationships can be useful in facilitating and motivating more participation. For the pre-studies, the participants were Saudi full-time employees sampled from five profitable organisations in the oil and petrochemical industry located in the Eastern province of the Saudi Kingdom. The researcher assigned a voluntary contact person in each organisation. The contact person received explanations regarding the survey instructions, targeted participants, and was asked to distribute the online questionnaires through emails.

In this research, the email sent to each participant was written by the researcher and contained a brief explanation of the study objective, the researcher purpose, and a link of the survey. On the first page of the survey, the participants were informed that the participation is voluntarily, and anonymity and confidentiality are ensured based on the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University. The participant had to click on a button as a sign of consent before starting the survey questions. Upon the completion of the survey, the data is stored automatically by the survey software (i.e. Qualtrics) used in this project.

Data Analysis

The researcher followed the Schyns and Schiling approach to generate items describing leaders in general and analyse their contents.

The following section explains their approach for analysis in more details.

- Schyns and Schilling's approach

The first pre-study explored the Saudi ILT of leaders in general. ILT of leaders in general was previously investigated by Schyns and Schilling's (2011b) following a qualitative approach that is generally based on Offermann et al.'s (1994) study procedure. Since the first pre-study similarly explores the ILT of leaders in general however in the Saudi context, the researcher followed the technique adopted by Schyns and Schilling's study. The following lines will explain in detail, their procedure and system of items' generation and classification.

Items generation's procedure:

In respect to the items' generation stage, Schyns and Schilling concluded based on a review of previous studies related to ILT content, that participants have a problem in differentiating between their actual leader, an ideal leader, and a leader in general. To solve this problem, they explicitly asked participants to describe actual and ideal leaders

first before turning to describing leaders in general. The aim was to actively prevent participants from activating unrelated schemas, such as "effective leaders" when describing leaders in general. This was done in three steps. First, they started by asking participants to name six attributes of their current leaders. The question reads as ("Imagine your present direct leader at work. Describe your direct leader at work using at least six characteristics. These can be negative/ineffective and/or positive/effective characteristics."). Each named characteristic was rated on an effective scale ("effective" yes/no), and the leader's overall effectiveness was also rated on a 5-point scale (1= very ineffective to 5= very effective). Second, the participants were asked to name six attributes of an ideal leader. The question reads as: ("Now imagine your ideal leader in an organisation. This is independent of your direct leader. The aim is for you to describe what characteristics, according to you, a 'perfect leader' has to have. Describe this leader using at least six characteristics."). No question about effectiveness was included here as this type of leaders is assumed to be effective. Thirdly, they asked the participants to name six attributes of leaders in general, rate each named characteristic in terms of effectiveness, and rate the overall effectiveness of a leader in general. The question reads as: "Imagine a leader in general. This refers to your image of a leader, based on your experience with different leaders on different levels in the organisation during your work life. Describe this 'leader in general' using at least six characteristics. These can be positive/effective but also negative/ineffective."

The responses concerning actual and ideal leaders were not carried further for analysis as they were only used to help participants concentrate on the characteristics describing leaders in general. Therefore, the content analysis was performed only on the characteristics of leaders in general.

Content analysis procedure:

In the analysis stage, Schyns and Schilling followed systematic steps as follows:

First, the characteristic statements were divided into two dimensions: traits and behaviours. All statement referring to leaders' behaviour were deleted because the study focuses only on traits. The appropriateness of the reduction was checked by a second researcher.

Second, the authors started to develop categories and used Offermann et al.'s (1994) categories (sensitivity, tyranny, intelligence, devotion, charisma, attractiveness, masculinity, and strength) as a preliminary model to guide the categorising process. This step may result in using old or formulating new categories if necessary.

Third, the formulated categories were revised after 50 percent of the data was coded. A team of two researchers and a three students rechecked any problematic cases of overlapping categories. Consequently, the categories were refined and then extended by their opposites (e.g., devoted/disinterested; tyrannical/ participative). Six typical examples (three in the original direction, three opposites) were assigned to each category to clarify its content. For example, the tyrannical/participative category was assigned with the traits: authoritarian, bossy, imperious versus cooperative, collegial.

Finally, the data set was revised to make sure that the categories are fully described, and any cases of doubts were categorised independently by two researchers. Any differences in their categorisation were discussed and resolved.

In this thesis, the researcher followed the above steps when analysing the data of the first pre-study, and used Schyns and Schilling's categories as a preliminary model to guide the content categorisation process. This implies using old and formulating new categories if necessary. Any problems or cases of doubts encountered by the researcher during the categorisation process were discussed and resolved with two researchers.

4.6.2. Pre-study two

The aim of this study was to identify the factor structure of the items generated in the previous study.

Sampling and process

The researcher used the snowball technique to recruit participants for the first pre-study. The snowball technique was selected due to the limited time and resources. This technique is efficient and effective in the Saudi context where achieving goals can largely be facilitated through personal networks and relationships. Specifically, scientific research in the Saudi context is not very common and employees, due to unfamiliarity with questionnaire research, may show reluctance to participate in surveys. Therefore, using personal relationships can be useful in facilitating and motivating more participation. For the pre-studies, the participants were Saudi full-time employees sampled from five profitable organisations in the oil and petrochemical industry located in the Eastern province of the Saudi Kingdom. The researcher assigned a voluntary contact person in each organisation. The contact person received explanations regarding the survey instructions, targeted participants, and was asked to distribute the online questionnaires through emails.

In this research, the email sent to each participant was written by the researcher and contained a brief explanation of the study objective, the researcher purpose, and a link of the survey. On the first page of the survey, the participants were informed that the participation is voluntarily, and anonymity and confidentiality are ensured based on the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University. The participant had to click on a button as a sign of consent before starting the survey questions. Upon the completion of the survey, the data is stored automatically by the survey software (i.e. Qualtrics) used in this project.

Data analysis

The second pre-study utilised the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) technique to identify the factors of the items previously generated in the first pre-study. In the following, I will briefly describe the factor analysis techniques, namely, the exploratory and the confirmatory factor analysis, as the latter was also used later in the main study.

- Factor analysis

Factor analysis is often employed when the researcher seeks to understand an underlying structure. Data resulting from responses to many various questions could be explained by few underlying structures called factors (Hair, Black, Babin, Ralph, & Ronald, 2006). There are two types of factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) can be used to achieve data summarising and reduction (Hair et al., 2006). Data summarising aims to determine the appropriate structure of the research variables, while data reduction aims to remove uncorrelated items and thus reduces the number of items within each variable. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a technique used to test the dimensionality and validity of the measurements. These two types of factor analysis were employed in the current study. Specifically, the EFA was utilised in the second pre-study to identify the underlying factors of the generated items describing Saudi leaders in general. While the CFA was utilised in the main study to assess the validity of the scales used to measure the studied variables. In the following section, EFA and CFA are discussed in more detail.

A. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA):

The EFA term refers to a number of procedures including, centroid, principal components, and principal factor analysis (Kline, 2011). The principal factor and principal components are the most commonly used procedures (Hair et al., 2006;

Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Principal components procedure is often used for predictive models when the objective is to use the minimum number of factors that summarise the most of the original information (variance) to predict outcomes. Whereas principal factor is used to find underlying factors or dimensions that reflect what the variables have in common (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The principal factor procedure was particularly used in the second pre-study. Generally, the process of identifying factors involves two techniques; factor extraction and factor rotation.

Factors extraction:

Factor extraction is concerned with identifying the smallest number of factors that best represent the intercorrelations among a group of variables (Pallant, 2007). Not all emerging factors are considered significantly important to be maintained in an analysis, however deciding on the number of factors that best reflect the underlying correlation among variables requires considering two things; finding a simple solution with as few factors as possible; and explaining the maximum of variance in the original data set as possible (Pallant, 2007). This could be achieved through experimenting with different numbers of factors until a satisfactory solution is found. In the current study, the researcher used two techniques to guide the decision regarding the number of retained factors, namely; Kaiser's criterion (eigenvalue rule) and the scree plot.

Kaiser's criterion is based on the principle that eigenvalues reflect the amount of variation explained by a factor, and that an eigenvalue of 1 represents a substantial amount of variation (Field, 2009). There is evidence that this criterion is more accurate in cases such as; when the number of variables is less than 30 and the resulting commonalities are all greater than .7, or when the sample size is more than 250 and the average commonality is greater than or equal .6 (Field, 2009). The Cattell's scree plot is another useful technique in determining the number of meaningful factors. The scree plot is a graph showing every eigenvalue (Y-axis) against the factor with which it is associated (X-axis),

which could be helpful in clarifying the relative importance of each factor. Cattell (1966) argued the all factors above the elbow, where the slope of line changes dramatically, should be retained as they contribute the most to the variance in the data. The scree plot is particularly a reliable technique for selecting factors if the sample size is more than 200 (Field, 2009).

Factor rotation and interpretation:

Once the number of factors has been determined, the next step is to interpret them. However, the interpretation may not be easy because most variables often show high loadings in one factor and small loadings on all other factors. Therefore, a technique called factor rotation is utilised to help discriminate between factors. The aim of the rotation is to maximise variables' loadings on one factor and minimise them on all other factors.

There are two types of rotation; the orthogonal rotation and oblique rotation. The difference is that the orthogonal rotation ensures that the factors are uncorrelated, whereas the oblique rotation allows the factors to correlate. Generally, the choice of rotation type is dependent on whether there is a theoretical justification to assume that the factors should be related or independent (Field, 2009). The SPSS software, which is used for the study factor analysis, provides several rotational techniques within these two types (orthogonal: Varimax, Quartimax, Equamax; oblique: Direct Oblimin, Promax). Although both rotation types can be useful, there is an argument that with data involving humans such as those measuring psychological constructs, it is recommended not to use orthogonal rotation because it is hard to find a psychological construct that is completely independent from some other psychological constructs (Field, 2009). Based on this recommendation, the researcher decided to use the oblique rotation since the current research is studying psychological constructs.

The factor loading is an indicator of the importance of a given item for a given factor (Field, 2009). Generally, a factor loading of more than 0.3 can be considered as important. However, Stevens (2002) argued that the statistical importance of a factor loading depends on the sample size. That is, for a sample of 100 participants the loading should exceeds 0.512, for 200 it should be more than 0.364, and for 300 it should be greater than 0.298. The factor loadings in the current research satisfied these guidelines.

B. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA):

Confirmatory factor analysis can be used to determine the dimensional structure of the measure (Byrne, 2010). The current study utilised the CFA to validate the scales included in the main study's questionnaire to examine the research hypotheses. An important aspect of validating a scale is the test of its internal consistency (reliability). "Reliability means that a measure should consistently reflect the construct that is measuring" (Field, 2009, p. 673). Cronbach alpha is the most common measure of scale reliability, which assesses how closely related certain items are as a group. High alpha scores mean more internal reliability in the measurement scale whereas a low alpha indicates that the items used do not well capture the construct, and some items may have to be eliminated to improve the alpha level. According to Hair et al. (2006), and Nunnally (1978) the lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is .7, however this general guideline should be used with caution because if the number of items on a scale increases, the value of alpha will increase. If a measurement has multiple subscales, alpha should be applied to each subscale separately (Field, 2009). Since the measurements included in the main study consist of many factors, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were tested for the subscales of ILT, LMX-MDM, NfL, and cultural orientations. SPSS 22 software was used to test the measurements' reliabilities and the results are reported in the main study chapter.

4.6.3. Main Study

The aim of the study was to test the hypothesised model. The following sections will describe the sampling, measures, and the analysis method used in this study.

Sampling and process

To achieve the aim of the main study, it required an access to a large number of participants in a short time frame. This is because studies using the SEM analysing technique, as this study, typically requires a large number of cases to produce reasonably stable results (Kline, 2011). A general rule for studies using SEM is that less than a 100 cases is not suitable unless a very simple model is evaluated. According to Kline, "a typical sample size in studies where SEM is used is about 200" (Kline, 2011, p. 12). Therefore, to achieve a relatively large number of participants, the researcher decided to formally contact the HR department of the largest petrochemical company, namely, Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) to get access to its large employees. The researcher made contact by phone and email several times to explain the research objective and targeted participants. Prior to approving this project, the HR department reviewed the questionnaires in both English and Arabic versions and then they agreed to give the researcher access to the employees. Through this approval process, which took around one month, the HR contact has been cooperative and supportive. Next, the researcher informed the HR department that the targeted sample should be Saudi full-time employees who work under direct supervisors, and that they should represent a wide range of age, working experience, and professions. The HR department was responsible for distributing the survey to employees through emails since they considered disclosing a large number of employees' email addresses to an outsider impermissible by their policy and standard procedure. Moreover, during the data collection, the researcher asked the HR, at two points of time, to send following up emails to encourage those who received the survey but have not participated.

In this research, the email sent to each participant was written by the researcher and contained a brief explanation of the study objective, the researcher purpose, and a link of the survey. On the first page of the survey, the participants were informed that the participation is voluntarily, and anonymity and confidentiality are ensured based on the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University. The participant had to click on a button as a sign of consent before starting the survey questions. Upon the completion of the survey, the data is stored automatically by the survey software (i.e. Qualtrics) used in this project.

Measures

The measures assessing the main four constructs ILT, LMX, NfL, and cultural orientations will be discussed below. The measures' details are summarised in table 4-3-1.

ILT-congruence measurement: The congruence to the leader's ILT has been measured with one direct question which reads: "to what extent do you perceive that your personal image of mangers in general matches that held by your direct supervisor?". The question was answered on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) "very different" to (5) "very similar". However, asking about the congruence requires first measuring the participant's ILT of leaders in general. Therefore, the question about ILT congruence was proceeded by the instrument measuring ILT of leaders in general which was developed in the two pre-studies (as will be described in chapter 5). This instrument has been constructed to assess respondents' implicit leadership theories of leaders in general because it is more adequate to the Saudi cultural context than utilising the GLOBE instrument which was used in relatively similar contexts (e.g., Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). This is for two reasons: First, the ILT instrument to be developed here will go beyond the assumption of GLOBE by investigating ILT of leaders in general, not only effective leaders. This will capture a more comprehensive view of ILT, which consists of all the positive and negative

attributes associated with Saudi leaders. Second, the instrument will be developed using a sample drawn from the oil and petrochemical industry, which is the largest and most representative industry of the Saudi oil-based economy, where a large number of Saudi leaders are working. This could help capturing a better view of Saudi ILTs than samples drawn from substantially smaller industries such as those used in the GLOBE.

The instrument represents 36 leader's traits each of which was rated on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) "very uncharacteristic" to (5) "very characteristic".

LMX: The LMX-MDM scale was utilised to measure the respondents' perception of their relationship quality with their leaders. Liden and Maslyn (1998) developed this instrument, which consists of 12 items to measure four dimensions of LMX, namely; respect, affection, contribution, and loyalty. Liden and Maslyn reported that the dimensions showed moderately high correlations however they do not reflect redundancy between the four dimensions (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). It is appropriate for this thesis then to use the LMX-MDM to measure the followers' perception of LMX as a multi-dimensional construct. Examples of the LMX-MDM scale items are: "I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job", "I like my supervisor very much as a person", "My supervisor would come to my defence if I were attacked by others" and "I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description." Each item was rated on a 5-point scale ranging from (1)"strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree."

Need for leadership: The assessment of need for leadership in this thesis follows the conceptualisation of De Vries (1997) and thus his 17-item instrument has been utilised. De Vries, when developing the instrument, started with 48 items and through refinement process reduced the number to a total of 34 items; 17 items representing subjective and another 17 items representing objective need for leadership. The subjective

items reflect the perceived need for certain leader behaviours for the follower him/herself. While the objective items reflect the need for leader behaviours given the type of task the follower performs. An example of a subjective need item is "I need my supervisor to help me solve problems". An example of an objective general need item is "A supervisor has a considerable added value in this function."

De Vries tested the subjective and objective items using an exploratory factor analysis followed by the confirmatory factor analysis. After this, he obtained the reliabilities and intercorrelations between the scales. The EFA was conducted using the Principal Analysis of Factors (PAF) and four factors were obtained with eigenvalue > 1 for both the subjective and objective items. The factor solutions were varimax rotated to determine the factor loadings. The factor solutions then were examined further in a CFA to compare their adequacy using multiple fit indices. Based on the fit indices, there was no clear-cut empirical preference for one of the four factor solutions.

Since the EFA and CFA results did not favour one of the four solutions, De Vries decided to conduct an item-analysis and to find the zero-order correlations of the scales obtained from the factors. The results showed that the one-factor scale solution is superior over the multiple-factor scales solutions in terms of reliability, in both subjective and objective cases. Moreover, in case of the multiple-factor solutions, the intercorrelations between the sub-scales in the same factor solutions were found to be very high. Additionally, there was a substantial cross loading of items on different factors.

Based on the small differences between the factor solutions in the CFA, the high reliability of a one-factor solution, and the high intercorrelations between sub-scales in the multiple-factor solutions, De Vries opted for a one factor solution. However, it should be noted that the one-factor objective and subjective scales showed high intercorrelations ($r=.65$, $p<.001$) which led to the suggestion that there is not enough reason to use two

scales (i.e. the subjective scale and the objective scale). Further analysis of the item-means profiles led De Vries to conclude that it does not seem to matter whether one use the subjective or objective one factor scale. Consequently, De Vries retained the 17 items for the subjective scale and used it in further studies.

In my study, this instrument was used to measure the respondents' general needs for leaders, rather than a specific need for their supervisors at a certain point of time. The question reads as: "on the personal level, please indicate on which of the following aspects you generally need the contribution of your manager/supervisor." The respondents assessed their need in terms of 17 leaders' functions. A sample item is: "I need my manager to..." "...handle conflicts." Each item was rated on 5-pojnt scale with 1 being "not at all" and 5 being "a lot".

Cultural-orientation: To measure the respondent's cultural orientations, this study utilised the Triandis and Gelfand (1998) 16-item scale. Based on the theorisation that individualism/collectivism can be horizontal (emphasising equality) and vertical (emphasising hierarchy), the assessment has four subscales with four items measuring each. These subscales are; horizontal individualism (HI), vertical individualism (VI), horizontal collectivism (HC), and vertical collectivism (VC). Example items are: "If a co-worker gets a prize I would feel proud," "It is important to me that I do my job better than others," "I often do my own thing," and "Parents and children must stay together, as much as possible." The scale was assessed on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 "Never" to 5 "All of the time."

The researcher decided for all scales in the current study to be measured using a 5-point scale format, to assist respondents to complete the relatively long questionnaire more easily and without affecting the precision of the provided data. Kline asserts that: "Likert scales with about 5-10 points may be favourable in terms of people's ability to

reasonably discriminate between scale values (anchors). With more than 10 or so scale points for individual items, respondents may choose arbitrarily between adjacent points" (Kline, 2011, p. 179).

Table 4-3–1: Measures used in this research

SN	Scale	Description	Number of items	Scale's source
1	Saudi ILT scale	To measure the perception of Saudi leaders in general; 36 attributes presented for rating.	36	Developed by the researcher
2	LMX-MDM	Four-factor scale to measure the respondents' perception of relationship quality with leaders in terms of respect, affection, contribution, and loyalty.	12	Liden and Maslyn (1998)
3	NFL	One-factor scale to measure the respondents' general need for leaders.	17	De Vries (1997)
4	Cultural-orientation	Four-factor scale to measure individual's cultural orientations in terms of horizontal individualism (HI), vertical individualism (VI), horizontal collectivism (HC), and vertical collectivism (VC).	16	Triandis and Gelfand (1998)
Note: All scales' items in the current study were rated on a 5-point scale.				

Data analysis

The main study used the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the scales' reliability, validity and dimensionality. It also used the structural equation modelling (SEM) to investigate the hypothesised effects between the variables in the proposed model. As the confirmatory factor analysis was described earlier, I will now describe the structural equation modelling technique.

- Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Following the assessment of the measurement scales' reliability, the structural equation modelling technique, using the Mplus 7.3 software, was employed to test the hypothesised relationships.

Structural equation models refer to "causal models containing reflective measured variables as indicators of constructs which are structurally linked to one another" (Sauer & Dick, 1993, p. 637). SEM has several advantages over traditional methods such as regression analysis and ANOVA. For example, SEM has the ability to analyse both observed and latent variables, whereas traditional techniques, such as ANOVA and multiple regression (MR), can analyse observed variables only. Moreover, while MR method assumes that all predictor variables are measured without error, SEM accounts for the measurement errors of constructs, which makes their estimation and prediction relatively more accurate. Kline asserted that "SEM is much more accurate at estimating correlations between factors than manifest variable methods" (Kline, 2011, p. 71). This advantage is particularly important for testing models with continuous variable moderators, because in SEM, the interaction effect can be modelled as a separate latent variable (i.e. product term) from the respective component variables. This could ultimately improve the absolute coefficient for the product term because SEM will account for the measurement error when estimating the interaction effects of the latent variables (Kline, 2011).

Since the hypothesised research model investigates the moderating effect of need for leadership on the relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX, the researcher decided to use SEM in the analysis as it is more accurate in testing models with latent variable moderators.

4.7. Summary

This chapter discussed issues related to the study design, sampling, ethics, measures, and the approaches employed for data collection and analysis. Given the explanatory nature of this research, it was appropriate to follow a positivist deductive-quantitative approach to examine the proposed hypotheses. Moreover, the researcher used a qualitative approach however only for the first pre-study because of its exploratory nature. All the participants were Saudi full time employees working in the oil and petrochemical industry, and their responses were collected using Arabic online questionnaires. As for the analysis techniques, the researcher followed the content analysis process as suggested in Schyns and Schilling's study (2011b) to analyse the data collected in the first pre-study. Exploratory factor analysis was used in the second pre-study, whereas the confirmatory factor analysis and the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) techniques were used for main study analyses. This advanced technique is more appropriate to test the hypothesised model which involves several latent variables with a relatively large number of indicators. The research was carried out in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University.

Chapter 5: Pre-studies Results and Discussion

The studies included in this thesis consist of two phases; phase 1 includes two pre-studies and phase 2 includes the main study. This chapter is concerned with the pre-studies (phase 1) and it is mainly divided into two parts; the first will describe the first pre-study's analysis, results, and discussion. The second part will describe the second pre-study's analysis, results, and discussion. The chapter will end with a summary and a conclusion.

The pre-studies aimed to explore the Saudi ILT and construct an instrument to measure ILT in the Saudi cultural context. This instrument which is assumed to be more sensitive to the context in which this research took place was used in the main study (i.e. phase 2). The main study aimed to test the hypothesised model of this thesis (see Figure 1-1).

Both pre-studies and the main study (phase 1 and 2) have been conducted on samples of Saudi full-time employees. The main difference between the two phases is that the second phase (i.e., main study) used a larger sample and measured multiple constructs. Another difference is that the first phase (i.e., pre-studies) used mixed methods of quantitative and qualitative approaches, while the main study only used a quantitative approach.

5.1. The importance of pre-studies

Previous cross-cultural research into ILTs has found that implicit leadership theories are sensitive to cultural context. One major cross-cultural study, the GLOBE study mainly aimed to find commonalities across cultures in terms of the dimensions used to describe effective leaders and then examined the differences in the means on those culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories (House et al., 2004). This approach neglects cultural idiosyncrasies that are important when working in a specific cultural

context. This criticism has been confirmed when the GLOBE team found that the standard questionnaire used by the GLOBE was not adequate enough to capture the leader images in a Middle Eastern context such as Iran (see for more; Dastmalchian et al., 2001). This suggests that researchers should be careful when measuring ILTs in a context using an instrument that has been developed in a different context. This argument is also supported by a Chinese study which found different ILT dimensions in China (i.e., collectivistic context) compared to those found by Offermann et al. (1994) in the United States (i.e. individualistic context; see Ling et al., 2000).

Given that the instruments available in the literature are mainly developed in the Western context (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offermann et al., 1994) and the cultural sensitivity of ILTs, I decided to conduct two pre-studies to develop an instrument that is more sensitive to the Saudi business context, to be used in the main study (phase 2). To do this, the first pre-study focused on generating items describing leaders in general using a method recently introduced by Schyns and Schilling (2011b), while the second pre-study identified the factors emerging from the items generated in the first study. Following standardised methods allows for a better comparison to previous results and enables the researcher to highlight idiosyncrasies for the specific context under investigation.

Specifically, pre-study 1 and 2 aim to achieve the following: a) uncover the content of ILTs in a specific culture (i.e. Saudi Arabia) which is different from the Western culture, to develop and use an instrument that is assumed to be more culturally sensitive than the instruments available in the literature; b) assessing the images of leaders using samples from organisational settings to get as accurate descriptions as possible of leaders in this context; and c) provide a more complete image of leaders by focusing on leaders in general rather than – as is often done in research into ILTs – ideal or effective

leaders (Schyns & Schilling, 2011a). In the following, I describe in details the two pre-studies' samples, data collection, and results.

5.2. Pre-study 1: Items generation

In order to create a culturally sensitive measurement, the aim of the first study was to generate items that describe leaders in general in the Saudi oil and petrochemical context.

- *Sample:*

The study was conducted using a sample of Saudi full-time employees working in five profitable organisations in the oil and petrochemical industry, located in the Eastern province of the Saudi Kingdom. The total number of completed questionnaires was 49, while the number of started but uncompleted questionnaires was 78 (response rate is 62%). This relatively large number of uncompleted questionnaire could be due to the feeling of risk some participants might have experienced while describing their direct leaders, as expressed by one participant. Five answers were disregarded due to substantial missing data and therefore, a total of 44 answers were carried for further analysis.

The age of the participants ranged from 24 to 55 years (Mean = 36.9 years, SD = 8.23). 79.5% of the participants have held a leadership role and the reported leadership experience showed an average of 54.6 months (SD=48.8). The average number of managers they have worked with was 6.89 (SD = 3.57). 63.6% of the participants participated in a leadership training program. 52.3% of the participants were currently holding a leadership function. 15.9% had high school or college degrees, 61.4% had undergraduate degrees and 22.7% had post graduate degrees. Most of the participants were holding managerial type of jobs (54.5%), 38.6% were in technical/engineering type of jobs, while only 4.5% were in administrative assistance jobs. 41 of the participants were men (93.2%), and 3 were women (6.8%). The low number of female participants in

this study reflects the low number of Saudi women who work in mixed environments in the private sector.

- *Procedure:*

I used a snow ball technique to recruit participants. The researcher assigned a voluntary contact person in each organisation. The contact person received explanations regarding the survey instructions, targeted participants, and was asked to distribute the questionnaires through emails (see the questionnaire in appendix 1). Participation in the study was voluntary, and the participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity of their data. I used the Qualtrics software for distributing the survey, and the completed questionnaires were automatically stored in Qualtrics database.

- *Instrument:*

The questionnaire used in Schyns and Schilling (2011a) was distributed after translation into Arabic, the participants' primary language, as described earlier in section 4.3.4. In the Arabic questionnaire, the word "leader" was replaced by "manager" followed by an illustrative statement: (a "manager" here is a person whose role involves leadership and decision making activities). This is because the term "manager" is commonly used in these companies to describe an individual occupying a supervisory position. More importantly, using the word "leader" could provoke a positively biased view of leaders as its equivalent Arabic translation generally has a positive connotation and that, as a result, may not be conductive to achieving the aim of the study.

- *Data Collection:*

To achieve the aim of the research, the study employed a qualitative approach in which employees were asked to name six attributes that describe a leader in general. When answering such questions, participants are prone to activate different categories

such as actual leaders or ideal leaders. To overcome this problem, I followed the process suggested by Schyns and Schilling (2011b), and therefore participants were asked to separately describe the attributes of actual leaders and ideal leaders before describing the attributes of leaders in general. This procedure should help participants to direct their attention towards describing leaders in general without confusion with other categories.

The software used for distributing the survey (i.e. Qualtrics) was set to randomly generate and distribute two versions of the questionnaire. 43.2% of the participants were randomly given a version of the questionnaire which asks questions about direct leaders before ideal leaders, while 56.8% were given the version that asks questions about ideal leaders before direct leaders. After describing the attributes of actual leaders and leaders in general, participants were asked to indicate the effectiveness of each attribute. Asking the effectiveness question was designed to prevent the researcher from applying his own assumptions to the named attributes. For example, attributes such as "strong", "aggressive" and "perfectionist" can be viewed effective or ineffective depending on the participant's own evaluation.

- *Data Analysis:*

As a first step of the data analysis, all items that were individually generated were combined to produce a collective list. Subsequently, all items were translated into English. The translation was checked by a second bilingual researcher. Schyns and Schilling's (2011b) coding scheme was then applied to all items to find categories. I used this coding scheme as it is more extensive than the Offermann et al. (1994) coding scheme but includes Offermann et al.'s categories.

In the analysis process, four items mentioned were ambiguous and thus could not be clearly interpreted, and were therefore deleted. For example, one participant used 'authorities' as a neutral noun to describe the leader and it was removed from the analysis

as it is not clear what exactly the participant meant with respect to describing a leader characteristic. In addition, clear synonyms such as 'smart' and 'intelligent' were combined to reduce the number of unique items under each category. The process was double-checked by a second researcher to ensure accuracy.

Although participants were asked to describe the 'traits' of leaders, behavioural statements were also considered if they clearly described a distinctive trait. The rationale behind this inclusion is that it is common in Arabic to describe a trait using a behavioural phrase, and thus phrases can be informative as well. Moreover, followers are potentially inclined to pay more attention to their leaders' behaviours as they get closer to them (Popper, 2013), and thus behaviours may be crucial in describing followers images of leaders. After the refinement process, all the remaining items were coded into categories as suggested by Schyns and Schilling (e.g., pleasant, communicative, sensitive etc.) (see table 5-1). Finally, each of the categories was extended by its opposites (e.g., unpleasant, not-communicative, hard etc.) and rechecked by two researchers in the leadership field.

Table 5–1: Schyns and Schilling's category system and examples. Source: Schyns & Schilling (2011).

Introvert	**Extravert**
Quiet	Vivid
Silent	Curious
Pleasant	**Unpleasant**
Friendly	Unfriendly
Nice	Not nice
Communicative	**Not communicative**
Eloquent	Not communicative
Articulate	Difficulties to express
Strong	**Weak**
Perseverant	Unstable
Takes decisions	Unsure
Sensitive	**Hard**

Sensitive	Insensitive
Gentle	Heartless
Team player	**Individualist**
Altruistic	Egoistic
Interest in the group	Selfish
Charismatic	**Non charismatic**
Visionary	Bureaucratic
Persuasive	No vision
Devoted	**Disinterested**
Committed	Indifferent
Engaged	Inactive
Tyrannical	**Participative**
Authoritarian	Cooperative
Bossy	Comradely
Intelligent	**Stupid**
Knowledgeable	Stupid
Smart	Ignorant
Attractive	**Unattractive**
Good looking	Ugly
Charming	Repulsive
Organised	**Unorganised**
Strategic	Leave things over to chance
Goal oriented	Thinking short/term
Conscientious	**Non conscientious**
Dutiful	Chaotic
Conscientious	Careless
Honest	**Dishonest**
	Not always honest
	In transparent
Open	**Narrow minded**
Open minded	Not interested in new ideas
Innovative	Rather administrative

In order to allow for cultural and context specific implicit leadership theories dimensions to emerge, items that did not fall into the Schyns and Schilling dimensions were kept and categorised separately.

- *Results:*

Since the study focuses on the attributes describing leaders in general, the analysis of the attributes regarding actual and ideal leaders was ignored as this is beyond the scope of the study. As explained earlier, the purpose of the questions asked about actual and ideal leaders was just to get the participants focused when describing leaders in general.

Attributes of leaders in general: In total, the participants reported 237 statements describing attributes of leaders in general. Four statements were disregarded due to ambiguity and, therefore, 233 statements were carried further for the categorisation process. The reported items reflected all of Offermann et al.'s (1994) categories (sensitivity, tyranny, intelligence, devotion, charisma, strength, and attractiveness) except masculinity. Moreover, all of Schyns and Schilling's (2011a) combined categories concerning the characteristics of leaders in general were also addressed (pleasant, being a team-player, communicative, extraverted, organised, conscientious, honest, and being open for new experiences). Additionally, a new category emerged; which was named *competent*. However, not all the subcategories have been addressed. Three subcategories (i.e., extravert, unattractive and open) were not addressed at all. That is, only the opposites of these subcategories were addressed.

Frequencies: The frequency of statements addressing each subcategory/category is summarised in (Table 5-2) below. Looking at both directions of Schyns and Schilling's (2011a) category system, the six subcategories that were used most often by our participants were: tyrannical (18), not-charismatic (16), team player (15), individualist (15), disinterested (15), and weak (14). Moreover, very few statements could be

summarised under other subcategories including competent (2), attractive (2), intelligent (2), and introvert (3).

Not a single subcategory has dominated the reported statements. However, for the combined categories, team player/ individualist (30, 12.9%), devoted/ disinterested (27, 11.6%), charismatic/ not-charismatic (25, 10.7%), tyrannical/ participative (23, 9.9%) received the highest number of statements. In contrast, the categories attractive/ unattractive (2, 0.9%), introvert/ extrovert (3, 1.3%) and open/ narrow-minded (4, 1.7%) were mentioned relatively scarcely. These findings are partly in line with Schyns and Schilling's (2011a) results in which the categories team player/ individualist and charismatic/ not-charismatic were also mentioned most often, while the categories attractive/ unattractive and introvert/ extrovert were mentioned least often.

Table 5–2: Frequency of subcategories/ categories

Subcategories	Absolute and relative amount of statements (topic frequency):	Absolute and relative amount of statements (topic frequency): ***Categories***
Introvert	3 (1.3%)	
Extravert	0 (0%)	3 (1.3%)
Pleasant	4 (1.7%)	
Unpleasant	12 (5.2%)	16 (6.9%)
Communicative	10 (4.3%)	
Not-communicative	2 (0.9%)	12 (5.2%)
Strong	5 (2.1%)	
Weak	14 (6.0%)	19 (8.2%)
Sensitive	4 (1.7%)	
Hard	5 (2.1%)	9 (3.9%)
Team player	15 (6.4%)	
Individualist	15 (6.4%)	30 (12.9%)
Charismatic	9 (3.9%)	
Not-charismatic	16 (6.9%)	25 (10.7%)
Devoted	12 (5.2%)	
Disinterested	15 (6.4%)	27 (11.6%)
Tyrannical	18 (7.7%)	
Participative	5 (2.1%)	23 (9.9%)
Intelligent	2 (0.9%)	9 (3.9%)

Stupid	7 (3.0%)	
Attractive	2 (0.9%)	
Unattractive	0 (0%)	2 (0.9%)
Organised	6 (2.6%)	
Unorganised	6 (2.6%)	12 (5.2%)
Conscientious	5 (2.1%)	
Not conscientious	8 (3.4%)	13 (5.6%)
Honest	7 (3.0%)	
Dishonest	6 (2.6%)	13 (5.6%)
Open	0 (0.0%)	
Narrow minded	4 (1.7%)	4 (1.7%)
Competent	2 (0.9%)	
Incompetent	8 (3.4%)	10 (4.3%)

Effectiveness/ineffectiveness: Looking at the effectiveness ratings of leader attributes, the participants classified 95 (41.13%) statements as effective, 136 (58.87%) were considered ineffective. The high number of ineffective statements confirms the previous assumption that implicit leadership theories may contain both effective and ineffective attributes. Furthermore, the analysis has revealed that giving the opportunity for the participant to rate the effectiveness/ineffectiveness of a certain attribute is more accurate as their judgment may be different to the researcher's assumptions (Schyns & Schilling, 2011a). For example, the attribute "social" or "networker" is commonly considered as favourable, however in this study was rated, more than once, as unfavourable. Another example is the attribute "not a risk-taker" which was rated as ineffective although it might be seen as a favourable one in some situations or contexts. Understanding why such attributes have been given ineffective ratings is beyond the scope of the study, however it could be interesting for further investigation in future research.

In terms of rating the general effectiveness of leaders in general, the vast majority of participants' response (58.1%) rated leaders in general as ineffective or very

ineffective, while only 18.6% of the answers rated leaders in general as effective, however no participant described leaders as very effective.

Combining all the items that fit under our categories, a total of 116 unique items that are applied to leaders in general in our context remained (see the items listed in appendix 4). These items were used in further testing implicit leadership theories in the second study.

5.3. Pre-study 1 discussion

The aim of this study was to explore characteristics ascribed to leaders in general, that is, ILTs in the Saudi business context. The descriptive statements provided by participants show that implicit leadership theories in this context consist of both positive and negative attributes, which supports what has been found in the study by Schyns and Schilling (2011a).

The qualitative analysis of these statements revealed 16 categories describing leaders in general. The categories have shown some similarities with previous studies. Like Offermann et al. (1994), I found charisma (charismatic/ not charismatic), strength (strong/ weak), dedication (devoted/ disinterested), tyranny (tyrannical/ participative), sensitivity (sensitive/ hard), and intelligent (intelligent/ stupid) as significant aspects of implicit leadership theories in the Saudi context. Similarly, the combined categories: pleasant/ unpleasant, team player/ individualist, attractive/ unattractive, organised/ unorganised, conscientious/ not-conscientious, honest/ dishonest, and open/ narrow minded that appeared in Schyns and Schilling (2011a) were also addressed in this study. Although the categories in this study generally resemble what has been found previously by Schyns and Schilling (2011a), the relative frequencies of items within each subcategory showed clear differences in some cases. For example, this study found relative frequencies of subcategories like *pleasant* (4 items, 1.7%), *strong* (5 items, 2.1%),

sensitive (4 items, 1.7%), *intelligent* (2 items, 0.9%), and *disinterested* (15, 6.4%), while the frequencies of these subcategories, according to Schyns and Schilling's study, were 18 (5.2%), 16 (4.6%), 18 (5.2%), 13 (3.7%), and 5 (1.4%), respectively. This indicates that the presence of a specific category could differ across different cultural contexts, however understanding the reasons behind these differences is beyond the scope of this study.

The analysis also revealed some differences compared to previous studies. First, unlike Offermann et al.'s (1994) study, the attractiveness category was rarely addressed in this study which also mirrors the finding by Schyns and Schilling (2011a), and support the suggestion by Epitropaki and Martin (2004) that attractiveness may be neither a core prototypic nor anti-prototypic leadership attribute. Second, the masculinity category mentioned in previous studies (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offermann et al., 1994) was absent in the present study. This absence might be because the working environment from which the study sample was drawn is remarkably male-dominant which probably makes masculinity unnoticeable. Third, a new category has emerged in this study which is competent/ incompetent. However, the 'competent' was previously reported as an attribute under the goal-effectiveness category in the Chinese study (see Ling et al., 2000). This similarity with the Chinese study may not be surprising as both Saudi Arabia and China are collectivistic societies (i.e. less achievement-oriented) (Hofstede & Bond, 1988) which probably makes competency a more salient leadership attribute in such contexts.

5.3.1. Explaining the similarities and differences to the Western studies

In general, the categories revealed in this study resemble, to a large extent, the categories found in prior Western-based studies. This may be understandable as this study was executed in companies in the oil and petrochemical industry, which have a high exposure to Western organisational values and practices, use English in the formal work communication, utilise Western-based leadership training programs, and employ many

expatriates from Western backgrounds. Therefore, such exposure of Saudi employees in these companies may have caused them to internalise, to a degree, Western values typically found in Western companies, although this remains a suggestion as this was not assessed in the study. Another possible explanation for the categories' similarity found in this study is that the category system of Schyns and Schilling (2011a), which was used in this study, consists of 15 combined categories (and 30 subcategories) and that perhaps was wide enough to include many reported items compared to other studies suggesting fewer categories (see for example; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Ling et al., 2000).

Nevertheless, it is important to note that a closer look into the results indicates some differences compared to studies conducted in Western contexts. Firstly, the category "intelligent" was rarely addressed. This is contrary to the Western-based studies which showed that intelligent is a critical attribute in leaders (see for example, Lord et al., 1984). An explanation for this might be that the participants themselves have high intellectual abilities given that the majority held an undergraduate degree or higher degrees. It is not unusual that smart people land in this sector since these oil and petrochemical companies typically give priority to high GPA graduates in their recruitment process as their jobs relatively require high technical skills and knowledge. Consequently, this could make the "intelligent" attribute widely shared by employees and thus becomes less salient, and hardly detectable by individuals.

Secondly and in terms of attributes' content, there is potentially a subtle meaning difference to some attributes found similar to those in Western-based studies. That is, the meaning of such attributes should not be assumed to be exactly the same because the interpretation of the content could be influenced by the cultural context. Using the attribute "consultative" for example, Kabasakal and colleagues (2012, p. 528) explained how the meaning of consultation differs across cultures as "leaders in the MENA countries are expected to make the final decision, even when they use consultation.

Consultation, which has a special meaning in these countries, is not used as a power sharing mechanism as in the western cultures, but as a way to show that the leader cares about the subordinates and values their opinions." Therefore, it is likely that, given the cultural context differences, some discrepancies in the meaning can lie hidden behind some of those items found across different studies. Investigating the perceived meaning of leaders attributes requires qualitative research and is beyond the scope of this study, however it is worth pursuing in future studies.

Thirdly, a deeper look at the items under each category shows that some attributes appeared in this study are different from those found in previous research. For example, items such as reserved, polite, arrogant, fearful, active, being micro-manager, and fair, all did not appear in previous studies (Ling et al., 2000; Offermann et al., 1994; Schyns & Schilling, 2011a). Although these items fall under similar categories found in previous studies, they may have emerged as a reflection of the cultural context. For example, describing a leader with the attribute “micro-management” may reflect the Saudi high power distance culture in which leaders adopt a centralised way of making decisions, and thus frequently and closely control the work of their followers.

Overall, these differences found in this study compared to the Western-based research support the claim that implicit leadership theories are culturally contingent, and thus cannot be fully understood without considering the context in which they operate (see for example, House et al., 2004).

5.3.2. Explaining the negative tendency of Saudi ILT

The frequently repeated categories in this study show that, in this Saudi sample, implicit leadership theories of leaders in general tend to be negative. Negative categories such as *not-charismatic*, *disinterested*, *weak*, *individualist*, and *unpleasant* were clearly addressed more frequently than others. This highlights the assumption that images of

leaders in general are not exclusively positive (Schyns & Schilling, 2011a). In the present study, the negative tendency of Saudi ILTs may also explain the reported low effectiveness rating of leaders' performance (58.1% of the responses rated leaders either as ineffective or very ineffective), and support the suggestion of previous research that implicit leadership theories influence leaders' evaluations (Nye & Forsyth, 1991; Schyns, 2006)

This raises the question as to why are ILTs in the Saudi context are so negative. Answering this question is not obvious since there are no prior studies investigating the ILT of leaders in general in the Saudi context, and finding the causes of the negative tendency of Saudi ILT needs a further investigation. However, the participants are current employees and we know from previous research that individuals partly develop their ILT based on their experience and repeated encounters with leaders (Lord & Maher, 1993). Therefore, highlighting the nature of followers' work experience and interactions with leaders, in light of the literature relevant to this context, could lead to possible explanations for the negativity revealed in this study. Below, I will explain factors that could shape leader-follower's interactions in a way that will contribute to the negativity of Saudi ILTs. There are arguably three factors, namely; two cultural factors (i.e. related to collectivism and power distance), and a demographic factor. It is important to bear in mind that the suggested factors are neither exclusive nor have been assessed in the present study.

- *Collectivism factor*

Research has argued that culture shapes individuals' attitudes, perceptions, and behaviours (Hofstede, 1980), and is specifically connected to ILTs (House et al., 2004). Given that Saudi Arabia is a highly collectivistic context, it is plausible to assume that collectivism as a cultural factor could provide explanations for the high presence of some

negative attributes such as weak, disinterested, and incompetent in the Saudi implicit leadership theories.

Research asserted that due to the collectivistic culture in Saudi, individuals can be quickly trusted and promoted through social networks, especially with people high in power (Ali, 2009; P. B. Smith et al., 2007). In other words, individuals may climb the ladder of leadership positions regardless of their competencies or qualifications. This process is popular in Saudi and known as *wasta*, which basically means appointing individuals based on their loyalty and connections with powerful people and regardless of their competency. In Saudi Arabia, relationships play a more prominent role than qualification or performance in appointing leaders. Therefore, followers may often find themselves dealing with incompetent leaders who occupy their positions because of personal networks. This probably explains why the study participants repeatedly described leaders as "weak", "disinterested", and "incompetent". The repetitive encounter with such incompetent leaders could have led to developing images of leaders that are rather negative.

Another collectivism-related factor maybe contributing to the negative image of leaders is the fact that in a high collectivistic context, positions are coined with status, and thus managers are respected by virtue of their position. Mellahi (2007) and Al-Dosary et al. (2006) asserted that Saudis perceived work not only as means to get income but as an integral part of their social standing. Because of this, Saudis are generally disinclined to pursue non-managerial jobs (Mellahi, 2007). Given the status gained through holding a leadership position, followers are very reluctant to challenge negative behaviours shown by leaders or give upward negative feedback as these will likely be perceived as threatening status (P. B. Smith et al., 2007). It is then expected that in this situation, followers will adjust their reaction to shown negative behaviours by leaning to the safe behaviour (i.e. avoiding conflicts), while continuing to harbour negative perceptions and

emotions. This behaviour will also limit the chance for leaders to receive genuine feedback from followers to pursue corrective actions and improve their leadership, which over the time could implant negative leader images.

- *Power-distance factor*

Saudi has a high power distance culture and this could explain the negative ILTs in two ways. The first is that in a culture high in power distance, people accept the social inequality and hierarchical distribution of authority (Hofstede, 1980). Given this general acceptance of the exerted positional power by a leader, this could ultimately enhance leaders' tyrannical behaviours, such as being controlling and bossy. Consequently, this sort of culture could generally provide the ground for unfavourable follower interactions with leaders, which could result in the representation of those negative characteristics in followers' implicit leadership theories.

The second explanation which is related to the power distance factor, is that Saudi culture has a strong influence of tribal values even inside organisations which ascribe status and power to the individual's age and seniority, and not based on his or her accomplishments (Ali, 2009; Assad, 2002). This is clearly reflected in the current Saudi political system, in which the throne is inherited by the sons of the Kingdom's founder based on their age. In Saudi, it is normally unacceptable to have followers report to managers who are younger than they are. That means it is common to select and keep leaders in their positions because they are older than the team members. Therefore, it is not surprising that leaders who were selected based on seniority stay in their position for a long period of time. In the current study, the attribute "old age" was reported more than once which signals that age and seniority are probably one of the defining characteristics of Saudi leaders. This also supports the fact that leaders stay in the leading position for a relatively long time (the attribute "old age" appeared under the narrow-minded category

because participants used descriptions with a cultural connotation of rigidity). Therefore, in a culture, which often favours senior employees over high performers, followers are repeatedly dealing with incompetent leaders who have stayed in position for a long period of time, and that ultimately is likely to contribute to the development of negative images of leaders.

- *Demographic difference factor*

It has been argued above that followers in the Saudi context could find themselves dealing with leaders who occupied their position by virtue of their age and seniority. This is happening at a time when the average age of employees in these companies is sinking continuously. For instance, current statistics of Saudi Aramco, the oil company, show that the proportion of employees who are under the age of 35 has increased from 30% in 2009 to 50% in 2014 and expected to rise to 60% in 2018 (www.argaam.com, 2015). Given that the current retirement age in Saudi is 60, this means that the age discrepancy between followers and leaders has been gradually widening which indicates that the leadership expectations (i.e. ILT) of leaders and their followers might differ as a result. The average age of the study sample is relatively young (i.e. 36.9 years old) which could, compared to old leaders, point to an existence of ILT differences across various generations. It is useful to remember that all the study sample were asked as being followers regardless of the leadership roles that some participants might have. This difference could mean that old leaders who will initiate behaviours consistent with their own ILT are unlikely to meet the expectations held by young followers.

The above argument is supported by previous research that has found that younger people tend to internalise more ideal images of *effective* leaders. Ling and colleagues (2000) have found that younger participants of their sample internalised the most idealised image of *effective* leaders compared to other age groups and that leadership

expectations differed across age groups. It is likely that people would refer to their images of ideal leaders to perceive the effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) of a typical leader.

Given that the study sample is young and younger people are assumed to hold more idealised image of leaders, the potential mismatch between ideal images and typical leader behaviours is expected to be larger. Consequently, it could be suggested that repeated perceived ineffectiveness by followers may indirectly feed the negative image of leaders in general in this context, which is more likely to exist when the discrepancy between ideal and observed behaviour is relatively higher. However, this suggested explanation needs a further empirical examination.

Overall, the above discussion provided some explanations for the negative images associated with Saudi leaders. It has been suggested that the Saudi culture may facilitate having ineffective leaders in their position for a relatively long time and this will probably contribute to negative images of leaders in general. Moreover, the relatively young sample drawn here could be indicating a potential difference in the ILTs held by followers and leaders, and that may also be related to the negative image found here for typical Saudi leaders.

5.3.3. Practical and theoretical recommendations

It is important to understand the practical implication of such negative leaders' profiles. Followers holding negative images of leaders are less inclined to be influenced by leaders, which will likely contribute to increased difficulties for leaders and require more effort from leaders in order to be granted influence by followers (De Rue & Ashford, 2010). Therefore, a recommendation that can be provided for practitioners is that leaders should be aware that uncovering the negative images about leaders in general is important to help them find strategies to increase their own influence on followers. For example, they might have to acknowledge their followers' potentially exaggerated expectation of

leaders, especially with a rather young population as in Saudi Arabia. Particularly, it is crucial to discover whether because of the nature of young followers, such expectations are so high to a level that is almost impossible for leaders to reach. Dealing with this by reducing the gap between followers' expectations of ideal leaders and leaders' actual behaviour will maximise the cooperation among them. Schyns *et al.* (2012) suggest a drawing exercise to raise awareness of implicit leadership theories. They propose that leaders and followers can be asked to draw a leader and show their drawings to the respective other group. Differences can be discussed among members of both groups. The idea is that this can assist leaders and followers to understand how expectations towards leaders might be different between them and discussions can be used to encourage better leadership processes.

Moving from negative categories to negative attributes, Junker and van Dick (2014) reviewed the ILT literature and showed that studies that have looked into negative attributes considered the negativity as either the opposite of positive attributes (such as being rude) or a result of the absence of a positive one (such as being indecisive). However, the current study showed that negativity may exist beyond these two possibilities. That is, the excessive presence of some positive attributes could turn them into perceived negative attributes. For example, some participants mentioned "over-social" and "over-communicative" as negative attributes. This suggests that ILTs (or leaders' attributes) are not merely a matter of *type*, but rather a matter of *degree*. We cannot be sure whether this excessive presence of some positive attributes is directly inferred from over exhibition in terms of leaders' behaviour. However, it can be suggested that leaders could have realised that being "social" and "communicative" are essential for building relationships which are imperative keys to excel in a collective society such as Saudi Arabia. However, leaders, knowing how important these attributes are, could be falling into the trap of practicing such positive attributes to a too large degree which could

make them negative or at least less positive. Therefore, leaders should be sensitive in practicing positive behaviours and mindful of the possibility that followers might perceive that as 'too much of a good thing'.

This result could expand the literature regarding the ILTs' content in two respects. First, it challenges the assumption that the best possible leaders are those who are perceived to possess as many high positive attributes as possible and as few negative attributes as possible (Junker & van Dick, 2014). While this may seem intuitive, the current study suggests that positive attributes are not always perceived favourably, and that 'too much of a good attribute' could turn it to a negative or at least less positive. It would be interesting for future research to investigate whether individuals perceive attributes in terms of a degree, and as a continuum where an ideal might lie in between two extremes. If this is true, it could also be worthwhile to examine how the perception of this balance point itself could vary across cultures and individuals. Second, future research may investigate which type/source of negativity is more influential on the perception of leaders. Is it the negativity that is caused by having opposites of positive attributes (e.g., rude), by the absence of positive attributes (e.g., indecisive), or by excessive presence of positive attributes (e.g., over-passionate)?

Next, I will describe the second pre-study's analysis, results and discussion.

5.4. Pre-study 2: Factors identification

To understand the structure of the Saudi ILTs, this study aimed to identify the factors underlying the 116 leadership items generated in the previous study.

- *Sample:*

All the participants were Saudi full-time employees working for profitable organisations in the Saudi oil and petrochemical sector. A total of 160 participants responded to the study questionnaire (see appendix 2). 94.4% of the participants were

male and only 2.5% are female. As mentioned earlier, the small number of female participants reflects the low number of women working in mixed environments in this sector. The participants' age ranged from 20 to 60 with an average of 35.22 years (SD = 7.74). 76.9% of our participants had earned undergraduate or advanced degrees, while only 20.6% graduated from a high school or got a college diploma. The majority of participants holding undergraduate or advanced degrees studied in Saudi Arabia (53.1%), others (23.8%) studied in Western countries including; USA, UK, Canada, Spain, and Australia. Bahrain was another country, where a few number of the participants studied. Most of our participants have held leadership positions (69.4%) for different periods of time with an average of 55.6 months (SD = 60.9 months).

- *Procedure:*

Again, using a snowball sampling technique, the researcher approached participants through personal networks as he assigned a contact person in each organisation and informed them about the study goals and gave them instructions for the distribution of the study questionnaire (see appendix 2). As mentioned earlier, personal networks can be effective in approaching participants especially in a collective context like Saudi Arabia where relationships play a pivotal role in business affairs (Weir, 2001). The questionnaires were distributed to participants through email. Upon the completion of the questionnaire, the responses were automatically stored in the Qualtrics software database. The participants were ensured anonymity and confidentiality of data treatment.

- *Instrument and Data Collection:*

While 325 participants started filling in the questionnaire, only 162 completed the questionnaire (completion rate 50%). The relatively high completion rate is understandable due the fact that personal reminders and follow ups had been sent to the participants. For inclusion in the analysis, the participants had to be a Saudi citizen to

match the aims of the study, and for this reason two non-Saudi participants were excluded. Therefore, 160 respondents' answers were included in the further analyses.

The 116 items generated in the previous study were administered in a random order (see the items listed in appendix 4). The randomisation process was automatically executed by the software used to collect the study data (i.e. Qualtrics). Participants were asked to rate the items on a 5-point response scale indicating the extent to which each trait was considered as characteristic of leaders in general, where 1 was "very uncharacteristic" and 5 was "very characteristic." The category of leaders in general was activated in the respondent's mind using the illustrative statement: "this refers to your image of a manager based on your experience with different managers on different levels in organisations." As explained in first pre-study, I avoided using the term 'leader' in the questionnaire because it is less commonly used in practice and the direct Arabic translation of the word 'leader' somewhat has a positive connotation which may, in turn, lead to biased responses. Consequently, I used the term "manager" with an explicit definition to indicate the leadership role (a manager here is a person whose role involves leadership and decision making activities). As in the first pre-study, the questionnaire was in Arabic and the translation was checked by two bilingual individuals.

- *Data Analysis and Results:*

For the analysis, a principal axis factoring with direct oblimin rotation was conducted. However, the results did not indicate a clear factor structure reflecting the data. This is probably due to the relatively small sample size compared to the large number of items. In order to get clearer results, it was decided to reduce the number of items before conducting a second principal axis analysis. To systematically do this, I excluded any item that had kurtosis and skewedness values outside the range between -1.96 and +1.96. The reason for this was to include the attributes that are more likely to be

normally distributed. This resulted in the exclusion of 81 items. The remaining 35 items were included in a principal axis factor analysis once with direct oblimin, and another time with varimax rotations. Both cases have resulted in 5 extracted factors with eigenvalue > 1.0. However, the factor loadings did not indicate a clear structure. Looking at the scree plot suggested a 2, 3 or 4 factor solution. Hence, the previous step was repeated with restricting the factor solution to 4 and then 3. Due to the number of double loadings, however, these solutions were deemed unsatisfactory. The two factor solution however was the most satisfactory one.

It was decided to go back one step and broaden the pool of included items. To do this, I applied the standard significant kurtosis and skewedness values for large samples. This was possible since the study sample size is closer to the standard large sample size of 200. This time, the analysis showed that 92 items set inside the kurtosis and skewedness values range between -2.58 and +2.58. Again, a principal axis analysis with direct oblimin rotation was conducted. Based on the scree-plot, a two factor solution was deemed most appropriate. I also tested a three and a four factor solution. However, the two-factor solution remained superior to the three to five factor solutions since the two-factor solution contained far fewer double loadings than the other solutions. Therefore, the two-factor solution provided the clearest interpretation of the factors and the majority of items had high loadings on one of the factors.

Factor 1 consisted of items representing an anti-prototypical dimension including; careless, rude, and centralised. Factor 2 consisted of items representing prototypical dimension including; persistent, cooperative and competent (see the 92-item loadings in the two factors in Table 5-3).

Table 5–3: The 92-item loadings in the two factors

Item	Factor

	1	2
Lack of Knowledge	0.810	0.050
Officious	0.783	0.084
Unprofessional	0.771	-0.117
Imitator	0.762	0.181
Careless	0.759	-0.147
Over-Talking	0.748	0.247
Ignorant	0.723	-0.18
Irrational / Unpredictable	0.723	-0.21
Micro-management	0.72	-0.028
Withdrawal	0.700	-0.133
Rude	0.695	-0.005
Stubborn	0.694	-0.129
Tense / Nervous	0.691	0.034
Poor Planner	0.677	-0.233
Short-sighted	0.677	-0.182
Not Transparent	0.673	-0.174
Bureaucratic	0.673	-0.142
Fearful	0.667	-0.076
Not Communicative	0.664	-0.199
Reserved	0.663	-0.106
Bad Example	0.663	-0.184
Superficial	0.662	-0.143
Not Executer	0.654	-0.168
Slow	0.653	.000
Not Supportive	0.651	-0.247
Weak Personality	0.651	-0.167
Uncommitted	0.643	-0.057
Lazy	0.640	-0.166
Not Visionary	0.626	-0.059
Impractical	0.615	-0.246
Rigid	0.608	-0.182
Self-centred	0.605	-0.031
Distrusting	0.604	-0.255
Centralised	0.602	0.168
Biased	0.601	-0.090
Non-Consultative	0.599	-0.170
Inconsiderate	0.597	-0.119
Not Influential	0.593	-0.217
Indecisive	0.578	-0.159
Not Initiative-Taker	0.577	-0.252
Lack of Managerial Skills	0.576	-0.334
Unappreciative	0.566	-0.320
Not Motivator	0.555	-0.307
Punisher	0.536	0.046
Not Delegative	0.531	0.104

Ineffective	0.517	-0.322
Infirm	0.516	0.058
Responsible	-0.492	0.452
Unenthusiastic	0.465	-0.284
Mature	-0.450	0.418
Honest	-0.419	0.403
Respectful	-0.391	0.296
Intelligent	-0.095	0.735
Consultative	-0.078	0.698
Managerially Skilled	-0.161	0.691
Determined	-0.181	0.689
Over-Social	0.461	0.686
Courageous	-0.113	0.684
Cooperative	-0.241	0.670
Humour sense	0.058	0.665
Good Example / Role model	-0.281	0.652
Likes his/her Team	-0.195	0.647
Dedicated	-0.246	0.643
Ambitious	-0.16	0.643
Persistent	-0.224	0.638
Diplomatic	0.125	0.637
Goal-oriented	-0.190	0.624
Active	-0.229	0.621
Excellent Observer	-0.228	0.604
Achiever	-0.180	0.594
Motivator	-0.040	0.585
Focused	-0.325	0.584
Team Player	-0.252	0.581
Verbally Skilled	-0.061	0.580
Long-sighted	-0.321	0.579
Competent	-0.234	0.576
Organised	-0.144	0.561
Visionary	-0.264	0.549
Inspirational	-0.289	0.538
Supportive	-0.284	0.534
Appreciative	-0.380	0.525
Social Networker	0.030	0.517
Decisive	-0.193	0.517
Communicative	-0.341	0.509
Fair	-0.278	0.504
Open with Employees	-0.243	0.503
Punctual	-0.176	0.498
Planner	-0.414	0.496
Considerate	-0.251	0.486
Marketer	-0.006	0.468

By The Book / Strictly act according to the system	0.095	0.442
Polite	-0.317	0.425
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.		
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation.		

All items that showed double loadings were excluded and the remaining 75 items were considered for further factor analysis. Compared to the number of items found in previous studies (see for example; Offermann et al., 1994), 75 items are still a relatively high number and maybe too high to be used in future studies.

Therefore, to shorten the instrument's items, it was decided to only include 36 items (a number comparable to Offermann et al.'s instrument). I chose to select the 18 items loading highest on the first factor and the 18 items loading highest on the second factor. With those 36 items, I conducted a further principal axis analysis with direct oblimin rotation, and for both factors, all items have loadings greater than .60 with very few exceptions. See the 36-item loadings in the two factors, and the factors correlations presented in Table 5-4 and 5-5.

Table 5–4: 36-item loadings in two factors

Item	Factor	
	1	2
Determined	-0.784	-0.026
Consultative	-0.756	0.053
Managerially Skilled	-0.744	-0.068
Ambitious	-0.734	0.011
Persistent	-0.733	-0.086
Achiever	-0.729	0.006
Intelligent	-0.723	-0.026
Active	-0.719	-0.080
Cooperative	-0.717	-0.153
Likes his/her Team	-0.712	-0.090
Goal-oriented	-0.704	-0.056
Good Example / Role model	-0.700	-0.203
Dedicated	-0.700	-0.153
Humour sense	-0.687	0.111

Excellent Observer	-0.676	-0.100
Courageous	-0.632	-0.126
Competent	-0.610	-0.183
Diplomatic	-0.544	0.103
Officious	-0.091	0.833
Unprofessional	0.171	0.733
Imitator	-0.087	0.730
Tense / Nervous	-0.073	0.730
Over-Talking	-0.219	0.730
Lack of Knowledge	0.077	0.702
Fearful	0.073	0.670
Careless	0.249	0.657
Micro-management	0.102	0.653
Rude	0.052	0.651
Irrational / Unpredictable	0.241	0.647
Ignorant	0.256	0.639
Bureaucratic	0.203	0.629
Bad Example	0.248	0.625
Withdrawal	0.187	0.622
Stubborn	0.186	0.620
Short-sighted	0.259	0.576
Not Supportive	0.354	0.537
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.		
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation.		

Table 5–5:The two factors' correlations

Factor	1	2
1	1	0.64
2	0.64	1

The items representing the first factor included the positive attributes: intelligent, determined, consultative, managerially skilled, goal-oriented, ambitious, courageous, humour sense, liking his/her team, persistent, good example, achiever, cooperative, competent, dedicated, active, diplomatic, and excellent observer. While the second factor included the negative attributes: officious, lack of knowledge, imitator, unprofessional, over-talking, careless, stubborn, micro-management, rude, tense, ignorant, irrational, fearful, withdrawal, short-sighted, bad example, not supportive, and bureaucratic. Finally,

the reliability for factor 1 (the positive-item subscale) and 2 (the negative items subscale) are .951 and .956 Cronbach's Alpha respectively.

It should be noted here that the selected 36-items representing the Saudi leader's category included traits and some behavioural characteristics such as "liking his/her team". The rationale of including both traits and behaviours is that the leader category, as described by Lord et al. (1984), is a "fuzzy" category which is thought to be based on a family resemblance of an attribute rather than a critical attribute. Further, Lord and colleagues (1984) found that leadership might be described as a "person-in-situation" category which makes it more open for a wider range of defining attributes than analogous person category. Given the fuzzy nature of the leader category and its potential for including a wide range of attributes defining such category, it could be useful to include behavioural characteristics alongside traits to identify the Saudi ILTs. Including both traits and behaviours in defining ILTs was explicitly mentioned by Epitropaki and Martin (2004, p. 293) as they pointed that "ILTs represent cognitive structures or schemas specifying traits and behaviours that followers expect from leaders."

With respect to the categories found in the first study, the 36 items retained from the second study reflected all the categories except for the three: Attractive/ unattractive, sensitive/ hard, and honest/ dishonest. Items related to these categories may have disappeared with the items excluded as I restricted myself to only take 18 items in each factor.

5.5. Pre-study 2 discussion

The leadership attributes revealed in this study represented two general factors: positive and negative factors. That is, all the positive attributes loaded on one factor while all the negative attributes loaded on the other. Although the two factor solution is different from the solutions generated in previous studies (e.g., Ling et al., 2000; Offermann et al.,

1994), this is not very surprising since the pattern of having all positive items under one factor has appeared in studies with similar cultural contexts to Saudi Arabia.

Shahin and Wright (2004) investigated the perceptions of leaders in Egypt using Bass and Avolio's multifactor leadership questionnaire with additional questions believed to reflect the Egyptian culture. The main factor emerged was a general factor which they called "positive leadership" and included attributes that reflect a wide range of leadership activities. The attributes were all positive and drawn from both transformational and transactional factors. The authors suggested that the emergence of one factor involving positive attributes is a function of the relatively high levels of collectivism and power distance culture found in Middle Eastern countries where a centralised form of leadership is normally adopted (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 1991; Hofstede, 1980). Ayman and Chemers (1983) found a similar factor from a study which assessed the followers' perception of leaders' behaviour in Iran, another Middle Eastern collectivistic country. They found that, similar to the current study, only two factors emerged from the analysis. One factor contained all positive items and was named "benevolent paternalism". The 13 items contributed to this factor were pleasantness, direction, equality, fairness, rewarding good work, specifying task of each worker, welcoming new ideas, criticising bad work, guiding, friendly, trying to meet deadlines, being like a father and being a good supervisor. The other factor was named "domineering" and contained two items ("makes everyone know he is the boss" and "has his own way of doing things and makes everyone obey him").

In a comparative study, Wilson (2003; cited by Shahin & Wright, 2004) assessed leadership styles in Britain and the Philippines based on followers' ratings of their immediate supervisors' leadership behaviour. The analysis revealed that the first factor based on the Philippines data contained more items than the first factor based on the Britain sample. Wilson suggests that this is because the collectivism and high power

distance culture which may restrict the freedom of managers to select and exhibit different leadership styles. This explanation can be supported by Gelfand and colleagues' (2011) finding that nations high in collectivism and power distance have a "tight" culture. That is, they have strong norms and a low tolerance of deviant behaviours. On the other hand, nations with "loose" cultures have weak norms and a strong tolerance of deviant behaviours. Gelfand and colleagues explained that tight nations restrict the range of behaviours deemed appropriate across everyday situations, and therefore individuals (including leaders) will be more focused on behaving properly and avoiding mistakes. Therefore, the similar pattern of general factor emergence found in Saudi Arabia and in studies with comparable contexts might be a symptom of a tight culture which makes leaders strongly conform to the limited and culturally appropriate behaviours.

It is important to note that the instruments used in the above studies (i.e. MLQ in the Egyptian study, and LBDQ in the Iranian study) focused on measuring perceptions of leader's behaviours or effective leadership styles while the instrument in the current study focuses on traits of leaders in general (ILT). However, these measures differences may not completely prevent the comparability of their findings because it could be argued that the findings of measures rating leader's behaviours may also be more determined by implicit leadership theories held by evaluators than they are by the actual behaviour of the leader being rated (see for example, Calder, 1977; Eden & Leviatan, 1975). Therefore, the similar pattern of factor structure found in the studies above, is partially in line with the findings found in this study.

5.5.1. Explaining the two-factor structure of Saudi ILTs

There are no prior studies investigating the ILT of leaders in general in the Saudi business context, however I will suggest possible explanations for the factor structure found here in this research.

Given that the study participants are current employees and that individuals partly develop their ILT based on their experience and repeated encounters with leaders, it is important to highlight the nature of followers' work experience and interaction with leaders as this could indicate to possible explanations for the two-factor emerged in this study.

I argue that there are two possibilities in the nature of followers-leader interactions which may contribute to a less differentiated image of leaders. The first possibility is that Saudi leaders normally exhibit limited leadership styles or show no strong adherence to a set of behaviours indicative of any particular leadership style (Cavanagh, 2010). This may result in followers holding less differentiated images of leaders in general. The second possibility is that an element of psychological distance might exist inside organisations which could inhibit followers from repetitive interactions with leaders, and that in turn prevents them from perceiving detailed rather than abstract images of leaders.

Identifying factors leading to these two possibilities could be helpful in explaining the two-factor structure found in this study. There are arguably three factors leading to the possibilities mentioned above. Two cultural factors (related to collectivism and power distance), and a values-contradiction factor as will be explained later. In the following and drawing on the available literature, I will explain how these factors might shape the nature of followers' experience with leaders in a way that contributes to the abstract perception of leaders and this in turn, could be reflected in the less differentiated Saudi ILT structure.

- *Power distance factor*

The Saudi high power distance culture means that Saudis accept the inequality of power distribution even though this inequality could be substantial in many cases. In the organisational domain, this means that leaders, given the positional power and status, tend

to make decisions alone (Ali, 1993). Followers, in contrast, are expected to receive direction from leaders and strictly stick to hierarchal lines (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999). As a result, leaders find it more effective to refer less to followers when making decisions, and rely more on direction since "participative procedures may actually prove to undermine leader credibility in the high power distance context of developing countries" (Pillai et al., 1999, p. 775). In other words, leaders, given the acceptance of power inequality, will stick to a rigid directive style rather than dynamically exhibit different leadership styles. This pervasive directive style shown by leaders, means that followers repeatedly experience limited exhibition of leadership styles and that in turn could result in the development of a less differentiated images of leaders.

Furthermore, followers in a high power distance context are not only found to be recipients of the top-down direction but also found to be less likely to establish bottom-up communications. Smith and colleagues (2007), based on a survey of Saudi middle managers, have found that Saudi followers are less likely to refer to supervisors when seeking advice, but rather prefer to consult peers when dealing with work-related problems, and this, as their study suggests, is probably due to face saving as a cultural value. Taken together, this limited social interaction between leaders and followers in the workplace may point to the existence of a psychological distance (i.e. social distance). Trope et al. (2007) reviewed the literature on how psychological distance influences individuals' perceptual construction. They explained that the higher the social distance is between the perceiver (i.e. follower) and the target (i.e. leader) the more abstract and less detailed the perceptual construction would be. Drawing on this, it can be suggested that the participants might have experienced a sufficient degree of social distance that possibly would create a higher level of abstraction in their perception. That ultimately could have led to constructing less differentiated images of leaders in general. Although this suggestion is worth considering, it still needs careful investigation in future research.

- *Collectivism factor*

Saudi Arabia has a high collectivistic culture which means that individuals will give priority to the group interest over their personal interests. That is, maintaining the cohesion of the group is considered far more important than expressing the individual self. In the organisational domain, collectivism dictates that leaders, even with the discretionary power, should behave in a certain way. Bjerke and Al-Meer (1993) found that Saudi leaders tended to exhibit high conflict avoidant behaviours. Moreover, their practices are influenced by tribal traditions and therefore a leader is expected to act as a father figure who serves the public good and cares for his or her followers. It is important to note that this is a general expectation of leadership, which sets a broad limit for leaders, however does not dictate that a leader should technically pursue a specific leadership style. Ali (2009) explained this prevalent vague leadership style by asserting that Saudi leaders tend to practice a highly management-by-exception style which does not emphasise performance, rather depends on relationships with others. This might explain how leaders may not show a strong adherence to a particular leadership style. This style however is not likely to be challenged by followers, as followers in a high collectivism culture are also expected to conform to decisions and adapt to leaders' practices in order to maintain group's cohesion. Consequently, they become very reluctant to challenge leaders as this act might be negatively perceived as over-expressing individuality at the expense of the group interest (Assad, 2002).

Therefore, it is probable that Saudi leaders show a high variation in their behaviour without a strong adherence to a particular style. Because of that, followers will repeatedly experience a limited leadership style or may not be able to clearly detect one, and that may have led to the less differentiated images of leaders.

- *Values-contradiction factor*

Recent studies have supported the possibility that Saudi leaders may not strongly adhere to certain behaviours indicative of a certain leadership style. Cavanagh (2010) used the MLQ instrument to study two groups of Saudi male managers; one educated in the West and another educated solely in Saudi Arabia. The analysis of the self-rated questionnaires revealed a general conclusion that neither the Western-educated nor the locally educated Saudi managers exhibited strong adherence to a set of leadership behaviours indicative of a particular leadership style. Similarly, Smith et al. (2007), based on data drawn from Saudi managers in multiple organisations, found evidence of diverse orientations of management practices within Saudi organisations. Both studies did not examine the factors influencing this tendency among Saudi leaders, nor provided suggested explanations of this particular result. However, this absence of detectable distinctive leadership styles and the tendency towards scattered and diverse practices may be a symptom of pragmatism (Assad, 2002). Leaders in this context are inclined to be pragmatic and inconsistent when conducting their behaviour due to the contradiction of ideal values inherited from Islamic teachings or some Western work values, and the inhibiting but powerful tribal social values. For example, Ali (2009) argued that although Saudi leaders may desire to practice a consultative style, this style is sanctioned by tribal traditions.

Ali (2009) asserts that in Saudi, traditional social forces and norms constitute a powerful restraining factor in organisations. The traditional values such as respect for the elderly, obedience to those in power, concern for others, and loyalty to family and friends continue to interfere in organisational dynamics. Because leaders may be in a daily confrontation with contradictions between what is ideal and what is practically possible practice, they publicly appear to accept behaviours for which no personal conviction exists (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2006). For example, Abdulla and Al-Homoud (2001) examined similar contexts, namely Kuwait and Qatar, using the GLOBE instrument and

found participants perceived that being autocratic has a negative effect on leaders' success. However, post-study interviews with subjects who completed the GLOBE questionnaire showed that they were more favorably disposed towards autocratic leadership and face-saving leadership than their survey responses suggested. This contradiction between ideal and practical values replicates the finding of Al-Jafary and Hollingswoth (1983) who studied the management styles in the GCC countries including Saudi Arabia. They found that although managers expressed preference for participative leadership style, they also seem reluctant to involve their employees in the decision making process. Abdulla and Al-Homoud concluded that "the dual sets of values of the Gulf culture are readily observable in the organisational practices. Managers often proudly boast their imported modern technology and work design but in practice they put it to the service of socio-political expectations." (2001, p. 524). Similarly, Ali contends that “in terms of leadership, inconsistencies between the ideal and reality, and between what is practised and desirable, are common in the Middle East” (2011, p. 98). Researchers explained that the sudden oil exploration and the unmatched cultural change have contributed to the endorsement of dual yet contradictory sets of personal and organisational values (Ali, 2009; El-Tayeb, 1986).

Therefore, it seems that Saudi leaders endorse dual yet contradictory values in their behaviour in an attempt to maintain a fine balance between the ideal leadership values and the traditional values, which is often more suitable for efficient operational demands in this context. However, this pragmatic way might render their behaviour to be inconsistent or unsettled in the eyes of their followers. In other words, followers may not be able to observe a strict adherence to certain types of leadership which could yield to a less differentiated images of leaders. This may be the case in the current study context where Saudi leaders in the oil and petrochemical sector are highly exposed to Western

values and practices through Western training programs and interactions with expatriates, however find themselves unable or constrained to put such ideal values into practice.

5.6. Summary and conclusion

In the first phase of my studies, I explored the content of implicit leadership theories of leaders in general in the Saudi business context. The aim was to create an instrument that is more sensitive to the Saudi cultural context for use in the main study of this thesis. The findings from the first study revealed that the images of leaders are composed of positive as well as negative attributes. These attributes reflected all the categories emerged in Schyns and Schilling's (2011a) study, and one new category, that is, competent/ incompetent. The second study found that a 2-factor solution best represents those attributes.

The main strength of these two studies is that all of the participants were working employees allowing for a more reliable assessment of ILTs compared to studies with student samples. However, the sample size (being less than 200) in both studies is too small to generalise their results (for sample size considerations see; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Particularly, the small sample size in the second study compared to the large number of items under research may have contributed to the issue of not producing an adequate number of factors. However, the results remain useful for a first exploratory study in this context, and the sample size can be improved in future research endeavours.

In conclusion, the above discussion explained the two major findings from the two pre-studies. The first is the tendency of the Saudi ILTs towards negativity. The second is the two-facture structure emerged from the second study. Drawing on the available literature, factors related to culture, values-contradiction, and demographics were suggested and thought to shape followers' interaction with leaders in a way that

contributes to the ILT structure found here. Moreover, similarities and differences with previous Western studies were highlighted.

Chapter 6: Main Study Analysis and Results

The main study aims to test the hypothesised model (see figure 1-1). This chapter will present descriptions of the study's sample, approach, measurements, and results.

6.1. Participants

All the participants were Saudi full-time employees working in SABIC petrochemical company. A total of 333 participants completed the survey (330 were men and only 3 were women). The response rate could not be obtained as the HR department of SABIC considered the information about the total number of people contacted confidential. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 66, with an average age of 37.8 (SD = 8.53). On average, the participants had work experience of 184.6 months (or 15 years) (SD =103.8), and spent 29.6 months (or 2.5 years) on average with the current supervisor (SD = 29.3). 13.5% of the participants hold postgraduate degrees, 51.1% graduate degrees, 33.3% college degrees, and only 2.1% with secondary school degrees. The majority have held a leadership position (70.6%) with an average leadership experience of 75.2 months (or 6 years) (SD = 71.27). The reported average number of employees working under a supervisor (i.e. span of control) is 54.29 (SD=122.36).

6.2. Procedure

An email was sent to each participant with a brief explanation of the study objective, the researcher purpose, and a link of the questionnaire. In the first page of the questionnaire, the participant was informed that this study is carried out in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University. This entails that the participation is voluntarily, and anonymity and confidentiality are ensured. The participant had to click on a button as a sign of consent before starting the questionnaire. The distributed questionnaire was in Arabic and included five sections measuring follower's perception of: 1) the ILT, and its congruence

the leader's ILT, 2) quality of leader-member exchange (LMX), 3) follower's need for leadership (NfL), 4) cultural-orientations, and 5) a final part for collecting certain demographic information from the respondent such as, age, gender, education level, work experience, the number of employees working under his/her supervisor, and the respondent's leadership experience, if any. The questionnaire is presented in appendix 3. Upon the completion of the survey, the data is stored automatically by the survey software (i.e. Qualtrics) used in this project.

The next part will discuss the validation of the measures included in the questionnaire and the hypotheses testing. In the following, I will present the subscales, factor loadings of the ILT scale, LMX, NFL, and cultural orientations constructs, and their reliability tests.

6.3. Data analysis

This section sets out the findings by presenting the quantitative analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire survey in order to test the hypothesised model. That is, to test the moderating role of need for leadership (NfL) on the relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX, and test the predictive role of cultural orientations on need for leadership and LMX. This analysis was carried out through two phases; the measurement model phase which involves the validation of the study contracts, and the structural model phase which involves the hypotheses testing.

6.3.1. Measures reliability and validity

In the measurement model phase, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were employed to test the dimensionality and validity of the study constructs. This phase also involved testing the scales reliabilities.

Results of exploratory factor analysis

Since the dimensionality of both need for leadership and the Saudi ILTs constructs have not been established in the literature, EFA was employed using Mplus 7.3 to test their dimensionality. The next section presents the EFA results for the Saudi ILTs and the NFL, respectively.

Saudi ILTs

All the 36 items used in the questionnaire to test the Saudi ILTs were subject to EFA. Using the criteria of eigenvalue greater than one, models of one-factor, two-factor, three-factor and four-factor solutions were analysed. The analysis revealed that the two, three and four factor solution models fits the data well (See table 6-1). However, since the two-factor model has the smallest factor number that can adequately explain the correlations among the items with no cross loadings (multiple cross loadings found in the cases of three and four factor models), it was decided that the two-factor is the most appropriate solution.

Table 6–1 Fit indices for four models of Saudi ILTs

Models	Chi-Square	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	BIC
One-factor	7175.969	.096	.721	.704	.104	42588.050
Two-factor	1086.514	.053	.919	.909	.038	41459.020
Three-factor	867.665	.044	.948	.937	.030	41437.648
Four-factor	202.386	.042	0.956	0.943	.028	41544.801
Cut-off values		**<.06**	**> .9**	**> .9**	**<.08**	

The first factor was labelled the "positive factor" which contains all the positive leader's attributes (item loadings ranged from 0.513 to .808). The second was labelled the "negative factor" which contains all the negative leader's attributes (item loadings ranged from 0.407 to .745). Table (6-2) shows the item loadings for each factor. It should be noted that the EFA is useful in identifying the number factors however, testing the validity of the scale requires confirmatory factor analysis. Hence, CFA was conducted to test the validity of the scale, and its analysis, results, as well as the reliability results will be presented later.

Table 6–2 Factor loadings for Saudi ILT two factors

Item	Factor	
	1	2
Ambitious	0.808	
Active	0.800	
Achiever	0.802	
Goal-oriented	0.774	
Persistent	0.771	
Intelligent	0.747	
Excellent observer	0.724	
Determined	0.701	
Competent	0.705	
Likes his/her team	0.697	
Cooperative	0.702	
Dedicated	0.707	
Good example	0.683	
Consultative	0.659	
Managerially skilled	0.666	
Courageous	0.615	
Diplomatic	0.558	
Humour sense	0.513	
Stubborn		0.745
Officious		0.681
Micro-managing		0.678
Irrational		0.684
Tense		0.684
Imitator		0.659
Withdrawal		0.665
Bureaucratic		0.619
Short-sighted		0.609
Fearful		0.599
Ignorant		0.595
Lack of knowledge		0.574
Unprofessional		0.564
Not supportive		0.535
Over talking		0.487
Bad example		0.498
Careless		0.436
Rude		0.407

Need for leadership (NfL):

All the 17 items used in the questionnaire to test the need for leadership were subject to EFA. Using the criteria of eigenvalue greater than one, models of one-factor, two-factor, and three-factor solutions were analysed. The analysis revealed that the three-factor solution has the best model fit indices, and therefore it is the most appropriate solution. See table (6-3).

Table 6–3 fit indices for NfL one, two, and three factor solutions

Models	Chi-Square	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	BIC
One-factor	757.137	.127	.767	.734	.075	16211.345
Two-factor	505.807	.108	.853	.806	.056	16052.944
Three-factor	285.082	.082	.928	.889	.035	15919.342
Cut-off values		**<.06**	**> .9**	**> .9**	**<.08**	

The first factor was labelled "need for motivation" which contains five items with loadings ranged from 0.627 to .866. The second factor was labelled "need for problem solving" which contains five items with loadings ranged from .386 to .831. The third factor was labelled "need for direction" which contains two items with loadings of .807 and .894. Table (6-4) shows the item loadings for each factor. It should be noted that the EFA is useful in identifying the number factors however, testing the validity of the scale requires confirmatory factor analysis. Hence, CFA was conducted to test the validity of the scale, and its analysis, results, as well as the reliability results will be presented later.

Table 6–4 EFA factor loadings for NfL items

Item	Factor		
	Motivation	**Problem solving**	**Direction**
NfL16 - I need my manager to recognize and reward contributions.	**0.866**		
NfL15 - I need my manager to give work-related feedback.	**0.734**		
NfL17 - I need my manager to inspire me.	**0.777**		
NfL4 - I need my manager to motivate me.	**0.677**		

NfL10 - I need my manager to provide me with support.	**0.627**		
I need my manager to create a good team spirit.	-	-	-
NfL13 - I need my manager to help solve problems.		**0.831**	
NfL12 - I need my manager to handle conflicts.		**0.812**	
NfL8 - I need my manager to gear all activities of the team to one another.		**0.461**	
I need my manager to coordinate, plan and organize my work.	-	-	-
NfL7 - I need my manager to provide me with information.		**0.363**	
NfL14 - I need my manager to correct mistakes.		**0.386**	
I need my manager to maintain external contacts.	-	-	-
I need my manager to arrange things with higher-level management.	-	-	-
NfL1 - I need my manager to decide what work should be done.			**0.807**
NfL2 - I need my manager to set goals.			**0.894**
I need my manager to transfer knowledge.	-	-	-

Results of confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis was employed in the current study to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the study measurements. The CFA for each construct was conducted using SEM and ML estimation technique. The data was entered in Mplus 7.3 and if the specified model fits the data well, the data is then assessed with regard to discriminant and convergent validity. In the following, the details of the CFA results for four constructs, namely, Saudi ILT, LMX, NfL, and cultural orientation are presented respectively. The reliability tests for each construct will also be reported.

CFA for Saudi ILTs

The participant's ILT of leaders in general was measured using the 36- items instrument which was developed in the two pre-studies. The model was specified as the ILT is composed of two latent factors and each factor is measured with 18 items. Each of the 36 items presented was rated on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "very uncharacteristic" to (7) "very characteristic". This model satisfies the identification

criteria for CFA models as Kline (2011) pointed that if a CFA model has two or more factors with at least two indicators per factor, then the model is identified.

The loadings for both factors are exceeding .50 with very few exceptions (see table presenting items factor loadings, means, SDs, and the subscales reliabilities in appendix 5). The two factors showed a negatively moderate correlation of .61 which suggests its discriminant validity. Each subscale showed an excellent reliability measurement of Cronbach's alpha. Specifically, the negative subscale showed .92 Cronbach's alpha, and all items were retained because no item removal improved the reliability. The positive subscale showed a reliability of .94 Cronbach's alpha, and no item removal added any substantial improvement to the reliability. In summary, the CFA analysis of ILT scale supported its validity and reliability.

The ILT scale was included in the survey so the participant can use it as reference point when assessing the congruence to the leader's ILT. However, the congruence to the leader's ILT has been measured with one item question which reads: "to what extent do you perceive that your personal image of mangers in general matches that held by your direct supervisor?". The question was answered on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) "very different" to (5) "very similar".

CFA for LMX

The 12-items LMX-MDM scale has been utilised to measure the respondents' perception of relationship quality with leaders. Liden and Maslyn (1998) developed this instrument to measure four dimensions of LMX (i.e. 3 items for each dimension), namely; professional respect, affection, contribution, and loyalty. The decision to use the LMX-MDM scale is because it was developed using a comparatively rigorous procedure. Moreover, it acknowledges that LMX is a multi-dimensional construct which ensures a comprehensive coverage of the LMX domain compared to other unidimensional measure

such as the LMX-7 scale (Dulebohn et al. 2012). Each item was rated on a 5-point scale ranging from (1)"strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree."

The model was specified as the LMX is composed of four latent factors and each factor is measured with 3 items. Each of the 12 items presented was rated on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) “very uncharacteristic” to (5) “very characteristic”. This model satisfies the identification criteria for CFA models as Kline (2011) pointed that if a CFA model has two or more factors with at least two indicators per factor, then the model is identified.

The loadings for all factors are exceeding .50 with only one exceptions (see table presenting items factor loadings, means, SDs, and the subscales reliabilities in appendix 6). Similar to what is reported in Liden and Maslyn’s (1998) study, the LMX factors in this study showed relatively high correlations however they do not reflect redundancy between the four dimensions (see factor correlations table in appendix 7). Each subscale showed a good reliability measurement of Cronbach’s alpha. Specifically, the loyalty subscale showed .89 Cronbach’s alpha, respect, affect, and contribution showed reliabilities of .902, .883, and .768 Cronbach’s alphas, respectively. In summary, the CFA analysis of LMX scale supported its validity and reliability.

CFA for need for leadership (NfL)

The assessment of need for leadership in this thesis follows the conceptualisation of De Vries (1997) and therefore his 17-items instrument has been utilised. The question reads as: “on the personal level, please indicate on which of the following aspects you generally need the contribution of your manager/supervisor.” The participants assessed their need in terms of 17 leaders’ functions. Each item was rated on a 5-point scale with 1 being "not at all" and 5 being "a lot." The model was specified as the NfL is composed of three factors as emerged in the exploratory factor analysis. This model satisfies the

identification criteria for CFA models as Kline (2011) pointed that if a CFA model has two or more factors with at least two indicators per factor, then the model is identified.

The loadings for all factors are exceeding .50 (see table presenting items factor loadings, means, SDs, and the subscales reliabilities in appendix 8). The three factors showed acceptable factor correlations (see factors correlations table in appendix 9). All three factors showed good reliabilities of .854., 822, .791 Cronbach's alphas, for need for motivation, problem solving, and direction factors; respectively. In summary, the CFA analysis of NfL scale supported its validity and reliability.

CFA for cultural orientations

To measure the participant's cultural orientations, this study utilised the Triandis and Gelfand (1998) 16-items scale. The model was specified, based on the four factors found by Triandis and Gelfand (1998), as this scale consists of four factors, namely; horizontal individualism (HI), vertical individualism (VI), horizontal collectivism (HC), and vertical collectivism (VC). 16 items (4 items for each factor) were assessed on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 "Never" to 5 "All of the time." This model satisfies the identification criteria for CFA models as Kline (2011) pointed that if a CFA model has two or more factors with at least two indicators per factor, then the model is identified.

The factor analysis integrated all the 16 items of cultural orientations. Four factors emerged, based on the scree-plot criterion with eigenvalues above 1.0. It was decided to retain the four-factor solution although the vertical collectivism factor showed a high correlation with horizontal collectivism. This is firstly to allow for the comparability with similar studies in the literature. Secondly, Triandis and Gelfand also experienced the same issue with that factor in their study, and they pointed that vertical- and horizontal-collectivism items seem to be highly correlated.

The loadings for all factors are exceeding .50 with very few exceptions (see table presenting items factor loadings, means, SDs, and the subscales reliabilities in appendix 10). The four factors showed acceptable factor correlations except for the VC correlation with HC, as mentioned earlier (see factors correlations table in appendix 11). All four factors showed good reliabilities except for vertical individualism (i.e. showed a reliability around .6 Cronbach's alpha). In summary, the CFA analysis of cultural orientations scale supported its validity and reliability.

The next part will explain the structural model validation process, followed by the results of tested hypotheses.

6.3.2. Hypothesis testing

To test the hypotheses, structural equation modelling (SEM) using maximum likelihood techniques was utilised. The advantage of SEM is that both measurement (e.g., factor analysis) and the structural paths can be conducted at the same time. Moreover, each of the paths (e.g., hypothesis tests) can be assessed simultaneously, rather than stepwise as in regression analyses. This sophisticated technique can be helpful for analysing my model as it involves several latent variables with a relatively large number of indicators.

To create the structural equation model, all items were entered into Mplus 7.3 software. Relevant items were set to be reflective of the suitable latent variable as described above in the factor analyses. For example, the need for leadership items were set to be reflective of a latent need for leadership variable. The process was repetitively conducted for each latent variable proposed in the hypothesised model (e.g., LMX, cultural orientation, etc.). After that, the structure of the model was organised to be consistent with the hypotheses in order to assess the extent to which the data fit the model.

Model validation

Since the model is investigating the interaction of a continuous latent variable (i.e. need for leadership) with a continuous observed variable (i.e. ILT similarity) in predicting a latent continuous variable (LMX), Mplus is not technically capable of computing the fit statistics (such as chi-square, SRMR…etc.) for a model involving an interaction between a continuous observed variable and a continuous latent variable. To overcome this technical limitation, an alternative solution to assess the model validity is to utilise the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) which is a fit index used for models comparison (Byrne, 2010). Commonly, lower BIC value is favourable since models with lower BIC values indicate better means of data description than those models with higher BIC values (Byrne, 2010). Therefore, the researcher decided to compare the BIC values for two models; the hypothesised model which incorporates the moderator term (i.e. need for leadership), and the other model without including the moderator term. The results showed almost similar values with a slightly higher BIC value for the model with the moderator term (BIC=33438.234) compared to the model without it (BIC = 33432.852). Since the hypothesised moderator effect was not found to be significant in the model with the moderator (as will be reported in the result section), and its BIC value is higher and thus unfavourable, I decided to conduct further fit statistics to test the model without the moderator. If this model shows good fit statistics, then I will compare it with alternative models before using it to report the results for the remaining hypotheses.

The tested fit statistics include the chi-square, Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI). The literature suggested cut-off values for these indexes with which the model fit statistics can be compared before concluding that there is a relatively good fit between the hypothesised model and the observed data. Cut-off values of .08 or less for SRMR and .06 or less for RMSEA suggest

an acceptable model fit, where lower values are indicative of better model fitting (Hu & Bentler, 1999). CFI and TLI values greater than 0.9 and preferably greater than 0.95 suggest a good model fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Based on these cut-off criteria, the analysis revealed that the structural equation model fits the data well with a CFI = .924, TLI =.916; SRMR = .055, RMSEA = .045, chi-square = 1186.885 (df = 706), p < .01.

Alternative Models

Before analysing the hypothesised relationships, the hypothesised model was compared with two alternative models to see if they could reveal a better fit to the data. The alternative models were generated based on theoretical assumptions. The first model assumes NfL as a predictor for LMX, as this has been found in previous research (e.g., Schyns et al., 2008). The second alternative model assumes that LMX as a predictor for NfL since good relationship with leaders may enhance the sense of dependency and need for such leaders. Fit indices for each model were obtained and compared, as shown in table (6-5). The alternative models did not show superior fit indices compared to the hypothesised model and therefore this model will be used to report the standardised coefficients of the hypothesised relationships.

Table 6–5 fit indices for the hypothesised and alternative models

Model	Chi-square	BIC	AIC	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
Hypothesised model	1186.885	33432.852	32854.014	0.055	0.045	0.924	0.916
Model with NfL as a predictor of LMX	1186.885	33432.852	32854.014	0.055	0.045	0.924	0.916
Model with LMX as a predictor of NfL	1186.885	33435.025	32856.187	0.055	0.045	0.924	0.916

6.4. Results

After obtaining an acceptable model fit, the researcher tested the study hypotheses. Each path in the structural equation model between the latent variables

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represents a certain hypothesis. The hypothesised relationships are either supported or rejected depending on the significance level (P-value) of their standardised coefficients. If the P-value shows less than the significance level (i.e. $P < .05$), then there is evidence to accept the hypothesised relationship. The levels of the significance that are used in the current study are: $\leq .01$ and $\leq .05$. Lower significance level means that the data shows more deviations from the null hypothesis which assumes that no relationship exists.

Structural equation modelling using Mplus 7.3 is employed to test the model hypotheses. Table (6-6) presents the results from the structural equation model showing the hypothesised relationships, the standardised estimates, and the P-values. The next lines will present the result of each hypothesis, respectively.

The relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX

It was hypothesised that followers' perceived similarity of their and their leaders' ILTs is positively correlated with LMX, as indicated in the first hypothesis (H1). An examination of the path coefficient and the related P-value reveals that the coefficient between the perceived ILT similarity and LMX is 0.165 with a significant P-value (<.01). This gives evidence to support the first hypothesis that followers' perception of the ILT-similarity and LMX are positively correlated.

Table 6–6 Paths standardised coefficients for the hypothesised model

Relationship	Hypothesis	Standardised estimates	P-value	Hypothesised relationship(s) Result
ILT-similarity → LMX	**H1:** Followers' perceived similarity of their and their leaders' ILTs is positively correlated with LMX.	0.165**	0.003	Supported
The moderating effect of NfL	**H2:** Need for leadership will negatively moderate the relationship between followers' perceived ILT similarity and leader-member exchange (LMX).	0.063[a]	0.516	Rejected
VC → NfL	**H3a:** Followers with vertical collectivism orientation (VC) will express the highest perceived need for leadership, compared to those with other orientations. **H3b:** Followers with horizontal individualism orientation (HI) will express the lowest perceived need for leadership, compared to those with other orientations.	-0.177	0.434	Hypothesised comparisons could not be tested due to non-significant relationships of three cultural orientations. However, some evidence found for the cultural orientations' effect on NfL.
HI → NfL		0.061	0.594	
VI → NfL		0.411**	0.004	
HC → NfL		0.004	0.986	
VC → Affect	**H4a:** Vertical and horizontal collectivism orientations (VC, HC) will show higher positive correlations with affect and loyalty dimensions of LMX (relational-based dimensions).	-0.248	0.232	H4a is partially supported
HC → Affect		0.495*	0.014	
VI → Affect		-0.122	0.367	
HI → Affect		-0.018	0.864	
VC → Loyalty		-0.372	0.092	
HC → Loyalty		0.442*	0.037	
VI → Loyalty		-0.1	0.469	
HI → Loyalty		0.111	0.307	
VC → Contribution	**H4b:** Vertical and horizontal individualism orientations (VI, HI) will show higher positive correlations with contribution and respect dimensions of LMX (task-related dimensions).	-0.144	0.472	H4b is rejected. However, general evidence found for cultural orientations' effect on perceived LMX.
HC → Contribution		0.386*	0.044	
VI → Contribution		0.139	0.287	
HI → Contribution		-0.11	0.285	
VC → Respect		-0.319	0.131	
HC → Respect		0.489*	0.015	
VI → Respect		-0.006	0.964	
HI → Respect		-0.028	0.79	

** P < .05, ** P < .01, [a] unstandardised coefficient; NfL = Need for leadership, VC = Vertical Collectivism, VI = Vertical Individualism, HC = Horizontal Collectivism, HI = Horizontal Individualism.*

The moderating effect of need for leadership on the relationship between followers' perception of ILT-similarity and LMX

It was hypothesised that followers' level of need for leadership will differentiate the strength of the relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX. This is based on what is found in the social cognition literature that perceivers are more likely to depend on their categorical thinking if they lack the motivation to think deeply and accurately about others (Macrae & Bodenhoausen, 2000). Given that need for leadership could act as a motivational force for followers to dedicate more cognitive resources when perceiving their leaders, I assumed that followers with low level of need for leadership will be more likely to use their categorical thinking when perceiving leaders than followers with high levels of need for leadership. Therefore, the second hypothesis assumed that need for leadership will negatively moderate the relationship between followers' perceived ILT-similarity and leader-member exchange (LMX). The result shows that the coefficient of this moderating effect was not significant (0.063, P=.516). Therefore, the second hypothesis is not supported in this study.

The relationship between followers' cultural orientations and need for leadership

It is hypothesised that individuals who are high in both power distance and collectivism will express the highest need for leadership compared to individuals with other orientations, whereas individuals low in both collectivism and power distance will express the lowest need for leadership, compared to individuals with other orientations. This is indicated in H3a and H3b respectively:

H3a: Followers with vertical collectivism orientation (VC) will express the highest perceived need for leadership, compared to those with other orientations.

H3b: Followers with horizontal individualism orientation (HI) will express the lowest perceived need for leadership, compared to those with other orientations.

The results show that no significant effect was found for all cultural orientations on need for leadership except for the vertical individualism (VI) orientation. Specifically, the VC, HC, HI showed insignificant coefficients of -0.177 (P=.433), 0.004(p=.986), and 0.061 (p=.594); respectively. However, the vertical individualism (VI) orientation showed a significant large effect of 0.411 (p<.01). Therefore, conclusions about H3a and H3b cannot be inferred in this case as the significant effects of the other cultural orientations could not be found to test the hypothesised comparisons. Nevertheless, the significant effect of the VI orientation on need for leadership provides a general evidence for the individuals' cultural orientations effect on the perceived need for leadership.

The relationship between cultural orientations and LMX dimensions

It was hypothesised that individuals with collectivistic orientations will generally put more emphasis on the relationship with others than those with individualistic orientations. Therefore, collectivists will show higher expression of relationship-based LMX dimensions (i.e. affect and loyalty), whereas individualists will show higher expression of task-related LMX dimensions (i.e. contribution and respect). This is indicated in the hypotheses H4a and H4b respectively:

H4a: Vertical and horizontal collectivism orientations (VC, HC) will show higher positive correlations with affect and loyalty dimensions of LMX (relational-based dimensions).

H4b: Vertical and horizontal individualism orientations (VI, HI) will show higher positive correlations with contribution and respect dimensions of LMX (task-related dimensions).

The results show that only HC is significantly related to both affect (0.495, P<.05) and loyalty (0.442, P<.05). In respect to affect, no significant relationship was found for VC (-0.248, P=.232), VI (-0.122, P=.367), and HI (-0.018, P=.864). In respect to loyalty, no significant relationship was found for VC (-0.372, P=.092), VI (-0.1, P=.469), and HI (0.111, P=.307).

Therefore, the significant effect that is only found for the HC, however not for the VC orientation leads to the conclusion that H4a is partially supported.

In respect to the second part of the fourth hypothesis, the results show that only HC is significantly related to both contribution (r=.386, P<.05) and respect (r=.489, P<.05), whereas no significant relationships were found for the other orientations on contribution and respect. Specifically, no significant relationships with contribution were found for VC (-0.144, P=.472), VI (0.139, P=.287), and HI (-0.11, P=.285). Additionally, no significant relationships with the respect dimension were found for VC (-0.319, P=.131), VI (-0.006, P=.964), and HI (-0.028, P=.79).

Therefore, the insignificant effects of VI and HI on contribution and loyalty indicates that there is no evidence to support the H4b. Nevertheless, the found significant effects of the HC orientation on loyalty, affect, contribution and respect dimensions provide a general evidence that culture at the individual level could affect the perception of LMX dimensions.

The next chapter will discuss and explain these results in light of the reviewed literature and research context.

6.5. Summary

This chapter presented the process of data collection and analysis, as well as the results for the main study which aimed to examine the research model. The scales used in this study were obtained from the literature except for the ILT scale which used the

one developed in the pre-studies. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis have been conducted using SEM and Mplus 7.3 software to ensure the validity of the scales included in the survey. Reliability tests were also conducted for each scale. Following the assessment of the alternative models, the hypothesised correlations were tested using SEM. The results supported the first hypothesis which tests the ILT similarity and LMX relationship, while rejected the second hypothesis which tests the moderating effect of need for leadership on ILT-similarity and LMX relationship. As for the third and fourth sets of hypotheses, they were not fully supported, yet the results provided a slight evidence for the proposed effects of cultural orientations on both need for leadership and the LMX.

Chapter 7: Main Study Discussion

The previous chapter presented the results of the analysis conducted to test the hypotheses in this study. This chapter will discuss these results in light of the research questions and objectives outlined in chapter one, as well as the previous literature. The main study aimed to test the hypothesised model of the relationships among the variables of interest as depicted in figure (1-1). The research model had three main objectives. The first was to test whether similarity of followers' ILT and their leaders' ILT, as perceived by followers, will affect followers' perception of LMX. The second was to examine the moderating role of followers' need for leadership as a personal characteristic on the ILT-similarity and LMX relationship. The third objective was to examine the effect of cultural orientations on the followers' perception of need for leadership as well as LMX.

Based on the aforementioned objectives, the present study seeks to achieve three main contributions to research in the area of ILT and LMX. First, the operationalisation of ILT similarity in this study is slightly different from previous studies. While Epitropaki and Martin (2005) measured similarity between ILT and exhibited leader behaviour (i.e. implicit-explicit match) from followers' perspective, this study seeks to measure similarity between followers' and their leaders' ILTs as perceived by followers (i.e. implicit-implicit match). Understanding whether this similarity at the perceptual-level still has an effect on followers' perception of LMX could advance our knowledge in this area, as will be discussed later.

Second, it extends our understanding of the relationship between the perceived ILTs similarity and the quality of LMX by investigating a potential contextual factor; namely, followers' need for leadership. With the exception of Epitropaki and Maritn's (2005) study, it is notable that there is a dearth of studies examining potential moderators, especially perceptual ones, which is important to better understand the nature of this

relationship. Including contextual factors in studies concerning followers' perception can be useful in clarifying the nature of the link between ILT and LMX (Lord et al., 2001; Lord & Maher, 1993). This study is the first attempt to empirically examine followers' need for leadership as a contextual factor in the ILT-similarity and LMX relationship.

The third contribution is that these leadership constructs have been examined in a cultural context different from the West where most of the leadership studies have been conducted. Specifically, the concept of implicit leadership theories has not been examined before in Saudi Arabia, and LMX is very rarely addressed in such context. Therefore, this could provide insights into how leadership operates in other cultures, however the study takes a step further by examining culture at the individual level, rather than the societal level. This is important because culture could also vary across individuals within a society (Triandis, 2001), and that could guide followers' perceptions of need for leadership and LMX. Therefore, finding that the effect of culture on followers' perceptions extends beyond the societal level is an important contribution as it provides another explanatory factor for individuals' differences in terms of perceived NfL and LMX.

The discussion in the following lines will firstly explain the emerged factors of the measured constructs (i.e. LMX, NfL, cultural orientation) using instruments available in the literature. This will be followed by explanations for the findings related to the hypothesised relationships in the study.

7.1. Explaining the emerged factors

The current study used instruments offered in the literature to examine the constructs of LMX, cultural-orientations, and need for leadership. These instruments with items measuring self-reported perceptions were created in Western contexts with individualistic cultures. Since perceptions are generally sensitive to culture, the emergence of the instruments' subscales and factor loadings may show different patterns

when applied in a different cultural context. The current study used these instruments in a collectivistic context and the analysis showed both similarities and differences to the existing literature. The following lines will discuss these similarities and differences of analyses related to three constructs, namely; LMX, cultural-orientations, and NFL.

- *LMX factors*

The analysis shows that the LMX factors emerged replicated the four LMX dimensions suggested by Liden and Maslyn (1998). This shows that the instrument structure found in the Saudi context is comparable to what is found by Liden and Maslyn. It is notable that the lowest factor loading among all items loaded in the contribution dimension. This replicates what Liden and Maslyn (1998) found, namely, that this particular dimension showed the lowest reliability. Perhaps this is because the items describing the contribution dimension are problematic. In this regard, Liden and Maslyn reported experiencing two issues with the items while developing their LMX-MDM instrument. First, at the early stages of their process the contribution and loyalty items loaded on the same factor. Second, these items' content is reporting the self-contributing behaviour while ignoring the leader's contributing behaviour which means they could suffer from leniency bias, and that could have affected the reliability of this dimension. Finding this similar problem in this study enhances the call raised by Liden and Maslyn to re-assess this dimension and creatively develop the language of items to overcome the bias issue.

Although this instrument proved applicable in the Saudi context, it is worthwhile to remember that these four LMX dimensions are not exclusive and other dimensions could be more meaningful for different cultural contexts. This is because culture influences the nature of the exchange and the relevance or importance of dimensions (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Law and colleagues (2000) found that the leader-follower

exchange in China involves many non-work related exchanges, and thus concluded that LMX dimensions which mainly represent work-related exchanges are not sufficient to precisely capture the exchange in the Chinese context. It could be fruitful for future LMX research in the Middle Eastern context to explore the nature of the exchange in that different culture which could lead towards developing more culturally sensitive dimensions to measure.

- *NfL Factors*

In the current study, the results revealed that three first-order factors have emerged from the factor analysis of the NfL 17-items. According to the items loading on each factor, the factors were labelled as "need for motivation", "need for problem solving" and "need for direction." De Vries in his study of need for leadership could not find multiple dimensions of NFL, although he suspected that "there might be multiple needs for leadership, for instance, a need for human-oriented leadership and a need for task-oriented leadership" (1997, p. 225). The three factors found in this study confirm his assumption in so far that need for leadership is not necessarily unidimensional. However, the factors that emerged in this study reflected needs for specific leadership behaviours rather than the general two dimensions of NfL suggested by De Vries although one might argue that the suggested two dimensional NfL (i.e., need for human-oriented leadership and a need for task-oriented leadership) are more inclusive and thus the emerged factors may be classified under one of these dimensions.

The emergence of several factors of NfL is not very surprising because it should not be forgotten that need for leadership is a contextual need, which develops as a result of the exposure to a specific context. This means that need for leadership is dynamic and thus could vary from one setting to another. Therefore, it is also expected to produce different dimensions as they probably reflect the context in which they have developed.

If this is true, the question then is how the emerged three factors are relevant to the study context.

A closer look at the three factors shows that the emerging needs are relevant to the study context which is characterised by collectivism and power distance that guide social interactions including those in the workplace. First, the items describing the "need for problem solving" factor focused on handling conflicts, facilitating contacts with external departments, correcting mistakes, and putting the group activities in harmony. This partly reflects the hierarchical nature found in high power-distance contexts where the level of communication is considered and it also reflects the importance of group cohesion associated with collectivistic cultures. Particularly, the need for handling conflicts is expected to emerge in strong (or tight) cultures in which people are less tolerant about individual deviations (Gelfand et al., 2011). It seems that in general, individuals in tight cultures are not very skilful or equipped to handle different opinions or engage in negotiation with difficult people because conformity is more expected. Consequently, followers may feel dependent on leaders to interfere and manage conflicts.

Second, the items described the "need for direction" factor focused on deciding what work should be done or goals to be achieved. This need, which reflects the followers' lack of autonomy in doing their job, is expected to emerge as leaders in the Saudi high power distance culture exhibit an autocratic leadership style and adopt centralised decision making (Ali, 2009; Mellahi, 2007).

Finally, the items describing the "need for motivation" reflected the followers' desire to be recognised, motivated and inspired by leaders. Fulfilling this psychological support often needs repetitive personalised communication with followers. However, in hierarchical settings, leaders could be distant from followers as individuals and become less communicative with them. This lack of support (or need for motivation) could be

expressed even more by followers working in big organisations, such as this study's participants who may find their leaders less attentive due to large number of employees working under their control (in this study, the average number of employees working under a supervisor is 54.29, SD=122.36).

Therefore, it can be suggested from the above discussion that the three factors of need for leadership in this study reflect, to a degree, the cultural context in which they emerged. Although this finding cannot be generalised, it hints that types of need for leadership can be differentiated in some contexts. Leaders then should direct more attention to these expressed needs since satisfying them will potentially increase their legitimacy and influence on followers.

- *Cultural-orientation factors*

In Triandis and Gelfand's (1998) study, four factors emerged with four items loaded on each factor. Similar factors emerged in this study, however, the factor loadings showed differences for some factors. Only the items, which appeared under the horizontal-individualism (HI) factor, were exactly similar to what was found in the original study. As for the horizontal-collectivism (HC) factor, four items appeared under this factor plus one item from the vertical-collectivism (VC) factor, that is, "It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups." This finding confirms the Triandis and Gelfand suspicion that the items in these two factors could be correlated.

Moreover, only two items, instead of four, appeared under the vertical-collectivism (VC). Although vertical collectivism is the dominant culture in Saudi however at the societal level, it surprisingly did not clearly emerge at the individual level since it is assumed that in general, the majority of individuals in a certain context will adopt the prevalent societal culture. This rather unexpected finding may have resulted from the language used to describe the VC items. From one perspective, the VC items are

concerned with the family rather than work context, which might be confusing for the participants to differentiate this orientation compared to the other factors. From another perspective, the items suggested the sacrifice for family and maintaining ties with family members, which are core values in the tribal and Islamic heritage that most people commonly share in Saudi Arabia. Family-related values are deeply inherited and rarely disputable and hence, such items probably are not reliable to clearly differentiate this orientation in the study context.

As for the vertical-individualism (VI) factor, only three, instead of four, items loaded on this factor. It is also notable that they showed the lowest loadings. Perhaps this is not surprising given the language used to describe the items, which probably reflected the American interpretation of competition. The items mainly stressed competing and winning at the expense of others, which contradicts the Islamic and tribal values, which encourage brotherhood behaviours and personal sacrifice to achieve group success. Therefore, it seems that the language used to describe the VI items is relatively extreme and showed less reliability to capture the vertical individualism in the study context. It is recommended for future research to improve the language of the instrument to be more relevant for Middle Eastern countries especially those with complicated Islamic and tribal backgrounds.

To summarise, the emerged LMX factors reflected the factors found in the original study (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). This supports the notion that the current LMX dimensions are applicable in a different cultural context such as Saudi Arabia, although it is possible that other dimensions may be more meaningful in capturing LMX in different contexts. In respect to the need for leadership, unlike the only one factor found in the original study (De Vries, 1997), three factors emerged in this study that probably reflect the context in which they have been developed, and thus this finding was explained in light of context. The cultural orientations factors in this study showed, in terms of items loading, some

differences to the original study (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). The differences may be due to the language used to describe some items which could be less adequate for the study context, as they mostly reflect the American interpretation of these factors. Despite the above discussion, these interpretations should be considered with caution. This is because the study sample is not ideal as it is drawn from only one industry (i.e. the oil and petrochemical industry) from the private sector. Future research with a better sample in terms of size and diversity could lead to more stable results. The next part will discuss results of the hypothesised relationships in the model.

7.2. Hypotheses discussion

This section will discuss the findings of the tested hypotheses, respectively.

The effect of ILT-similarity on LMX (H1)

The result supports the first hypothesis (H1) which posits that followers' perceived similarity of their and their leaders' ILTs is positively correlated with LMX. Specifically, the findings showed a significant but small effect of followers' perception of ILT-similarity on their perception of LMX ($r=.165$, $P<.01$). Although this study is similar to Epitropaki and Martin's study (2005) in that both have measured the similarity from the followers perspective, the examined similarity here is different as these authors assessed the implicit-explicit similarity by measuring the congruence between followers' perception of ILT and exhibited leaders' behaviours. In contrast, I assessed the implicit-implicit ILT similarity by measuring the congruence between followers' and leaders' ILT, as perceived by followers. This finding is important as this is the first study, in this area, which shows that followers' perception of ILT similarity even if it is at the perceptual-level positively relates to the perceived exchange with leaders. This has an important implication because it shows that followers assumption of the cognitive similarity with leaders could be quickly made, and subsequently influence the perception of LMX in early stages of the interaction. Moreover, the finding also supports what is found in

previous research that followers will likely rely on implicit leadership theories in their perception of LMX (Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

The weak relationship between ILT similarity and LMX found in this study might be explained by the fact that similarity was assessed with only one item. Although the researcher used the single item to assess ILT-similarity due to questionnaire length considerations, one cannot eliminate the possibility that measuring similarity with a single item could have less predictive ability of multi-dimensional LMX than if similarity was assessed with multiple items. Edwards asserted that "evidence provides reason to question the construct validity of direct comparison measures as indicators of the difference between components" (2001, p. 269). This is because "asking respondents to compare components may invoke cognitive processes other than the simple comparisons presumed in much congruence research" (Edwards, 2001, p. 269). Therefore, the single item may have caused the responses to be less consistent and precise in terms of capturing similarity, which in turn affected the predictability of LMX. This may be supported by the stronger relationship found in Epitropaki and Martin's (2005) study, which assessed perceived similarity using multiple items by comparing shown leader's behaviour to multiple prototypical characteristics. However, respondents were asked to indicate similarity directly after assessing their ILT so that there is a better possibility that they used the items indicated before in their assessment.

Despite the small magnitude of the relationship however, this finding has contributed to the literature by showing that even perceived ILT-similarity at the implicit-implicit level could be sufficient to create a difference in perceived LMX. However, more studies are needed to replicate this finding before it can be generalised.

The moderating effect of NfL (H2)

As for the second hypothesis which assumed that need for leadership negatively moderates the relationship between ILT similarity and LMX. The result did not support a significant moderating effect of the followers' need for leadership on the perceived ILT similarity and LMX. Therefore, the second hypothesis was not supported in this study. It is important however to note that this study is the first to examine the moderating role of need for leadership on this particular relationship, and therefore the hypothesised moderating role of NfL should be considered in further studies. First, the sample in this study, as in any other research, has its limitations, and therefore, using larger samples from diverse settings in future studies may provide a better test of the hypothesised moderating role of need for leadership. Second, it has been found that the probability of finding moderating effects in field studies is generally low (McClelland & Judd, 1993). Therefore, the field study design is less optimal than experimental tests in detecting moderating effects, and that may explain the missing moderator effect in this study. In a previous field study, De Vries and colleagues (2002) examined the moderating effect of need for leadership on 15 possible relationships. The results, in general, found weak moderating effects in only 5 out of 15 hypothesised relationships, which indicates the difficulty to find the moderating effect of NfL in field studies. Given this, the potential moderating effect of need for leadership on the relationship between the ILT-similarity and LMX should be further investigated with larger samples or perhaps using an experimental design before a conclusive result could be reached.

Although the real cause explaining the missing moderating role of NfL cannot be inferred from this study, the researcher will suggest in the following lines, potential explanations for this finding. These explanations stem from the weak relationship between ILT-similarity and LMX found in this study which suggests that there may be alternative variables suppressing the moderating effect of need for leadership. Need for

leadership can be viewed as a part of the self-concept, and it is argued that perceptual processes related to leadership including LMX is partly affected by the activated self-concept (Lord et al., 1999). The self-concept refers to "our collection of beliefs about ourselves" (Fiske & Taylor, 2013, p. 120), and it can be defined at different aspects or levels, namely; the individual, and relational (interpersonal and group) levels. In a certain situation, which aspect of the self that influences the perception process depends on which aspect of the self is accessed (Fiske & Taylor, 2013, p. 120).

The hypothesis in this study assumes that followers with a high need for leadership (as an individual aspect of the self) will be motivated to rely more on deliberate thinking rather than categorical thinking (i.e. ILT) when perceiving the relationship with leaders. However, need for leadership is a situational perception which means that it is not a core element of the self that is chronically accessed or activated. Therefore, it is possible that, under some conditions and especially in a relational context, this deliberate thinking could be motivated by a different (and stronger) aspect of the self which is the relational aspect rather than the individual aspect of the self. Lord and colleagues (1999) argued that culture is an important determinant of which level of aspect of the self is activated. That is, culture impacts followers focus on individual or collective orientations in certain situations. Based on this, we can assume that in some cultures, the relational self could be highly (i.e. frequently) activated and thus more accessible than the individual self in guiding the perceptual process.

I argue that the above discussion is relevant and applicable to the Saudi culture which is described as highly collectivistic and tight (Gelfand et al., 2011; www.geert-hofstede.com, 2016). A culture can be described as tight if it has low tolerance of deviant behaviour and many strong norms (Gelfand et al., 2011). This indicates that the Saudi culture could make followers more focused on the relational self where individuals enhance their self-worth through meeting the expectations of others. Therefore, the

prevalent tight and collectivistic culture of Saudi suggests that probably the relational self is more activated and accessed especially in relational contexts, than the individual self. Consequently, followers are more attentive to their relational roles and obligation when perceiving interactions with leaders. That means that the relational aspect of the self could be more relevant as a moderator in the ILT similarity-LMX relationship than need for leadership as an individual-aspect of self in the study context. This argument is supported by previous empirical studies in the Saudi context which found that followers regulate their perception and behaviour based on the relational self. For example, Smith et al.'s (2007) conducted a comparative investigation on how middle managers would choose the source of guidance when it is needed to handle several managerial problems. They found that Saudis tend to seek guidance from peers rather than superiors to fulfil their work-related needs. The participants in that study explained that this avoidance to consult leaders is due to values such as face-saving, unwillingness to bother supervisors, and unwillingness to show weakness, which all are symptoms of the collectivistic culture that puts more emphasis on the relational self when interacting with significant others (e.g. leaders) to achieve self-worth through considering the reaction and expectation of others. In short, the Saudi culture suggests that, particularly in the relational context, the relational self could be highly activated and easily accessed, and thus it is a more proximal variable to play a moderating role in the concerned relationship than the individual self. However, this remains a suggested explanation for the missing moderating effect of need for leadership in this study which needs further investigation.

An alternative explanation is that there may be a potential variable related to the individual self, however more proximal to the relationship domain (i.e. LMX) than need for leadership. This variable is followers' implicit relationship theory (IRT). Uhl-Bien (2005) who proposed the concept described implicit relationship theories as the beliefs and assumptions about work relationships. She argued that the nature of work

relationships may depend on individual's *entity* or *incremental* implicit relationship theories. Particularly, entity theorists focus on finding the right person before building the relationship and thus put more importance on the perceived similarity, whereas incremental theorists believe that relationships with others can be improved through investing more time and effort. Based on this, it can be assumed that incremental theorists are motivated to use more deliberate, than categorical thinking when perceiving relationship with leaders. Therefore, followers' IRT could be a potential moderating variable to the ILT-similarity and LMX relationship. This suggestion is worth examining in future research.

The effect of cultural orientations on need for leadership (H3a, H3b)

As for the third set of hypotheses (H3a and H3b) which assumes that, compared to other cultural orientations, individuals with vertical collectivism orientation (VC) will express the highest perceived need for leadership, while individuals with horizontal individualism orientation (HI) will express the lowest perceived need for leadership. The results did not find significant relationships with NfL for all cultural orientations except for the vertical individualism (VI). Since the hypotheses imply comparing the effects of all cultural orientations to assess which orientation has the highest/lowest effect on NfL, and the significant effects could not be found for three out of four orientations. Therefore, H3a and H3b could not be tested as the effect of the other cultural orientations on NfL could not be found to conduct the hypothesised comparisons.

The significant relationship between vertical individualism and need for leadership ($r=.411$, $p<.01$) generally contradicts the hypothesis that individualists tend to be more independent and thus show less need for leadership. However, this should not be very surprising given that cultural orientations are not considered mutually exclusive opposites when measured at the individual level. This means that individuals even with different orientations could show similar attitudes or behaviours however for different

reasons or motivations (Triandis et al., 2001). Additionally, it is possible that individuals with collectivistic orientations stay closely connected with their colleagues and often refer to them as substitutes for leadership, and that may explain the missing effect of collectivistic orientations on need for leadership.

To the researcher's knowledge, there is no prior research that examined the relationship between cultural orientations and need for leadership to compare with, however it is useful to provide a potential explanation for the relationship between vertical individualism and need for leadership found in this study. Vertical individualism items show that individuals with this orientation are mainly concerned with competition (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). This means that in the workplace, individuals with focus on competition and winning might be less cooperative and emotionally distant from their peers. They are also eager to outperform others, excel in their careers, and get promoted to higher positions since high positions are coined with status. In a high power distance context as in Saudi, achieving those expectations depends, more than anything, on the relationship with people high in power such as leaders. Therefore, those individuals who are concerned with progressing faster than others may have realised that connecting with leaders is the shortest path towards their goals. Moreover, they could have fewer alternative channels to fulfil their needs as they find themselves reluctant to consult peers with whom they compete. Consequently, they express more need for leadership as they see leaders as the main source to fulfil their ambitions quickly. This explanation however remains a suggestion and requires further empirical investigation.

The effect of cultural orientations on LMX dimensions

The fourth hypotheses (H4a and H4b) assumed that individuals with collectivistic orientations (VC, HC) will show higher effects on *affect* and *loyalty* dimensions of LMX (relational-based dimensions). Whereas individualism orientations (VI, HI) will show higher effects on *contribution* and *respect* dimensions of LMX (task-related dimensions).

The results show that, as expected, horizontal collectivism is significantly related to both affect and loyalty (r=.495, r=.442; p<.05; respectively). However, no significant effect for the vertical collectivism was found, and therefore there is a partial support for the hypothesis H4a.

Referring to the items describing vertical collectivism could provide an explanation for its missing hypothesised effect. It is clear that the content of the items is more related to the family than work context. This unclear relevance to work context could have minimised the items precision to capture the VC orientation that is applicable in the workplace. Particularly in the study context, I suspect that VC items with content related to family are not the best to differentiate between Saudi participants in terms of cultural orientation. This is because family-related values are deeply rooted in the tribal and Islamic heritage of the Saudi society, which most people find undebatable (Ali, 2009). It appears that the precision of items to capture the VC orientation is questionable when applied in familial societies such as Saudi Arabia. To improve its precision however, the items content should go beyond the narrow scope of family and be more related to work in order to see precise differentiations between the participants. This may explain the absence of the VC effect as the participants probably found these items irrelevant compared to the other orientations' items, which are more related to work context. The ambiguity issue of the VC items may not be completely surprising as Triandis and Gelfand (1998) previously found that the VC and HC did not relatively show a good divergence and this is because both constructs commonly stress on sociability aspects. Expectedly though, this study showed that the horizontal collectivism (HC) which suggests the values of interdependence and sociability (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998) is related to the relational-based dimensions of LMX, namely; affect and loyalty.

In the second part of the fourth hypotheses which posits that individualistic orientations which put more emphasis on self-reliance and competition and less on

sociability are more related to task-related dimensions, namely; contribution and professional respect. However, the data did not support this proposition. Contrary to expectations, horizontal collectivism (HC) was found to be significantly related to both respect and contribution ($r=.489$, $r=.386$, $p<.05$; respectively). This may suggest that leaning toward a particular cultural orientation to a certain degree will not eliminate the possibility of active exchanges on some or all dimensions. The direct cause of these findings cannot be inferred from this study, however the following lines will provide three suggestions that may explain the absence of the hypothesised effect of VI and HI on LMX dimensions (i.e., respect and contribution).

First, it is possible that, given the strong vertical collectivistic culture in Saudi, the perception of LMX is weakly influenced by self-characteristics such as cultural orientations. A review study of the LMX literature shows that in vertical collectivistic cultures, the interdependent self-views and role-based obligation are more important in determining the quality of relationship between leaders and followers (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Rockstuhl and colleagues explained that "in vertical-collectivistic nations, members evaluate exchange relationships with their leaders based on not only how those exchange relationships meet their personal needs, but also mutually perceived roles and responsibilities" (2012, p. 3). Given the cultural constraints, individuals may find it more appropriate to adhere to the strong context with its dominant VC culture to guide their perception and behaviour when interacting with leaders than their deviant personal characteristics or attitudes. This is supported by Triandis and Gelfand (1998) argument that an individual may show different orientations across contexts. Therefore, this may explain why the effect of individualistic orientations on perceived LMX could not be found.

Second, the absence of the VI and HI effect on perceived LMX may be because of a missing moderating variable. A suggested moderator here is the perception of

strength or tightness of organisational culture. A culture can be described as tight if it has low tolerance of deviant behaviour and many strong norms (Gelfand et al., 2011). Lord and Maher (1993) argued that because of the cultural strength, leaders will have lower discretion, and behave within the cultural constraint even if that could make them appear inconsistent. If this is true for leaders even with their positional power, the same notion maybe more applicable on followers. Therefore, it can be assumed that depending on the strength of culture, individuals may feel the intolerance of expressing or behaving according to their individual differences especially that contradict the norm. Consequently, individualistic followers may not be able to guide their perception of interaction with leaders based on their deviant cultural orientation and that could explain the absence of its effect on LMX. This notion is supported by the argument that Saudi has a strong societal culture which interferes with the organisational practice and culture (Ali, 2009). Several empirical studies (e.g., Achoui & Mansour, 2007; Al Ghamdi, 2005; Idris, 2007; Mellahi, 2007; Noer, Leupold, & Valle, 2007; Noer, 2008) found that the traditional Saudi culture exerts a strong influence on the behaviour and leadership practices inside organisations. Although these studies show that the strong societal culture could guide individuals' expression in terms of organisational behaviour and practices, it is possible that perceived culture strength may also guide followers' expression in terms of the relational attitudes and perception. Therefore, it may be useful in future studies to consider the potential moderating effect of followers' perception of organisational culture-strength on the relationship between individualistic orientations and LMX.

Finally, the participants might have found the content of VI and HI items relatively extreme compared to the prevalent Islamic and tribal values which strongly govern the interactions with people in the Saudi society including that in the workplace. This does not mean that the vertical and horizontal individualism are completely inapplicable in the Saudi context. The argument here is that they could apply however on

a narrower scope than the items might suggest. This is generally in line with Triandis' argument that "there are as many varieties of collectivism as there are collectivist cultures" (2001, p. 909). According to Triandis, Korean collectivism is different from the collectivism of Israel. He explained that the existence of this wide variety is because that "in addition to the vertical-horizontal dimension, there are many other dimensions defining different varieties of individualism and collectivism" (2001, p. 910). Jaeger (1990) asserted that there is a gap between the cultural values of developing countries (e.g., Saudi Arabia) and the values associated with most American-based management concepts, and the concerned items may not be an exception since they probably reflect the American values and interpretation.

Drawing on this, it can be argued that the items could be more representative of the individualism orientations in the Western context. As argued earlier, a review of the vertical individualism items reveals a hint to an emphasis on winning at the expense of others, which is unacceptable behaviour according to Islamic values. This also contradicts the tribal values, which focus on being supportive and loyal to the group rather than being competitive. A similar review of the horizontal individualism items shows emphasis on being very autonomous which somewhat implies the isolation from the group and inconformity, and these contradict the tribal values which encourage people to suppress the expression of individuality, and give priority to maintaining group cohesion. Therefore, the item expressions may be somewhat unrealistic to measure the cultural differentiations in the Saudi context, and thus could not capture the existing individualism orientations of the study participants. This points to the possibility that the acceptable degree of individuality might differ across cultures, and therefore researchers should be cautious when using such items in non-Western contexts. However, this suggestion needs further examination in the future.

As mentioned earlier, the HC was unexpectedly found to be related to respect and contribution. However, the fact that Saudi has a strong tribal values embedded within its collectivistic hierarchical culture could provide an explanation to the HC relationships with respect and contribution. Both respect and contribution are core values of the tribal system. Individuals in a tribal society respect each other by virtue of seniority and position. This value is relevant at all levels in the Saudi society from family to the political system in which the kingdom throne is inherited based on seniority of age (Ali, 2009). For example, people under most circumstances avoid explicit disagreement with senior people as this is considered as impolite behaviour and might be perceived as a sign of disrespect. Therefore, it seems that respect somewhat interferes with the collectivism that is guided by the tribal values, and that might explain the relationship found between horizontal collectivism and respect. Similarly, tribalism focuses on maintaining the cohesion of the group by promoting sacrifice and supportive interdependence. Individuals in this context behave in adherence to these strong cultural values and thus see contribution as a way of putting such values into action. It seems then that contribution also interferes with collectivism by showing support for others which in turn promotes sociability. It is important to note that the above is just a proposed explanation which needs further empirical examination.

7.3. Summary and conclusion

In summary, this chapter reported the analysis of the main study, followed by the results discussion. The analysis did not find support for all the proposed relationships in the model. Full support for the first hypothesis was found, whereas hypothesis 4a was partially supported. No support was found for the second hypothesis which examined the moderating effect of followers' need for leadership. The third hypotheses could not be tested as the effect of the cultural orientations, except for the VI, on need for leadership could not be found to conduct the hypothesised comparisons.

In the discussion part, the researcher suggested explanations that may interpret the results. Specifically, the small effect found in the first hypothesis test could be a result of the single item used to measure perceived ILT similarity. In the second hypothesis test, the missing moderating effect of need for leadership was explained by the study limitations in terms of sample size and field study design. Moreover, alternative variables related to the relational aspect of self may be more relevant as a moderator, given the cultural context of the study. The results related to cultural orientations' effects on need for leadership and LMX, as in the hypotheses 3 and 4, were mainly explained by issues related to the adequacy of items' content, and influence of the societal culture tightness.

Overall, although the findings have not supported the hypothesised moderating role of need for leadership on the relationship between the ILT-similarity and LMX, it is important to bear in mind that this the first attempt to examine the need for leadership as a moderator in that relationship and thus the findings are far from conclusive. I argue that the model remains potentially worth re-examining, especially in other contexts. This is because the current results probably are a symptom of the study context, and therefore should not undermine the potential of the hypothesised model. In the Saudi context, due to cultural strength, individuals show strong adherence to the traditional values, and therefore societal culture is a stronger determinant than demographic and organisational variables, of work-related perceptions and behaviours inside organisations (Ali & Al-Shakhis, 1989, p. e.g., ; Noer, 2008). This could have prevented the effect of personal differences (e.g. need for leadership) from emerging. There is a potential to find support for the hypothesised model in other individualistic or even collectivistic societies that are driven by different values, where individual differences such as need for leadership may guide the relationship with leaders.

Moreover, understanding LMX, as a relational phenomenon is complex because it requires examining the interaction between leaders, followers and the relationship

between them (Uhl-Bien, 2006). That is, “the same behaviours or characteristics in leaders and followers will not produce the same quality relationship or equivalent outcomes in all dyads” (Dulebohn et al., 2012, p. 1740). This means that researchers should carefully examine followers (and leaders) characteristics and replicate studies to identify which characteristics are influential in the relationship between the LMX members. Given this sophisticated nature of LMX, need for leadership as a follower characteristic is worth further examination to understand its role in perceiving quality relationships between leaders and followers. In this regard, the researcher recommends for future research to overcome the limitations found in this study. That is, to use large and diverse samples for field studies, consider the experimental design as it is more optimal than field studies in finding moderating effects, and utilise multiple items when assessing the perceived similarity. Additionally, researchers should be careful about the adequacy of the item contents if the study will be conducted in a context with a clearly different culture from the West.

In the next chapter, I will draw out the key contributions to knowledge, address the current studies’ recommendations for future research and organisational practice, mention some limitations, and then will conclude with a summary.

Chapter 8: Contributions, Recommendations, and Limitations

This research showed three advantages in general. First, the research model included both the follower and culture elements in response to the calls raised in the literature that leadership cannot be fully understood without including *followers* and *contexts* (e.g., culture) to the leadership equation (Lord & Maher, 1993; Rockstuhl et al., 2012; Shamir, 2007). The researcher acknowledged the importance of these two elements as the focus on followers was reflected in the followers-perspective approach adopted in this research, and in including a followers characteristic (i.e. need for leadership) as a moderator of the examined ILT-similarity and LMX relationship. Furthermore, the culture element was also considered as the model examined the cultural orientations' influence on perceived need for leadership and LMX dimensions. The second advantage is that the recruited samples in this research are full-time employees which allow for more reliable data compared to studies with student samples. Finally, it measured Saudi ILTs using an ILT instrument that is more sensitive to the Saudi context, than the standard instruments such as the GLOBE questionnaire, or instruments developed in different contexts.

8.1. Contributions

The present study showed four main contributions to the literature. First, the study provided evidence that the followers' perceived ILT-similarity at the perceptual level affects their perception of LMX. This extends what is found in the previous literature by showing that the effect of perceived similarity continues to hold beyond the implicit-explicit level. This has an important implication because followers might quickly form impressions about the extent to which they share implicit cognitive schemas with their leaders, which could influence LMX relationships at the very first stage of interaction.

The second contribution is related to the need for leadership literature. This study found evidence that need for leadership could be a multidimensional construct, which improves on the previous literature where De Vries (1997) could only find need for leadership as a unidimensional construct, although he suspected the multidimensionality of need for leadership. Additionally, this study is the first study that examines need for leadership as a moderator for the relationship between ILT-similarity and LMX. Although this study could not find a statistically significant moderating role of NfL, unexpected results remain interesting and valuable for science as they challenge assumptions and point out to further theoretical developments (Kline, 2011).

The third contribution is that this study showed some evidence that culture at the individual level (i.e. cultural orientations) could affect perceptions of need for leadership and LMX. This extends the previous LMX literature where the effect of culture has been examined at the societal level (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Moreover, this study is the first which examined the effect of cultural orientations on followers' need for leadership. These findings generally expand our understanding of how culture might affect the perceptual processes associated with leadership. Additionally, the findings provide important insights for leaders as their followers could have cultural variations within the same society and these variations may affect their leadership perceptions. However, the suspicion is that the effect of cultural orientations will become more apparent in less tight cultures (i.e. individualistic cultures) where it is more possible for the influence of individual differences to take place.

The fourth contribution is that this study is the first attempt which explored the content of implicit leadership theories of leaders in general is the Saudi business context. The findings revealed in this study indicated that leaders' profile could be more negative than positive. Moreover, it extends the previous literature by showing that a negative characteristic is not always the opposite of a positive attribute (e.g., being rude) or a result

of the absence of a positive one (e.g., indecisive), rather it could also result from the over presence of a positive attribute (e.g., being over social). This may encourage future research to investigate the degree at which an attribute remains to be perceived as positive. This also provides an important practical implication as leaders, at least in the study context, should be aware that even their good behaviour (from which their traits may be inferred) should be practiced within an acceptable level to be perceived positively.

Related to the context, this is the first study which examines the relationship of ILT-similarity and LMX, and need for leadership in Saudi Arabia. This fills some of the gap in the literature as LMX and NfL are rarely examined in the Middle Eastern context. Studying these perceptions in a culture different from where they were developed could further our understanding on how they are sensitive to culture, or provide indications on how suitable their content is when applied in different contexts. In the current study, the researcher argued that the content of some items in the cultural orientations' instrument may not be precise when applied in a collectivistic context driven by tribal and Islamic values, and thus suggested a further deeper investigation in this regard. Therefore, conducting research in different cultural contexts is a potential benefit to this literature.

8.2. Practical recommendations

A single study cannot lead to conclusive understanding of Saudi implicit leadership theories or other measured constructs such as LMX and need for leadership. However, the findings of the current research could have useful practical implications. Leaders should consider the following recommendations to improve organisational leadership.

First, leaders should understand that their followers might quickly form impressions of them (in terms of cognitive similarity) which could affect subsequent interactions with them. Therefore, leaders should find ways to detect and correct such

impressions in cases of misfit, as this will enhance the effective interactions with followers. Leaders are recommended to pay attention to this matter, particularly with new employees who may start to form impressions from the first interactions with their leaders.

Second, leaders should be aware that followers may hold different cultural orientations, and these variations in terms of culture could affect their perceived LMX or need for leadership. Therefore, knowing followers' cultural orientations could help leaders to accordingly adjust their interaction with followers in a way that will maximise leadership effectiveness. For example, it was found in this research that vertical individualism orientation is related to NfL. Consequently, leaders may be attentive to show support for followers with this particular orientation as they likely prefer and expect the leader's intervention.

Third, this research explored the followers' ILTs of leaders in general, and knowing the positive and negative traits associated with leaders could help leaders to improve their behaviours based on these perceptions. That is, leaders could exhibit the behaviours that will match them with positive traits, and distance them from negative traits. Consequently, this could improve their influence on the followers and the organisation as a whole (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Leaders should understand that they cannot fully exert their influence on followers by using their positional power, nor they can be effective only by showing the right behaviour. What is more important is how such behaviour is perceived by followers (Lord & Maher, 1993). That is leaders should first be perceived as such before followers grant them influence. This can be achieved if leaders' traits and behaviours matched the implicit leadership theories held by followers. Also, the study results of the Saudi ILT can be valuable to international leaders who are mostly found in this sector and it is where expatriate leaders will continue to land, at least,

in the foreseeable future. Therefore, exploring the ILTs prevail in this sector could be highly relevant and important for them to be more effective.

Therefore, it is recommended that leaders open communication with employees to uncover those ILTs. Learning what might characterise leaders in general (in terms of both positive and negative traits) will help leaders behave in congruence with those positive expectations and distance themselves from negative ones, and that in turn could lead to developing quality relationships with followers. Muller and Schyns asserted that "the quality of leadership relationships seems to depend highly on the ability and willingness of all participants to be open with respect to their beliefs about leadership" (2005, pp. 87–88). Although Saudi leaders may be reluctant to open communications with followers given the high power distance culture, the impact of followers' ILTs on developing better interactions with leaders should encourage top leaders to implement organisational strategies that could facilitate this practice.

The fourth recommendation for Saudi organisations is that leadership training programs should be reconsidered. The current practice of Saudi organisations is to train their leaders by adopting Western ready-made training packages. Top-level leaders might be sent to Western training centres such as Harvard business school. Training strategies are expensive investments yet the return on this investment does not seem promising in the Saudi context. In a recent study, Kowske and Chaar (2009) found that only 44% of employees described Saudi managers as effective. Smith et al. (2007) found that Saudi managers are less likely to guide their managerial behaviour based on the training they have received. It appears that the imported ready-made training packages that are normally applied in this particular context, which solely focus on improving leaders' behaviours while ignoring the perceptual element are not sufficient to create the desired positive effect in reality.

It is timely for organisations to understand the importance of adopting culturally-relevant leadership training programs. This implies that such programs should partly be designed towards understanding followers' images of leaders in general as well as effective leaders. The Saudi ILTs revealed in this study could be a starting point in the designing process. Leaders should get three benefits of these programs. First, they should be more aware of the common positive and negative traits associated with leaders in their context. Second, they should understand how behaving in congruence expectations will benefit the leadership process. Third, they should learn strategies to correct negative perceptions associated with leaders.

The fifth recommendation is concerning followers' need for leadership. The findings revealed the most expressed followers' needs in this context, and that provides an opportunity for leaders to maximise their influence by reacting sensitively towards these needs. It has been argued earlier that leader's traits which demonstrate responsiveness to followers' needs, and follower-related skills play an important role in differentiating good leaders from bad leaders (e.g., Shamir, 2007). Three general factors of need for leadership emerged in this study; namely, the need for direction, solving problems, and motivation. Since many positive organisational outcomes are dependent on the interaction with followers, leaders are advised to pay attention to their followers' needs and satisfy them. This advice is particularly relevant in the Saudi context where high power distance could make leaders less sensitive to followers especially when this insensitive behaviour, to a certain degree, is culturally acceptable. Nevertheless, satisfying followers' needs in this situation is perhaps a real opportunity for leaders to implant positive impressions and quickly gain their followers' loyalty and support.

The Final recommendation could be provided to the government policy makers. The Saudi government has recently launched the Saudisation program which aims to replace foreign workers with Saudi citizens in the private sector. However, a critical

review of the Saudisation process showed that the program seems to be concerned with the quantitative indicators such as the Saudi employment percentage however at the expense of the quality of those recruits (Al-Dosary & Rahman, 2005). The current study revealed that Saudi followers hold specific images and expectations of Saudi leaders. Consequently, the policy maker should understand that replacing foreigners with Saudis could signal to a shift in perceptions and expectations of leadership and that could decline organisational effectiveness. Therefore, implementing tools which collect information about Saudi ILTs from those recruits could be informative for organisations to tackle the quality issue by identifying the gap between followers' expectations and leaders' shown behaviour, and thus keep their systems and practices aligned.

8.3. Limitations

This research has some limitations. First, the data was obtained from samples that exclusively included Saudi participants working in private companies in the oil and petrochemical industry, and thus the results cannot be easily generalised on the private sector for two reasons. First, the samples did not include non-Saudis who constitute the majority of the workforce in the private sector. Those foreigners who came from many different countries may hold different perceptions of Saudi leaders because of their cultural backgrounds. Second, the findings may not be applicable to other industries in the private sector (financial, telecommunications… etc.) especially the industries that have different maturity levels compared to the well-established oil and petrochemical industry. Lord and Maher (1993) asserted that different development stages that industries go through could impose contextual constraints on how individuals perceive leaders. Third, since the data came from male-dominant samples which means that they may not be generalisable on the Saudi working women in the private sector. Because working Saudi women generally favour the traditional culture that segregates them from men in the working place, the majority of working women work in female-dominant

departments. Accessing these contexts to recruit female participants is not easy and requires more time and effort for facilitation. Nevertheless, the researcher was keen to include women in the study sample as far as the situation allows. The very low female representation appeared in the sample reflects the low number of female working in a mixed environment.

The second limitation is that the research has focused on followers and all data are self-reported which have been obtained from one source and that could possibly be biased. Given the limited resources and time, including leaders was beyond the purpose of this research. Although concentrating on followers in leadership studies will rebalance the over-focus on leaders found in the traditional literature, including both leaders and followers in the same study is more ideal, and probably increases the credibility and trustworthiness of the results.

A third limitation is related to the reliance on behavioural questionnaires and quantitative approach when conducting the studies. This approach was particularly appropriate for this research as it aims to measure multiple constructs at the same time. However, results from questionnaires should be interpreted with caution for three reasons. First, participants may read the same questions however respond based on their interpretations which involve a level of subjectivity. Second, questionnaires could be useful to know what the participants mean when they think about leadership however they are incapable of capturing what the participants do not mean, which is important for understanding the leadership phenomenon in a certain context. Third, the instruments used to measure the perceptions LMX, need for leadership, and cultural orientations, all have been developed in the Western context. The developers' judgment about appropriate items to be included in these instruments could be influenced by their cultural background. That means applying such instruments in non-Western culture, such as the Saudi context, may not be appropriate enough to capture all important elements in that

context. For example, it has been argued that the relationship between leaders and followers in collectivistic cultures (such as China) involves more than work-based exchanges which are represented in the LMX-MDM instrument (Law et al., 2000). Consequently, non-work related exchanges which is very important in such culture cannot be captured when the LMX instrument, offered in the current literature, is applied. Similarly, the researcher questioned the content of the vertical individualism items in the cultural-orientation instrument which may be extreme to the tribal and Islamic values prevailing in the Saudi context.

The fourth limitation is that the questionnaire did not ask the participant whether the direct manager was Saudi or not, and therefore it is possible that the ILT similarity effect has been confounded by the demographic (dis)similarity effect. Additionally, the questionnaire did not explicitly ask the participant to think of Saudi leaders in particular, rather of leaders in general. Given that expatriate managers are also working in the study context, it is possible that the past experiences with such expatriate managers, if participants had any such experiences, could have biased the results.

A fifth limitation is that this is a cross-sectional study where all constructs were measured at the same time, and therefore the found significant correlations among variables do not imply causation.

The final limitation is that the researcher decided to develop an instrument that is more sensitive to the Saudi culture to measure implicit leadership theories. However, the advantage of sensitivity could have compromised the comparability with other studies in the literature such as the GLOBE study. Nevertheless, the researcher considers this an acceptable compromise, and perhaps more useful for the purpose of the study.

8.4. Future research

The current research provided insights about implicit leadership theories, perception of LMX, and the cultural effect on followers' need for leadership in the Saudi context. A single exploratory study is not enough to reveal conclusive results especially in a context where there is a dearth of leadership studies. However, this study is a first step and additional research could build upon the results of the current study. The following suggestions could provide leadership researchers with research avenues to further our understanding of leadership perceptions related to ILTs, need for leadership, and LMX.

First, the current research model focused on followers' perspective. However, a balanced model of leadership which includes both leaders and followers is needed. Future research may consider switching the lenses by examining the hypothesised relationships from leaders' perspective. It is also interesting in the future to examine the perceived similarity however in terms of implicit followership theories. This is because both leaders and followers shape their behaviours and interaction not only based on ILTs but also on IFTs.

Second, the current study examined the abstract perception of ILT-similarity, however future studies could be designed to examine the detailed perception of similarity at the item-level including both positive and negative items. On the one hand, this will explain which leader characteristic is more influential than others. On the other, it will explain which direction of the matching is more predictive of perceived LMX. Nye (2005) proposed that "we may be more accepting of poor match with our prototype if the leader's behaviour is at least in the 'right' direction" (p. 57).

Third, future researchers interested in this research model should consider improvements in terms of study design. The researcher provides three suggestions that worth consideration. The first suggestion could be that researchers should complement

the current study by applying qualitative approaches which could lead to a deeper understanding of the specific meaning of certain perceptions. Qualitative approaches are useful for in-depth investigation of the content of perceived leaders' attributes, followers' need for leadership and exchange with leaders. This implies investigating what the participants mean and do not mean when describing their perception. For example, it is possible that follower's expression of need for leader's support in the Saudi context may include an extended support with personal and family related difficulties. Another advantage of the qualitative approach is that it could overcome the questionable appropriateness of the questionnaires especially when used outside the Western context. The second suggestion related to the research design, is that researchers could utilise the experimental design to test the research model as it is more optimal than field studies for finding moderating effects. The third suggestion is that a longitudinal study design could also be useful for finding the causality between tested variables as this cannot be inferred from studies with cross-sectional design. Besides the above suggestions, improving the current LMX, NFL, and culture questionnaires to be more appropriate in the Middle Eastern context is also an interesting research project in the future. Researchers in this regard should partly be concerned with items' content to be more reflective of that context which potentially will improve the reliability of responses.

Fourth, the current study showed that the Saudi ILTs are mostly negative. Given that ILTs have an effect on the leaders' evaluation, this negativity could have an impact on the perceived ineffectiveness of Saudi leaders found in a previous study (Kowske & Chaar, 2009). Only 44% of expats and nationals, respectively, perceived their leaders favourably in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, future research could build on this by investigating the role of ILTs on perceived leaders' effectiveness in this context.

Finally, to advance our knowledge of the implicit leadership theories, future research within Saudi Arabia should take different aspects of context into account (Lord

& Maher, 1993). Specifically, two pressing contexts could be recommended for researchers to consider. The first is the public sector context where the majority of Saudi employees work, and implement different work systems compared to the private sector. The current government has expressed the desire to improve the effectiveness of the public sector and thus, exploring the implicit theories of leaders and followers there could provide insights about how an effective leader should be. The second is concerning the female-dominant contexts where the effect of gender on implicit leadership theories can be assessed. This is particularly important in the Saudi traditional society where roles are segregated according to gender and thus women may hold different images associated with leadership roles than men (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). An example study by Den Hartog and Koopman (2005) found gender differences when assessing the importance of certain leader's characteristics. Therefore, exploring women ILTs could be fruitful in a better understanding the Saudi ILTs.

8.5. Summary and conclusions

To summarise the findings of this research, the pre-studies were concerned with investigating Saudi ILTs and developing an ILT instrument that is more sensitive to the Saudi context. They examined a more comprehensive view of implicit leadership theories. That is, ILT of leaders in general which consists of both negative and positive attributes, and this broader sense until recently is rarely addressed in literature. Consequently, three main findings revealed with respect to Saudi ILTs. First, it showed that the Saudi ILTs consists of both negative and positive attributes. Secondly, the Saudi leaders' profile is mostly negative. that is, participants reported negative attributes more frequently than positive attributes when describing Saudi leaders. Thirdly, a new ILT dimension emerged from the factor analysis which is named as "competent", which confirms that the approach adopted in this study enabled, to a degree, the capture of idiosyncrasy of the Saudi context.

In the main study however, the perceived similarity of ILT was examined at the perceptual level (implicit-implicit match). That is, followers assessed how they think they share their ILTs with those held by leaders. This conceptualisation of ILT-similarity is different from previous studies in this area which examined the similarity between followers' ILTs and leaders' behaviour (implicit-explicit match) (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). The finding showed that the perceptual similarity predicted the quality of LMX, though to a lesser degree. This is an important result because it shows that even perceptual similarity, is strong enough to influence followers' perception of relationship with leaders.

Moreover, this study acknowledged the sophisticated nature of antecedent-LMX relationship, and thus examined followers' need for leadership as a new relevant moderator to the relationship between ILT-similarity and LMX, which has not been examined before in the literature. The finding did not reveal a significant moderating effect of need for leadership. However, this is a preliminary investigation and therefore this finding is not conclusive and worth re-examination in the future. To explain the absence of the moderating effect, the researcher suggests that the relational self could be more relevant in relational contexts than individual self in the study context, given the assumed tightness of the Saudi culture. That is, people in such culture will adjust their behaviour according to the situation cues rather than behaving consistently with their personal attitudes (Triandis, 2001).

The research also examined the cultural orientations effect on perceived need for leadership and LMX dimensions. Although the hypothesised comparison of cultural orientations effect could not be tested as the significant relationships for all orientations were not found, the research found significant effects for some orientations which provide general evidence that culture at the individual level could affect the perception of need for leadership and LMX dimensions.

In conclusion, this research attempted to fill the gap in the literature by examining a new operationalisation of ILT-similarity, and investigate a potential moderator to the relationship between perceived ILT-similarity and LMX. Moreover, it attempted to provide evidence that culture at the individual level (not only the societal level) could influence the perception of need for leadership and LMX. In general, the findings revealed in this research have contributed to the scholarly field, and provided insights for organisational practice. It is hoped that this research will encourage more empirical testing with new research designs which could help to advance our knowledge in this research area.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Pre-study 1 questionnaire

Saudi Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) – items generation Questionnaire

Welcome to my study on leadership perceptions in the Saudi business context.

This study is about perceptions of leaders. The aim is to investigate your views about leaders. There are no right or wrong answers and I am only interested in your personal opinion. It is best to go with your first judgment and not spend too long thinking over any one question.

The first two sections ask questions about your perceptions of an ideal leader and your direct leader. The third section asks questions about your perceptions of leaders in general in the Saudi business context. Lastly, you will be asked for some basic demographic information. I need this information to describe my sample and it will not be used to identify individual participants. The survey will take about 10-15 minutes to complete.

Moreover, this research is carried out in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University. This entails the following: Your participation is entirely voluntary; you may withdraw at any time during the study; your data will be held confidentially and may be stored for a period of five years after the appearance of any associated scientific publications; there are no reasonable physical or mental risks of participating in this study; the study is 100% confidential.

Many thanks for supporting my research! If you have any further questions about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me. Please note that by clicking on the "Next" button below, you consent to taking part in the study.

Best regards,

Ahmad Alabdulhadi, PhD researcher, Durham University,

a.a.alabdulhadi@durham.ac.uk

A. This section asks questions about your opinions of your <u>direct leader</u>.

1. Please imagine your present direct manager at work (Note: a "manager" here is a person whose role involves leadership and decision making activities). Describe your direct leader at work using at most six characteristics. These can be negative and/or positive characteristics**:**

SN	Leader Characteristics
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

2. In general, is your direct manager effective or ineffective in his/her role as a leader? Please choose one item that best represents your opinion:
(1=Very ineffective, 2= Ineffective, 3= Neutral, 4= Effective, 5=Very effective.)

3. Please determine for each of the characteristics you have mentioned above, whether or not it is an effective or ineffective by select the appropriate answer (Yes, No)

SN	Leader Characteristics	Effective?	
1		Yes	No
2		Yes	No
3		Yes	No
4		Yes	No
5		Yes	No
6		Yes	No

B. This section asks questions about your opinions of an <u>ideal manager.</u>

4. Now imagine your ideal manager in an organisation (Note: a manager here is a person whose role involves leadership and decision making activities). This is independent of your direct leader. The aim is for you to describe what characteristics, according to you, a 'perfect manager' has to have. Describe this leader using at most six characteristics."

SN	Leader Characteristics
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

C. This section asks questions about your opinions of <u>managers in general</u>.

5. Please imagine a manager in general (Note: a manager here is a person whose role involves leadership and decision making activities). This refers to your image of a manager, based on your experience with different managers on different levels in the organization during your work life. Describe this 'manager in general' using at most six characteristics. These can be positive and/or negative.

SN	Leader Characteristics
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

6. Do you find a manager in general effective or ineffective in his/her role as a leader? Please select the item that best represents your opinion**:**

(1=Very ineffective, 2= Ineffective, 3= Neutral, 4=Effective, 5=Very effective)

7. Please determine for each of the characteristics you have mentioned above whether or not it is an effective or ineffective? (Yes, No)

SN	Leader Characteristics	Effective?	
1		Yes	No
2		Yes	No
3		Yes	No
4		Yes	No

5		Yes	No
6		Yes	No

D. This section asks about your demographic data.

8. What is your year of birth?
9. What is your gender? Please select the appropriate choice (**Male** / **Female**).
10. What is your nationality?
11. What is the highest level of education which you have completed? Please select one of the followings:
    (Primary school **- Secondary** school **- High** school**/College - Undergraduate** degree **- Post graduate** degree**)**
12. To which of the following categories does your occupation belong? (Technical and engineering/managerial/Administrative assistant/ other)
13. Approximately, how many managers (or leaders) have you worked with during your work life?
14. Have you participated in a leadership training program?
15. During your working life, have you ever held a leadership role? Please select the appropriate choice (**Yes** / **No**).
16. If "yes" for how long? (in years and months)
17. Do you have a leadership function at the moment? Please select the appropriate choice (**Yes** / **No**).

This is the end of the questionnaire.

Thank you for your time and effort

Appendix 2: Pre-study 2 questionnaire

Saudi Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) – factor identification Questionnaire

Welcome to my study on perceptions of leaders in the Saudi oil and petrochemical companies. The study is part of my PhD research.

The aim of this survey is to investigate your views about leaders. There are no right or wrong answers and I am only interested in your personal opinion. It is best to go with your first judgment and not spend too long thinking over any one question.

The survey questions will present some potential positive and negative characteristics (traits) of managers in general. Your task is to evaluate how characteristic each trait of managers in general. Lastly, you will be asked for some basic demographic information. I need this information to describe my sample and it will not be used to identify individual participants. The survey will take about 10-15 minutes to complete.

Moreover, this research is carried out in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University. This entails the following: Your participation is entirely voluntary; you may withdraw at any time during the study; your data will be held confidentially and may be stored for a period of five years after the appearance of any associated scientific publications; there are no reasonable physical or mental risks of participating in this study; the study is 100% confidential.

Many thanks for supporting my research! If you have any further questions about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me. Please note that by clicking on the "Next" button below, you consent to taking part in the study.

Best regards,

Ahmad Alabdulhadi, PhD researcher, Durham University,
a.a.alabdulhadi@durham.ac.uk

Q1: Please imagine a manager in general (Note: a manager here is a person whose role involves leadership and decision making activities). This refers to your image of a manager, based on your experience with different managers on different levels in organizations during your work life. The following questions will present some potential positive and negative characteristics (traits) of managers and you are asked to evaluate how characteristic each trait in describing managers in general. Please remember that there is no right or wrong answer and I am just interested in your opinion.

How characteristic is the trait "…." of managers in general? (1= Very uncharacteristic, 2= Uncharacteristic, 3= Neutral, 4= Uncharacteristic, 5= Very characteristic).

(A total of 116 traits presented – See Appendix 4).

Q2: Demographic data

1. What is your year of birth?
2. What is your gender? (Male/Female)
3. What is your nationality?

What is the highest level of education which you have completed? Please, select thr appropriate answer: (**Primary** school **- Secondary** school **- High** school**/College - Undergraduate** degree **- Post graduate** degree**.)**

4.
5. Where did you study your last degree? (In Saudi Kingdom/ Out of Saudi Kingdom).
6. If the previous answer was “in Saudi Kingdom”: From which university did you get your last degree?
7. If the previous answer was “out Saudi Kingdom”: In which country did you study your last degree?
8. Have you ever held a leadership position (involve supervising others)? (Yes/ No).
9. If the previous answer is “Yes”: For how long have you held a leadership position? (In years and months).

Thanks for your participation!

Appendix 3: The main study's questionnaire

- Introduction:

Welcome to my study on the influence of employees' personal leadership perceptions on the manager-employee work relationship. This study is conducted as a part of my PhD research, and hopefully will maximize our knowledge and practice of leadership in Saudi business organizations.

The aim is to investigate your views about leaders. There are no right or wrong answers and I am only interested in your personal opinion. It is best to go with your first judgment and not spend too long thinking over any one question.

The survey consists of four main parts. The first part will present some potential characteristics of managers in general. I would like you to evaluate how representative each characteristic is of managers. The second part will ask some questions about your work relationship. The third part will ask you about your personal needs of your manager (leader) in the workplace. Lastly, you will be asked to provide some basic demographic information. I need this information to describe my sample and it will not be used to identify individual participants. The survey will approximately take 15 minutes to complete.

Moreover, this research is carried out in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the British Psychological Association and Durham University. This entails the following: Your participation is entirely voluntary; you may withdraw at any time during the study; your data will be held confidentially and may be stored for a period of five years after the appearance of any associated scientific publications; there are no reasonable physical or mental risks of participating in this study; the study is 100% confidential.

Many thanks for supporting my research! If you have any further questions about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me on the below e-mail. Please note that by clicking on the "Next" button below, you consent to taking part in the study.

Best regards,

Ahmad Alabdulhadi, PhD researcher, Durham University,
a.a.alabdulhadi@durham.ac.uk

Q1: ILT measurement:

Please imagine a manager in general (a manager here is a person whose role involves leadership and decision making activities). This refers to your image of a manager in general based on your experience with different managers on different levels in organisations during your work life. The following questions will present some potential positive and negative characteristics (traits) of managers and you are asked to evaluate how representative each characteristic in describing managers in general. Please remember that there is no right or wrong answer and I am just interested in your opinion.

Characteristic	1 Very unrepresentative		5 Neutral		7 Very representative
Ambitious					
Active					
Achiever					
Goal-oriented					
Persistent					
Intelligent					
Excellent observer					
Determined					
Competent					
Likes his/her team					
Cooperative					
Dedicated					
Good example					
Consultative					
Managerially skilled					
Courageous					
Diplomatic					
Humour sense					
Stubborn					
Officious					
Micro-managing					
Irrational					

Tense					
Imitator					
Withdrawal					
Bureaucratic					
Short-sighted					
Fearful					
Ignorant					
Lack of knowledge					
Unprofessional					
Not supportive					
Over talking					
Bad example					
Careless					
Rude					

Q2: Perceived ILT-similarity:

To what extent do you perceive that your personal image of managers (leaders) in general matches that held by your direct supervisor? (1= Very different, 2= Somewhat different, 3=Neutral, 4= Somewhat similar, 5=Very similar).

Q3: LMX measurement:

For each of the following sentences, please select the best answer that describes your work relationship with your direct supervisor.

Item	1 Strongly disagree	2	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4	5 Strongly agree
I respect my manager's knowledge of and competence on the job.					
My manager would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.					

My manager is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.					
I do not mind working my hardest for my manager.					
My manager would come to my defence if I were "attacked" by others.					
I like my manager very much as a person.					
I do work for my manager that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.					
I admire my manager's professional skills.					
My manager defends (would defend) my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.					
My manager is a lot of fun to work with.					
I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my manager's work goals.					
I am impressed with my manager's knowledge of his job.					

Q4: measuring follower's need for leadership:

On the personal level, please indicate on which of the following aspects you generally need the contribution of your manager/ supervisor?

I need my manager to …

Item	1	2	3 Partly	4	5 A lot

	Not at all				
set goals.					
decide what work should be done.					
transfer knowledge.					
motivate me.					
coordinate, plan and organize my work.					
maintain external contacts.					
provide me with information.					
gear all activities of the team to one another.					
create a good team spirit.					
provide me with support.					
arrange things with higher-level management.					
handle conflicts.					
help solve problems.					
…correct mistakes.					
give work-related feedback.					
recognize and reward contributions.					
inspire me.					

Q5: measuring follower's cultural orientation:

For each of the sentences below, please select the most appropriate answer describing yourself.

Item	1 Never	2	3 Sometimes	4	5 All of the time
I'd rather depend on myself than others.					
I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.					
I often do "my own thing."					
My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.					
It is important that I do my job better than others.					
Winning is everything.					
Competition is the law of nature.					
When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.					
If a coworker gets a prize, I would feel proud.					
The well-being of my coworkers is important to me.					
To me, pleasure is spending time with others.					
I feel good when I cooperate with others.					
It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.					
Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.					
It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.					
Family members should stick together, no matter					

what sacrifices are required.					

Q6: Demographic data:

1. What is your year of birth?
2. What is your gender? (Male/Female)
3. What is your manager's gender? ((Male/Female).
4. What is your nationality? (Saudi/non-Saudi)
5. What is the highest level of education which you have completed? (Primary school/ Secondary school/ High school or College/ Undergraduate degree/ Postgraduate degree)
6. How long have you been a full-time employee? (in years and months)
7. Approximately, how many employees work under your supervisor?
8. How long have you worked with your current supervisor? (in years and months)
9. Have you ever held a leadership position? (Yes/No)
10. If the previous answer is yes, for how long have you held a leadership position? (in years and months).

Thanks for your participation!

Appendix 4: A list of 116 leader's attributes emerged from pre-study 1

SN	Trait	SN	Trait	SN	Trait	SN	Trait
1	Reserved	31	Unappreciative	61	Officious	91	Stubborn
2	Unclear (mysterious)	32	Inconsiderate	62	Reminding employees of old favours	92	Imitator
3	Polite	33	Social networker	63	Un-empowering	93	Aged
4	Humour sense	34	Likes his/her team	64	Micro-management	94	Rigid
5	Diplomatic	35	Team player	65	Cooperative	95	Competent
6	Respectful	36	Supportive	66	Consultative	96	Managerially skilled
7	Arrogant	37	Trusting	67	Intelligent	97	Lack of managerial skills
8	Jealous	38	Open with employees	68	Excellent observer	98	Ineffective
9	Moody	39	Selfish	69	Achiever	99	Incompetent
10	Rude	40	Non-supportive	70	Ambitious	100	Unprofessional
11	Communicative	41	Self-centred	71	Disengaged	101	Slow
12	Verbally skilled	42	Distant from employees	72	Lazy	102	Short-sighted
13	Over social	43	Distrusting	73	Uncommitted	103	Leaves things over to chance
14	Marketer	44	Egoist	74	Unenthusiastic	104	Responsible
15	Over-talking	45	Visionary	75	Impractical	105	Punctual
16	Not communicative	46	Inspirational	76	Non-executer	106	Mature
17	Strong personality	47	Motivator	77	Not delegative	107	Irresponsible
18	Decisive	48	Good example (role model)	78	Controller	108	Careless
19	Courageous	49	Bureaucratic	79	Non-consultative	109	Transparent
20	Indecisive	50	Non visionary	80	Bossy	110	Fair
21	Fearful	51	Not influential	81	Punisher	111	Honest
22	Irrational (unpredictable)	52	Centralised	82	Ignorant	112	Ethical
23	Tense (nervous)	53	Not motivator	83	Superficial	113	Not transparent
24	Insecure	54	Bad example (not a role model)	84	Lack of knowledge	114	Biased
25	Infirm	55	Strictly act according to the system (by the book).	85	Good-looking	115	Discriminative
26	Withdrawal	56	Disciplined	86	Goal oriented	116	Poor planner
27	Not initiative-taker	57	Persistent	87	Planner		
28	Weak personality	58	Dedicated	88	Organised		
29	Appreciative	59	Active	89	Long-sighted		
30	Considerate	60	Determined	90	Focused		

Appendix 5: Means, SDs, reliabilities, and factor loadings for the Saudi ILT scale items

Item	Factor		Means	SD
	Positive	Negative		
Ambitious	**0.739**		4.66	1.675
Active	**0.802**		4.42	1.488
Achiever	**0.789**		4.41	1.557
Goal-oriented	**0.767**		4.40	1.665
Persistent	**0.748**		4.34	1.578
Intelligent	**0.736**		4.40	1.527
Excellent observer	**0.611**		4.49	1.550
Determined	**0.657**		4.48	1.508
Competent	**0.747**		4.23	1.668
Likes his/her team	**0.722**		4.15	1.673
Cooperative	**0.755**		4.35	1.615
Dedicated	**0.770**		4.44	1.654
Good example	**0.793**		3.90	1.712
Consultative	**0.702**		3.56	1.812
Managerially skilled	**0.757**		3.89	1.661
Courageous	**0.669**		3.87	1.715
Diplomatic	**0.479**		4.33	1.657
Humour sense	**0.521**		3.83	1.634
Stubborn		**0.691**	4.70	1.809
Officious		**0.705**	3.92	1.854
Micro-managing		**0.629**	4.45	1.844
Irrational		**0.721**	4.34	1.785
Tense		**0.664**	4.14	1.728
Imitator		**0.619**	4.24	1.714
Withdrawal		**0.693**	4.31	2.014
Bureaucratic		**0.588**	4.68	1.703
Short-sighted		**0.657**	4.07	1.751
Fearful		**0.569**	4.30	1.818
Ignorant		**0.603**	3.67	1.731
Lack of knowledge		**0.714**	3.60	1.709
Unprofessional		**0.660**	3.78	1.735
Not supportive		**0.551**	4.15	1.802
Over talking		**0.397**	4.60	1.674
Bad example		**0.719**	3.61	1.852
Careless		**0.632**	3.31	1.658
Rude		**0.574**	2.99	1.828
Cronbach's alpha	**.948**	**.924**		

Appendix 6: Means, SDs, reliabilities, and factor loadings for the LMX-MDM scale items

Item	Factors				Second-order factor	Means	SD
	Loyalty	Respect	Affect	Contribution	Total_LMX		
LMX5 - My manager would come to my defence if I were "attacked" by others.	**0.921**					3.06	1.344
LMX2 - My manager would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	**0.882**					3.14	1.274
LMX9 - My manager defends (would defend) my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	**0.767**					2.96	1.305
LMX12 - I am impressed with my manager's knowledge of his job.		**0.894**				3.26	1.315
LMX1 - I respect my manager's knowledge of and competence on the job.		**0.838**				3.54	1.255
LMX8 - I admire my manager's professional skills.		**0.877**				3.16	1.271
LMX6 - I like my manager very much as a person.			**0.788**			3.42	1.277
LMX10 - My manager is a lot of fun to work with.			**0.930**			3.07	1.273
LMX3 - My manager is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.			**0.881**			3.16	1.388
LMX11 - I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my manager's work goals.				**0.759**		3.95	1.133
LMX7 - I do work for my manager that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.				**0.414**		3.91	1.101

LMX4 - I do not mind working my hardest for my manager.				**0.964**		3.49	1.343
F1- Loyalty					**0.858**	**3.055**	**1.183**
F2 - Respect					**0.925**	**3.319**	**1.171**
F3 - Affect					**0.939**	**3.216**	**1.183**
F4 - Contribution					**0.779**	**3.780**	**.989**
Cronbach's alpha	.890	.902	.883	.768	**.893**		

Appendix 7: LMX factors correlations

Factor	Loyalty	Respect	Affect	Contribution
Loyalty	1			
Respect	0.794	1		
Affect	0.806	0.869	1	
Contribution	0.669	0.721	0.732	1
Total_LMX	**0.858**	**0.925**	**0.939**	**0.779**

Appendix 8: Means, SDs, reliabilities, and factor loadings for Need for Leadership (NfL) scale items

Item	First-order Factors			Second-order factor	Means	SD
	Motivation	Problem solving	Direction	Total_NFL		
NfL16 - I need my manager to recognize and reward contributions.	**0.738**				3.60	1.270
NfL15 - I need my manager to give work-related feedback.	**0.707**				3.81	1.143
NfL17 - I need my manager to inspire me.	**0.673**				3.39	1.321
NfL4 - I need my manager to motivate me.	**0.768**				3.62	1.245
NfL10 - I need my manager to provide me with support.	**0.730**				3.47	1.099
I need my manager to create a good team spirit.	-	-	-	-	-	-
NfL13 - I need my manager to help solve problems.		**0.667**			2.70	1.148
NfL12 - I need my manager to handle conflicts.		**0.599**			2.58	1.241
NfL8 - I need my manager to gear all activities of the team to one another.		**0.707**			2.76	1.155
I need my manager to coordinate, plan and organize my work.	-	-	-	-	-	-
NfL7 - I need my manager to provide me with information.		**0.716**			2.94	1.142
NfL14 - I need my manager to correct mistakes.		**0.657**			2.75	1.165
I need my manager to maintain external contacts.	-	-	-	-	-	-
I need my manager to arrange things with higher-level management.	-	-	-	-	-	-
NfL1 - I need my manager to decide what work should be done.			**0.726**		3.26	1.175
NfL2 - I need my manager to set goals.			**0.904**		3.62	1.088
NFL_Motivation				**0.818**	**3.58**	**0.968**
NFL_Problem Solving				**0.893**	**2.74**	**0.894**
NFL_Direction				**0.660**	**3.43**	**1.029**
Cronbach's alpha	.854	.822	.791	**.736**		

Appendix 9: NfL factors correlations

Factor	Problem Solving	Direction	Motivation	Total_NFL
Problem solving	1			
Direction	0.589	1		
Motivation	0.730	0.540	1	
Total_NFL	0.893	0.660	0.818	1

Appendix 10: Means, SDs, reliabilities, and factor loadings for cultural orientation scale items

Item	Factor				Means	SD
	HC	HI	VI	VC		
C12 - I feel good when I cooperate with others.	**0.696**				4.43	.732
C9 - If a coworker gets a prize, I would feel proud.	**0.542**				4.25	.833
C10 - The well-being of my coworkers is important to me.	**0.731**				4.39	.743
C16 - It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.				**0.685**	4.30	.748
C11 - To me, pleasure is spending time with others.	**0.527**				4.01	.803
C15 - Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.				**0.672**	4.27	.843
C2 - I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.		**0.708**			3.83	.872
C1 - I'd rather depend on myself than others.		**0.738**			4.00	.903
C3 - I often do "my own thing."		**0.673**			4.27	.786
C4 - My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.		**0.392**			4.01	.969
C5 - It is important that I do my job better than others.			**0.616**		4.03	.886
C8 - When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.	-	-	-	-		
C7 - Competition is the law of nature.			**0.609**		4.13	.921
C6 - Winning is everything			**0.499**		3.76	1.004
C14 - It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.				**0.673**	4.38	.765
C13 - Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.				**0.631**	4.42	.731
Cronbach's alpha	**.711**	**.707**	**.596**	**.760**		

Appendix 11: Cultural orientation factors correlations

Factor	HC	HI	VI	VC
Horizontal Collectivism (**HC**)	1			
Horizontal Individualism (**HI**)	0.546	1		
Vertical Individualism (**VI**)	0.647	0.430	1	
Vertical Collectivism (**VC**)	0.899	0.598	0.709	1

Appendix 12: Research ethical form

Appendix 13: The 36 leader's characteristics measured in the main study, presented in English and Arabic.

N	Characteristics (in English)	Characteristics (in Arabic)
1	Ambitious	الطموح
2	Active	النشاط
3	Achiever	الإنجاز
4	Goal-oriented	التركيز على الأهداف
5	Persistent	المثابرة
6	Intelligent	الذكاء و الفطنة
7	Excellent observer	شدة الملاحظة
8	Determined	العزيمة و الحزم
9	Competent	التمكن و الخبرة
10	Likes his/her team	المحبة و الانسجام مع فريق العمل
11	Cooperative	التعاون
12	Dedicated	الإخلاص و التفاني
13	Good example	قدوة حسنة لغيره
14	Consultative	مشاورة الموظفين
15	Managerially skilled	جودة المهارات الإدارية
16	Courageous	الشجاعة
17	Diplomatic	الدبلوماسية
18	Humour sense	حس الفكاهة
19	Stubborn	العناد و التصلب في الرأي
20	Officious	التدخل في شؤون الآخرين خارج نطاق مسؤوليته
21	Micro-managing	كثرة تتبع الموظفين و ملاحقتهم
22	Irrational	التقلب و عدم المنطقية
23	Tense	العصبية و الانفعال
24	Imitator	تقليد الآخرين و عدم الاستقلال في الرأي

25	Withdrawal	التنصل من المسؤولية و الأخطاء
26	Bureaucratic	البيروقراطية
27	Short-sighted	قصر النظر
28	Fearful	الخوف
29	Ignorant	قلة العلم و المعرفة
30	Lack of knowledge	عدم فهم متطلبات العمل
31	Unprofessional	ضعف المهنية في العمل
32	Not supportive	غياب دعم و مساندة الموظفين
33	Over talking	كثرة التحدث و الكلام
34	Bad example	قدوة سيئة لغيره
35	Careless	الإهمال و عدم الاهتمام
36	Rude	الوقاحة و سوء الأدب

Appendix 14: The 233 leader's characteristics generated in the first pre-study; each characteristic is presented with its frequency under its corresponding category.

Introvert	**3**	**Extravert**	**0**
Reserved (closed)	2		
Unclear (mysterious)	1		
Pleasant	**4**	**Unpleasant**	**12**
Polite	1	Arrogant	8
Humour sense	1	Jealous	2
Diplomatic	1	Moody	1
Respectful	1	Rude	1
Communicative	**10**	**Not-communicative**	**2**
Communicative	6	Not communicative	2
Verbally skilled	1		
Over social	1		
Marketer	1		
Over-talking	1		
Strong	**5**	**Weak**	**14**
Strong personality	1	Indecisive	4
Decisive	3	Fearful	1
Courageous	1	Irrational (unpredictable)	2
		Tense (nervous)	1
		Insecure	1
		Infirm	1
		Withdrawal	1
		Not initiative-taker	2
		Weak personality	1
Sensitive	**4**	**Hard**	**5**
Appreciative	2	Unappreciative	1
Considerate	2	Inconsiderate	4
Team player	**15**	**Individualist**	**15**
Social networker	5	Selfish	2
Likes his/her team	1	Non-supportive	3
Team player	2	Self-centered	1
Supportive	4	Distant from employees	1
Trusting	2	Distrusting	7
Open with employees	1	Egoist	1
Charismatic	**9**	**Not-charismatic**	**16**
Visionary	3	Bureaucratic	1
Inspirational	1	Non visionary	5
Motivator	2	Not influential	1
Good example (role model)	3	Centralised	3

		Not motivator	3
		Bad example (not a role model)	2
		Strictly act according to the system (by the book).	1
Devoted	**12**	**Disinterested**	**15**
Disciplined	3	Disengaged	2
Persistent	1	Lazy	1
Dedicated	2	Uncommitted	5
Active	1	Unenthusiastic	1
Determined	2	Impractical	2
Achiever	2	Non-executer	4
Ambitious	1		
Tyrannical	**18**	**Participative**	**5**
Not delegative	1	Cooperative	3
Controller	2	Consultative	2
Non-consultative	2		
Bossy	6		
Punisher	1		
Officious	2		
Reminding employees of old favours	1		
Unempowering	1		
Micro-managing	2		
Intelligent	**2**	**Stupid**	**7**
Intelligent	1	Ignorant	3
Excellent observer	1	Superficial	1
		Lack of knowledge	3
Attractive	**2**	**Unattractive**	**0**
Good-looking	2		
Organised	**6**	**Unorganised**	**6**
Goal oriented	2	Poor planner	2
Planner	1	Short-sighted	2
Organised	1	Leaves things over to chance	2
Long-sighted	1		
Focused	1		
Conscientious	**5**	**Not conscientious**	**8**
Responsible	3	Irresponsible	1
Punctual	1	Careless	7
Mature	1		
Honest	**7**	**Dishonest**	**6**
Transparent	1	Not transparent	1
Fair	2	Biased	3

Honest	3	Discriminative	2
Ethical	1		
Open	**0**	**Narrow minded**	**4**
		Stubborn	1
		Imitator	1
		Aged	1
		Rigid	1
Competent	**2**	**Incompetent**	**8**
Competent	1	Lack of managerial skills	4
Managerially skilled	1	Ineffective	1
		Incompetent	1
		Unprofessional	1
		Slow	1
Miscellaneous	**6**	**Total frequencies of all items**	**233**
Instrumental, Beneficiary	3		
Optimistic	1		
Cares about top management views	1		
Not risk-taker	1		