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**THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF EMPLOYEES' CHARACTERISTICS
ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND
EMPLOYEES' JOB PERFORMANCE IN LIBYAN OIL ORGANIZATIONS**

OMAR IMHMED OMAR IMHMED



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By

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In Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**



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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the moderating effects of employees' characteristics (agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and self-efficacy) on the relationships between leadership style and employees' job performance. Inconsistent findings in contemporary literature on the relationships between leadership style and employees' performance further motivate this study. Due to these inconsistencies, a new research stream emerged which suggests the investigation of the effect of a third variable that may better explain the nature of these links. Many theories have emphasized the necessity to investigate the role that employees' characteristics play on the leader-employee relationship. This study integrated four theories such as the path-goal theory, leader-member exchange theory, social exchange theory and cognitive theory. A total of 35 leaders and 252 employees from national oil organizations in Libya participated in the study. The findings of this study revealed that transformational and transactional leadership styles were significant predictors of employees' job performance except organizational citizenship behaviours towards individuals (OCB-I). This study, however, supported the premises of the path-goal theory and the leader-member exchange theory, and it confirms the importance of employees' characteristics as a moderator on the relationship between leadership style and some dimensions of employees' job performance, i.e. innovative citizenship behaviours, organizational citizenship behaviours towards organizations, and task performance. While the effect of employees' openness to experience on the relationship between transformational style and innovative citizenship behaviours was positively significant, the impact of conscientiousness and self-efficacy on the relationship between transactional leadership and OCB-O, and between transformational leaders and task performance were negatively significant. These findings, therefore, strongly suggest the importance of employees' characteristics in the selection process and it also supports the importance of employees' characteristics in the relationship between leaders and their employees.

Keywords: employees' job performance, leadership style, employees' characteristics

ABSTRAK

Tujuan utama kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji kesan sederhana ciri-ciri pekerja (keramahan, keterbukaan kepada pengalaman, sifat penyederhana, dan keberkesanan diri) terhadap hubungan antara gaya kepimpinan dan prestasi kerja. Kajian ini dilakukan kerana dalam kajian lepas mengenai hubungan antara gaya kepimpinan dan prestasi pekerja, dapatan kajian adalah tidak konsisten. Oleh kerana itu, aliran kajian baru muncul yang mencadangkan penerokaan daripada kesan pemboleh ubah ketiga yang lebih baik boleh menjelaskan sifat perkaitan ini. Banyak teori telah menekankan keperluan untuk menjelaskan peranan ciri-ciri pekerja dalam hubungan antara pemimpin-pekerja. Kajian ini menyepadukan empat teori, iaitu teori laluan-matlamat, teori pertukaran *Leader-Member*, teori pertukaran sosial dan teori kognitif. Seramai 35 pemimpin dan 252 pekerja dari organisasi minyak kebangsaan di Libya telah mengambil bahagian dalam kajian ini. Hasil kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa gaya kepimpinan transformasi dan transaksi adalah peramal bererti prestasi kerja pekerja kecuali kelakuan kewarganegaraan organisasi mengarah ke individu (OCB-I). Walau bagaimanapun, kajian ini disokong premis teori laluan-matlamat dan teori pertukaran *Leader-Member*, dan ia mengesahkan kepentingan ciri-ciri pekerja sebagai moderator kepada hubungan antara gaya kepimpinan dan beberapa dimensi prestasi kerja pekerja, (iaitu kelakuan inovatif kewarganegaraan, kelakuan kewarganegaraan organisasi untuk organisasi, dan prestasi tugas). Walaupun kesan keterbukaan pekerja terhadap pengalaman mengenai hubungan antara gaya transformasi dan kelakuan inovatif kewarganegaraan adalah signifikan positif, kesan sifat berhati-hati dan keberkesanan diri dalam hubungan antara kepimpinan transaksi dan OCB-O, dan antara pemimpin transformasi dan prestasi tugas adalah signifikan negatif. Dapatan kajian ini mencadangkan betapa pentingnya ciri-ciri pekerja dalam proses pemilihan dan ia sangat menyokong kepentingan ciri-ciri pekerja dalam hubungan antara pemimpin dan pekerja.

Kata kunci: prestasi kerja, gaya kepimpinan, ciri-ciri pekerja

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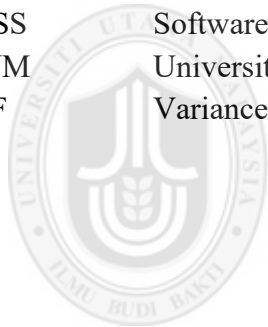
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CMV	Common Method Variance
FFM	Five Factor Model
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GLCs	Government linked companies
GoF	Goodness of Fit
LMX	Leader–member exchange
LNOC	Libyan National Oil Corporation
MLQ5X	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 5X
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour
OCB-I	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Directed to Individual
OCB-O	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Directed to Organization
OYAGSB	Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business
PLS	Partial Least Squares
SPSS	Software Package for Statistical Analysis
UUM	Universiti Utara Malaysia
VIF	Variance Inflation Factors



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the background of the study by exploring the contexts that shape the research. The chapter also presents the statement of the problem, the research objectives as well as the research questions. The importance of the study, the limitations and the structure of the study are also highlighted in this chapter.

1.2 Background of the Study

The importance of an appropriate leadership style in guiding the employees and organization as a whole has attracted the interest of both scholars and practitioners alike (Rowe, Cannella, Rankin & Gorman 2005; Liang, Chan, Lin & Huang, 2011; Paracha, Qamar, Mirza, Inam-ul-Hassan & Waqas, 2012). Also, the desire or thrust to develop better leadership styles is becoming an issue of increasing importance in both developed and developing countries (Oluseyi & Ayo, 2009). Equally important is employees' performance which has been described as "an important block of an organization" (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009, p. 269). Generally, there is a consensus that the success of an organization hinges on the styles and skills of a leader (see Mosadegh & Yarmohammadian, 2006). In almost the same way, the success or failure of subordinates is heavily influenced by the leadership styles in place in an organization (Berson, Shamair, Avolio & Popper, 2001; Wang, Law & Hackett 2005; Zacharatos, Barling & Kelloway, 2000). Of late, questions have arisen as to how a subordinate can work more efficiently and effectively to increase the productivity and growth of a firm (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009, p. 269). Some studies have also shown that effectiveness of leaders has a direct impact on both the performance of

subordinates as well as that of the organization (see McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Mosadegh & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Salman, Riaz, Saifullah & Rashid, 2011).

The relationship or link between leadership and employees' performance is generally viewed as both direct and indirect (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007), which proves the importance of investigating the supposed link between the two variables. Not surprisingly, there is a litany of studies done on the impact of leadership on various factors, including employees' performance in many parts of the globe. However, most of these studies have exclusively focused on the role or influence of styles of leadership on employees' attitude and behaviour (Howell & Shamir, 2005; Zhu, Avolio & Walumbwa, 2009), at the expense of the role of subordinates. This is a major gap in existing research because leadership is a "social or interactive process determined by both leaders and followers" (Zhu et al., 2009, p. 591). It is therefore surprising that the "follower remains an unexplored source of variance in understanding leadership processes" (Lord, Brown & Freiberg, 1999, p. 167). As aptly observed by Brown (2003), cited in Zhu et al. (2009), leaders are "no longer the exclusive source of vital information about their companies or fields" (p. 591).

Evidently, additional studies are necessary to critically articulate and investigate the role that employees play as active actors in the dynamics of the leadership process (see Riggio, Chaleff & Lipman-Blumen, 2008; Conger, 2004). Unsurprisingly, this study seeks to exploit these glaring gaps in research on leadership and employees' performance. Just as it is important to raise questions about the relevance of imported

Western models of leadership to the organizational needs of emerging economies, it is also crucial to understand and reflect on those influences on the development of effective leadership in emerging nations, like Libya.

1.3 Leadership and Performance in Libya

A country that understands national conditions will be in the best position to institute the kinds of leadership systems or programs that will best serve the country's economic development plans. Presently, this is not the case in Libya, which has limited appreciation of what the contribution of environmental factors are to both employees' characteristics and employees' performance. The factors that restrict the effectiveness and potential of managerial leadership are also limited.

As noted by Shareia (2010), Libya is a relatively small North African State, with a population of 6.244 million in 2014. Fundamentally, Libya, for most of its political life during the Moammar Gadaffi era, operated under a centralized economic model, driven by huge oil reserves. However, since the 1980s, Libya has expanded its economic activities (increasing industrial base) in order to reduce the country's heavy reliance and dependence on oil revenues. In the aftermath of the lifting of the sanctions put in place by Western countries in 2003, the country adopted a more market-based economic strategy (The World Bank, 2006). Given these developments, it is therefore hardly surprising that in recent years, Libya, like many other emerging economies, has displayed determination to enter into the global economy, by moving towards privatisation and by embracing capitalist policies and models, which may generate unavoidable conflicts with national conditions in the political and cultural realms (Shareia, 2010). As a result, countries, like Libya, may

face challenges in adopting Western models (including leadership models) that are insensitive to the cultural needs of the country.

Libya, therefore, like other emerging economies, possesses environmental and historic factors which are significantly different from the developed Western countries, particularly the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States (US) (Shareia, 2010; Bakar & Russell, 2003). Some of these unique Libyan characteristics include heavy dependence on oil revenue, incessant state intervention in the setting up of development plans; and inefficiency of economic activities in government-linked companies (GLCs) and public sector organizations. But more importantly, Libya is one of the Arabian countries whose dominant religion is Islam. Furthermore, Libyans also share common cultural values, language and other social values with other Arabian countries. According to Vandewalle (2006); and Abubaker, (2008), the effect of Islam on Libyan cultural values is as considerable as in any other Arabian country. As pointed by Twati (2006), the Libyan society has strong tribal, social and familiar bonds. On close inspection, Libya is naturally a keenly family-oriented society. Not surprisingly, in Libyan companies, workers care much about the reputation of their names, families and tribes, emanating from their strong family links.

Another interesting factor is that there is a wide gap in job performance in the organizations or sectors of Libya as proffered by Almintisir, Akeel and Subramaniam (2012). There are a number of reasons behind this widening gap in recent years, including low job satisfaction that is reflected negatively in the performance of subordinates, particularly in public and government organizations. Not surprisingly,

the Libyan government, in the last decade, has attempted to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of employees in most ministries as well as GLCs, like the National Oil Organizations, which is the research subject of this study.

According to Almintisir et al. (2012), these government efforts have however failed to achieve the desired objectives because the managers in public organizations are either not qualified or do not have the leadership skills to support their subordinates in order to achieve higher performance. However, other scholars have shown that Libya's tribal structure of social relations is the reason for the low levels of employees' performance. For example, Agnaia (1997) argues that the employment of workers is not done on the basis of ability and merit, but rather on the basis of social relations. Unfortunately, such a scenario has affected the optimization of economic activities, and ability to perform required tasks, thus leading to other problems, such as indifference, absenteeism, failure to abide by appointments, tardiness and signing off before the end of their shifts (Agnaia, 1997). Agnaia's study confirms observations made by earlier studies that the manner of management and its operations within organizations is clearly influenced by many social and cultural factors. This reinforces the assertion that unique environmental conditions of developing countries need to be taken into account in developing appropriate strategies that can enhance employees' performance. Evidently, low employees' performance is one of the leading problems facing the public sector and GLCs in Libya.

There is no doubt that a number of different factors affect the relationship between leadership styles and employees' performance in Libya. Previous studies have

associated effective leadership with different organizational outcomes and certain leadership categories, such as democratic, autocratic, socially and target-oriented leadership styles (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Lewin, Lippit & White, 1939). Of crucial importance to note is that a growing number of recent studies on leadership have focused on subordinates' or followers' dimensions in which two leadership styles are highlighted, namely, transactional and transformational (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; 1990). It is instructive to note that this study is part of this growing research tradition that identifies transactional and transformational leadership styles as appropriate and effective leadership styles. This is partly influenced by empirical evidence that lends support to Bass's perspective which states that to maximize effectiveness, leaders should display both transactional and transformational leadership styles. In fact, existing studies have shown that transactional and transformational leadership behaviours can be exhibited by the same leader in different amounts and intensities, while also complementing each other (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Elenkov, 2000; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Wofford, Goodwin & Whittington 1998; Yammarino et al., 1998). Notably, many transformational leaders reportedly engage in transactional behaviours, but more importantly, they often supplement those behaviours with some elements of transformational leadership.

Interestingly, this viewpoint is also shared by other studies (Avolio, Waldman & Einstein, 1988; Waldman, Bass & Yammarino, 1989; Bass & Avolio, 1990). However, evidence from other studies has shown that different leadership styles can be motivating and appealing to one subordinate and unappealing to another. In this study, there is a deliberate attempt to examine whether leaders in Libyan oil organizations adopt both transactional and transformational leadership styles to be

more effective in motivating and enhancing their followers' performance. After all, as mentioned earlier, evidence from other studies indicates that transformational leaders should be capable of engaging in transactional behaviour as well (Avolio, Waldman & Einstein, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Waldman, Bass & Yammarino, 1989). However, more importantly, this study examines employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) as a possible moderator of the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance in the Libyan context. Since the moderating variable has been defined by Baron and Kenny (1986) as a variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, this study therefore seeks to show that employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) is an important moderating variable in the relationship between leadership style and subordinates' job performance.

1.4 Problem Statement

The contribution of employees or human resources (HR) to the success of any organization can never be overemphasized. Sometimes, the HR can be an organization's important asset (Almdie & Nyambegera, 2004). At other times, the HR can also be its liability (ibid). Hence, the concept of employees' performance has become a subject area that is frequently studied in recent times (Borman 2004a; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). This can partly be influenced by the general agreement among scholars that employees are seen as critical asset of organizations (Wang, Chich-Jen & Mei-Ling, 2010). Moreover, in times of stiff environmental challenges, like economic crises and downturn, maximizing every employee's

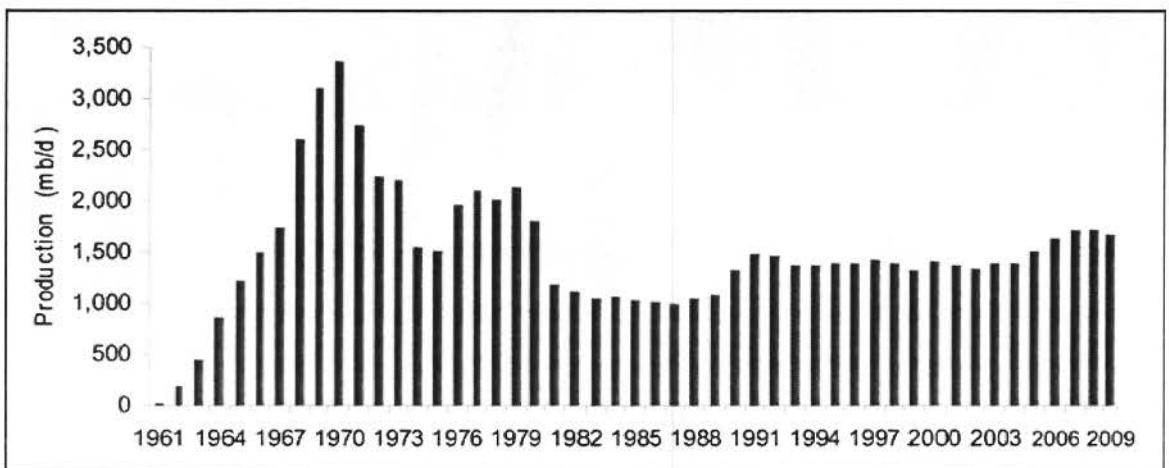
performance has become more important than ever to managers and organizations alike (Beaurgrad, 2012, p. 590). Increasingly, studies have shown that employees' performance is something most organizations want to enhance and optimize (Sonnetang & Frese, 2002). In view of this development, the relationship between leadership styles and employees' performance has attracted considerable interest from both academics and practitioners (Liang, Chan, Lin & Huang, 2011; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Paracha, Qamar, Mirza, Inam-ul-Hassan & Waqas, 2012; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). This is not surprising considering that leadership style, which refers to the way leaders behave towards or treat the individuals they lead, is regarded as the key criterion in deciding a firm's or organizational success (Ehrhart, 2004; Dolatabadi & Safa, 2010). Several studies have shown that leadership style has an influence on employees' behaviour, and has been linked to employees' work performance (Ehrhart, 2004).

In the same vein, there is widespread agreement that the success or failure of an organization hinges on the styles and skills of the leader. Similarly, the success or failure of the employees is also heavily influenced by the leadership styles in place in an organization (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Oluseyi & Ayo, 2009; Wang et al., 2010). As noted by Mosadegh and Yarmohammadian (2006), leaders who are able to influence, motivate and direct employees will often be rewarded by employees' loyalty, commitment and performance. In other words, effective leadership matters to the overall performance of employees in an organization. Recent research however, indicates that employees might differ in their responses to leadership styles on the basis of characteristics and values (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001).

In sum, employees play a more active role in shaping the leadership style (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993).

In spite of the acknowledged role that employees' performance plays on organizational success, poor performance remains a big challenge among virtually all Libyan organizations (Hooper & Newlands, 2009). The recent decision by the Libyan Ministry of Oil and Gas to commission a study in 2013 for the establishment of a comprehensive Human Resources Development Plan with the aim to upgrade manpower within the oil and gas sector, serves to highlight the country's challenges relating to employees' performance (en.noclibya.com.ly). Furthermore, the national economic strategy in 2006 suggests that Libya needs to enhance its employees' job performance in order to increase the production of the energy sector for overall economic performance. In 2009, Libya was exporting roughly 1.5 million barrels per day, which was far below its production in 1970. The Libyan National Oil Corporation (LNOC) now wants to increase production to three million barrels per day – the equivalent of its 1970 production as shown in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Libyan oil production



Source: *African Proven Oil Reserve Holders*

This increase, according to the national economic strategy (2006), would require developing qualified leaders and employees to meet the new challenges facing the Libyan oil industry, especially at a time when the Libyan government has increased investment in oil and natural gas (Abozed, Yassine & Saci, 2009). It is important to note that the oil and gas sector, which is the subject of this study, comprises upstream and downstream companies fully owned by the National Oil Corporation. Not surprisingly, recent research has focused on ways to improve employees' performance in Libyan organizations so as to improve overall organizational performance (Abozed et al., 2009; Alminintisir & Subramaniam, 2012; Hooper & Newlands, 2009; Younes, Stewart & Kyriakidou, 2013).

Even though it has been established that leadership is positively related to organizational and employees' performance, there is a great need for stronger evidence to support the leadership style-employees' job performance relationship from different contexts. It is therefore not surprising that in recent years, researchers have taken significant steps to identify the leadership-employees' performance relationship (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, Sleebos & Maduro, 2014; Chi, Tasi & Chang, 2007; Islam, Khan, Shafiq & Ahmad, 2012; Jyoti & Bhau, 2015; Liang, Chan, Lin & Huang, 2011; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Mitonga-Monga, Coetzee & Cilliers, 2012; Paracha, Qamar, Mirza, Inam-ul-Hassan & Waqas, 2012; Pradhan, & Pradhan, 2015; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

Nonetheless, research into the leadership-employees' performance relationship is not conclusive and some researchers have concluded that this association is full of glitches and has many unsolved challenges (Jing & Avery, 2008). They therefore

have argued that conclusions cannot be drawn about the degree to which leadership behaviour and styles facilitate the enhancement of employees' and organizational performance. Additionally, serious gaps in our understanding of these relationships still exist with regards to the causal ordering of the variables involved in the leadership style-employees' performance relationship. Put differently, most previous empirical studies on the impact of leadership style on individual behaviour have demonstrated a positive relationship, although none has explained the nature of this link or how and why leadership styles affect performance. In this regard, a major limitation that the review of literature points out is that the relationship between leadership style and employees' job performance lacks clarity regarding what exactly leads to what. In other words, the link is viewed as a 'black box'. Consequently, future research needs to address this gap (Jing & Avery, 2008).

Furthermore, past studies on leadership styles have almost exclusively focused on the influence or effect of behaviour or traits of leader on subordinates' attitudes and behaviour, despite the undeniable fact that leadership style is an interactive process determined by both leaders and employees (Howell & Shamir, 2005). However, evidence has shown that it is still unclear whether every employee responds similarly to different leadership styles. In this regard, it is argued that employees might differ in responses to leadership styles on the basis of their characteristics and values (Dvir, Eden, Avolio & Shamir, 2002). Riggio, Chaleff and Lipman-Blumen (2008); and Zhu, Avolio and Walumbwa (2009) recommended that additional studies are needed to examine the role that employees play in terms of being active participants in the leadership process dynamics. Further, Zhu, Avolio and Walumbwa (2009) affirmed

that the “follower remains an unexplored source of variance in understanding the leadership processes”.

Consequently however, while there is a growing body of theory and empirical research demonstrating relationships between leadership styles and employees’ performance, additional studies in this area are needed (Zhu, Avolio & Walumbwa, 2009). Although these studies have increased our comprehension of the conditions which could make leaders to be more or less effective in influencing employees’ performance (Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin, 2001; Walumbwa, Lawler, & Avolio, 2007), there has been relatively limited research examining the role of employees’ characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) in determining the effects of leadership style on subordinates’ work attitudes and behaviour. Nonetheless, a number of studies have explored some of the intervening variables or steps in the leadership style-employees’ performance relationship (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Rank, Nelson, Allen & Xu, 2009; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Paracha et al., 2012). In the current study, the question of how the differences in employees’ characteristics might moderate the relationship between leadership styles and employees’ job performance in the Libyan Oil organizations are addressed. Specifically, the employees’ characteristics that have been addressed in this study are: openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness and self-efficacy.

Moreover, traditional leadership research (including theory) has virtually ignored situational moderators even though a variety of situational factors are covered by various theories and concepts, such as leader-member relations, leadership position,

task structure, ability of subordinates, subordinates' authoritarianism and locus of control. Although these approaches focus on different aspects of the situation, they converge on the viewpoint that effective leadership is situationally determined (Wofford et al., 2001). Undoubtedly, there is a variety of situational and personal factors that affect the leadership process. Thus, Wofford noted that followers' characteristics should be examined as a situational moderator on the leadership process in future studies.

In order to fill this gap and to further examine the steps or processes through which leadership styles influence employees' performance, it is imperative to conduct such research in a non-Western context, like Libya, as past studies have mostly concentrated on the UK and US. Thus, to gain a deeper insight into the exact nature of such influences, the study investigates how leadership styles influence employees' performance, and for a better understanding of the link or relationship between these two variables, the study also investigates the moderating effects of employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) in the Libyan context. Furthermore, the study also explores the overall implications of the findings and discusses the measures that might yield improvements in employees' performance. In a nutshell, this study examines whether employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) moderate the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance.

Succinctly, the overall purpose of this study is to extend the body of knowledge on the association between leadership styles and employees' performance by focusing

on the moderating effect of followers' characteristics on the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees' task and contextual performance. More specifically, this study utilizes the transactional-transformational typology which is one the current dominant theory in leadership research. After all, these two leadership styles have been shown to be valid predictors of employees' job performance by earlier studies (Breevaart et al., 2014; Fuller, Patterson, Hester & Stringer, 1996; Jyoti & Bhau, 2015; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Rank et al., 2009; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Paracha et al., 2012; Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015).

Precisely, this study aims to contribute to the existing literature by filling three main gaps: (1) the need to investigate the role that employees might play in influencing the relationship between leadership style and job performance. Therefore, the current study aims to shed light on the underlying mechanism to explain how transformational and transactional leaders contribute to their employees' job performance. In addition, this study aims to answer Riggio et al. (2008) and Zhu et al.'s (2009) call for more research on the role that employees play in terms of being active participants in the leadership process dynamics. In other words, the current study proposes that the interaction between leaders and their employees determines the effectiveness of leadership and its effect on job performance. In this regard, this study utilizes employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) as a possible moderator on the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership styles and employees' job performance; (2) according to Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li & Grander (2011), there is no consensus amongst the researchers on the extent to which specific personality traits are of

potential use to predict citizenship behaviour. Therefore, this study tries to fill this gap by linking each dimension of employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) to specific dimensions of employees' job performance, such as task performance, organizational citizenship behaviour directed to organization (OCB-O), organizational citizenship behaviour directed to individual (OCB-I) and innovative behaviour; and (3) to identify the level of employees' performance in the Libyan context. Currently, no study has been found in the literature regarding employees' job performance in the Libyan context.

1.5 Research Questions

Based on the existing gaps identified in the foregoing, the present study intends to address the following questions:

1. What is the level of employees' job performance in Libyan National Oil Companies?
2. Is there any association between transactional leadership and employees' job performance in National Oil Companies of Libya?
3. Is there any association between transformational leadership and employees' job performance in National Oil Companies of Libya?
4. Is there any moderating effect of employees' characteristics on the relationship between transactional leadership style and employees' job performance?
5. Is there any moderating impact of employees' characteristics on the relationship between transformational leadership style and employees' job performance?

1.6 Research Objectives

The main purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between leadership styles, employees' characteristics and employees' job performance in the context of Libya. Other specific objectives are:

1. To identify the level of employees' job performance within Libyan Oil Companies.
2. To determine the nature or association between transactional leadership and employees' job performance in National Oil Companies of Libya.
3. To determine the nature or relationship between transformational leadership and employees' job performance in National Oil Companies of Libya.
4. To examine the moderating effect of employees' characteristics on the relationship between transactional leadership style and employees' job performance.
5. To investigate the moderating impact of employees' characteristics on the relationship between transformational leadership style and employees' job performance.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The scope of this study is restricted only to the National Oil Organizations of Libya with a specific focus on the influence of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership style and employees' performance. The national oil organizations are chosen because of the significant roles that these organizations play in influencing the economy of Libya (Shurbagi & Zahari, 2012). In many developing economies, like Libya, the oil and gas sector plays a very important role, particularly in the provision of employment. In Libya, for instance, the importance of oil and gas

sector cannot be overemphasized. According to the Libya's Guide on doing Business, the country is the second largest oil producer in Africa. In actual fact, the oil industry is the most important sector in Libya. For example, the economy of Libya is mainly sustained by the petroleum sector, which accounts for almost all its export earnings (95% of export earnings), including contributing 72% of the country's GDP, and 93% of government revenue (see Country Economic Report, 2006). Furthermore, this key sector has absorbed half of the country's workforce (see Country Economic Report, 2006). This exclusive focus on the Libyan oil sector has helped to identify the key variables linking leadership styles and employees' performance. This is particularly important since there is a scarcity of contemporary research in this area in the Libyan context.

1.8 Significance of the Study

The study makes considerable contribution to the extant literature on the role of leadership styles in facilitating employees' job performance. More specifically, this study demonstrates the moderating effect of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance. In other words, it contributes to scientific literature by investigating the association between transactional and transformational leadership paradigms and employees' performance and the moderating effect of employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) in the relationship between these variables. Moreover, as noted by Chowdhury and Amin (2001), clear cut evidence or conclusions on what specific leadership style or behaviour and attitude would produce a strong impact on employees' performance, is still to emerge despite extensive research.

In view of this scenario, it is therefore necessary to further explore the intervening issues or variables in the leadership styles-employees' performance relationship, as is the case with this study. Undoubtedly, knowledge of these influences will have significant implications for both theory and practice. While the focus of this study is on Libya, its findings will be relevant to other developing countries, particularly Arabic and Muslim nations. The main implication of this study is that in order to construct leadership development programs which will encourage employees to realize their potential contribution to economic and organizational development, it will be necessary for developing countries to focus on employees' characteristics because leaders are no longer the exclusive source of vital information about their organizations or fields (Brown, 2003).

1.8.1 Significance to the Academics

From the theoretical perspective, based on Summer's classification, at the conceptual level, this study contributes in terms of "the identification and conceptual definition of additional constructs to be added to the conceptual framework and the development of additional theoretical linkages (i.e., research hypotheses) with their accompanying rationale and the development of improved theoretical rationale for the existing linkage"; whilst the empirical contributions involve "testing a theoretical linkage between two constructs that has not been previously tested, examining the effects of a potential moderator variable on the nature of the relationship between two constructs and testing a theoretical linkage between two constructs (Summers, 2001, p: 408)".

Not surprisingly, there is a litany of studies done on the impact of leadership on various factors, including employees' performance in many parts of the globe. However, most of these studies have exclusively focused on the role or impact of leadership styles on employees' attitude and behaviour (Zhu, Avolio & Walumbwa, 2009; Howell & Shamir, 2005), at the expense of the role of subordinates. This is a major gap in existing research because leadership is a "social or interactive process determined by both leaders and followers" (Zhu, Avolio & Walumbwa, 2009, p. 591). It is therefore surprising that the "follower remains an unexplored source of variance in understanding leadership processes" (Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999, p. 167). Therefore, this study contributes to the literature because it treats employees as active participants in the leadership process dynamics, while most other studies on leadership have treated employees as passive participants (Breevaart et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2009). In other words, the current study proposes that the interaction between leaders and their employees determines the effectiveness of leadership and its effect on job performance. In this regard, this study utilizes employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) as a possible moderator on the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership styles and employees' job performance.

Furthermore, the present study also adds to the existing literature by demonstrating the role of leadership in affecting employees' job performance in Libya. Previous leadership-performance studies have been largely conducted in the western context, while this study focuses on a newer non-western context, considering that the leadership researchers need to continue focusing on how leadership behaviours

operate in diverse cultural contexts (Elenkov & Manev, 2005; Elenkov, 2002; Brodbeck et al., 2000; Koopman et al., 1999).

1.8.2 Significance to the Practitioners

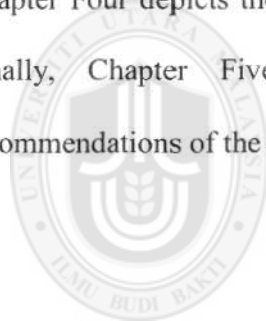
From the practical perspective, the findings of this study will be beneficial to researchers, oil firms and policy-makers in Libya. First, to researchers, this study provides useful information upon which further inquiry can be made in the leadership area of research. Second, the oil firms will benefit enormously as the result of this study will guide them towards implementing measures that may enhance employees' job performance. Furthermore, the study will assist HR managers to select employees who possess the right qualities for the job. Lastly, for the policy-makers, the information provided by this study will assist in making effective decisions that have to do with workers in oil companies operating in Libya. In a way, understanding the moderating role of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership styles and employees' performance will help organizations in the selection process. By establishing the relationships between leadership dimensions and employees' job performance, the results of this study could be utilized for recruitment, selection and career development purposes (Robbins & Judge, 2007; Pierce & Gardner, 2002).

Practically speaking, the findings of the present study will help managers and supervisors to adopt the right style of leadership, which is consistent with the characteristics of each employee separately in organizations, in general, and the Libyan oil firms, in particular, through the adoption of both transformational and transactional leadership styles by the same leader in different amounts and

intensities. In particular, the results of the study would help managers and supervisors to adopt the proper leadership style to improve employees' job performance and consequently improve overall organizational performance.

1.9 Thesis Structure

Chapter One provides an overview of the study. It covers the background of study, problem statement, research objectives and questions. It also highlights the scope of the study. Chapter Two, besides reviewing extant literature, also outlines the hypotheses development and theoretical platform underpinning the study. Chapter Three describes the methodological strategies and choices that shape the study. Chapter Four depicts the presentation of research findings, including data analysis. Finally, Chapter Five reports the general discussions, conclusions and recommendations of the study.



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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

It is generally acknowledged that previous and existing studies have examined the relationship between leadership styles and employees' performance. Undeniably, these studies have deepened our understanding of the conditions under which leadership may be more or less effective in determining employees' outcomes (Zhu et al., 2009). However, with a few exceptions (Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Walumbwa, Lawler & Avolio, 2007), only a limited number of studies have investigated the role of employees' characteristics in influencing the impact of leadership styles on employees' outcomes, such as work behaviour and attitude.

Accordingly, this chapter reviews the relevant literature, both theoretical and empirical, that can assist in providing in-depth understanding of the subject under investigation, i.e., the moderating role of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership styles and employees' work performance. Therefore, this chapter first reviews extant literature on leadership theories and styles. Secondly, literature pertaining to the role of employees in the dynamics of the leadership process is also examined. Furthermore, the main works on employees' characteristics are also reviewed, leading to the hypotheses development. In the course of reviewing the literature on aspects of leadership, employees' characteristics and employees' performance, the researcher's conceptualization of the variables is outlined as a product of syntheses and summaries of definitions of various authors. Next, the proposed conceptual or research model is presented. The rest of the chapter deals

with propositions implicit in the research model. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary of the key issues discussed.

2.2 The Concept of Leadership

Leadership is a key concept, both as a social phenomenon and as an area for scholarly research. Notwithstanding their respective organizational size and structure, most leaders aim to maximize the performance of their employees to attain organizational goals. Undoubtedly, leaders have a major influence on employees' performance as well as other organizational aspects (Islam et al., 2012; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Mitonga-Monga, Coetzee & Cilliers, 2012; Wang et al., 2005; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Yukl, 1998). It is hardly surprising therefore, that significant attention has been focused on trying to motivate employees to this end. According to House (1995), cited in Vigoda-Gadot (2007), leadership is a type of behaviour that imbues a shared vision that appeals directly to employees' ideological values, self-perceptions and their motives (p. 663). Furthermore, House (1995) elaborated that the outcomes of such leadership styles or behaviours are unusual levels of effort and commitment, enhanced awareness of organizational values and the quest for the collective interest by employees. In other words, the type of leadership style leads to increased performance. Taking a similar position, Ngambi, Cant & Van Heerden (2010), cited in Mitonga-Monga et al. (2012) conceptualized leadership as a process of influencing followers' commitment towards fulfilling their potential to attain a value-added collective vision with integrity and passion.

Generally, researchers have agreed that successful leadership enhances both employees' and organizational performance. More specifically, since it is the duty of

leaders to get things done through the coordinated efforts of others, it is assumed therefore that leadership skills and strategies will translate into employees' performance (Kehinde, Jegede & Akinlabi, 2012, p. 313). As such, effective leadership is a major requirement in today's globalized environment. However, the definition of leadership is a contested project characterized by numerous descriptions and conceptualizations. In fact, many researchers have studied the topic, but there is no generally accepted definition of what leadership is. Table 2.1 captures some of the definitions proffered by several authors:

Table 2.1
Definition and conceptualization of Leadership

Year	Author	Definition of Leadership
1989	Dimma	Leadership is "undoubtedly the critical determinant of the success of an organization, and thus determines organizational performance in the competitive global market".
1989; 2003	Bennis	Leadership is "a function of knowing yourself, having a vision that is well communicated, building trust among colleagues, and taking effective action to realize your own leadership potential".
1990	Bass	Leadership is "undoubtedly the critical determinant of the success of an organization"
1992	Boal and Whitehead	Successful leadership needs both cognitive and behavioural skills to enable selection of the right role for the situation.
1993	Robbins	Leadership is "the characteristic manner in which a person behaves in attempting to influence the actions or beliefs of others, particularly subordinates".

Table 2.1 (Continued)

1996	Mullins	Leadership is “a relationship through which one person influences the behaviours of other people”.
1998	Moorhead and Griffin	Leadership could be defined in two terms of both process and property. As a “process, leadership uses non-coercive influence and as a property, it is the set of characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to use such influence successfully”.
1998	Yukl	Leadership is “a process of mobilizing the workforce towards attaining organizational goals”.
2004	Hellriegel et al.	Leadership is “the ability to influence others to act toward the attainment of a goal”.
2005	Wang et al.	Leadership is “considered a factor that has a major influence on the performance of organizations, managers and employees”.
2007	Lussier, and Achua	Leadership “seems to be an activity of a member who is a leader of the group to influence a group member to achieve its goals”.
2007	The Transformational Report	Leadership is “continuously evolving, and a complex concept, with many applications, and its results depend highly on the context in which it is being observed”.
2011	Ngambi	Leadership is “a process of influencing others’ commitment towards realizing their full potential in achieving a value-added, shared vision with passion and integrity”.

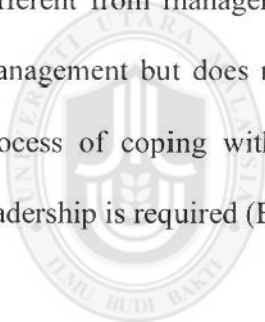
Sources: Various academic articles

There are also other definitions of leadership adumbrated by various authors. Some of these authors include: Chuang (2009) who regarded effective leadership as that which does not only stimulate the potential of the employees to achieve efficiency

but also assists in meeting the requirements of their employees. Davies and Ellison (1997) defined leadership as the ability to persuade others to enthusiastically seek defined aims or objectives. This involves the capability of the leader to exercise his or her influence on the behaviour of the other(s). In one word, leadership actually involves a person (leader) consciously trying to get other people (subordinate(s)) to do something in such a way that he or she wants. The conceptualization of leadership by Bass (1990) is as a form of interaction between and among individuals and groups that often involves creating and changing situations, perceptions and expectations of those involved. The foregoing definitions are important because they acknowledge leadership as a social interactive process that is influenced and shaped by both employees and leaders. Such an approach will ensure that the follower or subordinate will not remain as an unexplored factor in understanding leadership processes. It is therefore scarcely surprising that this research contributes to existing literature by highlighting the role of employees as active participants in the leadership process dynamics (see Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009). Arguing along similar lines is Bolman and Deal (1991), who viewed leadership as a process of leader and followers influencing each other. Put differently, the leadership process includes a combination of actions, feelings and thoughts that causes leaders and subordinates to collectively work towards the attainment of the same goals and values they both share.

Other scholars have viewed leadership through the lens of authority and power. In this regard, leadership is seen as the ability of the leader to cause followers to do what leaders wish (see Keith et al., 1991; Davies & Ellison, 1997). Other researchers have viewed leadership from a change management perspective, such as Lippman (1974). According to Lippman, leadership is the process of initiating new structures

and procedures that enable organizations to accomplish their goals and objectives. In this regard, a principal may not be regarded as a leader if the leader's activities are restricted to the maintenance of the status quo or existing means and ends. Another interesting perspective is the one provided by Cumming (1971) who defined leadership as the influence on a particular group of people, in a particular time and at a given circumstance. In this scenario, people are stimulated to reach a consensus and to be motivated in order to attain the objectives of the group and satisfy their leader. Not surprisingly, several studies have suggested a clear link or relationship between effective leadership behaviour and employees' performance. Although leadership and management are sometimes viewed as synonymous, however, leadership is different from management. According to Butler (2009), "leadership complements management but does not replace it" (p. 140). For Butler, leadership is basically a process of coping with change, and hence, the more the change, the more the leadership is required (Butler, 2009, p. 140).



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In present times, most studies on the concept of leadership, view it as the ability to influence followers to accomplish certain tasks over a period of time via motivational methods as opposed to coercive power or authority (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007, p. 663). In other words, leadership should be based on persuasion rather than coercion. This definition focuses on the followers' choice to perform a job or function of his or her will and largely rejects the notion of the use of power and other coercive measures by leaders. It has been suggested that when followers act out of obedience to authority, it is challenging to decide whether they are acting of their own free will or out of fear of sanction by the manager or supervisor. Therefore, the current theories on

leadership emphasize transformational leadership than any other style of leadership (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

Undoubtedly, leadership has become the most studied aspect of organizational behaviour and this has been accompanied by the development of various theories focusing on traits, strategies, styles and the situational approach to leadership (Kehinde, Jegede & Akinlabi, 2012, p. 313). As is evident, leadership is extremely important as a subject for academic investigation. More importantly, the above diverse definitions prove the importance of leadership to followers' performance and success.

In this study, the definition provided by Bass (1990) is adopted, where leadership is largely seen as a social interactive process influenced by both employees and leaders. Succinctly, the overall purpose of this study is to extend the body of knowledge on the association between leadership styles and employees' performance by focusing on the moderating effect of followers' characteristics on the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employees' task and contextual performance. It is important to notice that Bass's definition were adopted in this study, because this study argued that employees can play an important role as an active actor in leadership process. Furthermore, the modern theories of leadership acknowledge that the leadership process is not merely a 'give-and-take' process towards the attainment of a logical goal, but can frequently yield employees' performance beyond the call of duty (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 2002). As observed by Brown (2003), cited in Zhu, Avolio & Walumbwa (2009), since leaders are not the only source of critical information in this information age, they can no longer expect

to be followed blindly by their well-informed subordinates (p. 591). This implies that followers' characteristics play a moderating role in the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance. What is clear from the foregoing is that there is little agreement on what leadership is. In other words, leadership tends to convey different meanings to different people. The only agreeable aspect as reflected in the existing literature is that leadership is vital. Otherwise, leadership is an elusive concept.

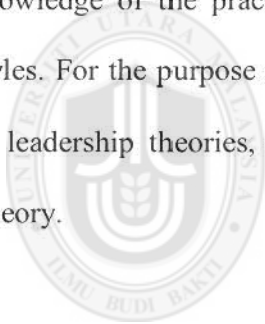
2.3 Leadership Theories

Globally, leadership has become the most widely studied concept of organizational behaviour. As a result, numerous theories of leadership have been developed by various scholars that focus on the strategies, traits, styles and the situational approach to leadership. These theories focus on the possible impact of leadership behaviour and the variables that are used to predict the leader's behaviour (Kehinde et al., 2012, p. 313). Generally, theories of leadership are often used as a guiding framework for selection, appraisal, training, and other HR development interventions in most organizations.

Since leadership is regarded as a key independent variable, it is important that we comprehend the overall patterns or types of leadership. It is undeniable that the aspect of leadership theory or theories has/have attracted considerable interest of both practitioners and scholars since the last century (Chemers, 2000). Hunt (1999), cited in Antonakis, Avolio and Sivasubramaniam (2003), attributed this growing interest in leadership research to the transformational and charismatic leadership models that emerged in the mid-1980s and 1990s. However, as noted by Pearce et al.

(2003) “researchers are most often interested in how particular kinds of leadership relate to individual, group and organizational effectiveness” (p. 293).

More importantly, most scholarly investigations have adopted theories that link leadership to some sets of outcome variables, particularly employees’ job performance, as is the case with the present study. Inevitably, over the course of time, a number of perspectives or frameworks of leadership behaviour have been developed and applied as researchers continue to grapple with issues that contribute to leadership success and failure. In essence, many leadership theories have evolved over time. These theories attempt to understand and present a precise idea and knowledge of the practice of leadership, including identifying various leadership styles. For the purpose of this study, these theories are categorized into three forms of leadership theories, namely: Trait Theory; Behavioral Theory; and Situational Theory.



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What is clear from the foregoing is that the theory of leadership is not linear but actually dynamic (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 301). Put differently, leadership is an evolving process that moves forward in fits and starts. Although there is no consensus on the definition of leadership, a significant number of scholars and practitioners contend that “leadership creates the vital link between organizational effectiveness and people’s performance at an organizational level” (Jing, 2008, p. 74). Finally, a simple summary of the history of leadership concepts and theories compiled by Howieson (1996), and improved by the researcher is captured below in Table 2.2:

Table 2.2

A Brief History of Leadership Theory

GENERAL THEORY	YEAR	EXAMPLE	SPECIFIC THEORY	KEY AUTHORS
Great Man	1930	Leaders are born not made.	Iowa Leadership Studies	Lewin, Lippit, White
Trait	1940	Identification of personality traits of the leader.	1. Ohio State Leadership Studies 2. Early Michigan Leadership Studies	/
Group/Exchange	1950 1960 1970	Leadership is viewed more in terms of the leader's behaviour and how such behaviour affects and is affected by the group of followers.	1. Vertical Dyad Linkage Model. 2. Leader-Member-Exchange 3. Transactional Leadership.	Graen Graen & Haga Burns
Power-Influence	1960	Examines the effect of power and influence on subordinates.		/
Situation	1950 1960 1970	Emphasizes the importance of contextual factors (i.e., nature of work/external environment/characteristics of followers).	Situational Theory	Hersey & Blanchard
Contingency	1960 1970 1980 1990	Identifies aspects of the situation that 'moderate' the relationship of leader behaviours to leadership effectiveness.	1. Path-Goal. 2. Leadership Substitutes Theory. 3. Multiple Linkage Model. 4. Contingency Model. 5. Cognitive Resource Theory. 6. Normative Decision theory	House Kerr & Jermier Yukl Fielder Fielder & Garcia Vroom & Jago

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Charisma	1970	Charismatic leaders are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers.	1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership	House
Transformational	1980 1990 2000	Leaders shifting the values, beliefs and needs of followers.	Transformational Theory.	Bass
Transactional	1978 1985	Emphasis is placed on the leader-follower relationship. It is the transactions (reward, punishment) which are the best way for leaders to motivate the performance of their followers	Transactional theory	Burns Bass
Dispersed, Informal, Emergent	2000 onwards	Informal leadership dispersed throughout the organization.	Numerous	Various

Source: Howieson (1996)

The above typology of leadership theories is not exhaustive and is only one of several frameworks that have been developed to highlight leadership. For instance, Pearce et al. (2003) developed further the transactional-transformational paradigm of leadership by proposing four leadership models deduced from a historical analysis of extant leadership literature as indicated below in Table 2.3:

Table 2.3

Theoretical and Research bases of the historical derived model of leadership types

Leadership Type	Theoretical and Research Base
Directive leadership	Theory X (McGregor, 1960) Initiating structure from Ohio Studies Task-oriented behaviour from Michigan studies Punishment research
Transactional leadership	Expectancy theory Path-goal theory Equity theory Exchange theory Reinforcement theory Reward research
Transformational leadership	Sociology of charisma Charismatic leadership theory Transformational leadership
Empowering leadership	Behavioural self-management Social cognitive theory Cognitive behaviour modification Participative management & participative goal setting

Source: Pearce et al. (2003, p. 273)

It is a daunting task for this study to review all leadership typologies in detail, and as such, this study suggests that the particular typologies identified in this section are very instructive and have a particular advantage in the context of the research, which is premised on the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm. Generally, leadership is immensely important, both as a social phenomenon and a subject for scholarly research. As demonstrated in this section, many scholars have studied this topic of leadership though there is no generally accepted definition of what leadership entails.

2.4 Leadership Style

Leadership style denotes “leaders’ actions or behaviours where they may use their formal authority to establish work groups and affect them to support organizational strategy and goals” (Ismail et al., 2010, p. 342). A similar conceptualization of leadership style is made by a number of studies, including Bryman (1992); Robbin & Coulter (2002); and Jong & Hartog (2007). It is generally assumed that if leaders can properly practice their leadership styles, this may aid them to motivate employees to perform their job functions. In other words, the leader’s style is also key to enhancing performance among followers (Zachratos, Barling & Kelloway, 2000; Berson et al., 2001). Generally, leadership style is regarded as an important aspect in the attainment of organizational goals. It is therefore not surprising that a number of scholarly studies have consistently demonstrated the benefits of the transformational leadership style over the more conventional types, such as transactional leadership, in terms of attaining organizational goals (Dubinsky et al., 1995; Berson et al., 2001; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). Nonetheless, the leader’s style alone cannot be entirely responsible for the performance of employees, nor for the achievement of organizational goals. But employees are also playing an important role, particularly, their perceptions of a leader’s style and their feelings about their own capacity to realize organizational goals (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002, p. 546). Moreover, the subordinates’ view of their relationship with their leader, and in particular, the level of support they get from their leader, would appear to influence their job performance.

Although there are a number of areas within the leadership discourse that have attracted scholarly research, arguably, the most currently studied area as shown by

Avolio and Bass (2004) is that of transactional and transformational leadership, most often measured by the recent research version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 5X (MLQ5X). In fact, the theory of leadership has been stuck in the transactional - transformational typology for some time now (Pearce et al., 2003). Consequently, most of the existing studies on leadership have concentrated mainly on the two leadership styles, i.e., transactional and transformational (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Islam et al., 2012).

However, more importantly, this study examines employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) as a possible moderator of the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance in the Libyan context. Of crucial importance to note is that a growing number of recent studies on leadership have focused on subordinates' or followers' dimensions in which two leadership styles are highlighted, namely, transactional and transformational (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; 1990). It is instructive to note that this study is part of this growing research tradition that identifies transactional and transformational leadership styles as appropriate and effective leadership styles. Similarly, this study is premised on the two aforementioned leadership models. One criticism to this approach is that focusing on Bass's (1985) typology overemphasizes the significance of one and two leadership styles (for example transactional or/and transformational), at the expense of the classical and organic types of leadership (Jing, 2008).

Clearly, as is evident in the foregoing, two types of leadership styles dominate the study of leadership in present times. Generally, transactional leadership is viewed as

task-oriented, as its focus is on getting the job or task at hand done. The other leadership model, namely, transformational leadership, is largely seen as relationship-oriented. The leadership behaviour of this type of leadership places emphasis on interpersonal dimensions, such as resolving conflicts and conveying trust. On close inspection, these leadership models focus on behaviour exhibited by the leader (see Poulson et al., 2011). Notably, transformational leadership is critical since it has considerable influence on work behaviour and attitude of employees. This type of leadership also plays a role in the development of an emotional bond between leaders and their subordinates, which in turn, assists in determining priorities, as well as shaping values and aspirations of employees (Antonakis & House, 2002; Kark & Shamir, 2002; Yukl, 1999). It should also be pointed out that in transformational leadership, the employees identify with both the manager and the team (see Kark & Shamir, 2002).

On the other hand, Sergiovanni (2007) pointed out that transactional leadership emphasizes managerial skills, such as procedures, rules and job descriptions, to meet organizational goals. Furthermore, this leadership type takes a direct approach (see Friedman, 2004), and as such, transactional leaders are expected to provide supervisory feedback. Thus, the main intention of this leadership style is to provide positive feedback to the employees for commendable performance and negative feedback for below par performance (McKoll-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). As indicated by Bass et al. (2003), transactional leaders clarify expectations and provide recognition when organizational goals are accomplished.

Notably, theories on leadership indicate that transformational leadership has a much greater influence on the subordinates' job related behaviour, and thus, ultimately affects their work performance vis-à-vis transactional leadership style (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007, p. 662; Islam et al., 2012, p. 1540). Furthermore, as noted earlier, present leadership theories are much more centred on transformational leadership than any other leadership style because many studies have demonstrated that motivational methods of leadership influence followers to perform more than leadership roles based on the exercise of power and authority (Wang et al., 2005; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). The transactional-transformational paradigm was triggered by Burns (1978) who clearly spelt out the distinction between these two forms of leadership. In other words, Burns set out to contrast the two types of leadership; it is therefore not surprising that several studies have been undertaken to operationalize and empirically test Burns' leadership typology.

Interestingly, other studies have examined transformational and transactional leadership behaviours at the same time, thus enabling scholars and researchers alike to view new approaches to management behaviour (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011, p. 364). According to Nahum-Shani & Somech, this bipartisan approach offers an ongoing conceptual and pragmatic approach to management behaviour that allows effective managers to move back and forth between transactional and transformational leadership styles depending on the situation (2011). Clearly, this approach draws its inspiration from the augmentation hypothesis that was advanced by Bass and Avolio (1993). This proposition states that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership. Nevertheless, Bass (1998), cited in Epitropaki & Martin (2013), made it clear that transformational leadership, in essence, is not a

substitute for transactional leadership. However, for Lowe et al. (1996), transformational leadership exists at the lower level and transactional leadership exists at the higher level of the organization, thus implying that the former is a substitute for the latter.

Arguing along similar lines is the multi-level analysis of transformational leadership which suggests that leaders may apply transformational behaviours to different degrees when dealing with their various subordinates (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin, 2001). To put it differently, the basic notion underpinning multi-level analysis of leadership is that leaders adapt or adjust their behaviour to the individual employee rather than behaving the same way with every employee. Hence, in a one-on-one scenario of interaction, leaders display a different leadership style toward each subordinate. This proposition which has been supported by empirical evidence challenges the universal notion of the transformational leader who motivates all subordinates towards a common vision (see Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin, 2001, p. 199). It is evident that in this approach, leaders utilize transformational behaviour with those followers who are receptive to the leadership style. Noting that leaders can effectively influence their followers in several ways, this may potentially serve as the foundation for management training programs geared to enhance the range of leadership behaviours exhibited by leaders. This would, in turn, improve leaders' abilities to match their subordinates' needs and expectations.

A related concept is the full-range leadership theory advocated by Bass and Avolio (1991), which has recently attracted considerable scholarly attention. This model of

leadership, initially based on nine factors whose utility was eventually questioned, is now combined into three factors, namely, transformational, transactional and passive leadership styles (Mannheim & Halamish, 2008). These three leadership styles have been shown in existing literature to provide a fairly exhaustive description of leadership behaviours that are related to employees' behaviour. More specifically, leaders exhibit a profile of various behaviours depending on the obtaining situation. As such, the relative dominance of one type of leader behaviour characterizes the leader's style (Mannheim & Halamish, 2008; Bass & Avolio, 1994). In similar fashion, Antonakis et al. (2003) established that leadership styles relate differentially to a variety of individual and group outcomes and there has been no controversy regarding the predictive nature of the theory. It has been suggested that "the three leadership styles are hierarchically structured, so that the optimal leader is the one who displays mostly the transformational style, and to a lesser extent, the transactional and avoiding styles" (Mannheim & Halamish, 2008). Another claim or suggestion is that these leadership styles and their impact are universal.

In a nutshell, the existing literature on leadership, including this study, seems to make one underlying assumption, i.e., every leader exhibits both transactional and transformational behaviours to varying levels or degrees (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Wofford et al., 1998; Yammarino et al., 1998, Elenkov, 2000). However, some scholars have criticized this assumption and suggest that leadership is a dyadic process, underpinned by a leader-follower dynamics (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011). In this regard, Nahum-Shani and Somech (2011) also argued that leaders should be characterized in terms of a dominant leadership type because such an approach does take into consideration the diversity of relationships

that develop between leaders and various employees. Nonetheless, the transactional-transformational typology remains the dominant paradigm in leadership research. It is no wonder then that this typology forms part of the research framework of the present study. However, some researchers are worried by this narrow focus or obsession with the two-factor theory of leadership. In this regard, Yukl (1989), cited in Pearce et al. (2003), states that the transactional-transformational typology or paradigm is quickly emerging as a two-factor theoretical approach of leadership process, which often oversimplifies the complexity of the leadership process.

2.4.1 Transactional Leadership

Basically, transactional leadership is an exchange driven process premised on the fulfilment of contractual commitments (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). In other words, transactional leaders inspire and motivate subordinates via conditional reward-based exchanges. Hence, this type of leader is concerned with economic, political or psychological value of a subordinate. This implies that transactional leaders strive to monitor and control employees through rational economic means based on the leader's ability to identify conditions for performance, as well as the rewards for achieving these performance indicators (Bono & Judge, 2004). Put differently, transactional behaviours will enable the leader's objectives and the interests of the employees to be met simultaneously (Whittington et al., 2009). According to Mester (2003), studies on transactional leadership (such as Bass & Avolio, 1997; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1998; Tepper & Percy, 1994) show that there are three dimensions underlying the transactional leadership model, namely: reinforcement or contingent rewards; active management-by-exception; and passive management-by exception. The first dimension refers to scenarios when a leader or

manager utilises rewards, praises and promises to motivate employees to attain performance levels agreed upon or contracted by both parties. The second dimension is when the manager monitors employees' performance, taking corrective action when irregularities occur or in anticipation of problems. The final dimension is realized when the leader takes corrective action only after negative feedback is received (Mester, 2003).

In essence, transactional leadership behaviour compels employees to subscribe to certain indicators of performance (role expectations) and the possibility of achieving them. It is generally believed that when employees have confidence about the roles they are expected to perform, they will have the tendency to put more effort and commitment which may surpass the expected job standard (Organ, 1988). By embarking on negotiation with their subordinates, transactional leaders essentially place emphasis on goal-setting, by clarifying the relationship between rewards and performance, and also giving feedback constructively. As noted by Mester (2003), while transformational leaders often motivate employees to exceed their role expectations or job standards, transactional leadership is largely bureaucratic and relies on the exchange process based on employees receiving certain valued outcomes in exchange for a performance that fulfils the leader's wishes. Evidently, the relationship nurtured by transactional leaders is premised on a series of implicit bargains between leaders and their followers over role expectation clarifications, task-oriented goals and assignments.

In view of the foregoing, the focus of transactional leaders is always on how employees will complete their task and comply with organizational policy, while the

leader leverages on organizational punishments and rewards (the carrot-and-stick policy) to stimulate employees' performance (see Tepper & Percy, 1994; Hartog & Van Muijen, 1997; Trott & Windsor, 1999; Robbins, 2003). In this sense, leaders will affirm and reward followers' effort and any improper behaviour will result in immediate corrective punishment (Bass, 1997).

Pearce et al. (2003) noted that the transactional leadership style is premised on various theories, such as the path-goal theory, expectancy theory, reinforcement theory and exchange/equity theory. Based on the transactional leadership model, leaders often consult with the employees before making decisions. However, Avery (2004) pointed out that leaders do not often empower subordinates under this leadership style, apart from being able to withdraw or offer more of their labour. It appears then that the main source of employee commitment is not from the leader but from the expectations, agreements and rewards which are negotiated with the leader by the employee.

Basically, the transactional leadership model hinges on the idea that when the working environment and the job tasks do not motivate and satisfy the employee, the transactional leader has to depend on his or her behaviour to save the situation. As such, one of the key functions of the transactional leader is to clarify employees' role expectations regarding acceptable standards of performance and the respective rewards (Hartog & Van Muijen, 1997; Mester, 2003; Robbins, 2003). Clearly, under this leadership model, the leader is the embodiment of power and authority. In a way, this leadership style, as noted by some scholars, like Bass (1985); and Lashway (1999), is a cost-benefit exchange process, where employees' benefits are exchanged

to realize organizational interests and goals. In a nutshell, at the heart of the transactional leadership model, the leader holds control over followers and provides incentives for them to do what the leader or manager wants. In other words, an employee only receives a valued outcome or reward when he or she fulfils a desired goal or task (see Lashway, 1999).

2.4.2 Transformational Leadership

The transformational leadership model was developed by Bass (1985). However, Bass was inspired by Burns (1978) whose theoretical ideas introduced the dichotomy between transactional and transformational leadership models (see Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 264; Bono & Judge, 2004). This approach has enjoyed wide theoretical and practical acceptance over the past three decades. This leadership style has been defined by many scholars as a model of leadership predicated on the leader's desire to develop his or her employees' motivation and full potential (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1999; Hartog, Muijen & Koopman, 1997). Meanwhile, Yukl (1989), cited in Kent and Chelladurai (2001), described transformational leadership as a leadership behaviour that induces major changes to organizational members' attitudes, assumptions and commitment towards the objectives and mission of the organization.

However, McKoll-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) defined transformational leadership as, "guidance through individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence". McKoll-Kennedy and Anderson asserted that while intellectual stimulation highlights the utility of reasoning, rationality and evidence, the focus of individualized consideration is on

personal attention. Generally, transformational leaders are proactive and motivate followers to accomplish extraordinary feats (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). According to Jing (2008), the transformational model has added a new aspect of visionary leadership and emotional involvement of subordinates to organizational research. As suggested by Bass (1985), transformational leadership is about an exchange between the leader and follower, which makes the follower to be loyal and trust and respect his or her leader, because he or she is motivated and inspired to do more than initially anticipated.

Bass and Avolio (1994) suggested that transformational leaders exhibit various types of behaviour, categorized into the following:

- Idealized influence (attributed/behaviour): The leader receives trust and respect from his or her subordinates. He/she, on the other hand, maintains high ethical standards, instilling the desire of emulating in subordinates. Idealized influence can be the result of a leader's behaviour.
- Inspirational motivation: This leader specifically and typically stresses to subordinates the need for high performance and assists the subordinates in accomplishing set organizational goals and objectives. As explained by Bass and Avolio (1994), leaders adopting this behaviour are capable of enhancing their subordinates' reactions and can effectively and simply communicate complex ideas.
- Intellectual stimulation: The intellectual stimulator helps the subordinates to understand the challenges and stimulates the recognition of their own principles and values.
- Individualized consideration: The boss treats subordinates as individuals and accords everyone equal and fair treatment. Through this medium, individuals' needs

are easily identified and tasks are delegated to subordinates for the purpose of creating learning opportunity and subsequent growth.

Transformational leadership has been proved to positively influence group processes (see Atwater & Bass, 1994). More specifically, Walumbwa et al. (2005) noted that two decades of studies on leadership have demonstrated that leaders who display the transformational leadership style generate higher level of effort, commitment and satisfaction, on the part of their employees. Furthermore, these behaviours also encourage group bonding and cohesion (Conger et al., 2000; Mannheim & Halamish, 2008). As noted by Asgari et al. (2008), transformational leaders inspire subordinates by making them see and internalize organizational vision holistically over parochial individual interests (p. 228). According to Asgari and others, employees or individuals, “who are intrinsically motivated to fulfil a collective vision without expecting immediate personal and tangible gains, may be inclined to accomplish extraordinary feats in ways that their roles do not prescribe”. They further argued that such employees are motivated to make this extraordinary impact because of their enhanced sense of self-worth (Asgari et al., 2008, p. 228).

Arguing along similar lines, Mester (2003) pointed out that the transformational leader encourages a high performance level of employees by appealing to the employees’ higher order needs, such as their level of commitment, passion, pride and intellectual curiosity. Not surprisingly, this higher order needs inspired subordinates to pursue challenging tasks and goals with a strong orientation towards the future (p. 73). A significant number of researches have highlighted the motivational impact of transformational leadership on employees’ performance (Tepper & Percy, 1994;

Tracey & Hinkin, 1998; Posdakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996; Trott & Windsor, 1999).

There is no doubt that transformational leadership style forms the basis of current leadership studies by its focus on the more personal aspect of organizational interactions. In this regard, terms, such as vision, values, culture and teamwork have become synonymous with transformational leadership. For instance, Friedman (2004) established that transformational leadership transforms the workplace culture and productivity as well as employees' attitude and commitment to collective goals. Notably, this type of leadership elicits commitment rather than compliance. According to Jung and Avolio (2000), transformational leadership supports empowerment processes which are nurtured by shared decision-making or participatory management". As aptly stated by Krishnan (2005), such a leadership type raises the level of conduct of both the led and the leaders.

Despite the existing literature's overwhelmingly positive take on transformational leadership, limitations and weaknesses of this style of leadership have been pointed out (Avery, 2004; Nadler & Tuschman, 1990). For example, Nadler and Tuschman (1990) noted that the impracticable role expectations which subordinates often place on transformational or visionary leaders can backfire or bring disillusionment if things do not work out as planned. As indicated earlier, although the focus of the transformational leadership model has been on leaders' behaviour, most contemporary perspectives of leadership view leadership as a dynamic process that is influenced by both leaders and employees as well as the interaction between the two players (Hollander, 1992; Mathieu, 2001). Nevertheless, in the extant literature on

transformational leadership, little attention has been paid to employees' characteristics or behaviour. This oversight is surprising given the views of prominent scholars captured in some studies. For example, Bass (1985); and Conger and Kanungo (1998) argued that transformational leadership may be more suitable for some employees than for others. In recent reviews of the literature, Conger (1999) suggested that dispositional attributes of subordinates and how those attributes affect receptivity and responses to transformational and charismatic leaders have been poorly examined and as a result, the area remains largely neglected by scholars (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Hence, one of the main purposes of this study is to examine or investigate the extent to which employees' characteristics (personality & self-efficacy) and leader behaviours interact in predicting job-related outcomes (employees' job performance).

2.4.3 Transformational and Transactional Leadership: Some Reflections

The extant literature demonstrates that both transactional and transformational leadership styles are different with regards to the process by which managers or leaders motivate followers and the kinds of goals they craft (Hater & Bass, 1988). To understand transactional leadership, one must differentiate it from transformational leadership. According to Awamleh, Evans and Mahate (2005), transactional leadership imbues an exchange process that allows the leaders to administer rewards and at the same time, sanction employees when it is required. In essence, the leader and employee concur, implicitly or explicitly, that desired subordinate behaviours will be rewarded appropriately, while unreasonable behaviours will attract sanctions or punishment. Since it is premised on an exchange process, transactional leadership does not seek to motivate subordinates beyond the level that is required to gain

extrinsic rewards or avoid sanctions. However, a total dependence on this leadership style can have a negative impact on the job performance of employees because this leadership style is not ideal for all situations (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Peters & Austin, 1985; Bryman, 1992). For Bryman (1992), transactional leadership behaviours are not yet 'true' leadership material. However, transformational leadership seeks to build or inculcate goals, aspirations and values that are consistent with the values of employees. In this regard, transformational leaders realize these objectives by articulating their vision, providing individualized support, fostering acceptance of collective goals, deepening intellectual stimulation and clarifying performance or role expectations (MacKenzie et al., 2001). As mentioned earlier, transformational leadership is largely seen as the most effective leadership style (including transactional leadership) because it motivates followers to achieve extraordinary feats (see Boal & Bryson, 1988; Dubinsky et al., 1995). Accordingly, these transformations take place via interactions between leaders and followers, especially reflected in the way transformational leaders communicate with followers.

Nonetheless, by contrasting the foregoing leadership styles, it does not mean that the two leadership styles are unconnected. In fact, studies have demonstrated that although the two are distinct models, they are somehow interconnected. For Burns (1978), quoted in Awamleh, Evans and Mahate (2005, p.5), the relationship between the two leadership styles is seen as "opposite ends of a continuum", whilst Bass (1985) views them as closely interconnected. Bass's perspective is largely supported by empirical evidence. As noted by Bass, transformational leadership focuses more on developing followers' fullest potential, whereas transactional leadership is based on fulfilling the needs of the followers (Awamleh, Evans & Mahate, 2005, p.5). Most

researchers concur with the position of Bass that in their quest to realize their full potential, leaders should demonstrate both leadership behaviours (Avolio, Waldman & Einstein, 1988; Waldman, Bass & Yammarino, 1989). To put it differently, transformational leaders should also have the capacity or ability to engage in transactional behaviour depending on the situation. It is also argued that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership and not the other way around. For this reason, transformational leadership is generally perceived as an extended version of the transactional leadership typology (see Avolio & Bass, 1999; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1998; Hartog & Van Muijen, 1997). Interestingly, Bass and Avolio (1997) challenged conventional wisdom which largely views transformational leadership as the more effective of the two leadership styles, by extolling the virtues of transactional leadership's process of clarifying certain expectancies for a reward as a key aspect of the full range of effective leadership.

2.5 Employees' Job Performance

Employees' job performance is very important as it has a major influence on the overall performance of organizations. It has attracted several meanings from different scholars but there is a consensus that it is a multidimensional construct (see Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, Gasser & Oswald, 1996; Murphy & Shiarella, 1997; Viswesvaran, 2001). El-Saghier (2002), cited in Awad & Ismail (2012) regarded job performance as an effort of a subordinate to achieve some specific goal (p. 120). On the other hand, Rafik & Shuib (2005), also cited in Awad & Ismail (2012), presented an organizational construct of performance by conceptualizing it as the extent to which a follower participates in the attainment of organizational goals.

There are many other definitions of job performance adumbrated by various authors, including Harrison and Shaffer (2005), who regarded job performance as a combination of effort and time that employees devote to accomplish their assigned tasks in the organization. Job performance is also defined as behaviour or actions which employees engage in during the accomplishment of their assigned duties at work (Jex, 2002, p. 88). In general, job performance indicates how well employees carry out their assigned duties at work. Similarly, job performance is viewed by some scholars as the efficiency of employees who participate in accomplishing organizational goals (e.g., Beal, Cohen, Burke & McLendon, 2003; Motowidlo, 2003). In other words, job performance points to how efficient the employee is in executing the roles and responsibilities that relates to the accomplishment of the assigned job.

It also includes certain job behaviours of people which are pertinent to organizational goals. Organizations have interest in the job performance of their employees because of the ability to boost productivity in the workplace (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). Essentially therefore, the focus of performance should be on behaviours instead of outcomes (Murphy, 1989), as outcomes will assist the employees to find the easiest way to achieve targets, rather than behaviour that may be detrimental to the organization because of underperformance. This fact was corroborated by Campbell, McCloy, Oppler & Sager (1993) when they explained that performance is not a product of behaviour, but rather of the behaviour itself. In essence, performance comprises behaviours that followers actually engage in which can be observed.

Contrary to the behavioural definitions of job performance, another school of thought believes that performance is behaviours with an evaluative aspect instead of just behaviours per se (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit 1997). According to Newman, Kinney and Farr (2004), this definition is in line with dominant methods that are used for the purpose of measuring job performance, such as ratings from supervisors and peers. Even though other studies, such as that of Motowidlo et al. (1997) have often emphasized evaluative ideas while conceptualizing the performance domain, they are of the view that that task performance is behaviour-oriented and not results-oriented. Another paramount feature of performance is that the behaviours must be in tandem with the objectives of the organization (Campbell et al., 1993).

Meanwhile, job performance has been defined as a key activity that offers both the techniques and approaches to accomplish organizational objectives as well as provides the attainment level in terms of output (Ibrahim, 2004). Of the dimensions of job performance that have been extensively highlighted in extant literature, two major elements have attracted the most attention, i.e., task performance and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Eysenck, 1998; Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999; Bohlander et al., 2001; Ismail et al., 2009). In a way, we can say, generally, job elements. In a parallel fashion, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) suggested that the job performance construct should comprise both contextual and task performance. They pointed out that both aspects are determined or shaped by various factors. For example, job-related experience impacts on task performance, while an employee's personality type affects contextual performance (Motowidlo & VanScotter, 1994). More importantly, the distinction between contextual and task

performance is another attempt at clarifying the dimensions that represent the full range or constructs of job performance (Rodrigues & Rebelo, 2009).

Cardy and Dobbins, cited in Johari and Yahya (2009), conceptualized performance as job-related outcomes closely linked to task performance, such as quality and quantity of accomplished work. Performance is also viewed as job relevant behaviours that comprise behavioural elements useful for attaining task performance. Put differently, job-related behaviours provide support for executing task-related matters. It is therefore not surprising that employees' job performance is best measured in terms of task performance and contextual performance (also known as organizational citizenship behaviour). Notably, in view of the foregoing, Rodrigues and Rebelo (2009) aptly defined task performance as a "behaviour that serves and maintains the execution of the role's pre-described activities, contributing to the efficiency of the technical core of the organization's functioning, either directly, by implementation of a technological process, or indirectly by providing materials or services" (p. 48). In a much more succinct way, Rodrigues and Rebelo (2009) defined contextual performance as a "behaviour that maintains or improves the social and organizational context of the task core" (p. 48). As we shall see in other sections, contextual performance is synonymous with the concepts of extra-role behaviour, OCB and pro-social organizational behaviour.

Basically, the debate about the operational definition of job performance is yet to be concluded. Evidently, job performance is a multi-dimensional concept that lacks operational precision. Nonetheless, in recent times, there has been a growing interest in developing a definition of performance with specific attributes. An increasing

emphasis has been placed on employees' job performance as a source of overall organizational effectiveness in organizational development. In fact, in many studies, employees' job performance is one of the key performance indicators (see Wall et al., 2004). Even though employees' job performance is very much dependent on personality traits, many other factors affect employees' task and contextual performance (Johari & Yahya, 2009). For example, constraints, such as ineffective job design and bureaucratic challenges continue to have a negative influence on both contextual and task performance. Not surprisingly, such constraints ultimately obstruct high organizational performance (Wall et al., 2004; Johari & Yahya, 2009).

Evidence from several studies has indicated that the capability of leaders to appropriately execute consultative and participative leadership styles has been a key impact factor on job performance in many organizations (Ismail et al., 2009; Ocholi, 2005; Picollo & Colquitt, 2006; Yousef, 2000). These findings are consistent with the path-goal theory (see House, 1996) and leader-member exchange theory (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). In essence, these two theories suggest that the capacity of leaders to clarify the path to accomplish goals and improve the quality of leader-employee interaction may foster positive subordinate attitude and behaviour. Put differently, leaders clearly state how the goals will be achieved practically and interact effectively through consultative and participative methods to remove hindrances and help employees to focus while trying to attain their organizational objectives. Consequently, this may bring about achievement of higher job performance (see Gomez & Rosen, 2001).

Indeed, despite extensive empirical research, there seems to not be a convincing degree of consensus or meeting of minds among scholars about which dimensions or elements of job performance should be adopted by organizations (see Hatrup, O'Connell & Wingate, 1999; Borman et al., 1997). Hence, this study adopts Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) conceptualization which distinguishes between contextual and task performance. As indicated earlier, task performance refers to behaviours linked particularly to performing job-related tasks (Johari & Yahya, 2009), while contextual or extra-role performance entails individual behaviours that are discretionary, or in other words, not formally recognized by the agreed reward system (Organ, 1988). Furthermore, the extra-role behaviours do not necessarily lead to the effective performance of any particular organization. Put differently, these behaviours only assist organizationally, psychologically and socially and form part of the core areas in which the organizational objectives are pursued. The difference between contextual and task performance is aptly captured by Befort and Hatrup (2003) in the following paragraphs.

Generally, according to Befort and Hatrup (2003), there are three basic assumptions linked to both task and contextual performance: the first assumption states that task performance-related activities vary between jobs unlike those activities related to contextual performance which are more or less the same across jobs; the second assumption states that task performance is closely associated with ability, whereas contextual performance is associated with personality and motivation; and the third assumption states that task performance mirrors in-role behaviour as opposed to contextual performance which is seen as more akin to extra-role behaviour (Befort & Hatrup, 2003).

Task performance is defined as behaviours which contribute mainly to the transformation of raw materials and servicing activities in an organization, such as production and selling of goods, acquiring supplies, managing employees or delivering goods and services (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999). On the other hand, contextual performance includes those behaviours which support the culture and environment of the organization; in other words, the context within which the technical core operations are performed. Performing with intense interest, volunteering for extra assignment, helping and collaborating with others, supporting and defending the organization and obeying the organization rules, all mentioned earlier are considered as a contextual behaviours (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999).

At the most basic level, it has been suggested that the nature of job performance is largely influenced by several factors, including the goals and mission of the organization, the organizational culture and the demands of the job (Befort & Hattrup, 2003). In fact, several studies have shown that the relative importance given to task vis-à-vis contextual behaviour has serious implications for the conceptualization of performance in organizations. Similarly, studies have also established that managers differ in the relative weight they place on task and contextual performance dimensions when judging a subordinate's overall contribution to the organization (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). As such, decisions about rewards, such as promotions, may rely on the relative value that supervisors place on the contextual and task performance-relevant behaviours displayed by their followers. Some previous studies have demonstrated that different individual constructs are better predictors of specific job performance indicators or dimensions (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Rodrigues & Rebelo, 2009; Van Scotter &

Motowidlo, 1996; Viswesvaran, 2001). For instance, Rodrigues and Rebelo (2009) observed that the best predictors of contextual performance may be motivation, personality or personal orientation differences, and the best predictors of task performance may be other factors, such as knowledge, abilities and work experience. There is no doubt that most research findings support the disparity between contextual and task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). However, other research findings have indicated that both task performance and contextual performance are rated equally by the supervisors in the course of evaluating overall performance of employees (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

2.5.1 Task Performance

Basically, task performance refers to the value of an employee's contribution to the work; the quantity or quality of work, i.e., employees' productivity. In a parallel fashion, Gomez-Mejia et al. (2007), cited in Johari and Yahya (2009), conceptualized task performance as quality and quantity of work performed as well as interpersonal effectiveness (p. 146). Similarly, Motowidlo (2003) conceptualized task performance as constituting an organization's total anticipated value on task-related proficiency of subordinates. Put differently, task performance constitutes the behaviours associated specifically with performing job-related matters. As mentioned earlier, task performance refers to the role-prescribed tasks specific to each job role. Hence, it refers to those activities that aid an organization's core areas (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

As noted by Kamdar and Van Dyne (2007), there are two main categories of task behaviour, namely, organizational activities that directly convert raw materials into

goods and services, and those activities that provide and sustain support to the technical core. In sum, task performance encompasses all behaviours that are directly related to main job functions. In other words, it involves the proficiency of activities that formally are seen as part of employees' jobs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Nonetheless, task performance is just a part of the scene when people work in organizational teams. Undoubtedly, another important aspect is contextual performance, which refers to behaviour that improves or sustains the psychosociological setting through which organizational core tasks are executed (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

In view of its clear importance, studies have nonetheless paid scant focus on the most appropriate concept of task performance in spite of the fact that a proper definition of the term is critical before any moves are made to enhance individual performance in organizations (Motowidlo, 2003). According to several studies, job performance can be evaluated in terms of relative judgment or the absolute value (see Gomez-Mejia et al., 2007; Wall et al., 2004). Notably, absolute value is derived from financial indicators, such as profitability and productivity, as opposed to relative judgement which is premised on the total employees' and organizational performance. In other words, relative judgement focuses on behavioural and task-related aspects (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2007).

Furthermore, in the HR management field, job performance has been gauged using an array of measures, such as productivity indices, supervisory ratings, turnover rate, sales total, and promo ability ratings. As noted earlier, task performance has also been categorized into quality and quantity of work done and entailing interpersonal

effectiveness (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2007). As noted by Wall et al. (2004), most studies on HR management have taken up subjective measures of performance to assess individual performance. More importantly, these measures are premised on behavioural and task-related aspects. Wall et al. (2004) observed that these subjective measures allow scholars to generalize the results of research to a larger performance construct. This is consistent with the position of Motowidlo (2003) who contended task performance as a large behavioural construct because it imbues psychological processes that are linked to motivation, training and selection.

More importantly, performance is a multi-dimensional process. Campell (1990) identified eight components of performance out of which five are associated with task performance (see Campbell, Gasser & Oswald, 1996; Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999): job-specific task proficiency, non-job-specific task proficiency, written and oral communication proficiency, management/administration and supervision for those occupying supervisory or leadership positions. Although Campbell's Performance Model has been utilized in many studies, its main weakness is that it is not comprehensive in explicating the elements of job performance as it focuses solely on person factors as the only determinant of job performance (Robbins, 2003).

Similarly, Cardy and Dobbins, cited in Williams (2002), added other predictors of performance, such as systems factors and person factors. Cardy and Dobbins described person factors as personality traits and abilities that may affect his or her job performance level. It should be noted that this is supported by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994), who indicated that personality affects subordinates' contextual performance. The same study also shows that abilities and experiences relate

considerably to employees' task performance. However, in contrary to Motowidlo and Van Scotter's findings, several studies have examined the relationship between personality (particularly the five-factor personality model) and task performance (e.g., Hogan et al., 1996; Mount et al., 1998). Based on this perspective, at least two studies have established significant links between behaviour and personality when particular elements of personality are associated with certain outcomes (Tett, Jackson & Rothstein, 1991; Colbert et al., 2004).

Meanwhile, system factors refer to environmental factors, such as organizational structure, organizational culture, job design and leadership (Williams, 2002). Adler and Borys (1996), cited in Johari and Yahya (2009), classified system factors into coercing and enabling factors. To this end, for instance, systemic factors can be deemed enabling if positive organizational culture enhances job performance; it can be considered as 'coercing' if a rigid organizational structure limits or inhibits high performance at the work place (Johari & Yahya, 2009).

2.5.2 Contextual Performance

Contextual performance is synonymous with organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) or extra-role performance (Asgari et al., 2008; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Other scholars have described OCB as discretionary (Gautam et al., 2004; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), or extra-role performance. For instance, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) described OCB as individual contributions that exceed the role expectations as reflected in the formal reward system. In essence, contextual performance was introduced by Podsakoff et al. (2000); and Organ (1997), as an important factor contributing to the effectiveness of an organization. As noted earlier, contextual

performance is concerned with those behavioural aspects that are neither enforced by employment contract nor stated in job description. In similar fashion, Organ (1988), cited in Nahun-Shani and Somech (2011), viewed OCB as the behaviour of individuals that are discretionary, meaning that the behaviours or contributions do not form part of a formal reward system directly, and as a result, do not have any bearing on the effective functioning of the organization (p. 353). It is scarcely surprising that in recent years OCB or its alias contextual performance has attracted significant research attention for its role as a behavioural outcome of followers' motivation in organizations.

When first introduced by Bateman and Organ in the 1980s, the concept of OCB was categorized into altruism and general compliance. The former concerns subordinates' willingness to help others, whereas the latter focuses on what subordinates should do (Organ et al., 2006). However, Organ (1985), cited in Johari and Yahya (2009), expanded OCB into five categories: conscientiousness, civic virtue, altruism, sportsmanship and courtesy. Generally, altruism entails helping behaviours targeted at specific persons. Meanwhile, conscientiousness captures helping behaviours that target an organization as a whole. Organ conceptualizes sportsmanship as the willingness on the part of the subordinate or employee to "tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining" (see Johari & Yahya, 2009, p. 147). Courtesy, refers to actions aimed at preventing future challenges. Finally, civic virtue refers to a behaviour that exhibits concern for the life or being of the organization.

A close inspection of the five-factor approach, demonstrates clearly that the concept of OCB has experienced a number of transformations. For instance, Organ (1997)

categorised OCB into three elements, namely, conscientiousness, courtesy and helping. In some academic circles, OCB is also known to be a promoter of customer service or social behaviour (Koster & Sanders, 2006). Furthermore, Williams and Anderson (1991) split OCB into two forms, namely: OCB-I and OCB-O. It should be pointed out that OCB-I concentrates on individual behaviours, whereas OCB-O focuses on employee behaviours at the level of the organization. Williams and Anderson's (1991) conceptualization was derived from Organ's (1988) five dimensions of OCB. OCB-I comprises altruism and courtesy of Organ's (1988) OCB dimensions; while OCB-O comprises sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue.

As mentioned earlier, Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested dividing OCB into two different concepts, because the term 'OCB' is too limited and does not fit the present conceptualizations of OCBs. Citizenship behaviour that benefits specific individuals, for example, peers, is called OCB direct to individual (OCB-I), and citizenship behaviour that benefits the whole organization, is called OCB direct to organization (OCB-O). Both of these OCB forms have positive outcomes at the individual, group and organizational levels, and promote the effective functioning of the organization (Kalshoven, 2010).

OCB-I refers to the level of employees' positive voluntary behaviour that benefits the individuals, which may be the case where an employee helps a co-worker or a supervisor with a problem he or she is facing (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Specifically, OCB-I reflects helping others in the organization; it occurs when a subordinate provides moral or technical support to a co-worker for the purpose of

assisting the person (as an example) in order to solve or triumph over a temporary setback at work.

Meanwhile, OCB-O typically reflects a macro-level interest in the organization as a whole. OCB-O refers to a sustained interest in the organization, expressed in a variety of ways, including assiduous and voluntary involvement in representation activities (for example coming on time and volunteering to do extra work, etc.) and in the defence of the interests, property or image of the organization. As such, OCB-O occurs by participating actively and voluntarily and by requiring of individuals the desire to be involved, for example, protecting the organization's assets (Organ et al., 2006).

The present study adopts OCB-I and OCB-O dimensions for four reasons. First, different mechanisms drive organizational and individual targeted behaviours of OCB (Marinova, Moon, & Van Dyne, 2010), suggesting that OCB could be better conceptualized along its beneficiaries. Second, Vigoda-Gadot (2007) reported that majority of researchers have identified OCB-I and OCB-O as a two-factor construct of OCB. Third, the link between other constructs and OCB has been found to be different, considering the target is at organizational or individual level (Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Finally, is the measurement of employees' performance in previous studies. Williams and Anderson (1991) measurement has been used widely when measuring OCB by previous researchers (e.g., Bertolino, Truxillo & Fraccaroli, 2013; Eschleman, Madsen, Alarcon & Barelka, 2014; Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller & Johnson, 2009; Lu, 2014; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Zorlu & Bastemur, 2014), and has demonstrated high levels of

reliability and validity (Eschleman, Madsen, Alarcon & Barelka, 2014; Kim, O'Neill, & Cho, 2010). Consequently, this study uses William and Anderson's (1991) two concepts (OCB-I and OCB-O).

However, in recent times, the concept of OCB also incorporates innovative behaviour as one of its key dimensions (Moon, Van Dyne, & Wrobel, 2005). According to Moon et al. (2005), innovation is a key factor in modern times where employees' innovative behaviour is crucial for the organization's continuous improvement. Innovative citizenship behaviour is operationally defined as an employee's effort to provide suggestions for change and improvement of products, processes, services, ideals and relationships, which is also volitional in nature (Moon et al., 2005; Woodman et al., 1993). According to Moon et al. (2005), innovative citizenship behaviour includes offering constructive input (Katz, 1964); speaking up with new ideas (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998); proactively developing new methods (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Shalley, 1995); and taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Moon et al. (2005) viewed it as an aspect of innovative behaviour that is often overlooked because it is volatile. Importantly, voluntary and constructive efforts are required for individual employees to take charge. This, in essence, will help the organization to effectively implement change that is required concerning how employees carry out their tasks within the job context, work units or the organization (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). It is therefore important to state that innovative behaviour is extra-role behaviour (Moon et al., 2008; Onyishi, 2007). This indicates

that it is not compulsory and it not formally required by the organization. In sum, the aspects of innovative behaviours are volitional in nature.

Morrison and Phelps (1999) described innovative behaviour by highlighting a ‘taking charge’ construct to position the importance of providing suggestions for change when organizational functioning is perceived as less than ideal. In essence, the ‘taking charge’ construct is seen as an extra-role behaviour construct that is distinct from traditional innovative behaviours that are rooted in personal gain. On the contrary, the ‘taking charge’ construct requires behaviours which initiate and enact positive change as well as those that benefit the organization. In this respect, the ‘taking charge’ construct creates a type of innovative citizenship premised on two key aspects, namely, organizational innovation (Barron & Harrington, 1981); and good citizenship (Organ, 1988). Therefore, the present study utilizes OCB in terms of OCB-I and OCB-O, as well as innovative citizenship behaviour. Table 2.4 provides the summary of the job performance dimensions as indicated in the extant literature.

Table 2.4
Job Performance Dimensions and Sources

Dimension	Definition	Source
Task performance	Willingness of employees to accomplish those activities that aid an organization’s core areas	Borman & Motowidlo, 1993
OCB-O	Willingness of employees to exhibit behaviours, such as courtesy and altruism, which benefit other individuals in the workplace, and indirectly contribute to the organization’s effective functioning.	Williams & Anderson, 1991
OCB-I	Willingness of employees to exhibit behaviours that benefit the organization as a whole; it comprises conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue of Organ’s (1988) OCB dimensions.	Williams & Anderson, 1991
Innovative behaviours	Willingness of employees to provide suggestions for change and improvement of products, processes, services, ideals and relationships, which are also volitional in nature.	Moon, Van Dyne & Wrobel, 2005

Source: The Researcher

Meanwhile, as indicated by Borman and Motowidlo (1993), contextual performance encompasses organizational behaviours that implicitly or explicitly are key to organizational effectiveness. As indicated earlier, this kind of performance is mostly not captured or written in a job description but is nevertheless regarded as a key indicator of employees' job performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1993), listed five categories that combine to operationalize contextual performance: volunteering to perform jobs that are not officially recognized as contractually agreed; persisting with unnecessary additional effort or extra enthusiasm in performing own task activities; cooperating and helping others; following organizational rules and procedures even at risk of inconvenience; and endorsing, supporting and defending organizational mission and goals (p. 73).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993, p.74) stated that there are four main ways of differentiating contextual activities from task activities. First, unlike task activities, contextual activities do not aid the technical core, but rather the psychological and social context support the technical core. Second, unlike task activities, contextual activities are basically the same across all jobs in an organization. For example, contextual activities, like helping, cooperating or volunteering, remain valued and can be performed all times regardless of the job type. Third, it is suggested that variation in contextual performance is influenced by volition and predisposition as opposed to variation in task performance that is affected by proficiency. To illustrate further, a worker who does his or her work slowly or gradually (low task performance) may still perform highly in terms of contextual performance by mostly volunteering to assist fellow employees if their work schedule suddenly increases as is the case with secretaries. Fourth, contextual activities, unlike task activities, are

not role-prescribed. In other words, these activities are not formally recognized as part of the role expectations as stipulated in the job description (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

As mentioned earlier, contextual performance is sometimes known as extra-role behaviour or OCB and pro-social organizational behaviour. Contextual performance draws on the research of these related extra-role constructs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). According to Bandura (1997), cited in Salanova, Lorente, Chambel and Martinez (2011), extra-role performance is the outcome of a combination of several aspects, including contextual resources, such as transformational resources; personal resources, such as self-efficacy; and motivation, as represented by work engagement.

What is important to note is the distinct advantage of transformational leaders vis-a-vis transactional leaders in promoting OCBs (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011, p. 353). In this regard, transformational leaders are seen as leaders capable of motivating their subordinates to do more than what is primarily or initially expected of them (Bass, 1985; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Vigoda-Gadot, 2006; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011). Generally, transformational leaders inspire subordinates to exceed their role expectations by enhancing subordinates' basic values, beliefs and attitudes to seek a higher shared goal (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011, p. 353). On the contrary, it has been indicated that transactional leaders are less likely to promote OCBs because their influence is limited to behaviours that cannot be accurately rewarded and measured quantitatively (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011, p. 353).

However, some scholars have challenged the foregoing assumptions which seem to suggest that OCBs as extra-role behaviours; they are only likely to be encouraged by transformational leaders who can inspire their employees to perform above the normal call of duty or beyond their role expectation. According to Morrison (1994), cited in Nahum-Shani & Somech (2011, p. 354), subordinates often perceive OCB as part of their in-role performance, i.e., as an integral aspect of their formal job tasks. Clearly, as is evident in the foregoing, some findings from various studies challenge the notion that transformational leaders are more effective or better suited in advancing OCBs because they motivate their subordinates to go beyond their formal job requirements.

More interestingly, are research findings indicating that that reward contingencies also contribute to the promotion of OCBs (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011). Accordingly, more and more managers are increasingly taking into account OCBs when assessing followers' performance, including rewarding directly or indirectly such extra-role behaviours (Allen & Rush, 1998; MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993). Perhaps, the most important issue to highlight in this debate is that leadership is often seen as a dyadic process, and as such, it is very difficult to characterize a leader in terms of a dominant leadership type that does not capture the diversity or variety of relationships and styles that leaders exercise in their interactions with subordinates (Dansreau, 1995; Howell & Mirenda, 1999).

2.6 Leadership and Employees' Performance Relationship

As mentioned earlier, the link between leadership and employees' job performance has attracted much attention of scholars. In fact, over the last three decades, there has

been a high level of empirical and theoretical interest in the leadership-performance link. Specifically, organizational leadership literature highlights the interaction between leaders and employees and suggests that the capability of leaders to appropriately implement leadership styles has an important effect on job performance. As noted by Ismail et al. (2010), even though the nature of this link has been investigated, little is still known about the role of interaction between leaders and subordinates as an antecedent of job performance. Generally, leadership is regarded as a factor that has immense influence on employees' performance (Liang et al., 2011; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007, p. 661). In other words, leadership is associated with employees' performance. For instance, the study by Ismail et al. (2010) reveals that the interaction between leaders and followers positively affects job performance.

Although scholars can presume that better leadership yields better employees' performance, some deep comprehension of the link between leadership and employees' performance is needed. As noted by Basu and Green (1997), cited in Butler (2009), high quality exchange is the combined outcome of efforts by both leaders and their subordinates (p. 141). Therefore, a very clear understanding of the influence of leadership on performance is crucial because some researchers view leadership as a predictor or propeller of employees' performance. For instance, in their study, Nahrgang, Morgenson and Ilies (2009) found that in the aftermath of interaction between leaders and followers, behaviours, such as performance, often become the main predictors of the quality of relationship for both leaders and followers (p. 265). According to Bass (1985), cited in Vigoda-Gadot (2007), employees may choose to perform jobs out of identification with certain leaders or

the organization. Arguing along similar lines, Wang et al. (2005), cited in Vigoda-Gadot (2007), indicated that followers have certain role expectations of their leaders, thereby implying that they are not passive actors. This means that subordinates have the capacity to embrace, renegotiate roles and neglect the roles prescribed by their leaders.

As indicated earlier, research has shown that leadership seems to be a reflection of two styles, namely transactional and transformational. However, most leadership studies depict a stronger link between employees' performance and transformational leadership than between transactional leadership and employees' performance (Castro et al., 2008; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). For example, Bass (1985), cited in Vigoda-Gadot (2007), found a consistently higher correlation between the leader's transformational leadership style and performance vis-a-vis the positive association between transactional style and performance. Similarly, Walumbwa, Avolio and Zhu (2008) stated that transformational leadership correlates with employees' performance because transformational leaders enhance employees' productivity by training them and getting their feedback.

Other researchers have focused on the theories of transformational leadership, because they claimed that these theories highlight a shared vision between leaders and subordinates (Felfe & Schyns, 2006; Hater & Bass, 1988). In this regard, Shamir et al. (1993), cited in Liang et al. (2011), suggested that leaders with transformational leadership style promote the self-concept of their followers as well as encourage their followers' personal and collective identification with both the leaders' and organization's goals and objectives. In a way, transformational leaders

utilize inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation to improve employees' task performance.

On the other hand, transactional leadership style engages employees in a social contract that clarifies the employees' role expectations and the consequences for realizing those expectations. According to Organ (1988), when employees are excited and confident about their tasks, they may be more likely to exceed their role expectations. In their study, Podsakoff et al. (2006) indicated that employees' attitude, perceptions and behaviour have a strong relationship with the existing punitive and leadership behaviour (p. 135). Furthermore, they established that the manner in which leaders reward and punish is a key determinant of their effectiveness. However, even though the study found positive relationships between leader's contingent punishment behaviour and employees' attitude and perceptions, it did not, however, find any such relationship between this style of leadership behaviour and employees' job performance. In other words, leaders who use punitive measures appropriately may positively affect the attitude and perceptions of the employees. However, these enhanced attitudes and perceptions will not necessarily yield enhanced levels of employees' job performance (Podsakoff et al., 2006, p. 136). In a way, this study suggests that negative punitive measures, such as sanctions, may be less effective vis-a-vis positive sanctions in controlling employees' behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 2006, p. 136).

As is evident from the above discussion, the existing theories on leadership have focused on both transactional and transformational leadership styles as key concepts. Although the two leadership styles are distinct, they both play the same role of

engaging employees into their work, and in the process, generate task performance. However, it is essential to note that theories of leadership indicate that transformational leadership style has much higher influence on the employees' job related behaviours and this significantly affects their work performance when compared to the transactional leadership style (Islam et al., 2012, p. 1,540). Generally, as noted earlier, leadership affects a wide range of work behaviours, particularly employees' self-efficacy, motivation, creativity and coping with stress (Bass, 2006). For DeGroot, Kiker and Cross (2000), leadership is a predictor of job-related outcomes, such as task performance. In essence, leadership has a major influence on employees' performance.

Nevertheless, most of the theories on leadership of this era have viewed leadership as a platform that uses motivational approaches instead of power and authority to influence followers to fulfil their tasks (Islam et al., 2012). Studies have also examined the impact of extraverted leadership on subordinates, and have established that employees' performance increases under extraverted leadership when employees are passive (Grant, Gino & Hofman, 2011). Similarly, Hollander and Offerman (1990), cited in Mitonga-Monga et al. (2012), observed that the studies of leadership have always presumed the existence of employees, and their roles as basically passive. Unfortunately, as noted by Van Vugt et al. (2008), leaders tend to ignore the essential role of subordinates. However, in today's context, employees are expected to accept decisions by having some input or the chance of adding some inputs while taking up a responsibility that would influence the final outcome (Mitonga-Monga et al., 2012).

It has been suggested that poor leadership skills can negatively affect employees' morale and their collective pride, care and support for each other (Butler, 2009, p.140). Thus, with good leadership skills, leaders can enhance followers' esprit de corps as well as their ambitions for position, power and financial and non-financial benefits (Butler, 2009, p.140). In this regard, leadership provides organizations with competitive advantage. However, high organizational performance requires the combined efforts of both leaders and employees (Basu & Green, 1997). With high quality exchanges between leaders and subordinates, the latter are more likely to respond by being committed to the former (Butler, 2009, p. 141). Thus, the influence of a leader exert in "altering moods, evoking images and expectations, establishing specific desires and objectives, determine the direction an organization takes" (Butler, 2009, p. 141). This is because leaders have strong feelings of identity and difference as well as love and hate (Butler, 2009).

Generally, most findings of existing studies confirm that the interaction between leaders and employees acts as an important antecedent of job performance (see Ismail, et al., 2010). Such research findings are in line with the leadership behaviour literature mostly found in Eastern and Western European countries. This implies that the capability of leaders to effectively implement leadership styles in organizations may strongly motivate employees to enhance their performance. Thus, it can direct followers to sustain and support organizational strategies and aims.

In their quest to understand leadership effectiveness, it appears that researchers have identified two major types of leadership, i.e., transactional and transformational leadership. More importantly, both types of leaders are active and constantly

associated with interventions to solve and prevent various problems facing organizations (Mester et al., 2003, p. 72). Leadership studies have indicated a strong relationship between the two types of leadership and other variables, such as job performance, OCB, organisational commitment, etc. (Mester et al., 2003, p. 72). Nonetheless, based on the existing evidence, one could anticipate transformational leadership to have a stronger relationship with the foregoing constructs. However, there appears little evidence to indicate that employees under transformational leaders have more satisfaction with their jobs and are more committed to their organization (Mester et al., 2003, p.72). In essence, both transformational and transactional leadership styles are core concepts in the current theory of leadership. It is therefore obvious that leadership has a greater influence on employees' performance (Wang et al., 2005).

2.7 Employees' Characteristics

The common adage, "variety is the spice of life", is often heard by almost every one. Even though some people may regard this adage as an overused cliché, and even dismiss it since they may perceive it as an empty maxim, some scholars have however differed in their positions (Phipps, Prieto & Deis, 2015). Importantly, variety can be viewed from different perspectives of shapes, sizes and forms; self-efficacy and personality are also not exempt. It is important also to emphasize that every individual is unique due to their personality. This dichotomy in temperament and disposition ensures that human beings do not live in a mundane and dull world, but that is not all. In the context of an organization for instance, the difference in individual characteristics of employees often makes the work place to be facilitated and interesting. This uniqueness in characteristics has also gone a long way to ensure

that people thrive at work, work effectively under every condition and react differently to circumstances while they relate to one another (Phipps, Prieto & Deis, 2015).

Evidently, employees' characteristics are regarded as a combination or mixture of individual differences between employees in the work place. It thus signifies that people and employees are heterogeneous in a number of ways. Importantly, these differences may include psychological-oriented factors, like personal experience, personality, cognitive capacities, visual power, specific knowledge, cognitive abilities and other demographic factors, which may include age and gender (Benyon, Crerar, & Wilkinson, 2001; Sacau, Laarni, & Hartmann, 2008; Stanney, Mourant, & Kennedy, 1998).

Notably, Bhatti, Kaur & Bath Tour (2013), in their study on the effects of individual characteristics on expatriates' adjustment and job performance, classified employees' characteristics as social, organizational and individual level factors. The social level factors include the broader cultural and organizational contexts. On the other hand, the organizational level factors include organizational contextual characteristics and HR practices. The individual level factors include personal characteristics, such as personality traits and self-efficacy. Succinctly, the current study is individual in nature, since the unit of analysis is at individual level, and it examines the moderating role of employees' characteristics on the association between leadership style and employees' job performance. Hence, the current study adopts the individuals' level factors of employees' characteristics in terms of personality and self-efficacy.

In line with the above, personality traits are considered as one of the essential characteristics of individual employees in the organizational context (Bhatti, Kaur & Battour, 2013; Pocnet, Antonietti, Massoudi, Györkös, Becker, de Bruin & Rossier, 2015). Extant research has argued that many of these personality characteristics are important and play a significant role for individual success in any organization (Bhatti, et al., 2013). Five of these personality factors are widely recognized and often used by practitioners and researchers while evaluating the personality of an individual. These five factors which are fundamentally independent in terms of dimensions include: Extraversion, Neuroticism, Agreeableness, Extraversion, Conscientiousness and Openness. MacDonald (1998) argued that these five factors are universally adaptive and are mechanisms which human beings normally use to reproduce and preserve life.

More importantly, Caligiuri (2000) argued that when individuals possess these five personality characteristics, it will help them in building high quality professional relationships, perform better, get promoted and achieve career goals. These five factors are equally helpful in certain situations where individuals may need to adjust themselves to blend with a new environment, culture or a different society, etc. Various personality theorists have highlighted the significance of the continuity and stability of personality across situations, over time and across cultures (McCrae & Costa, 1987; Pervin & John, 1997). To date, using of the FFM has led to robust findings in the study of personality and its relationship to job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997; Tett, Jackson & Rothstein, 1991). For example, the studies of Barrick & Mount (1991); and Salgado (1997) revealed that conscientiousness may be regarded as a protective factor and can be used to predict

high job performance, especially in the US and Europe. In another study, Barrick, Mount and Judge (2001), having summarized the outcomes of 15 meta-analytic studies which were undertaken over a period of five decades, concluded that the big five personality factors are good predictors of job performance.

From another perspective, self-efficacy is another individual characteristic that may be considered as one of the main predictors of employees' job performance (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (2001) also revealed that individuals those possess high level of self-efficacy are able to comprehend problems as challenges, committed to their tasks and spend significant effort and time executing their daily functions. Importantly, the concept of Bandura (1997) is based on certain initiatives which indicate that self-efficacy plays a crucial role in task-related performance by assisting and shaping people's choices, efforts, persistence and sustaining their persistence.

In the current study therefore, the question that arises is how differences in employees' characteristics might serve as a possible moderator between leadership style and employees' job performance in Libyan oil organizations. Specifically, the employees' characteristics or features that have been addressed in this study are: openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness and self-efficacy.

2.7.1 Employees' Personality

According to Awadh and Ismail (2012), personality is regarded as an important factor for predicting job performance. It generally entails the individual characteristics that account for constant patterns of behaviour, thoughts and feeling (Pervin et al., 2005). More importantly, personality is a type of behaviour which

differentiates one individual from another (Awadh & Ismail, 2012, p. 109), thus providing insight to whether an individual or person will perform some specific job vis-a-vis others. Conventionally, a leader is regarded as someone who is in charge of employees, but this has since changed since the 1980s. In this regard Alkahtani, Abu-Jarad, Sulaiman & Nikbin (2011) observed a shift in leadership mind-set as subordinates are now empowered to make key decisions in relation to their own jobs. As a result, employees are now increasingly in control of how they perform their own job tasks.

Traditionally, leadership theories have tended to focus primarily on the personality traits or characteristics of the leader (see Judge et al., 2002). On the contrary, new approaches, such as leader-member exchange studies, have explored how follower characteristics impact perceptions of the leader about the follower or member (see Liden et al., 1997). However, in their study, Nahgang, Morgenson and Ilies (2009) examined both the followers' and leader's personality because the quality of any social relationship is shaped by the personality of both leaders and followers. This approach which was also adopted by Asendorpf and Wilpers (1998) involves testing the influence of both the leader and follower characteristics on the quality of the relationship. The increasing role of employees in today's context means that follower attributes and characteristics are extremely important, both as a social phenomenon and a subject for scholarly inquiry. Some studies have considered employees as the force that drives organizations forward (Mitonga-Monga, Coetzee & Cilliers, 2012).

2.7.1.1 Personality Related Theories

In extant literature, some theories on personality are treated as critical, such as humanistic theories, psychoanalytic theories, behavioural and biological theories, trait theories and social learning and cognitive theories (Awadh & Ismail, 2012, p. 109). Generally, trait theory is regarded as one of the most dominant personality theories. Basically, traits “determine a person’s variances in the trend to develop a steady pattern of feelings, thoughts and actions” (Awadh & Ismail, 2012, p. 109). Personality trait theorists posit that an individual’s behaviour may be explicated based on some particular personality features (Mount & Barrick, 1998). Nevertheless, there are conflicting perspectives pertaining to the development of personality trait theory. Some of the reasons behind this state of affairs include the fact that many factors relevant to personality have so far been examined, thus rendering research results unmanageable. Additionally, in several cases, some similar traits have been conceptualised differently, thereby creating more confusion. However, an understanding of how personality traits impact employees’ job performance is of utmost importance in this study.

For the present research, the Big Five personality Theory, also known as the Big Five Model or Five Factor Model (FFM) is utilized to explain the role of personality characteristics of employees. Generally, scholars and researchers concur that virtually all personality measures could be classified under the FFM of Personality (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003, p. 68). Besides, the FFM is also considered as the most dominant personality model that has been extensively utilized in personality research (see Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012, p. 89). In this regard, researchers, like Hautala

(2006), have examined leadership and personality effectiveness in order to identify the personality traits that aid individuals to execute their job tasks.

2.7.1.2 The Five Factor Model (FFM) of Personality

The FFM of personality represents a structure of personality traits, developed and nurtured over several decades. This model, despite its American origins, seems to be relevant to a wide variety of cultures, implying that personality trait structure is universal and ubiquitous (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003, p. 69). According to McCrae (2003), the FFM is a complete taxonomy of personality traits, which refers to those consistent patterns of behaving, thinking and feeling. Some researchers, like Digman (1989), cited in Rothmann and Coetzer (2009, p. 69), have claimed that the five personality dimensions highlighted in the FFM have a genetic link. These personality dimensions are “neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, and conscientiousness” (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2009, p. 69).

More importantly, researchers have concurred that almost all personality dimensions could be categorized according to this five factor structure of personality (John & Srivastava, 1999; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). Similarly, Bono and Judge (2004) noted that although there is no consensus among scholars about the FFM of personality, one advantage of this framework is the unifying opportunity it provides by integrating an array of different approaches to personality (p. 902). For Bono and Judge, this advantage makes the FFM model especially useful for cumulating findings across studies. Various research studies have demonstrated that the five personality dimensions are associated with job performance (see Barrick & Mount, 1991; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003; Tett, Jackson & Rothstein, 1991). A simple

summary of FFM of personality dimensions and their elements is captured below in Table 2.5:

Table 2.5
Personality Dimensions and Their Elements

Personality Dimension	Elements
Openness to Experience	imagination, curiosity, artistic sensitivity, originality
Extraversion/Introversion	friendliness, gregariousness/sociability, assertiveness, cheerfulness, excitement seeking, energy/activity level, talkativeness
Conscientiousness	reliability, dependability, industriousness, organization, achievement orientation
Agreeableness	cooperation, cheerfulness, supportiveness, friendliness, social responsiveness/harmony
Neuroticism/Emotional Stability	anxiety, depression, instability

Source: Phipps, Prieto & Deis (2015)

Researchers have also been able to develop and predict the validity of personality constructs by adopting the FFM of personality which has enabled meta-analysis evidence to suggest some personality traits that have relationship with job performance (Barrick et al., 2001). Evidently, personality factors play a crucial role in employees' job performance. As noted by Rothmann and Coetzer (2003), findings from a number of studies have indicated that personality is related differently to diverse job performance dimensions (p.70). Among the five personality traits, agreeableness is considered as a useful predictor of service-oriented work and group work, with extraversion and openness to experience regarded as having a positive relationship with training and proficiency at work. Certainly, taken together, the FFM has "provided a comprehensive yet parsimonious theoretical framework to systematically examine the relationship between specific personality traits and job performance" (Barrick et al., 2001, p. 11). Therefore, this study looks into the effect of subordinates' personality as a moderator of the relationship between leadership

style and subordinates' job performance. The following paragraphs outline the five personality traits in detail.

Extraversion: This trait refers to the extent to which a person is outgoing, talkative, sociable and enjoys socializing. According to Costa and McCrae (1992), cited in Bono and Judge (2004), extraverts are generally “assertive, active, talkative, upbeat, energetic and optimistic” (p. 902). This personality trait is also related to the social life of employees. Barrick and Mount (1991), cited in Streukens and Andreassen (2009), viewed people with extraversion trait as being sociable, expressive, confident, fluent, active and outgoing, with the ability to be with other people. Thus, employees with a high score on extraversion are considered cheerful and always looking for fun and motivation. Costa and McCrae (1992) categorized employees with low score on extraversion as loners who are reserved, quiet and independent. According to Draft et al. (2011), the extraversion level that is desired in a subordinate depends on the job. For instance, they pointed out that in jobs that require high level interaction, such as public relations or teaching, high extraversion level of employees may be crucial and helpful. On the other hand, if a job requires low level of interaction, having an individual with a low score of extraversion may be ideal and helpful.

Conscientiousness: Generally, conscientiousness indicates the extent of employees' persistence, hard work and motivation towards the pursuit of organizational goal accomplishment. As such, conscientious employees tend to have a strong sense of direction and work hard to accomplish goals (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Employees high in conscientiousness tend to be action-oriented in addressing difficulties, using

rational, proactive and problem-focused coping strategies (see Humphreys & Revelle, 1984; Connor-Smith & Flaschbart, 2007). On the contrary, low conscientiousness employees are easily disorganized, distracted, careless and apathetic (Johnson & Ostendorf, 1993). Alarcon, Eschleman and Bowling (2009), in their study on personality and burnout, established that high conscientiousness employees who are exposed to stress may actively manipulate their way to reduce the stress and thereby reach performance level. Other researchers, like Kim, Shin and Umbreit (2007), viewed a high conscientiousness employee as loyal, responsible and reliable and therefore highly productive, thus performing well in job related activities. Notably, many studies on conscientiousness have indicated that there is a correlation between conscientiousness and performance. However, many other studies have indicated high variance, an indication of potential moderators as a result of the fact that many individuals depend on social skills, such as emotional intelligence to respond to situations (Douglas, Frink & Ferris, 2004).

Agreeableness: This is a personality dimension that refers to “the tendency to be cooperative, trusting, gentle and kind” (Bono & Judge, 2004, p. 901). A related definition by Awadh and Ismail (2012) describes agreeableness as those “features, such as self-sacrifice, helpfulness, nurturance, gentleness and emotional support at one end of the dimension, and enmity, indifference to others and self-interest on the another end” (p.112). Agreeable individuals generally value affiliation and they avoid conflict. Thus, subordinates who are high in agreeableness scale are basically trustworthy, forgiving, caring, altruistic and easily deceived. Daft et al. (2005) added that a person with a high score on agreeableness is approachable and friendly, while the one with low agreeableness may seem distant and unfriendly. People with high

score on agreeableness are very friendly, whereas people with low score on agreeableness have fewer close relationships. On the contrary, those employees with low scores on the agreeableness scale are categorized as selfish, egoistic, doubtful and callous (Costa & McCrae, 1992). According to McCrae and Costa (1997), cited in Awadh and Ismail (2012), the dimension of agreeableness is “the utmost divisive personality trait of the FFM of personality” (p. 112). More importantly, some scholars have claimed that the link between job performance and agreeableness is not strong (see Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Neuroticism: According to Bono and Judge (2004), individuals high in neuroticism have a pessimistic view of the world. Similarly, Awadh and Ismail (2012) observed that neurotics are usually irritated, bad-tempered, unsociable, stressed, nervous, sulky, uncertain, embarrassed, doubtful, frightened and despondent (p. 111). For Costa and McCrae (1992), at the heart of neuroticism, is the possibility to experience negative vibes, like grief, fear, guilt and anger. Neurotic employees are less likely to devote their time to work and can be easily distracted from their work. Neuroticism is generally associated with low general efficacy and low self-esteem (Judge, Erez, Bono & Thorensen, 2002). This is so because neurotic employees have no faith and belief in others (Goldberg, 1990). Furthermore, neurotic employees also lack confidence and self-belief (Awadh & Ismail, 2012, p. 111); however, a study by Chi-Shun and Cheng-Wen (2009) established a positive relationship between work efficiency and neuroticism.

Additionally, Smither, London and Richmond (2005) observed that when an employee has a high level of neuroticism, he or she is likely to consider feedback as

a form of threat that raises anxiety and overly intense stimuli. For the above reasons, neurotics are found to be negatively related to job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Meanwhile, emotional stability refers to the evenness of an individual's general emotional make-up (Brown et al., 2002). As such, followers who possess a low emotional stability have a high degree of experiencing negative emotions, including depression, anxiety, self-consciousness, impulsiveness and vulnerability. Liu Cheng (2006) characterized emotionally unstable employees as being moody with fluctuating emotions. On the other hand, followers or subordinates with a high emotional stability are characterized as having self-confidence, calmness, even temperament and are highly relaxed (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Openness to Experience: Openness to experience represents an "individual's tendencies to be creative, introspective, imaginative, resourceful and insightful" (Bono & Judge, 2004, p. 903). Awadh and Ismail (2012) described persons with openness to experience as subject to "innovation, deviating approach and political moderation" (p. 110). It is generally believed that individuals high in openness to experience are likely to exhibit inspirational and motivational leadership behaviours (Bono & Judge, 2004, p. 903) that are associated with transformational leadership. Similarly, employees high in openness to experience tend to be more cultured, inquisitive, inventive, original, intelligent, broad-minded and creative compared to other employees (see Kumar & Barkhshi, 2010). Some scholars, like Flynn (2005), regarded openness to experience as the readiness of subordinates to make necessary amendments to existing attitudes and behaviour once the subordinates have been exposed to new situations or ideas.

Costa and McCrea (1992) stated that relatively more open employees appreciate the advantages of trying new things and the abilities to improve on the past. On the contrary, followers with low openness to experience exhibit a lower level of divergent thinking because of their comfortability in routine (Flynn, 2005) and their preference for familiar ways of accomplishing their tasks (George & Zhou, 2001). More importantly, several studies conducted on employees' psychology have demonstrated that openness to experience is associated with job performance (see Barrick & Mount, 1991; Muller & Plug, 2006). However, other studies have found the openness to experience dimension as ambiguous and debatable in relation to employees' job performance (McRae & Costa, 1997; Raja et al., 2004).

In view of the foregoing discussion, it is evident that these traits play a key role in employees' job performance. In fact, a number of studies have revealed that FFM features play a very important function in shaping the performance of employees, which in turn, enhance organizational performance (see Barrick et al., 2001; Hogan & Holland, 2003; Judge et al., 2002). Thus, the concept that five personality dimensions has a positive relationship with job performance is amply supported by empirical evidence (Barrick et al., 2005). Studies by Walumbwa et al. (2011; 2012) have found that employees' psychological capital mediates the positive link between leader's psychological capital and employees' job performance.

According to Luthans et al. (2007), psychological capital refers to a person's positive psychological state of development that is underpinned by four psychological resources, including efficacy (confidence to take on and put in the proper effort to succeed at difficult tasks). However, several studies (e.g., Avey et al., 2009; Luthans

et al., 2007) have provided compelling evidence that psychological capital is different from positive affectivity, core self-evaluations and the “Big Five” personality traits. This is particularly instructive considering that psychological capital, core self-evaluations and the “Big Five” personality traits have been linked to a variety of positive employee behaviours, including job performance (Walumbwa et al., 2012). Based on the foregoing, it is evident that the Big Five personality framework is very useful to describe the impact of employees’ personality on their job performance.

2.7.1.3 The Impact of Personality on Employees’ Performance

Undoubtedly, studies on personality and organizational outcomes, such as employees’ performance, have attracted enormous interest of researchers. The link between job performance and personality has become an area of major interest in industrial psychology (Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001). As mentioned earlier, employees’ job performance is a “multi-dimensional construct which indicates how well employees perform their tasks, the initiative they take and the resourcefulness they show in solving problems” (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003, p. 68). Furthermore, job performance captures the degree to which followers execute functions, the way they make use of available organizational resources and the energy and time they utilize for their job tasks (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003, p. 68). According to Strümpfer et al. (1998), cited in Rothmann and Coetzer, (2003), job performance is influenced by situational factors, such as the organization, the features of the job, co-employees and dispositional factors. These dispositional factors which include personality traits, needs, attitudes, preferences and motives, often cause employees to

react to certain scenarios in a predetermined way (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003, p. 68).

Even though empirical evidence over the years has proven that personality predicts job performance, the findings of these studies have been quite inconsistent and inconclusive (Barrick & Mount, 1993; Hogan, Hogan & Murtha, 1992). However, other studies have shown that personality alone is not adequate; other factors, such as social effectiveness skills that can energize employees into action are required. In other words, strong personality should be complemented by other variables, such as social effectiveness skills to induce job performance (Blickle, 2008, p. 377). In this study, the link between personality dispositions and job performance is studied from a trait perspective, with the FFM of personality as the main guiding framework.

As mentioned earlier, the relationship between personality and employees' job performance has been a favourite research topic since the last century (Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001, p. 9). Prior meta-analytic evidence shows that the FFM personality dimensions are associated with overall job performance (Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001, p. 11; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003, p. 68). In spite of the key role that employees play in organizations, existing leadership theories consider the role of employees to be one of a passive nature (Hollander & Offerman, 1990; Mitonga-Monga, Coetzee & Cilliers, 2012). As a result, leaders and researchers tend to ignore the essential role of employees in today's context. Furthermore, many scholars have queried the use of personality measures as predictors of organizational outcomes, such as employees' job performance, because of fear that majority of measures of personality are not real (Reilly & Warech, 1993). On the contrary, recent studies

have indicated that personality traits are related to employees' job performance (Ones & Viswesvaran, 2001; Rosse, Stecher, Miller, & Levin 1998; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003; Wright, Kacmar, McMahan, & Deleeuw, 1995). Similarly, most analyses conducted on the personality traits, show that a positively correlated relationship exists between emotional stability, conscientiousness and employees' job performance, in almost all aspects of jobs (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

In another meta-analysis, it is suggested that conscientiousness has a stronger correlation with the overall subordinates' job performance than emotional stability. It is therefore difficult to conceive a job where the employees are lazy, carefree and irresponsible. On the other hand, this indicates that employees with motivation, readiness to work and possessing a high level of conscientiousness should achieve a higher job performance. Rothmann and Coetzer (2003) indicated that findings from several studies have suggested that personality relates differently to diverse aspects of job performance. For instance, Stewart and Carson (1995) linked conscientiousness, agreeableness and extraversion to diverse job performance indicators, i.e., citizenship, dependability and work output, respectively in their study involving the use of a sample of hotel employees. The study established strong validity coefficients for extraversion and conscientiousness, but for different sets of standard. In the same study, conscientiousness is found to be a significant predictor of work output and dependability. More importantly, extraversion is an inverse predictor of both citizenship behaviour and dependability.

There is no doubt that existing studies have shown the significance of personality dimensions and social exchange relationships as predictors of both task and

contextual performance (see Barrick & Mount, 1991; Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Judge & Ilies, 2002; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2008; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001). As indicated earlier, the findings of various researches and meta-analyses have indicated that several Big Five personality dimensions are positively related to employees' job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hough, Eaton, Dunnette, Kamp, & McCloy, 1990; Vinchur, Schippmann, Sweizer & Roth, 1998). More specifically, several studies have established conscientiousness as one of the main precursors of employees' job performance in the Western world (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997). Other studies have found that conscientiousness and extraversion predict employees' job performance in various jobs (Tokar & Subich, 1997; Vinchur et al., 1998).

Salgado (1998) established that emotional stability and conscientiousness are positively associated with job performance. Similarly, results of a study by Sinha (2012) indicate that there is a positive association between personality and productivity in jobs where there is a high level interpersonal interaction. Nonetheless, these studies have all been carried out in mostly Western contexts. In Libya, the role of personality characteristics vis-à-vis employees' job performance is still an undeveloped area. Research pertaining to the link between dimensions of personality and job performance is therefore necessary in the Libyan context.

2.7.2 Self-Efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy was first proposed in 1977 by Albert Bandura. Generally, self-efficacy is "thought to contribute to improved performance in a range of situations due to its association with effective behavioural strategies" (Beauregard,

2012, p. 693). So, what is self-efficacy? Basically, self-efficacy is a social cognition or social learning construct which denotes an individual's self-beliefs in his or her ability to do particular job tasks (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996, p.33). It is also described as a person's perceived capabilities to perform courses of action, with a particular focus on performing skills rather possessing skills to accomplish a given task (Tsai, Tsai & Wang, 2011).

Choi, Price and Vinkur (2003) stated that self-efficacy belief is a key predictor of behavioural choices in relation to goal setting, the amount of effort deployed to a specific task and actual job performance (p. 357). According to Bandura (1997), cited in Tsai et al. (2012), the concept of self-efficacy is derived from four major sources, namely, vicarious experience, enactive mastery experience, verbal persuasion and psychological and affective states. On closer inspection, it is clear that the self-efficacy concept is dynamic because its judgements differ over time due to new information and experience. More importantly, self-efficacy beliefs are largely seen as the result of a process of measuring, integrating and evaluating information about a person's capabilities, which, in turn, affect the individual's choices and the amount of effort he or she devotes to a given mission (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996, p.33). Thus, reasonable and accurate estimate of one's self-efficacy is quite crucial to an individual in pursuit of his or her job tasks. In a way, a person or rather an employee who fails to accomplish a given task due to overrated self-efficacy will be stuck in a dilemma, lose self-confidence and experience unnecessary problems (Tsai et al., 2012, p. 5,322). On the other hand, a person who undervalues self-efficacy is likely to constrain the development of personal capabilities and potentials, thus resulting in a loss of opportunities (Tsai et al., 2012, p. 5,322).

Without doubt, individuals with high levels of self-efficacy are more likely to be successful job performers because they seek to achieve high goals which are usually difficult and challenging (Walumbwa, Mayer, Wang, Wang, Workman & Christensen, 2011, p. 207).

Given the above observations, it is therefore not surprising that in industrial-organizational psychology, self-efficacy has become closely associated with job-related performance, namely, job and task performance (Judge et al., 2007, p. 107). It is clear from the foregoing discussion that most scholars believe that there is a strong and positive association between self-efficacy and job performance. In other words, self-efficacy positively impacts job performance (Lai & Chen, 2012, p.388). Such a conclusion is consistent with findings from various studies.

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy plays a crucial role in task-oriented performance by influencing the choice of person, effort and persistence. It has also been proven that it is a reliable predictor of task performance and job motivation, as well as influencing personal goal setting. It is clear in the extant literature that an individual's self-efficacy of executing a task is significantly related to his or her performance. To this end, Gist and Mitchell (1992) developed a model to explain the relationship between self-efficacy and performance. The Gist and Mitchell model offers a simplified version of the process of self-efficacy formation and its relationship with job performance. On the whole, this model suggests that individuals directly and indirectly assess their experience and make judgments about the degree of their capabilities in performing a particular task (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Furthermore, the model suggests that four types of an individual's experience shape

his or her self-efficacy via his or her cognitive assessment, which, in turn, impacts his or her performance.

Generally, high self-efficacy is seen as a contributor to performance improvement in a number of scenarios because of its relationship with effective behavioural strategies. As noted earlier, self-efficacy theory states that “individuals judge their ability to cope successfully with challenges when faced with environmental demands, and that based on this judgment, individuals initiate and persist with behavioural strategies to manage challenges effectively and attain desired outcomes” (Beaugard, 2012, p. 593). Fundamentally, these strategies comprise self-regulatory methods, such as objective setting and rules development that affect the environment and self-monitoring (Beaugard, 2012, p. 593). According to Judge et al. (2007), the “most obvious moderator of self-efficacy predictive validities is job or task complexity” (p. 109). According to Kanfer and Ackerman (1989), in situations where job activities are complex, the benefits of self-regulatory actions may be difficult to realize. This implies that distal features are relatively more important predictors of performance than self-regulatory skills. However, some scholars insist that self-efficacy is key to the development of those task strategies which are critical for the accomplishment of challenging goals (Locke & Latham, 2002).

In line with above, the concept of self-efficacy, as an organizing aspect for motivation theory, occupies a promising role in organizational behaviour studies. It is evident that self-efficacy beliefs, as indicated earlier, affect the goals which individuals set for themselves. In this sense, assigned goals act as guidelines in nurturing a sense of efficacy, purpose and direction (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996).

Furthermore, these goals also stimulate action and effort as well as serve as a standard measure of performance. Meanwhile, other researchers, such as Ghafoor, Qureshi, Azeemi and Hijazi (2011) have attempted to develop a link between transformational leadership style and self-efficacy. Ghafoor and others noted that though prior studies have discussed the relationship between leadership styles, effectiveness, high performance and creativity, the basic question that should have been asked is what links these variables together. For Ghafoor and others, creative self-efficacy as a mediating effect in the relationship between style of leadership and creativity, helps improve performance. However, Ghafoor and others pointed out that the transformational leadership style is a source of self-efficacy. They argued that previous studies have indicated that the employees develop psychological when they are given much priority, respect and space to grow, which signify the practices of transformational leadership style. For them, practices of transformational leaders cause the development of self-efficacy among employees and support the psychological arousal as indicated by Bass (1988). To this end, transformational leaders are seen as more empathetic and supportive of their employees; as a result of this level of support, employees do not develop negative psychological arousals (Gong, Huang & Farh, 2009).

Evidently, the development of self-efficacy enhances the confidence level of employees. Consequently, a higher level of confidence brings higher self-efficacy among employees and increased job performance (Yi & Hwang, 2003). Arguing along similar lines, Bass and Avolio, (1990) stated that under transformational leadership, followers become confident in their work to develop new processes and practices through social learning and development. In other words, through

encouragement, supportive transformational leader behaviours can enable employees to think that they can also be creative. There is no doubt that transformational leaders help their employees develop themselves in order to improve their abilities and job performance.

The foregoing discussion highlights self-efficacy beliefs as having a major impact in relation to individuals' goal-setting and job performance. Given the strong conceptual link of self-efficacy and employees' performance, it is surprising to note that little attention has been devoted to examine the impact of self-efficacy on job-related performance. Accordingly, this study seeks to reverse such a situation by examining the moderating impact of self-efficacy in the link between leadership styles and employees' job performance.

2.8 Moderating Role of Follower Characteristics

For many years, researchers on leadership have strived to identify employees' characteristics that can serve as moderator between various leader behaviours and employees' performance (Villa, Howell, Dorfman & Daniel, 2008; Rank, Nelson, Allen & Xu, 2009). Some of these moderating influences include employees' locus of control, maturity and need for autonomy or independence. Nonetheless, empirical studies have often failed in their quest to support the supposed interaction effects leading to inconclusive findings (see Podsakoff et al., 1995; Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997). For example, Podsakoff et al. (1995), in their study which reviewed 73 published studies of moderator effects specified in path goal theory and leadership substitutes theory, established that only about 11% of more than 4,300 moderator tests produced significant findings even though these results could not be replicated

across studies. Notably, the present research responds to this challenge by examining the moderating influences of employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness and self-efficacy) in the relationship between employees' job performance and leadership styles.

Based on the foregoing discussion, it is not surprising that a number of studies have investigated various intervening factors through which leadership effects are ultimately felt in certain outcomes, such as employees' job performance (Bass et al., 2003; Avolio et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2005; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Liao & Chuang, 2007). According to Dvir and Shamir (2003), subordinates who perceive themselves as possessing positive traits, such as being responsible, taking initiatives and having independent critical thinking capacities, would generally expect to have higher growth needs as well as high job performance. In particular, Al-Gattan (1985) provided initial evidence indicating that employees with higher growth needs outperform those with lower growth needs when working under transformational leaders who generally offer a sense of direction as well encouraging participation. Interestingly, several other researchers (see Bass, 1998; Pillai & Meindl, 1998) have also established that transformational leadership may be more effective for some employees than for others. Such findings imply that employees' characteristics or traits could be a significant moderator in the relationship between leadership style and employees' job performance.

For instance, Chi, Tsai and Chang, (2007) investigated the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between leadership styles and performance. The outcome of their study reveals that emotional intelligence

moderates the relationship between leadership styles and performance. Furthermore, Rowold (2011) studied the moderating role of a work team's level of age, gender and cultural heterogeneity on the relationship between leadership behaviour and performance. The study found that only the team members' heterogeneity positively moderates the relationship between leadership and performance.

Other scholars have come up with suggestions on what constitutes effective followership. For example, Kelley (1988) asserted that effective subordinates are independent thinkers and perform their tasks independently with enthusiasm and effectiveness. Consequently, Kelley proposed that certain employees' characteristics have a significant impact on employees' work behaviour, attitude and performance. In similar fashion, Dvir and Shamir (2003) posited that subordinates possessing the type of positive characteristics (self-efficacy) described by Kelley would also be expected to be more proactive, creative and perform beyond their required duties (contextual performance). As aptly put by Bass (1985), subordinates under transformational leaders, usually have performance that exceeds expectations. It is therefore not surprising that Dvir and Shamir established that certain subordinates' characteristics, such as self-efficacy, self-actualization, morality, shared vision, critical independent thinking and level of task engagement, are strong indicators of subordinates' ratings of their transformational leaders.

In a related research, it was established that transformational leaders have a more positive impact on subordinates' performance when subordinates have high needs for autonomy and high growth need for strength (Wofford et al., 2001, p. 209). In other words, low performance occurs when transformational leadership behaviours are

expended on subordinates who have low needs for autonomy and low growth need for strength. The foregoing suggests that leaders should take into consideration the motives of each employee and adapt their leadership behaviour to match the employees' characteristics (Wofford et al., 2001, p. 210). Similarly, Ehrhart and Klein (2001) observed that employees, who have higher levels of certain attributes, like risk-taking and self-esteem, are more likely to be influenced by transformational leaders as opposed to other leadership styles. The above results imply that employees are not simply passive recipients of transformational leadership and that distinct individual attributes, such as self-efficacy, may impact how employees respond to different leadership types.

Studies that have examined the so-called 'Galatea' effect may also provide additional evidence supporting the moderating effect or role of follower characteristics. Some of the findings of these studies (Eden & Ravid, 1982; Eden & Kinnar, 1991; Eden, 1992, 1994;) show that positive employee characteristics do have a moderating effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates' work-related performance. To this end, an individual's positive beliefs and expectations about one's ability and self-expectations about one's performance (self-efficacy) can massively determine one's performance outcome. In other words, employees "who generally view themselves more positively would be expected to have more positive beliefs about being successful in work settings and career paths". This has been supported by additional findings from studies on organizational behaviour that link positive perceptions of followers to leaders and enhanced performance.

For instance, Luthans, Avolio, Avey & Norman, (2006) established that positive psychological capital or higher levels of self-efficacy, such as hope, optimism and resilience, are the main predictors of individual job performance. In this regard, employees who have higher levels of psychological capital are more likely to be confident and optimistic when confronted with complex organizational challenges (Luthans et al., 2006). As such, it is anticipated that this type of employees will respond more positively to leaders who use transformational leadership behaviours to motivate followers to reach high levels of job performance (Luthans et al., 2006).

Another compelling platform, through which positive employee characteristics will moderate the effect of a leadership style on employees' job performance, is via self-monitoring abilities of employees. As mentioned earlier, Dvir and Shamir (2003) noted that proactive subordinates and those who have positive characteristics are more likely to self-monitor and be self-expressive in their social engagements or interactions. Moreover, employees perceived as having a positive outlook for taking greater responsibility and initiative actions akin to self-efficacy, are more likely to act independently and have higher self-monitoring capabilities. Consequently, individuals with a high level of self-monitoring are more likely to scan their environment and adapt appropriately to others. As aptly noted by Weierter (1997), employees with a more positive orientation will be more engaged and higher performers in their work engagement (Weierter, 1997).

2.9 The Potential Underpinning Theories

This study utilizes a hybrid theoretical framework underpinned by the four theories: Path-Goal theory, Leader-Member Exchange theory, Social Exchange theory and Social Learning or Cognition theory. However, Path-Goal theory considered as the most suitable theory in this study as can be seen in the following section.

2.9.1 Path-Goal Theory

The Path-Goal theory is very relevant as a guide to explain employees' characteristics and how they affect the relationship between leadership types and outcomes, such as employees' performance. This theory posits that it is the leaders' job to support their subordinates in accomplishing their goals as well as provide them with the appropriate guidance and assistance in order to ensure that their goals are consistent with the overall vision of the organization (Robbins & Judge, 2007). According to Pearce et al. (2003), the path-goal theory explains how various leader behaviours affect employees' job satisfaction and performance by clarifying the way to desired rewards (p. 279).

Furthermore, this model of leadership promotes the view that the leader should alter the way subordinates view the contingency relationships involving effort and job satisfaction by tampering with the environment of employees (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 279). In a way, this theory focuses on the need for leaders to possess different types of leadership behaviours so as to enhance the personal goals of their employees (Yusuff, 2008). Moreover, employees' motivation, satisfaction and job performance can be enhanced when leaders administer rewards or punishment depending on attainment of certain goals. Similarly, employees are helped by effective leaders to

achieve their personal goals and the goals of their organization, and by so doing, the leaders can point out the paths that the followers should follow and help them to source for the means to achieve the goals (see Evans, 1999).

On the other hand, other authors have indicated that individual employees' personal characteristics or traits moderate the relationship between leadership styles and outcomes, such as employees' performance under the path-goal theory (Robbins & Judge, 2007). In essence, employees' personality traits complement leadership in accomplishing both employee and organizational performance. Leadership may become ineffective or ineffectual if the employees' personalities are not given proper attention or if their personalities become redundant.

Essentially, the path-goal theory suggests that for leaders to become effective, they must engage in behaviours that will balance and support the ability of their followers in a manner that rewards them for their deficiencies, either individually or as a unit or group (House & Mitchell, 1974). The path-goal model can be categorized into both the contingency theory (as it requires a favourable situation to be effective) and transactional leadership theory (because of the give-and-take behaviour that exists between the leader and the subordinates). The four leadership behaviours identified by House and Mitchell's (1974) path-goal theory are: Achievement-oriented leadership; Direct leadership; Participative leadership; and Supportive leadership.

According to the Path-Goal model, the behaviours of leaders are fluid-like which enable them to adopt any of the four behaviours depending on the situation at play or at hand. Therefore, whichever leadership style employed by the leaders will be most

effective depending on the situation and the employees' characteristics. Though leaders' flexibility and skills are highly important in whichever style is deployed, it becomes obligatory to establish if this is the case amongst the employees in Libyan oil companies.

2.9.2 Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Apart from the path-goal theory, Leader-Member Exchange theory is also used in this study. Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, (1997) asserted that the quality and nature of the exchange relationship that occurs between a subordinate and supervisor is often regarded as Leader–Member Exchange (LMX). This concept (LMX) is regarded as the quality or nature of the working relationship that exists between a supervisee and supervisor in a working environment (Dansereau et al., 1975). It is a dyadic process which shows different hierarchies of relationship which occur between an employee and his or her boss. The proposition of LMX theory is that leaders relate differently to their specific subordinates (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975), while the quality of LMX relationship affects attitude and behaviour at work. This differentiation makes unique contributions to the leadership theory (cf. Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Significantly, the nature of high quality LMX (SLMX) relationships are intangible, personal and open ended, while low quality LMX (ELMX) relationships are somehow impersonal economic exchanges.

Accordingly, the LMX theory helps leaders to develop uniqueness with regards to the quality of their relationships and interaction with their individual followers. It is posited that these exchanges may be a continuum. For instance, the thrust of high quality social exchanges formulated by the leaders may be based on open

communication, trust, liking of the subordinates and information sharing, whereas with others, these may be in the lower realm of quality and economic exchanges that merely fall within the contract of employment (Erdogan, Liden & Kraimer, 2006; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). When subordinates relate at higher level of quality with their bosses, the leader will reciprocate by treating them specially based on the norm of reciprocity (Liden & Graen, 1980; Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996; Wayne & Green, 1993). Most importantly, the focus in any exchange relationship is always the other partner (Gouldner, 1960) which therefore indicates that employees with high LMX will reciprocate by engaging in positive behaviour that goes beyond specific job expectations and which can be of help to the supervisor (Liden et al., 1997; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997).

In line with above, the basis of LMX is that for leadership effectiveness to be understood and achieved, employees and supervisors' relationship must be well examined. The thrust of LMX is that it sees leadership as fairly heterogeneous while dealing with different employees inside a work unit (Kim, O'Neill & Cho, 2010). Moreover, LMX proponents have maintained that subordinates are also in a position to determine the quality of their relationship with their leaders (Graen, 2003; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The impact that subordinates may have on the relationship has been empirically analysed (Kim, O'Neill & Cho, 2010).

Consequently, prior research has shown a direct and positive relationship between LMX, performance and OCB (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007; Liden et al., 1997; Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick, 2008). However, interpersonal social exchange motives being the tenet of individual-level perceptions of LMX quality are

often discussed by LMX researchers as accounting for these relationships. Therefore, subordinates who are in a high quality LMX relationship may reciprocate by making greater contributions in order to reward their leaders (Wayne et al., 1997). In these circumstances, this study however proposes that differentiated LMX relationships in a work group would be influenced by employees' features like: consciousness, agreeableness, self-efficacy and openness to experience. Thus, this study contends that employees' characteristics play an important role between LMX and employees' in-role and citizenship behaviour.

Moreover, it has also been established that employees often perform effectively when they enjoy high quality of LMX relationship with their supervisor (Yukl & Heaton, 2002). Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik and Haerem, (2012) are of the position that high LMX relationships positively influence individual outcomes, such as OCB. Therefore, this study argues that when a supervisor enjoys high LMX relationship with a certain employee, and at the same is perceived by that employee to exert values that are congruent with the perceptions of the organization's values, it will translate to high job performance accordingly. In addition, if employees enjoy a high LMX relationship with their supervisor, while they equally perceive that their supervisor are acting in a pro organizational manner (Einarsen, Aasland & Skogstad, 2007) and leading by example, it is highly reasonable to assume that they will have a positive job performance. This assertion is built on the premise that employees here see a clear link between their own goals and values, those possessed by their leader, and those of the organization.

On the other hand, the balance between what one gives and gets in return, is one of the theoretical features of an LMX relationship. It is therefore assumed that employees might engage in other activities that fall outside their job plans and which can result in OCB. According to Kuvaas et al. (2012), this can only be achieved if the subordinates are aware of what to get relatively in returns immediately. This therefore connotes that if the underlying factor for an economic relationship between the boss and the followers is applied to the exchanges with an organization as well, the outcome with regards to employees in LMX relationships would foster engagement in those activities that promote OCB. Therefore, whichever LMX is employed by the leaders will be most effective depending on the situation and the employees' characteristics.

2.9.3 Social Exchange Theory

The third theory is the Social Exchange theory which was initially developed by Blau (1964). It is deemed as one of the "most influential conceptual paradigms in organizational behaviour" (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p 874). The employee-organization relationship is essentially an exchange relationship (Blau, 1964). When one side (the leader) offers the other side (the employee) a certain benefit, the other side is duty-bound to reciprocate appropriately (Gouldner, 1960). As indicated by the theory of social exchange, employees will develop high and quality relationships depending on who is interacting with them, the nature of interaction and their experiences (Blau, 1964; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). In essence, when subordinates repeatedly interact with their leaders, they tend to develop stronger relationships (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). This makes the

leadership of a major change in social exchanges (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Erdogan et al., 2006; Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick, 2002).

The theory of social exchange is used to demonstrate the employees' tasks performance, OCB and commitment in response to various variables, such as leadership (Liden et al., 1997); perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986), etc. The exchange theory states that individual employees react to their leaders in different ways based on the treatment they receive from their bosses. These treatments can bring about an exchange relationship that reflects trust and diffused obligations which involve socio-emotional resources with a relatively long-term orientation and an economic exchange relationship hinged on a very narrow and materialist short-term exchange basis (Blau, 1964; Foa & Foa, 1980; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch & Barksdale, 2006). Therefore, this study uses the theory of exchange as one of the underpinning theories. For instance, the transformational leadership style is expected to produce a perception of social exchange, while transactional leadership style can cause a perception of economic exchange.

2.9.4 Social Learning Theory

The other main underpinning theory in this study is social learning or cognitive theory upon which the self-efficacy concept is derived. According to Bandura (1997), subordinates' behaviour is an outcome of a combination of several factors, including personal and contextual resources. In other words, the behaviour of employees is influenced by self-efficacy and leadership. It has been pointed out that the utilization of the social cognition theory in conjunction with extrinsic rewards for job performance as proposed by transactional leaders, offer the most effective blend

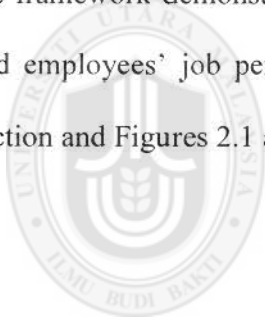
of motivational methods. As mentioned earlier, self-efficacy is a social cognition construct, which refers to a person's beliefs in his or her abilities to organize and successfully perform given activities (Bandura, 1997, p.3). For Bandura, in his description of the human cognitive self-regulation system, self-efficacy beliefs are the most important and influential of the choices individuals make, such as their objectives, the quantum of commitment they inject into a particular task and how long they endure at a task in the face of challenge. According to Appelbaum and Hare (1996), the social learning theory that is predicated "on a model of triadic reciprocal causation, emphasizes the interplay between behaviour, environmental influences and personal subjective factors, including cognition to explain human psychosocial functioning" (p.35).

For example, Bandura (1997) argued for the existence of central self-regulation processes which mediate experience and behaviour in a work setting. Bandura indicated that motivation is called when most individual actions are driven by forethought, allowing the individuals to act in a proactive manner as well as engage in goal-setting. Unsurprisingly, Bandura considered this level of self-directedness to be mediated by self-reflective and self-reactive capacities which are often in a condition of constant interplay with environmental variables. Based on the foregoing discussion it is unsurprising that Zimmerman and Schunk (2003) have described social cognitive theory as one of the few imposing theories that continues to flourish in the 21st century (p. 448). In the same breadth, it is also important to note that self-efficacy has demonstrated its position as one of the most dominant concepts in contemporary psychology studies (Judge et al., 2007, p.107).

2.10 Leadership, Employees' Characteristics and Performance: A Research

Framework

In order to demonstrate the argument in this study, a conceptual framework is advanced so as to provide insight and more understanding on how leadership styles affect employees' job performance and also how the employees' characteristics moderate their relationship. The framework is developed based on the assumption that employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) moderate the relationship between leadership styles, which are categorized into two dimensions: transformational and transactional and employees' job performance (task, OCB-I, OCB-O and innovative behaviors). Thus, the framework demonstrates that the relationship between the two leadership styles and employees' job performance is moderated by employees' characteristics. The section and Figures 2.1 and 2.1.1 below briefly explain these relationships:



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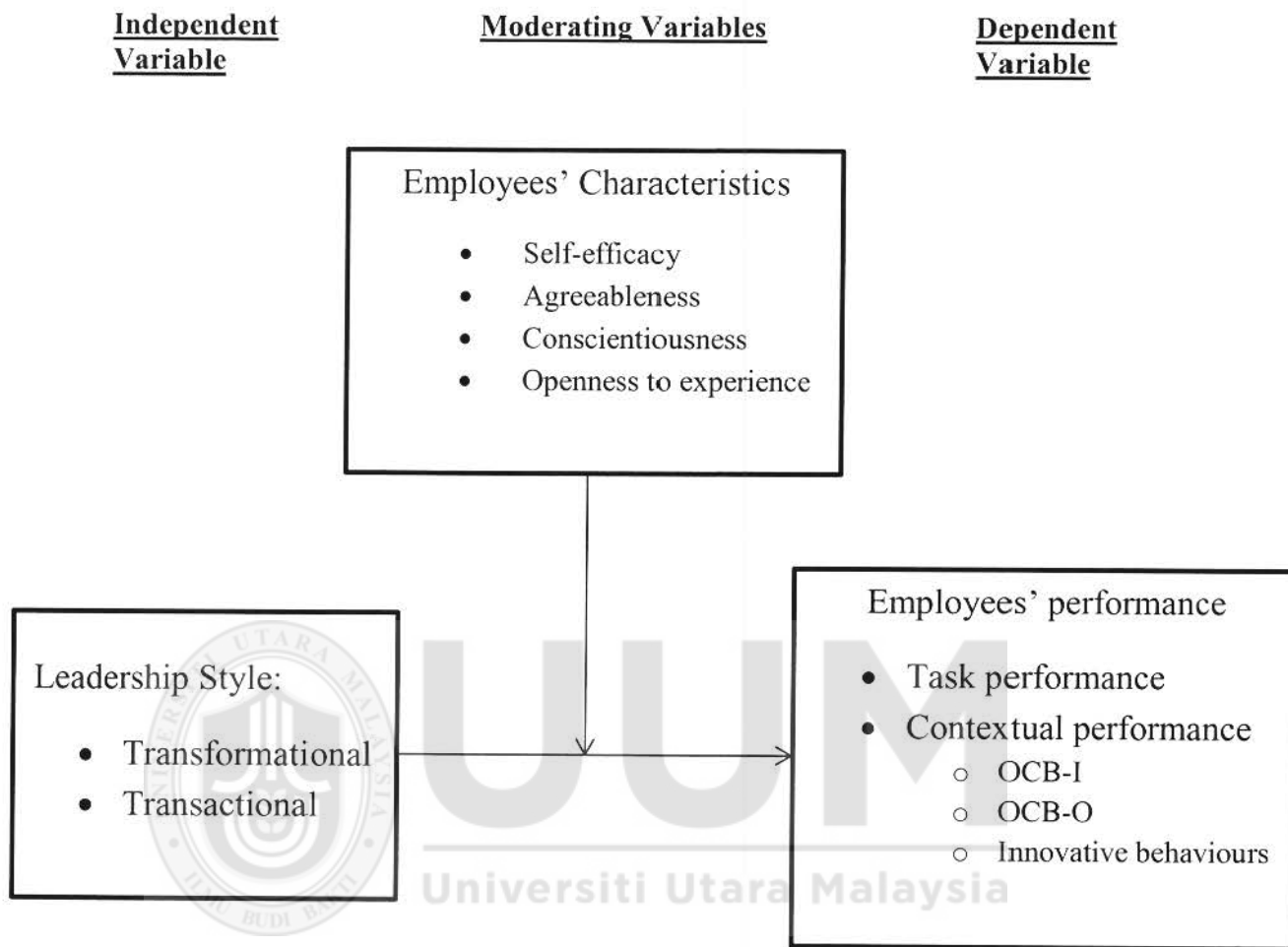


Figure 2.1 Research Framework

Detailed model for the development of hypotheses

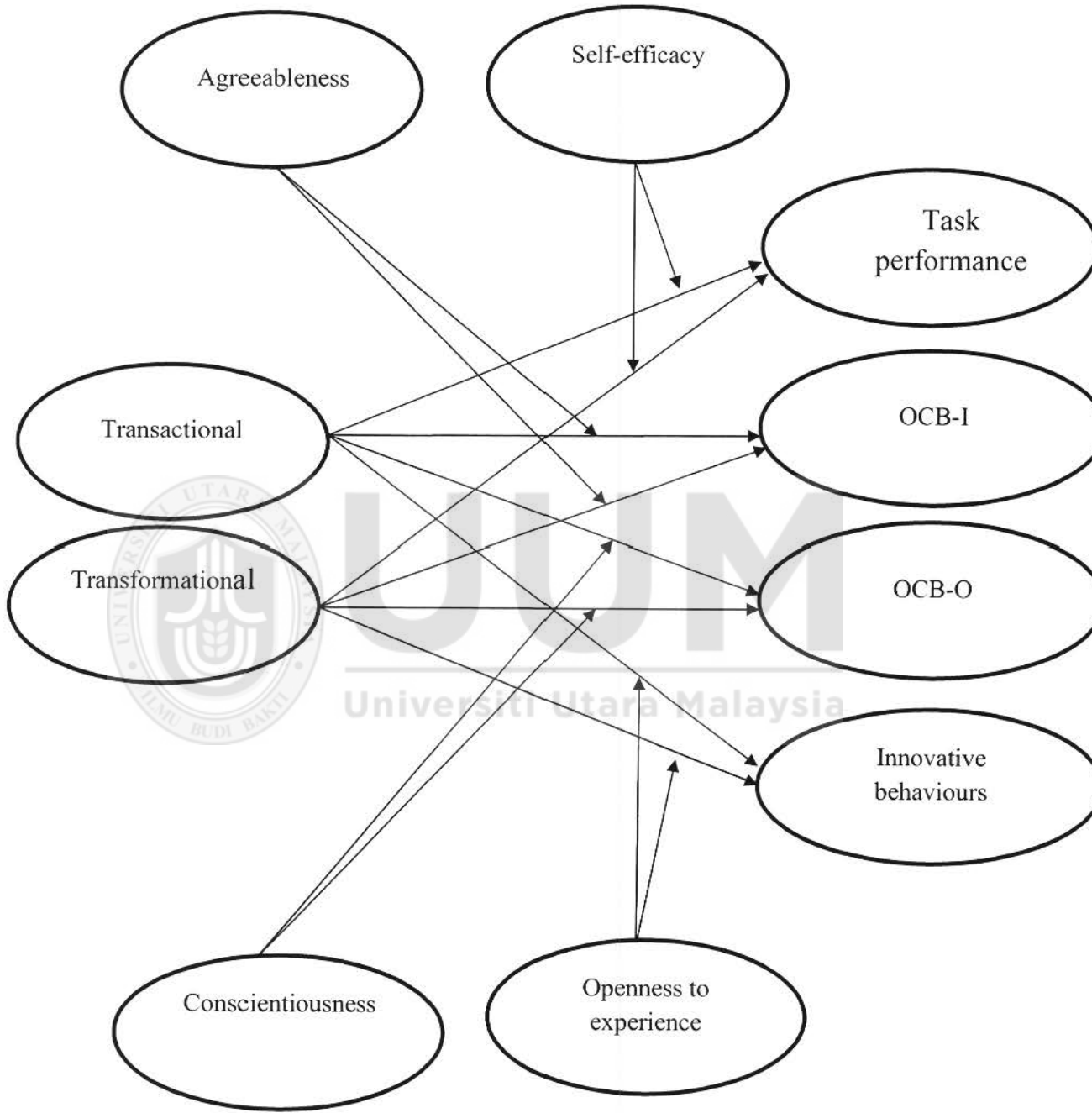


Figure 2.1.1 Detailed Research Framework

The research model depicted in Figures 2.1 and 2.1.1 suggests a relationship between leadership style, employees' job performance and the moderating effects of employees' characteristics. The model is based on the idea of Zhu et al. (2009); and Wofford et al. (2001) to examine the role that employees' characteristics play in leadership and employees' job performance process. The model examines the perceptions of employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) in the relationship between leadership style and job performance. The justification for this model is based on several theories, such as the path-goal theory (House, 1971; Robbins et al., 2007), the social learning or cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), the LMX theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) and the social-exchange theory (Blau, 1964). In line with these theories, it is the leaders' responsibility to create an organizational atmosphere that is reciprocal, fair, and fulfill the expectations and needs of the employees, as well as the organization as a whole. A balanced relationship between leaders and employees is essential, and the fair treatment of employees must be advanced as an organizational strategy. Enhancing fair social exchange relations with a proper leadership style and positive characteristics of employees may influence employees' performance positively.

Figure 2.1 above depicts an operational model linking transactional and transformational leadership styles to employees' job performance. This research framework is based on prior studies (Ahmed & Qazi, 2011; Ismail, 2010; Liang, 2011; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Paracha et al., 2012; Salanova et al., 2011; Wofford et al., 2001; Zhu et al., 2009).

This conceptual framework as captured in Figure 2.1 is a modified model adapted from four models: (1) Hough's model; (1992); Mount, Barrick and Strauss' (1994) FFM of personality; (2) Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy model; (3) Bass and Avolio's (1994) Full Range Leadership Development Model; and (4) Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) employees' job performance (task and contextual performance) moderating effects framework. Notably, the Full Range Leadership Development Model, proposed by Bass and Avolio (1994), is underpinned by both transactional and transformational leadership styles. As such, it comprises five transformational factors or sub-variables, namely, idealized influence (behaviour); idealized influence (attributed); individualized consideration; inspirational motivation; and intellectual stimulation. On the transactional leadership side, the model includes three sub-variables, i.e., management by exception (active); contingent reward; and management by exception (passive). As Figure 2.1 shows, employees' performance, as measured in terms of task and contextual performance, and can be influenced by the two leadership styles used in this study. In short, leadership styles, as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, constitute the independent variable and employees' performance as measured by task and contextual performance, represent the dependent variable.

This study also proposed that employees' characteristics are key factors in influencing the relationship between employees' job performance and leadership style (Wofford et al., 2001; Zhu et al., 2009). This research offers several contributions. First, only a few studies have examined the moderating effect of employees' characteristics (i.e., agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) in the relationship between leadership style and

employees' performance. Also, no previous research has investigated the moderating impact of employees' characteristics in the relationship between leadership style and subordinates' performance in Libyan Oil organizations. From the framework, it can be seen that employees in the organization can show better performance when they experience good leadership style in the form of transformational or transactional leadership. However, this can only be effective if the employees show or demonstrate good characteristics. Hence, the employees' characteristics are contingent to the relationship between leadership types and employees' job performance. In view of this, it is therefore assumed in this study that the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance depends on the employees' characteristics.

2.11 Hypothesis Development

What this study establishes in the research framework is the linkage between two forms of leadership style (transformational and transactional) and employees' job performance (task, OCB-O, OCB-I and innovative behaviours), with employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) as a moderator between the two variables in the model, where leadership style is expected to predict employees' job performance through the moderating role of employees' characteristics.

2.11.1 Leadership Styles (IV) and Employees' Job Performance (DV)

Generally, for organizations to achieve their goals, most leaders often make attempts to ensure the performance of their employees is maximized (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). In fact, extant leadership studies have documented and established

the relationship between employees' performance and leadership styles. For instance, Jing and Avery (2008) indicated that the relationship between employees' performance and leadership styles seem to have drawn major attention of academic scholars. Built on this platform, the study of Vigoda-Gadot (2007) establishes that effective leadership has a great influence on individual job performance. In this regard, it is argued that an effective and quality leadership propels and inspires employees towards achieving their desired goals by motivating them to effectively perform their tasks.

From the description above, there is no doubt that all tasks in the organization are often performed by individual employees. These individual employees also map out their personal goals even though they are still deeply involved in the collective goal of the organization (Sonnetag & Frese, 2001). Organizations defined the nature of employees' performance which they make clear to the employees who perform the various tasks for individual performance. Hence, these employees are of great importance to the organization itself. However, these employees do not exist in a vacuum or isolation as someone must direct and motivate them to effectively carry out their tasks for the purpose of achieving their individual goals (Robbins & Judge, 2007). In this case, leadership becomes indispensable. This implies that the employees need a leader who can motivate them to work or do their jobs.

This suggests that for the leaders to be able to do this, they must allow for greater participation of the employees who they must also be able to influence in order to achieve organizational and individual performance (see Bass, 1997; Mullins, 1999). Thus, in a way, the leader must understand that his or her ability to optimize HR is

linked to the success of the employees. Hence, the need to understand the employees' vital role as well as leader's motivation to achieve their goal is of great importance. Meanwhile, Maritz (1995) noted that effective organizations are known by their leaders' inspiring and motivating the employees and making them involved in the organization's mission. Thus, the leader stimulates the employees to be more effective. He noted that effective organizations therefore require effective leadership. By implication, an organization must be effective by having an effective leadership that is capable of stimulating and motivating the employees towards performing their tasks for both themselves and the organization. As is evident in the foregoing, there is a positive relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance (Paulus, Seta & Baron, 1996).

The studies conducted by Fiedler and House (1998); and Paulus, Seta and Baron (1996), acknowledge that effective organizations require effective leadership and that organizations that tend to neglect it could face severe consequences. Conversely, it is noted that employees' effectiveness is as a result of the quality of the leadership because effective leader behaviours boost the employees' desires to perform effectively (Fiedler et al., 1988). On the same issue, a study conducted by Booyen and Van Wyk (1994) established that exceptional leaders who are very effective are perceived to display a strong and better leadership style. The results also show that these leaders are better agents of change that can improve the employees' motivation and performance.

Another study by Maccoby (1979) reported that as a result of organizations' hunger to survive and achieve success in midst of global challenges and other factors,

leadership has become very imperative in order to effect a change in the employees' attitudes so as to achieve better job performance. Thus, leadership is an important factor that determines employees' performance. In line with this, Bass (1997) concurred that an effective leaders makes a difference to employees' performance, especially in these modern days where the business environment tends to put pressure on the organization to either succeed or fail.

Kotter (1988) argued that leadership has become a crucial factor for the employees' performance due to the key shifts in the business environment as reflected by changes in competitive intensity and the increasingly participatory orientation of the modern workforce. Leadership has become the most thoroughly researched organizational concept that can influence employees' performance (Cummings & Schwab, 1973). Cummings and Schwab (1973) further noted that successful leaders understand what drives their subordinates and how the subordinates' merits and demerits shape their actions, decisions and relationships. Their study also pointed out the link between leadership and employees' performance based on theoretical literature. They noted that leadership predicts employees' performance. For example, exceptional leaders, through their leadership styles, drive their employees towards achieving better performance. Maritz (1995); and Bass (1997) concurred that leadership is a key determinant of employees' performance. As noted by Jones and George (2000), leaders' effectiveness is often known through their influence on their followers to perform in order to achieve their personal goals.

The link/relationship between leadership and employees' performance is also very visible in the organization's competitiveness in the global market. For instance,

Dimma (1989) observed that one of the factors that is responsible for successful performance of employees in any organization is leadership. This is in line with the position of Vigoda-Gadot (2007) who also pointed out that the current leadership is still centred on transactional and transformational leadership style as a core concept in the field. This concept was first discussed by Burns (1978) and was developed later by Bass and Avolio in 1991 as a full range of leadership paradigms. The findings of Liang (2011) establish a positive link between the transformational-transactional leadership construct and performance of employees. Moreover, Liang stated that there is a strong desire for a greater understanding of the dynamics and steps through which transactional and transformational leadership styles impact employees' job performance. In line with others, Vigoda-Gadot, indicated a positive direct relationship between leadership style and in-role and extra-role behaviour. In essence, leadership has been considered as among other key factors that has major influence on employees' performance (Wang et al., 2005).

Furthermore, other studies have also demonstrated the influence of leadership behaviours on employees' task performance (Organ, 1988; DeGroot, Kiker & Cross, 2000; Bass, 2006; Liang et al., 2011). According to Liang and others, both transformational and transactional leadership styles serve the same function of engaging employees into their job, thereby generating task performance. For DeGroot, Kiker and Cross (2000), leadership impacts a full range of employees' work behaviours, such as their self-efficacy, motivation, coping with stress and creativity. Similarly, Vigoda-Gadot (2007) highlighted the ability of skilled transformational leaders to use their "personal relationships, intellectual challenge, inspirational motivation and behavioural charisma" (p.664) to promote employees'

job aims and goals. In other words, transformational leaders utilize their leadership behaviour to inspire employees to fulfil task performance.

For Organ (1988), transformational leaders enable employees to be confident about their particular role expectations, and in most cases, results in employees performing their tasks beyond the normal performance. This extra-role performance is also known as OCB. Asgari et al. (2008) viewed transformational leaders as motivators who get employees to internalize and prioritize a broader shared vision as opposed to narrow individual interests (p. 228). In this regard, Asgari and others point out that employees who are intrinsically motivated to achieve a shared vision are more likely to be oriented to attain the collective organizational goals at the expense of their individual gains and benefits. Ultimately, they argued that these individuals make these contributions to the collective cause because they feel that their sense of self-concept and self-worth will be deepened and enhanced when they make these types of contributions. It is therefore not surprising that a positive link between transformational leadership and task performance or OCB has been supported empirically by other studies, such as Podsakoff et al. (1990); and Organ et al. (2006). For instance, Podsakoff et al. (1990) indicated that existing theoretical and scientific research shows that transformational leader behaviours influence OCB or extra-role performance among employees. Furthermore, Parry, (2003) conducted a study on leadership, culture and performance in public organizations; he concluded that transformational leadership enables employees of an organization to work efficiently and it also makes them innovative.

Several researches have also shown a positive relationship between transactional leadership behaviours and employees' performance. Interestingly, before the emergence of transformational leadership theory in leadership literature, most scholars treated transactional contingent reinforcement as the main part of effective leadership behaviour in organizations (Bass et al., 2003). As mentioned earlier, this type of leadership clarifies role expectations and offers recognition and other rewards to employees when goals are attained. Put differently, this type of leadership occurs when a leader exchanges something of economic, political or psychological value with a subordinate. Understandably, this style of leadership remains an important factor for enhancing employees' performance. For example, Goodwin, Wofford and Whittington (2001) found a significant relationship between transactional contingent reward leadership and OCB.

Other empirical studies, such as Podsakoff et al. (1990, 1996); and MacKenzie et al. (2001) reached similar conclusions with regards to contingent or situational reward behaviour that is positively correlated to OCB. Furthermore, Wang, Law and Hackett (2005) argued that OCB encourages task performance by enhancing the social and psychological working environment. Some studies, such as Burke et al. (2006), show that transactional leadership behaviour is positively associated with team performance. Though transactional and transformational leaderships are two different leadership behaviours, they perform the same duty of engaging followers into their work and generate task performance. As noted by McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002), though the two leadership styles share common features, such as rewarding high performance, recognizing employee achievements and providing clarity of desired goals, there are, however, key differences in process and behaviour (p. 547).

Finally, in the recent times, scholars have started to understand that contingent rewards also play a significant function in the promotion of OCB. Research outcomes have indicated that leaders often consider OCB while assessing employees' performance as it influences such behaviour directly or indirectly (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991, 1993). Additionally, it has been established empirically that employees often practice OCBs to the level that they regard the behaviours to be worthwhile generally (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Haworth & Levy, 2001).

Based on the discussion above, the following hypotheses are formulated;

H1: Transformational leadership is significantly related to employees' task performance.

H2: Transactional leadership is significantly related to employees' task performance.

H3: Transformational leadership is significantly related to employees' OCB-O.

H4: Transactional leadership is significantly related to employees' OCB-O.

H5: Transformational leadership is significantly related to employees' OCB-I.

H6: Transactional leadership is significantly related to employees' OCB-I.

H7: Transformational leadership is significantly related to employees' innovative behaviours.

H8: Transactional leadership is significantly related to employees' innovative behaviours.

2.11.2 Moderating Effects of Employees' characteristics (MV) on the Relationship between Leadership Styles (IV) and Employees' Job Performance (DV)

It has been suggested that leadership style cannot be the only factor that can stimulate employees' performance or for ensuring the achievement of organizational goals (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). It is against this background that employees' characteristics have increasingly been identified by researchers as an important factor in the leadership–employees' job performance relationship. Furthermore, there is a growing research interest in the role of employees' characteristics in determining the impact of leadership style on subordinates' behaviour (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Wofford et al., 2001; Zhu et al., 2009).

In spite of transformational leadership being traditionally regarded as behaviour that leaders exhibit to motivate their followers towards the achievement of organizational goals (Bass, 1985), some schools of thought have however argued that contextual factors, including employees' characteristics, may affect the degree to which transformational leadership behaviours are enacted (e.g., Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Yukl, 1999). For example, Nahum-Shani & Somech (2011) established that the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership and followers' OCB is moderated by followers' idiocentricism and allocentricism. Another important study by Lee et al. (2011) examined employees' personality on the relationship between leadership style and followers' performance and found that the relationship is positively moderated by employees' personality.

This study tries to give more support by examining whether employees' characteristics play a major role in moderating leadership styles and employees' job performance. Thus, employees' characteristics are contingent to the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance. This suggests that the employees should exhibit some level of characteristics that would aid the leaders to achieve success. For some time, scholars have tried to identify employees' characteristics that may moderate the relationships between various leader behaviours and employees' performance (Villa et al., 2003). Nonetheless, previous empirical researches have often not succeeded in supporting the proposed interaction effects, thereby leading to inconsistencies in findings (see Blank, Weitzel & Green, 1990; Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1995). As mentioned earlier, Podsakoff et al. (1995), whilst reviewing 73 published studies of moderating effects in leadership substitutes theory and path-goal theory, found that only about 11% of over 4,300 moderating tests were significant although the results could not be replicated across studies, indicating that the "attempt to find this 'needle in a haystack' failed" (p. 457).

On the other hand, Robbins and Judge (2005), in explaining path goal theory, noted that employees' characteristics play a crucial and significant moderating role in the relationship between leadership style and employee outcome variables, such as their job performance. Thus, leadership will be ineffective if the characteristics are missing in the link between employees' performance and leadership. Also, Zhu, Avolio and Walumbwa (2009) highlighted the importance of a moderating variable when examining the impact of leadership style on employees' behaviour. In a similar way, Wofford (2001) also re-affirmed the role of employees' characteristics as a

moderator in the leadership process. However, some studies have shown that the moderating effect of characteristics may be modest. For example, Ahmed and Qazi (2011) showed that the presumed personality moderator, i.e., emotional intelligence, “does not moderate the effects of the predictors (teacher’s transformational and transactional leadership style) on the outcome variable (students’ academic performance)”.

The only published study on the moderating effect of employees’ personality on the relationship between charismatic leadership and OCB so far was conducted by Lee, Chiang, Chen and Chen (2010), in high-tech firms in southern Taiwan. They collected the data from 375 supervisor-subordinate dyads and found that charismatic leadership has a significantly positive effect on OCB. Furthermore, they found that personality has a positive moderating influence on the relationship between leadership and OCB.

The current study will strengthen the Lee et al.’s (2010) study by using both transformational and transactional leadership style. According to Vigoda-Gadot (2007) transformational and transactional leadership styles still considered as core concepts in the leadership field. In view of this, this study measures transformational leadership in terms of four dimensions (individual consideration, idealized influence, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation). Somech (2011) did a series of confirmatory factor analyses on transformational leadership items for the purpose of determining the suitability of proceeding with the four separate measures. He found that the best way to measure transformational leadership style is by using its four dimensions. On the other hand, transactional leadership is measured in terms of

contingent rewards and management by exception (active). The management by exception (passive) is not included because it resembles laissez-faire form of leadership which indicates lack of leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

In fact, existing studies have shown that transformational and transactional behaviours can complement each other while they can also be exhibited by a leader to different degrees (Elenkov, 2000; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Wofford et al., 1998; Yammarino et al., 1998). Furthermore, evidence from other studies has indicated that transformational leaders should be capable of executing transactional behaviour as well (Avolio et al., 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Waldman et al., 1989). As a result of the above, this study employs both transactional and transformational leadership styles.

Another possible contribution of this study is its focus on two fundamental aspects of job performance: in-role and extra-role performance (task and OCB). While the study of Lee and others relates to only one part of employees' performance which is OCB, the current study takes its lead from Morrison's (1994) suggestion by examining both outcomes together. Furthermore, some evidence from research indicates that supervisors allocate almost the same weight to contextual performance and task performance when evaluating employees' overall performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Consequently, there is a lot of research on leadership and its impact on performance variables. However, it is not clear whether every follower reacts the same way to the various leadership dimensions (Luider, 2011). As such, relationship between

leadership styles, on the one hand, and employees' job performance, on the other, may be moderated by followers' characteristics. A certain type of leadership style can be motivating and appealing to one follower but not to another. It is imperative to note that subordinates differ in their reactions to identical leadership behaviours, and as a result, a given leader may be perceived more favourably by some employees whilst despised and demotivating to other employees. Existing studies demonstrate that there is a relationship between employee characteristics and the way they perceive or rate leadership effectiveness and preference. For instance, Moss and Ngy (2006) indicated that subordinates high on extraversion and conscientiousness have relatively positive and favourable attitudes towards transformational leaders. The above conclusion is also supported by other researchers, for example, Costa & McCrae (1989); and Felfe & Shyns (2006). For Costa & McCrae, since extraverts have a sociable and positive disposition, they tend to elicit more transformational leadership behaviours during engagements with leaders.

On the same ground, Keller (1999) established that conscientious followers are more likely to prefer transformational leaders because these types of followers view charisma and dedication as ideal attributes in a leader. Equally important is the fact that most subordinates high on conscientiousness are good performers, and as such, leaders may appreciate them and be more appropriate to their developmental needs (e.g., individualized consideration). Similarly, agreeable subordinates tend to prefer transformational leaders because they tend to be sympathetic and interested in other peoples' views (see Costa & McRae, 1989; King et al., 2005). Other studies have also indicated that followers high on openness have a preference for transformational leaders (see Keller, 1999). On the contrary, followers high on neuroticism are more

amenable to transactional leaders because they are likely to recall contingent rewards (Torrubia et al. 2001).

What is clear from the preceding paragraph is the fact that characteristics, such as employees' personality is an important attribute. In some situations, subordinates' personality may influence the extent to which leadership behaviours are enacted. Put differently, subordinates' characteristics may affect leader behaviours. In their study, Dvir and Shamir (2003) established that subordinates' self-efficacy is related to leaders' demonstrations of transformational leadership behaviours. Studies on trait activation theory have since found that a person's personality can affect the behaviours of others (Bono et al., 2012). For instance Thorne (1987) found that extraverts elicited different behaviours from partners vis-a-vis introverts.

Importantly, previous studies over the years have shown that personality can predict job performance; however, their results are quite inconsistent (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1993; Hogan, Hogan & Murtha, 1992). This stems from the fact that personality cannot be ignited quickly and automatically but good leadership styles are required to switch it into action and for it to be exhibited. In essence, strong personality is not automatically generated without it being influenced by skilled leadership. For instance, it is the duty of transformational leaders to inspire their followers by nurturing closer rapport with them, motivating them, challenging them and encouraging their development. Therefore, a leader is said to be capable of leading his or her followers when he or she is able to motivate his or her subordinates to perform beyond expectations (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). The core duty of transformational leaders is to transform their followers' basic beliefs, values, and

attitudes in order to achieve a collective purpose, as this will ensure that employees are willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization (Bass, 1985; Jung & Avolio, 1999).

Additionally, it can also be said that the kind of style that the leaders adopt can also help to boost the personality of individual employees, which in turn, helps in predicting job performance. On the other hand, transactional leadership only motivates followers through conditional reward-based exchanges. This is achieved by engaging the followers in a kind of negotiation, such as setting goals, clarifying the connection between performance and reward and giving feedback constructively (Bass, 1985). It has been observed that transactional leaders can only have a very minimum influence on their followers and this influence cannot be measured quantitatively and rewarded accurately, as is the case with OCBs (MacKenzie et al., 2001).

In view of the foregoing, it is therefore not surprising that numerous studies and meta-analyses have established that various FFM of personality dimensions are associated with job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett, Jackson & Rothstein, 1991; Salgado, 1997). Furthermore, it has been argued that individual differences may have an important role in anticipating whether a follower would show OCB. It is therefore believed that due to the personality of some employees, they may be more likely to display OCB than others (Organ, 1990). For example, Barrick & Mount (1991); and Salgado (1997) concluded that conscientiousness is one of the key predictors of employees' job performance, especially in Europe and the US. In another study, Barrick, Mount and Judge (2001) summarized the findings of 15

meta-analytic studies, undertaken over the previous 50 years that focused on the role of the big FFM of personality characteristics as a predictor of job performance. The outcomes of the study essentially stated that FFM dimensions positively relate to employees' job performance. In particular, the study asserted that job performance is positively influenced by conscientiousness in all jobs, while the other FFM dimensions only have positive correlation to specific occupations. However, agreeableness and extraversion are found to only correlate to specific occupations. Salgado also reached a similar conclusion that openness to experience is not relevant to most jobs in a study of Western European firms (Salgado, 2003).

Similarly, other studies have also revealed that the FFM of personality factor models can accurately predict employees' performance. It has also been revealed that personality testing is an effective tool used in personnel selection (Tett et al., 1991; Salgado, 2003). The FFM has been established as an important and effective predictor of person-organization fit. Additionally, Hollenbeck (2000) indicated that successful organizations employ people who have personality traits that enable the workers to adjust and adapt to both the organization's internal and external environments.

Increasingly, the link between personality and job performance has attracted academic interest (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003, p.68). The FFM has been widely used in these studies (including the current research) since the validity of broad personality factors is better than narrowly defined personality dimensions in other models (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003, p.68). In their study, Rothmann and Coetzer (2003) demonstrated that openness to experience is related to creativity (p.68). On

the same ground, John and Srivastava (1999) pointed out the opportunity availed by the FFM in integrating and unifying commonalities among different approaches to personality. Not surprisingly, the findings of several studies have established that various FFM personality dimensions are associated with employees' job performance. Several studies by Tokar and Subich (1997); and Fruyt and Merveielde (1999), among others, have shown that conscientiousness and extraversion are predictors of job performance in different job positions. In a related study, Hurtz and Donovan (2000) observed that international measures of the conscientiousness dimension have a reasonable effect on job performance. The same study also indicated that personality features beyond conscientiousness are almost equally significant for particular occupations and standards.

On the other hand, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) assumed that individual ability will help in predicting task performance strongly when compared to individual differences in personality. Alternatively, personality differences of individuals have been hypothesized to predict contextual performance better than ability. Furthermore, three basic assumptions are also considered to be associated with the differentiation between contextual and task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999). These assumptions include: (1) relevant activities for task performance differ from one job to another while activities that are based on contextual performance are relatively similar in all jobs; (2) task performance is related to ability, while personality and motivation are related to contextual performance; and (3) task performance is closely related to in-role behaviour, while contextual performance falls within the ambit of extra-role and is discretionary in nature. Based on this premise, this study examines how effects of personality

moderate the relationship between leadership style and contextual performance. It also examines the moderating influence of self-efficacy on the relationship between leadership style and task performance.

Consequently, several research issues with regards to the relationship between personality traits and OCB remain unsolved. According to Chiaburu et al. (2011), after decades of researching into the relationships between OCB and FFM traits, certain effect sizes are still unknown. In fact, previous meta-analyses with respect to citizenship criteria are still limited as most of the available ones solely focus on affiliative citizenship, such as compliance and interpersonal cooperation. More importantly, Moon, Van Dyne and Wrobel, (2005); and Johari and Yahya, (2009) informed that in recent times, the concept of OCB also incorporates innovation as one of its key dimensions. According to Moon et al. (2005), innovation is a key factor in modern times where employees' innovative behaviour is crucial for organizational continuous improvement.

Therefore, the overarching goals for the current study are to: (a) connect specific FFM traits, such as Openness, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness with three major forms of citizenship, including innovation behaviour citizenship, OCB-I and OCB-O; (b) examine the incremental validity of Openness, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness as a moderator in the leaders-followers interaction. Since Baron and Kenny (1986) defined the moderating variable as a variable that influences the strength and/or direction of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, the essence of the moderator in this study is to further strengthen the link between leadership and job performance, and make this relationship more

directional. In this case, it is expected that personality would significantly and positively affect the relationship between leadership and job performance in order to make the impact of leadership style (transitional and transformational) more effective and significant. With the presence of personality, it is assumed that the association between leadership style and employees' job performance would become stronger and more effective. Hence, personality plays a crucial role in the effectiveness of leadership style on job performance. Therefore, it is argued here that it is not only important for oil and gas companies to consider leadership style; they should also align it with personality since it is perceived that effectiveness of leadership depends on the effectiveness of subordinates' personality.

As mentioned earlier, people respond differently in similar circumstances. Perhaps, their dispositions with regards their personality have a strong influence on their situational behaviour and reaction. Consequently, this study concludes that personality factors determine behaviour in any case, no matter how dominant other influences may be. Most studies that have dealt with the link between job performance and employees' characteristics, include but are not limited to, those of Caligiuri (2000a); Dalton & Wilson (2000); Mol et al. (2005), Ones and Viswesvaran (1999); Shaffer et al. (2006); and Sinangil and Ones (1998). Unfortunately, the findings of these studies on the relationship between job performance and dimensions of the Big Five personality are mixed.

2.11.2.1 The Moderating Effect of Openness to Experience

The degree to which an employee is reflective, imaginative, artistically sensitive, unconventional and curious in nature is a function of the openness to experience

dimension of the five factor model. This dimension has been closely linked to divergent creativity and thinking in individuals (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Likewise, subordinates who are high on openness have the tendency of becoming transformational leaders. Specifically, these types of employees will respond positively to intellectual stimulation and individual consideration dimension of transformational leadership style. In addition, this belief is also supported by previous studies which specify that such individual employees have a preference for transformational leadership (see Keller, 1999).

Further, individuals whose personality is very high on openness to experience have the possibility of finding out different types of new experiences. On the other hand, individuals whose personality is closed may be more conservative, traditional and uncomfortable with complexities (Williams, 2004). An employee who has an open personality is different from an employee that has a closed personality with regards to their social attitudes and toward acceptance of assumptions and values. Significantly, the 'open' employees show a tendency for variety, seeking out new ideas and have intrinsic interest in appreciating anything that is novel. Thus, the study expects that employees who are high on openness to experience are more likely to exhibit innovative citizenship behaviours.

Most importantly, individuals who are innovative have the tendency to think outside the box, can challenge the status quo at will, accept new ideas, are less afraid and can take initiatives on their own. It could therefore be surmised that during a period of change, these individuals are always in the best position to embrace the accompanying challenges instead of resisting them (Phipps, Prieto & Deis, 2015).

Consequently, one would expect them to think innovatively in order to achieve desired goals of the organizations beyond the standard. Therefore, this may suggest that openness to experience, studied in the right context, would arise more often as a forerunner to the portrayal of innovative citizenship behaviours. In this view, Van Emmerik and Euwema (2007) discovered that Dutch teachers who are higher on openness to experience exhibited more energy towards executing OCBs. The scholars further enunciated that innovation and creativity of the teachers probably serve as a moving force that energises them to identify the needs of their schools and to embrace new and challenging activities that the school can benefit from.

Since openness to experience is empirically described as curious, imaginative, originality, broad-minded, intelligent, aesthetic sensitivity, and having a need for variety, aesthetic, and unconventional values and, as such, they are less likely to turn away from accepting new experiences and changes that are an integral part of innovation. Specifically, persons high on openness to experience show a preference for variety; they take advantage of new ideas; and they have an intrinsic interest in and appreciation of novelty. In addition, those higher on openness to experience may be more likely to engage in divergent thinking (Costa & McCrae, 1992), which may be a precursor of certain kinds of creativity and innovation. Thus, the study predicts that individuals high on openness to experience are more likely to manifest behaviour of innovation. In addition to specific creative personality, researchers have also suggested individuals with more general personality traits (FFM) may be better suited to engage in innovative work. Because of its association with proactivity (Fuller & Marler, 2009), openness to experience should be more predictive of the behaviour of innovation. Among the dimensions of the FFM, openness to experience

is clearly related to innovative behaviour and is the personality factor most often considered (Coetzer & Rothmann, 2003). Thus, it is hypothesized:

H9: Openness to experience moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and innovative behaviour.

H10: Openness to experience moderates the relation between transactional leadership and innovative behaviour.

2.11.2.2 The Moderating Effect of Conscientiousness

Robbins and Judge (2005), in explaining path goal theory, noted that employees' characteristics have a crucial and significant moderating influence on the relationship between leadership and employees' outcome variables. Thus, the leadership will be ineffective if personality trait is missing in the relationship between employees' performance and leadership. Konovsky and Organ (1996), in their study, argued that conscientiousness is considered as an important factor responsible for predicting employees' OCBs at the workplace. Conscientiousness is a reflection of dutifulness, dependability and self-discipline, a tendency of following rules and the order value. Thematically, these inclinations are related to more impersonal forms of citizenships (Organ et al., 2006) detailed by the OCB-O. Organ and Ling (1995) described conscientiousness as "a generalized work involvement tendency (i.e., a liking for rule-governed behaviour that probably is more characteristic of work in organizations than in other life domains)". Conscientiousness pushes individual employees to be committed to their organization (Barrick & Mount, 2000) and be willing to engage in OCB-O (Barrick & Mount, 2000).

The trait of conscientiousness is the drive for employees to choose to perform in a certain way to accomplish specific goals. In addition, conscientiousness refers to attributes, such as neatness, punctuality, attentiveness, discipline and reliability. Highly conscientiousness followers may also be predisposed to develop behaviours that extend beyond the performance behaviour of the expected task. A positive correlation of conscientiousness and OCB is expected, presumably because OCB is a type of behaviour that extends beyond the expected performance of the task (Singh and Singh , 2009). In addition, Konovsky and Organ (1996) argued that the personality conscientiousness dimension is related to both civic virtue and conscientiousness of OCB (which are two components of OCB-O). In line with the above, Chiaburu & Oh (2011) in their study disclosed that conscientiousness predicts OCB-O and the correlation between these two dimensions was the second largest correlation in their study. Recently, Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmüller and Johnson (2009) also found a pattern of conscientiousness of the direct and indirect effects (i.e., conscientiousness has a direct and indirect influence on OCB-O and indirect influence on OCB-I).

Keller (199) established that conscientious followers are more likely to prefer transformational leaders because these types of followers view charisma and dedication as ideal attributes in a leader. Equally important is the fact that most subordinates high on conscientiousness are good performers, and as such, their leaders could appreciate them by ensuring that their developmental needs are met appropriately (e.g., individualized consideration). It is therefore expected that conscientious employees will respond positively to the individualized consideration shown by transformational leaders. Since conscientiousness is a measure of self-

control and determination, therefore, highly conscientious employees strive to accomplish their goals deliberately by being organized and disciplined (McCrae & Costa, 1992). These characteristics are closely related to the leader and overall job performance attributes (Judge & Bono, 2000). Since conscientious leaders have the tendency to adhere to their commitments, it can also improve followers' faith in their leaders. Similarly, conscientious employees can identify these leader behaviours and be compelled to follow their example.

On the other hand, transactional leadership is a task-focused form of leadership behaviour, since it helps in clarifying expectations, asserts rules and regulations as well as emphasizes fair deal with the employees (De Hoogh et al., 2004a; House, 1996). On the other hand, individuals with high conscientiousness are more precise, systematic and can make careful and detailed plans (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; McCrae & Costa, 1987). It is therefore reasonable to predict that conscientious employees will be likely to prefer transactional leadership. Thus:

H11: Conscientiousness moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and employees' OCB-O.

H12: Conscientiousness moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style and employees' OCB-O.

2.11.2.3 The Moderating Effect of Agreeableness

Agreeable individuals are harmonious in nature due to their attributes of getting along with others (Barrick, Stewart & Piotrowski, 2002). Individuals with these attributes are very cooperative, sympathetic and trusting (Costa & McCrae, 1992) as

they always have good team playing and social interaction qualities (Mount, Barrick & Stewart, 1998). Based on this, they should partake in individual-directed citizenship (OCB-I) in order to get along with others (Chiaburu et al., 2011).

As mentioned earlier, people who score high marks on agreeableness, otherwise known as likeability, are described as being “courteous, flexible, trusting, good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft-hearted and tolerant” (Barrick & Mount, 1991, p.4). Consequently, this kind of personality is often assumed to be positively correlated to the OCB dimensions of being helpful and courteous (which are components of OCB-I), and as such, this category of people often help others voluntarily (Organ et al., 2006, p. 81-82).

In the same vein, the agreeableness personality trait is occasionally viewed as an effort to “fit in” and be included. It indicates the aim to be deemed as a member of the community; thus, it can be connected to collective possibilities/efforts (Ilies et al., 2006), which have been regarded to be playing significant role in exhibiting OCB-I. Generally, individuals with agreeableness attribute are always valuable to their group, in particular, and in general, to their organization; thus, they are more likely to help the members of the group and have tendencies to engage in OCB-I. For agreeable employees to perform OCB, it depends on their motivation to assist others. In this view, Ilies et al. (2006) asserted that individuals with high agreeableness attribute often engage in citizenship behaviour because it helps them to achieve their motive of being altruistic; hence, they often attempt to achieve their altruistic desires by engaging in these behaviours.

Based on foregoing discussions, Organ (1994) published a research paper with the purpose of evaluating the effect of personality dimensions on OCB. This paper made an attempt to establish a linkage between personality and OCB synonymously to the linkage between job attitudes and OCB. Importantly, this paper does not reflect meta-analytical character; rather, it is just a discussion that supports the idea of a possible connection between personality and OCB (Organ, 1994). To some extent, Organ assumed that agreeableness as a personality factor is akin to the OCB dimension of “altruism”, since it measures one’s friendliness, generosity, courtesy and helpfulness (Organ, 1994, p. 471). This position is also corroborated as Elanain (2007) found a positive and significant relationship between OCB and agreeableness ($r=0.36, P<.01$).

Generally, agreeableness has been found to strongly influence altruistic forms of OCB, which eventually confirm the proposition that people, who are friendly and who have good-nature, have tendency to have concern for others and are more likely to assist other people. Apart from helping others, these people also avoid creating problems for other people. In addition to that, agreeable persons, as labelled above, are often expected to exhibit certain number of other collective behaviours which fall within the realm of OCB. The stated qualities are very essential while establishing friendship. As Bowler and Brass (2006) discovered, the power of friendship has positive influence on the receipt and performance of interpersonal citizenship behaviour, a form of OCB. In line with this, Graziano, Bruce, Sheese and Tobin (2007) named a number of diverse social behaviour attributes which are associated with agreeableness, including social responsiveness, co-operation and conflict tactics. Therefore, whether the environment is stable or not in a working

environment, employees with agreeable personality have the tendency to collaborate with co-employees, while also engaging in a high level of social exchange.

The agreeable person in a working environment displays higher levels of interpersonal competence (Witt et al., 2002) by collaborating effectively where teamwork is required (Mount et al., 1998). It is therefore expected that individuals with this attribute will be more likely to perform OCB. Furthermore, McCare (2002) found that agreeableness personality factor can enhance working with others (Konovsky & Organ, 1996). Moreover, Chiaburu et al. (2011), in their study, found that agreeableness has a moderate relationship with OCB-I. In one of the recent studies done by Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller and Johnson, (2009), the relationship between personality and citizenship behaviour (OCB-I & OCB-O) and the mediating role of job satisfaction was examined. They found that agreeableness had both indirect and direct influences on OCB-I but only indirect effect on OCB-O. Similarly, Konovsky and Organ (1996) prophesied that the agreeableness trait of employees would relate mostly to courtesy, altruism and sportsmanship, which are the components of OCB-I. Thus:

H13: Agreeableness moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and employees' OCB-I.

H14: Agreeableness moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style and employees' OCB-I.

2.11.2.4 The Moderating Effect of Extraversion

Extraversion has been described as an important determinant of social behaviour (Barrick et al., 2005). Generally, an individual who is high in extroversion is assertive, sociable, active, energetic, bold, expressive and adventurous (Goldberg, 1992). In contrast, an individual who is low in extroversion is submissive, timid, silent and easily inhibited. In line with the above, studies have suggested that individuals who are extroverted are likely to succeed in their careers that require individuals to be highly interactive and socialize with other individuals (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Accordingly, extraversion can predict both overall job performance in general and sales performance in particular. In addition, extant studies have reported that when an individual is high on extroversion, there is likelihood that he or she will perform well at supervisory functions, such as that of policing and sales related functions (Salgado, 1997).

Built on the above premise, several studies have been conducted. For instance, Raja (2010), in his study, hypothesized that extraversion dimension is positively but insignificantly correlated to OCB-I. This is also in line with the studies of Elanain (2007, p. 37) that did not find any significant relationship between extraversion and OCB based on the result of hierarchical regression that was utilised to measure the variance in each OCB dimension caused by a particular personality factor.

For the reasons mentioned above the extraversion factor is not examined as a moderator in this study.

2.11.2.5 The Moderating Effect of Neuroticism

Neuroticism is very close to negative emotions (Penley & Tomaka, 2002) as people with high neuroticism often engage in self-pitying, are anxious, less trusting, nervous and depressed (McCrae & John, 1992). Neuroticism and negative affectivity (NA) are closely related (Watson & Tellegan, 1985), as researchers often use them interchangeably (e.g., Erez & Judge, 2001). Experience has also shown that because neurotic individuals are often anxious, they may also experience paranoia. Therefore, these individuals tend to erroneously suspect that their colleagues and supervisors do not hold them in high esteem as desired, or at worst, that they do not respect them at all (Phipps, Prieto & Deis, 2015). King, George and Hebl (2005), in line with others, also argued that these individuals may be consumed by their own anxieties and stress, and they are always stressed and require assistance instead of being able to help others.

Previous meta-analyses have asserted that job performance is negatively influenced by neuroticism (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett et al., 1991). Judge et al. (1997a), in line with this, maintained that self-esteem of individuals can be influenced by neuroticism while people who score high in neuroticism are often averse to in-role performance cues, especially for jobs which are challenging cognitively, requiring various skills and initiative. When a neurotic is faced with a task that is simple, less risky and clearly defined, he or she becomes threatened since the situations are less structured. This therefore indicates that when the job or task is complex, the neurotic automatically becomes helpless and anxious, thereby leading to low creativity and poor performance. Importantly, high demanding jobs create job autonomy and fewer constraints on behaviour (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The negative relationship

between performance and neuroticism is obvious when the task that is involved requires some decision-making, control and initiative. In contrast, a simple and well defined job and clearly defined behavioural expectations weaken the impact of the trait on behaviour.

For the reasons mentioned above, the neuroticism factor is not examined as a moderator in this study.

2.11.2.6 The Moderating Effect of Self-efficacy

As already indicated in earlier sections, self-efficacy entails the degree to which a person believes he or she is capable of successfully displaying a particular behaviour or performing a specific task (Bandura, 1997); it is considered as one of the main predictors of employees' job performance. Similarly, Bandura (2001) showed that persons with a high level of self-efficacy to comprehend problems as challenges, are very committed to the tasks they perform and spend more time and effort in their daily tasks. After all, Bandura (1997), the initiator of the concept, indicated that self-efficacy plays a key function in task-related performance by shaping peoples' choices, effort and persistence. Yet, there is limited research that has focused on the impact of self-efficacy on job performance (Lai & Chen, 2012). Nonetheless, empirical research on self-efficacy demonstrates a strong and consistent association between self-efficacy and increased task performance (see Lee & Gillen, 1989; Lai & Chen, 2012). For Wood and Bandura (1989), high level of self-efficacy raises personal performance. Other studies support the impact of self-efficacy on performance in different types of organizational settings (see Chen et al., 2001; Bandura & Locke, 2003; Walumbwa, Avolio & Zhou, 2008; Beauregrad, 2012).

Furthermore, because they set challenging personal goals, employees with high self-efficacy are potentially more likely to be successful performers (see Bandura & Locke, 2003; Stajkovic, 2006). Similarly, individuals high in self-efficacy make greater use of adaptive behavioural strategies and are apt to know what citizenship behaviours are appropriate or necessary in a particular job (Beauregrad, 2012, p. 593). As noted by Prussia, Anderson and Anderson (1998), the significant impact of self-efficacy is firmly established in existing literature; also, there is a groundswell of scientific evidence on the effect of self-efficacy on job performance.

Furthermore, in line with the positions of many scholars, Brown and Duguid, (1991) also asserted that the changes that occur in individuals and attitudes happen through informal discussions and adequate feedback from social interactions. In view of the foregoing, self-efficacy, which refers to “beliefs in one’s capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands” (Wood & Bandura, 1989), may be an instructive concept to be considered in this study. Although self-efficacy is regarded as a personal construct of Bandura’s (1982) Social Cognitive Theory, the concept elucidates how cognitive behaviour and other personal factors, as well as environmental events, relate to and influence each other in a dynamic manner. As demonstrated in this study, self-efficacy belief is a key predictor of employees’ behavioural choices in terms of goal setting, the amount of effort dedicated to a specific task and actual job performance (Bandura, 1997; Choi et al., 2003). As such, this study conceives the formation and change of self-efficacy as a social and context dependent process.

Notably, prior studies have investigated the mediating influences of self-efficacy in several task domains. For instance, the findings of Feltz's study in 1982 show that self-efficacy mediates the relationship between diving anxiety and diving performance. Walumbwa et al. (2011) examined self-efficacy as a possible mediator in the relationship between ethical leadership and job performance. For Walumbwa and others, leadership affects "employees' performance because leaders serve as role models through whom subordinates can expand their knowledge by learning and acquiring new skills to enhance their performance" (p. 207). On the contrary, other studies have found that self-efficacy does not mediate the effects of visionary and charismatic leader behaviours on performance (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Salanova et al. (2011) examined the mediation effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance; they found that self-efficacy positively mediates the relationship between leadership and job performance. Furthermore, they demonstrated that transformational leadership style plays a key role in employees' self-efficacy.

Walumbwa et al. (2008) argued that transformational leadership may increase self-efficacy of the employees through verbal persuasion and vicarious experience which are regarded as two main sources of self-efficacy. There are two reasons why transformational leadership is expected to be an enhancer of employees' self-efficacy. In the first instance, Shamir et al. (1993) is of the position that because transformational leaders express high expectations and confidence with regards to the performance of their employees, it serves as an impetus to enhance their employees' self-efficacy. Secondly, transformational leaders use social persuasion and offer mastery experiences in order to convince employees of their capacities

(Bandura, 1977). More importantly, transformational leaders often delegate tasks that are inspiring to their employees and give them many chances to mastery experience. As noted by Pajares (2002), mastery experiences boost employees' self-efficacy because they provide positive feedback about their efforts and performance. This can also boost their self-confidence, which can at the end, lead to success in a given task.

Although, this study examines the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and employees' job performance, its approach is motivated by Judge et al (2007) who predicted the unique impact of self-efficacy on job-related performance by controlling certain variables, such as intelligence, personality and work experience. Their study indicated that overall, the contributory role of self-efficacy is unique in relation to job-related performance (p. 107). Thus, it is proposed that:

H15: Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style and employees' task performance.

H16: Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and employees' task performance.

2.12 Gaps in the Extant Literature

The review of literature undertaken in the present study, shows that researchers have dedicated significant attention to the dynamic relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance. Notwithstanding the increased research interest in this area, major gaps still remain in our understanding. In fact, a substantial number of researchers have debated the impact of leadership styles and behaviours on

followers' attitude and behaviour (see Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Keller, 2006; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Mosadegh & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Salman, et al., 2011; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Yukl, 2002; Zhu et al., 2009). However, researchers have yet to examine the role of followers' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness and agreeableness) in determining the effects of transformational and transactional leadership styles on employees' job performance, despite several recent calls for more research on the role that employees play in terms of being active participants in the leadership process (e.g., Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Riggio et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2009). Given that this is a relatively untapped area, the current study examines the role of followers' perceptions of their self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness and agreeableness, as potential moderators of the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and employees' job performance.

In addition to that, the concept of leadership lacks coherence and unanimity among scholars. Similarly, there is no consensus on the impact of the dominant transactional and transformational typology. On the one hand, Bass (1985) stated that transformational leaders are nearly always more effective than transactional leaders. On the other hand, several scholars have disputed this assertion (see Wallace, 1997; Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Notably, extant research leaves many unanswered questions and gaps. In this regard, many studies, including Bass' (1985) transactional and transformational typology, have been criticized for assuming that there is only one best way of approaching leadership; yet many think that diverse leadership behaviours should reflect social and historical roots or conditions. In other words the

one-size-fit-all approach is inappropriate. This suggests that different leadership behaviours could affect job performance in different ways (Jing, 2008, p. 68). Therefore, when examining the leadership-performance relationship, the context needs to be taken into consideration and more leadership styles need to be taken into account. Put differently, no agreed position or clear picture has emerged about the moderating role of personality in leadership-performance relationship. For instance, several studies, including Rothmann and Coetzer (2003); Tokar and Subich (1997); and Fruyt and Merveielde (1999) have demonstrated that some personality dimensions, namely, extraversion and conscientiousness, may predict job performance in diverse occupations.

In their study Nahgang, Morgenson and Ilies, (2009) examined both the leader's and subordinates' personality, because the quality of a social relationship is shaped by the personality of both players. This approach which was also adopted by Asendorpf and Wilpers (1998) involves testing the impact of both the leader and employees characteristics on the quality of the relationship. What is clear from this review of literature is there are many challenges and research gaps in existing literature on the leadership-employee job performance link that needs to be explored before any conclusive positions on this relationship can be drawn (see Jing, 2008, p. 75). Nonetheless, the leader's behaviour alone cannot be entirely responsible for the performance of employees, nor for the achievement of organizational goals. As established in this study, employees too play a key role. Specifically, employees' views of their leader's behaviour and their feelings about their own capacity to perform and accomplish organizational goals appear to be crucial factors in the

leadership-employee job performance relationship (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002, p. 546).

Furthermore, it has been proven that the employees' image of their relationship with their leader, especially the level of assistance they get from their leaders, influences their job performance (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Prior research has demonstrated relationships between leadership style and achievement of organizational goals. Despite glaring gaps in existing literature, there is no study that has attempted to develop a research framework of employees' characteristics as moderator in the relationship between leadership style and employees' job performance in Libya. Clearly, knowing whether employees' characteristics directly or indirectly influence employees' job performance has important implications for leadership studies. This study therefore attempts to bridge this gap in the literature by arguing why employees' characteristics dimensions are important and how they appear to be linked in a conceptual model. More specifically, the objective of this research is to evaluate whether employees' characteristics common in the work settings, can be viewed as moderating influences in the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and employees' job performance. More importantly, this evaluation is conducted in the context of the Libyan Oil and Gas sector.

2.13 Chapter Summary

This section provides a brief summary of the chapter. It focuses on the review of the detailed literature of the major topics which include leadership, leadership style, employees' characteristics and employees' job performance, among others. The chapter presents review on the general concept of leadership and leadership style by

looking into different views by several authors. Based on this review, the chapter concludes that the concept of leadership differs considerably among various authors. The chapter also presents the detailed review of the subordinates' characteristics. The chapter also examines the concepts of personality and self-efficacy as presented in prior studies. Finally, employees' job performance is also reviewed in detail and the review reveals that several measurements of performance exist according to different performance models. The chapter also reviews both the objective and subjective perspectives of performance in general and focuses on the employees' job performance. Finally, it concludes with the underpinning theories and hypotheses development of the study.



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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

As stated earlier in the previous chapters, the main objectives of the present study are: (1) to examine the link between leadership style and employees' job performance; and (2) to determine the moderating effect for each specific dimension of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership style and employees' job performance. For these objectives to be achieved, this chapter describes the research methodology used to conduct the study. It also discusses how the study was undertaken. More importantly, the survey method is the main instrument used to gather data in this study. The chapter starts with a general overview of the research approach by explaining the types of research, highlighting some of their strengths and weaknesses. Then, the chapter focuses on the research methodology of this study. Specifically, there are six main components of this chapter: the research approach; the research design; the population and sampling; instruments; the questionnaire design; and the data collection and analysis method.

3.2 Overview of Research Approach

There are two main research approaches, namely, quantitative and qualitative (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Hair, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2007; Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010). These approaches are distinct in their focus, objectives and the manner in which they are executed. Each approach has its merits and demerits as one that is suitable in one situation may not be in another. It is

therefore essential to choose the appropriate type if a research is to be conducted successfully.

First, qualitative approach is primarily conducted based on phenomenological or constructivist paradigm. The purpose of qualitative research is to understand certain issues or particular conditions by conducting investigation into the behaviour and perspectives of the phenomena in those conditions (Britten, Jones, Murphy, & Stacy, 1995). Since qualitative research is flexible, it thus supports and allows an interaction between the researcher and participants and brings about improvement in the comprehension of the complexities of human behaviour (Grbich, 1999). Despite the strength of qualitative research, there are issues of ethical risks while the cost that is involved is high. In addition, the results that are obtained from qualitative research may not be generalizable to other contexts or settings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Moreover, it is difficult to make quantitative predictions from a qualitative study (Zawawi, 2007).

Second, quantitative research is regarded as the precise count of some knowledge, behaviour, attitude and/or opinion (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). In other words, quantitative research is defined as a study which addresses study objectives during empirical assessments that include numerical measurement and analysis approaches (Zikmund et al., 2010). Quantitative research has many advantages over qualitative research. It costs less and does not require much time when compared to qualitative approach (Maykut, Morehouse, & Morehouse, 1994). In addition, the use of statistical analysis enables the researchers to make comparisons between many units and ensures that its results are generalizable compared to a qualitative study. As

noted by Zawawi, (2007), quantitative approach is mostly used to study a large unit or numbers of people (Zawawi, 2007).

Since there is no stringent rule on how to choose the best research design, it is therefore essential to state that the purpose and context of research determine which method is to be chosen (Zikmund, 2003). While qualitative study depends on words for description of people, situations and circumstances in order to collect its data, quantitative study strictly uses numerical description (Cooper & Schindler, 2006; Zikmund, 2003). The quantitative nature lies in the fact that the data collected is mainly numerical. In essence, quantitative research precisely measures constructs by defining them operationally (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). Thus, this study is quantitative in nature because it attempts to describe the relationship between leadership style and employees' job performance, and the effect of employees' characteristics as a moderating variable on the relationship between leadership style and employees' job performance. Creswell (2008) listed the features to be considered when choosing an appropriate research approach (Table 3.1). It can be concluded that this study exhibits all the features associated with a quantitative study which has led to the adoption of quantitative approach in this study.

Table 3.1
Features of Quantitative and Qualitative Approach

Quantitative research Approach	Qualitative research Approach
It is mainly description and explanation oriented.	It is exploratory and understanding oriented.
Literature review plays major role in justifying research problem and recognizing the need for the study.	Literature review plays minor role in justifying research problem.
The research purpose is usually specific, narrow, measurable and observable data is employed.	The research purpose is general and broad and data are in the form of participant's experiences.
Data collection is done with predetermined instrument, such data is numeric and usually from large number of individuals.	Data cannot be predetermined; it is either collected in text or image form and usually from small number of individuals or sites.
The data collected is analyzed using statistical method and interpretation is achieved by describing the trends or relationship among variables and the findings are compared to predictions from past studies.	The data is analyzed using text analysis for description, analysis and thematic development. It represents the larger meaning of findings.
Standard and fixed method of reporting and evaluating research and the result is objective and unbiased.	Flexible way of presenting research report which is usually biased and reflexive.

Source: Adopted from Creswell (2008, p. 23)

3.3 Research Design

The purpose of research design is to state clearly how the research has been carried out towards achieving the research objectives and answering the research questions. Explaining it in another way, research design is an outline of how the data is going to be collected, measured and analysed (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). This premise forms the basis of Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin's (2010) definition of research design, when they asserted that research design is a master plan which clearly states the procedures and methods which researchers use to collect and analyse data. In the same trend, Sproull (1995) regarded research design as a blue print which helps to determine how the research will be conducted with regards to how the elements are to be examined and which procedures are to be followed. In addition, the research design assists the researcher on how to distribute or allocate inadequate resources by making important choices in methodology (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

Therefore, this study employed survey as its main research design. Cooper and Schindler (2008) defined survey as a measurement process which utilizes questionnaire, measurement instrument or interview schedule. The tenet of survey is that it makes attempts to explain what is happening or the reasons for an exacting business activity (Zikmund et al., 2010). In most quantitative or business research, questionnaire is often used to collect data (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; DeVaus, 2002). It is an organized set of questions or measures used by respondents or interviewers to record answers (Hair, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2007).

This study used the descriptive and correlation type of survey design. The data were collected through primary data method. The descriptive type of study is usually done in order to learn the descriptive statistics of a given population or group. These descriptive statistics in sum include the respondents' gender, age, level of education and marital status (Sekaran & Baogie, 2009). The survey design, according to Zikmund (2003), is a type of study that is aimed at collecting primary data that is designed through some form of communication representative or sample of the overall population. This study is a correlational study to examine the relationships that exist between the study variables. Studies that are correlational are usually conducted to identify some factors that are directly associated with the problem at hand; hence, the choice of the correlation method does depend on the type of research questions that are asked, and in sum, how the problems of the study are addressed (Sekaran & Baogie, 2009). This type of study is called field study, as it is normally conducted on the field and in a natural setting within an organization, with minimal interference by the researcher (Sekaran & Baogie, 2009).

More specifically, the research utilizes a cross-sectional research design, meaning that the “researcher collects data at one point in time” (Cresswell, 2012, p. 377). This design has the benefit of measuring current attitudes or practices. Furthermore, it provides information within a short period of time in order to ensure quick administration of the survey instrument (the questionnaire) and data collection. Since the main focus of this study is on characteristics or behaviours of employees, a cross-sectional design is ideal since “cross-sectional study can examine current attitudes, beliefs, opinions or practices” (Cresswell, 2012, p. 377).

The use of survey is appropriate in the present study because the researcher is interested to get opinions of the research participants on certain issues of interest. In the present study, the researcher aims to obtain information on how the participants view their direct leader's or supervisor's leadership styles and their own characteristics. Leaders and supervisors were asked to rate their employees' job performance. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to the respondents in seven national oil companies in Libya. A survey supplies a fast, inexpensive, efficient and precise means of assessing data about a population (Zikmund et al., 2010). Furthermore, due to this study being a descriptive study; the term ‘survey’ is most often linked with quantitative findings (Zikmund et al., 2010).

In a way, this study is premised on a quantitative research methodology. The study used primary data (survey questionnaire) to assess the structural relationships among the three constructs: leadership style, employees' characteristics, and employees' job performance. Partial Least Squares (PLS) path modelling in conjunction with Smart PLS was used to test several hypotheses based on the path-goal theory, social

learning theory, LMX theory and social exchange theory. The following sections include the purpose of the research and unit of analysis.

3.3.1 Purpose of Research

The purpose of a study defines what is to be accomplished through the conduct of the research and how the results will be used (Yin, 2003). Several scholars have identified three types of research: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory (Zikmund, 2000; Sekaran, 2003). The decision about the type to be used depends on a researcher's understanding and clarity of the research problem. Exploratory design is conducted to gather information on a particular problem at hand, and thus does not provide conclusive results. Exploratory research enables understanding of a new phenomenon, for which further studies must be conducted to gain verifiable and conclusive evidence (Zikmund, et al., 2010). Descriptive design is conducted in particular situations where there is just a little knowledge of the nature of a problem. It is conducted, therefore, to provide a more specific description of a problem (Zikmund, 2000; Sekaran, 2003). Finally, explanatory or hypothesis testing enables researchers to uncover and to infer certain relationships among variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Hypothesis testing/explanatory design is conducted to provide further specific knowledge and description of the nature of relationships among the variables being investigated (Zikmund, 2000; Sekaran, 2003).

Based on the above explanation, the present research is considered explanatory in nature, because it seeks to explain the relationships between leadership styles, employees' characteristics and employees' job performance, based on the research questions and objectives set earlier. Sekaran and Bougie (2009) observed that the test

of hypothesis is normally undertaken to explain the variance of the dependent variable which further explains the enhanced understanding of the variables' relationship. Thus, hypotheses were formulated to provide explanation of their relationships by demonstrating whether or not the relationships are statistically significant. To answer the research question on the level of job performance of the Libyan oil organizations, a descriptive analysis was carried out.

3.3.2 Unit of analysis

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010); and Zikmund et al. (2010), researchers must explain their unit of analysis to find a solution to the problem statement. The unit of analysis is the unit used by a researcher to measure the variables (Neuman, 1997; Sekaran, 2003). The unit of analysis may be at the individual, group, business unit or organizational level. Because this study assesses the influence of supervisors/managers' leadership style on their employees' job performance and the moderating effect of employees' characteristics, the unit of analysis for this study is naturally the individual employee. Thus, the level of analysis is individual-based, which means that the data collected from the employees are aggregated at the individual level. Therefore, middle and lower level supervisors, managers and employees were considered suitable as the unit of analysis for this study.

3.4 Population, Sampling Frame and Power Analysis and Sampling Technique

Employees who share a common set of characteristics are classified as one population, while elements of a population are called individual members of a population. A subset or a small part of the population is known as a sample (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). This section explains the population, sample and the

sampling technique. Specifically, it talks about what the population of the study is, and how the sample was selected. It explains in detail the sampling technique used to select the sample to represent the population identified.

3.4.1 Population

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), population of a given study refers to the overall group of people who are considered the subjects or respondents, events or things that a researcher intends to study. Furthermore, they equally asserted that a given population could be events, things of interest or group of people that researchers can make inferences from based on a derived sample. Zikmund (1994) posited that a population of a study refers to the set or group of entities that share common characteristics. As the present study is interested to investigate the job performance of employees in Libyan oil companies, under the supervision of the LNOC, it is of important to mention that the national oil organizations were selected for this study because of the significant role which these organizations play in the economic development of Libya (Shurbagi & Zahari, 2012). In fact, the oil industry is the most important sector in Libya. For instance, the economy of Libya is mainly sustained by the petroleum sector, as it accounts for almost all its export earnings, including 93% of government revenues, 95% of export earnings and 72% of its GDP. It also absorbs half of the country's workforce (see Country Economic Report, 2006).

Even though this study focuses mainly on Libyan oil companies that operate under the supervision of the LNOC, some oil organizations were excluded from this study for the following reasons. Firstly, the deteriorating security situation that followed

the revolution against the Gaddafi regime and the presence of some companies in some troubled spots led to the exclusion of some of the companies in this study. Secondly, because of civil protest which was carried out by citizens who were opposed to the deteriorating security situation, the work was stopped in all public institutions and companies. Finally, the lack of fuel supplies that accompanied the civil protest in many Libyan cities played an important role in the exclusion of some of the companies in this study.

The target population for this study comprises officials, managers and supervisors who are considered as leaders and general employees from oil organizations in Libya. As of 28 August 2013, the national oil companies in Libya numbered 12, and they collectively employ 42,334 employees. The breakdown of the national oil companies and the total number of employees who are working in each company is shown in Table 3.2.

Table: 3.2
Total Number of Oil Companies in Libya and the Number of Employees (as of August 2013)

No	Company name	No. of employees	Company specialization
1	Libyan NOC	1210	up and down stream
3	Sirte Oil Company	6736	up and down stream
2	Arabian Gulf Oil Company	6184	upstream
4	Waha Oil Company	4064	upstream
5	Harouge Oil Operation Company	2411	upstream
6	Zueitina Oil Company	2625	upstream
7	Mellita Oil & Gas Company	4760	upstream
8	Akakus Oil Operation Company	1309	upstream
9	Mabruk Oil Operation Company	398	upstream
10	Zawia Oil Refining Company	3290	downstream
11	Ras Lanuf Oil and Gas Processing Company	4173	downstream
12	Brega Petroleum Marketing Company	5174	downstream
Total		42334	

Source: National Oil Corporation (2013)

Additionally, Table 3.3 shows the companies that the researcher was able to reach and contact to get approval by the directors of those companies in order to distribute the questionnaire. The companies in Table 3.3 were treated as the targeted population of this study. Therefore, the target population of this study are the officials, managers, supervisors and general employees from oil organizations in Libya. As of 30 August 2013, seven national oil companies participated in this study with 20,642 employees who fit the definition put forward in this study. The breakdown of the study population by company and by total number of employees who are working in each company is shown in Table 3.3.

Table: 3.3
Total Number of Oil Companies in Libya and the Number of Employees (as of August 2013)

No	Company name	No. of employees	Company specialization
1	Libyan NOC	1210	up and down stream
2	Waha Oil Company	4064	upstream
3	Harouge Oil Operation Company	2411	upstream
4	Zueitina Oil Company	2625	upstream
5	Mellita Oil & Gas Company	4760	upstream
6	Mabruk Oil Operation Company	398	upstream
7	Brega Petroleum Marketing Company	5174	downstream
Total		20642	

Source: National Oil Corporation 2013

3.3.2 Sampling Size (Frame) and Power Analysis

The sampling frame “is a (physical) representation of all the elements in the population from which the sample is drawn” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 267). According to Creswell (2012), the sampling frame is sometimes known as the target population. Put differently, the sampling frame is the “list or record of individuals in a population that a researcher can actually obtain” (Creswell, 2012, p. 381). Sampling is the process of selecting a small number of the overall population so as to

make generalization on the whole population (Zikmund, 1994). This sample in sum represents the entire population as they are selected from the whole group to represent it (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). It is done in order to aid in minimizing the cost and time of the data collection. Thus, it is accurate and reliable if it is properly selected (Zikmund, 1994). On a general note, sampling involves any procedure that utilizes a portion of the population for the purpose of making a conclusion regarding the entire population. The selection of a sample will result in a more successful outcome because of the reduction in fatigue and in potential errors from the data collected, especially when a large number of elements are involved (Sekaran, 2003).

Gay and Diehl (1992) stated that determining the correct sample size is crucial for generalization purposes. According to Zikmund et al. (2010), as sample size increases, the likelihood of error generally decreases. This is also in line with the position of Salkind (2003) who emphasized that when a sample size is too small, it may not be a good representation of the entire population. According to Sekaran (2003), a small sample size can lead researchers to committing Type I error, by wrongly rejecting a particular outcome instead of accepting it. Furthermore, Sekaran (2003) argued that when the sample size is too large, type II error may be committed by accepting a particular outcome instead of rejecting it.

An appropriate sample size is needed in order to minimize the total cost of sampling error. To minimize the total cost of sampling error, the power of a statistical test has to be taken into consideration. The power of a statistical test is defined as the probability that null hypothesis (which predicts no significant relationship between variables) will be rejected when it is in fact false (Cohen, 1988, 1992; Faul,

Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). Researchers have generally agreed that the larger the sample size, the greater the power of a statistical test (Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 2001; Kelley & Maxwell, 2003; Snijders, 2005). Power analysis is a statistical procedure for determining an appropriate sample size for a research study (Bruin, 2006). Hence, to determine the minimum sample for this study, a priori power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1 software (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Faul et al., 2007). Using the following parameters: Power ($1-\beta$ err prob; 0.95), an alpha significance level (α err prob; 0.05), medium effect size f^2 (0.15) and two main predictor variables (i.e., transformational and transactional leadership style), a minimum sample of 107 would be required to test a regression based models (Figure 3.1; Cohen, 1992; Faul et al., 2009; Faul et al., 2007).

While the output of priori power analysis indicated that a minimum of 107 subjects would be required for the present study, it is worth noting that response rate in the Libyan context is very poor, especially among the employees in the public sector. Due to the poor response rate expected, the sample size obtained using priori power analysis appears to be inadequate in the present study. Therefore, it became necessary to consider other means of determining an adequate sample size for a given population. Following this line of argument, the present study compromised a priori analysis for Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size determination criteria. Most importantly, Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size determination criteria was used to determine the representative sample size for this study because it has taken into account the level of confidence and precision, ensuring that sampling error is minimized.

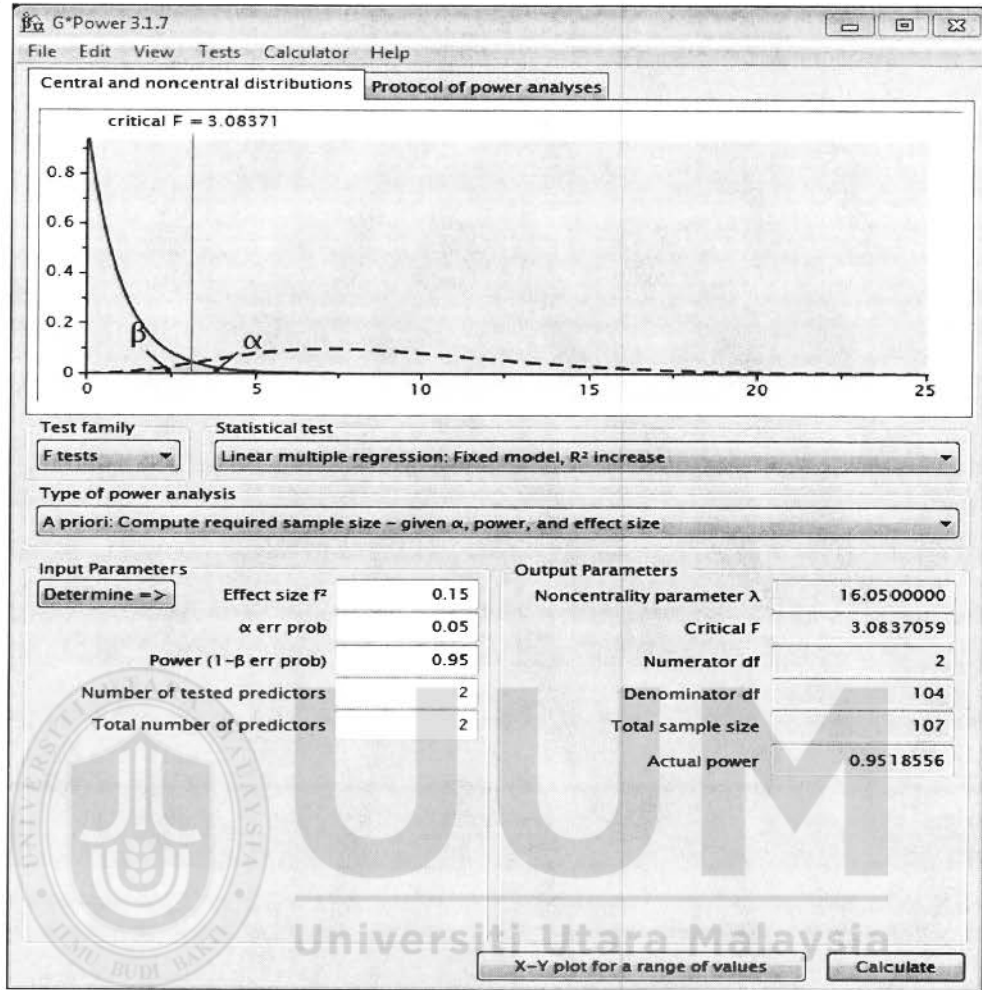


Figure 3.1
The Output of a Priori Power Analysis

As mentioned earlier, there are 20,642 employees working in the seven Libyan national oil companies as at 30 August 2013. Based on the findings by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), for a given population of 20,642, the present study identified a sample size of 377 employees who met the population inclusion criteria set forth in this study. Additionally, Hair et al. (2010) argued that for a multivariate research, the sample size should be 10 times larger than the number of the research variables. With 10 variables in this study, the sample size that is required should be at least 100. Thus, a sample size of 377 subjects can be considered appropriate for this study.

3.3.3 Sampling Technique

There are two basic sampling techniques, namely, probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Probability sampling refers to a sampling technique that gives every member of the population equal chance of being selected (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). On the other hand, a non-probabilistic sample is selected on the basis that the members of the population do not have equal chance of selection. Probability sampling designs are used when generalization of the research findings is required. However, non-probability sampling is used when generalization is not the ultimate as emphasis is often placed on time and other factors (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009).

For each sampling design, there are different types of sampling techniques. In non-probability sampling, a sample can be selected using convenience, purposive and quota sampling techniques, while stratified random sampling, simple random sampling, systematic sampling and cluster sampling are techniques in probability sampling. Simple random sampling involves choosing a sample of individuals from a larger set of the population where each individual has an equal chance of being selected. Systematic sampling involves selection of a sample from an ordered sampling frame where each individual has an equal probability of getting selected. In this method, the selection of the individuals is made by progressing through the list of individuals in the sampling frame. Stratified random sampling is a technique where members of the population are divided into homogenous subgroups based on certain categories under study. Lastly, cluster sampling involves a researcher dividing the total population into groups (clusters), which are then selected using a simple random technique. In this study, probability sampling design, i.e., the

stratified random sampling is used. The selection of samples is in accordance with probability stratified random sampling.

In view of the above, this research used probability sampling as it gives every individual in the population equal opportunity of being selected (Sekaran, 2003). One of the main advantages of this technique is that it does not allow researchers to be biased in the choice of sample objects (Salkind, 2003) while its results can be generalized (Cavana, Dalahaye, & Sekaran, 2001).

Using the stratified random sampling technique, this study categorized the oil companies operating in Libya into three strata, namely; Upstream, Downstream and Upstream-Downstream. While Upstream companies refer to the companies working in drilling and operating the wells and bringing the crude oil and raw natural gas to the surface, the Downstream companies are those companies that are working in refining crude oil and distributing the by-products down to the retail level. Products can include gasoline, natural gas liquids, diesel and a variety of other energy sources. Upstream-Downstream Companies are a combination of both Upstream and Downstream at the same time. As the name implies, stratified random sampling allows the researcher to classify sample elements into strata after which elements from each stratum is randomly selected (Sekaran, 2003). This technique requires the researcher to randomly select samples from the available sample frame (Saunders et al., 2009).

Furthermore, stratified random sampling can be classified into proportionate or disproportionate sampling. When the subjects from each stratum are selected based

on certain percentage, it is regarded as proportionate. However, when the subjects are drawn without any specific percentage but the number of elements in each stratum is considered, it is known as disproportionate sampling. This study adopted the disproportionate sampling procedure.

Therefore, this study selected samples from Upstream, Downstream, and combination of both Upstream-Downstream oil companies operating in Libya. The oil organizations were categorized into three strata: (1) 1,210 subjects were sampled from Upstream and Downstream; (2) Upstream represented a sample of 14,258 subjects; and (3) Downstream represented a sample of 5,174 subjects. Table 3.4 shows information regarding the population and actual sample used in this study:

Table: 3.4
Disproportionate Stratified Random Sampling

Company name	Total	Population	Sample size
Up and Downstream	1210		24
Libyan NOC		1210	24
Upstream	14258		276
WAHA Oil Company		4064	79
Harouge Oil Operation Company		2411	47
Zueitina Oil Company		2625	51
Mellita Oil & Gas Company		4760	92
Mabruk Oil Operation Company		398	7
Downstream	5174		100
Brega Petroleum Marketing Company		5174	100
Total	20642	20642	400

The stratified random sampling that is adopted in this study is the most suitable technique because it is the objective of this study to have samples drawn from oil companies with three different specializations, namely, upstream and downstream; upstream; and downstream. This technique is suitable when the target population is subdivided and requires that each subdivision is further treated as a stratum for the

purpose of obtaining estimates of known precision (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003; Sekaran, 2003). In addition, disproportionate stratified random sampling was used in this study because of unequal variability of the strata (Cavana et al., 2001). It is observable from Table 3.4 that unequal variability is expected from upstream and downstream; upstream; and downstream companies, looking at their respective sample size of 24, 276 and 100.

3.5 Operational Definitions and Measures

This study's framework comprises four variables: two independent variables, namely transformational and transactional leadership styles, a moderating variable which is employees' characteristics with four dimensions (Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Self-efficacy), and a dependent variable, employees' job performance with four dimensions, namely task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I and innovative behaviours. Two types of questionnaires were given to leaders and employees. The leaders were requested to rate their employees' job performance. On the other hand, the employees were requested to rate their leader's style (behaviour), and their own characteristics. Relevant measurements for each operational variable were identified as follows:

3.5.1 Leadership

Leadership style is operationally defined as the leader's ability to influence followers to accomplish certain tasks over a period of time via motivational methods as opposed to coercive power or authority (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007, p. 663). Leadership style also refers to the leader's ability to exhibit the right style or behaviour while dealing with followers. Leadership style has a critical influence on employees'

actions toward the accomplishment of organizational goals (Saeed, Almas, Anis-ul-Haq & Niazi, 2014). In this study, the definition provided by Bass (1990) is adopted where leadership is largely seen as a social interactive process influenced by both employees and the leader. The transformational and transactional leadership styles were measured using 15 items of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ – 5X) (Bass & Avolio, 1991, as cited in Ismail, 2010). A five-point Likert scale that ranges from “1” as “strongly disagree” to “5” as “strongly agree” was employed to measure all items. Each dimension of leadership is discussed below.

3.5.1.1 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is operationally defined as the leader's ability to act as a role model, create a sense of identification with the leader's vision, instil pride and faith in followers, inspire and empower employees, motivate employees to share their ideas and give individual attention and recognize individual needs (Bass, 1999). A total of 10 items were used to measure transformational leadership. Some examples of the items include, “my leader encourages me to perform” and “my leader gets me to rethink never questions ideas”. The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.95 (Ismail et al., 2010).

3.5.1.2 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is an exchange driven process premised on the fulfilment of contractual commitments (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 265). In other words, transactional leaders inspire and motivate subordinates via conditional reward-based exchanges. Five items were used to measure transactional leadership. Some examples of the items include, “my leader tells us standards to carry out work”

and “my leader monitors my performance and keeps track of mistakes”. The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.86 (Ismail *et al.*, 2010).

3.5.2 Employees’ Characteristics

Employees' characteristics refer to individual differences between employees. It is important to state that people differ in a variety of ways. That difference can be traced to psychological factors, such as cognitive abilities, personality, cognitive style and domain-specific knowledge/experience, and demographic factors, such as age and gender (Benyon, Crerar, & Wilkinson, 2001; IJsselsteijn, de Ridder, Freeman, & Avons, 2000; Sacau, Laarni, & Hartmann, 2008). Employees' characteristics in this study refer to differences between employees in terms of employees' openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness and self-efficacy. To measure employees' characteristics, a total of 38 items were used, adopted from John, Donahue and Kentle (1991); and Schwarzer & Jerusalem, (1995). A five-point Likert scale that ranges from: (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree” was employed to measure all items. The following sections explain each dimension of employees' characteristics.

3.5.2.1 Agreeableness

Agreeableness is operationally defined as the individual's tendency to be cooperative, forgiving, gentle, helpful, kind, unselfish, modest, trustworthy and straightforward (Costa & McCrae, 1992, 1999; Bono & Judge, 2004). Daft et al., (2005) added that a person with a high score on agreeableness is approachable and friendly; while the one with low agreeableness may seem distant and unfriendly. Nine items were used to measure agreeableness. Some examples of the items

include, “helpful and unselfish with others” and “considerate and kind to almost everyone”. The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.84 (Kappagoda, 2013).

3.5.2.2 Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is operationally defined as striving toward achievement, efficiency, deliberation, dutifulness, order and self-discipline (Lazaridès et al., 2010). Conscientiousness refers to individual's attributes, such as being dependent, neat, punctual, organized, attentive, disciplined, persistent and reliable (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006). Nine items were used to measure conscientiousness. Some examples of the items include, “Perseveres until the task is finished” and “Makes plans and follows through with them”. The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.91 (Kappagoda, 2013).

3.5.2.3 Openness to Experience

Openness to experience is one of the big five dimensions which represents an individual's possibility to be creative, imaginative, introspective, insightful and imaginative (Bono & Judge, 2004). Openness to experience is empirically described by adjectives, such as curious, imaginative, original, broad-minded, intelligent and having a need for variety, aesthetic sensitivity and unconventional values. They are as such, less likely to turn away from accepting new experiences and changes that are an integral part of innovation. Ten items were used to measure employees' openness to experience. Some examples of the items include, “Has an active imagination” and “Likes to reflect and play with ideas”. The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.89 (Kappagoda, 2013).

3.5.2.4 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is operationally defined as a social learning construct or social cognition which refers to an individual's self-beliefs in his or her ability to do particular jobs (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996, p.33). It is also described as a person's perceived capabilities to perform courses of action, with a particular focus on performing skills rather than possessing skills to accomplish a given task (Tsai, Tsai & Wang, 2011, p. 5321). Ten items were used to measure employees' self-efficacy. Some examples of the items include, "I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities" and "When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions". The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.87 (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008).

3.5.3 Employee Job Performance

Job performance is operationally defined as behaviour or actions which employees engage in during the accomplishment of their assigned duties at work (Jex 2002 p. 88). In general, job performance indicates how well employees carry out their assigned duties at work. However, some researchers (see Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) have broadened the job performance domain by differentiating between task performance and contextual performance (OCBs). Lately, another dimension was added to job performance dimensions, i.e., innovative behaviours (see Moon, et al. 2005; Johari & Yahya, 2009). In this study, employees' job performance was measured using four dimensions, including: task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O and innovative behaviours.

To measure job performance, a total of 27 items were used, adopted from Williams and Anderson (1991); and Moon et al. (2005). A five-point Likert scale that ranges from '1' as “strongly disagree” to '5' as “strongly agree” was employed to measure all items. Four dimensions of job performance were examined, namely, task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O, and innovative behaviours. These dimensions are consistent with job performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Moon et al, 2005). The following subsections explain each dimension of job performance.

3.5.3.1 Task Performance

Task performance is operationally defined as constituting a company's total anticipated value on job-related proficiency of subordinates (Motowidlo, 2003). Hence, it refers to those activities that aid an organization's core areas (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). As noted by Kamdar and Van Dyne (2007), there are two main categories of task behaviour, namely, organizational functions that directly convert raw materials into goods and services, and those activities that provide and sustain support to the technical core. Seven items were used to measure employees' task performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Some examples of the items include, “He/she meets formal performance requirements of the job” and “He/she engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation”. The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is .92 (Johari & Yahya, 2009).

3.5.3.2 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Direct to Individual (OCB-I)

OCB-I is operationally defined as behaviour that directly benefits individuals in the organization and indirectly contributes to the organization's effective functioning, such as courtesy and altruism (Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCB-I comprises

altruism and courtesy of Organ's (1988) OCB dimensions. In this study, OCB-I refers to the level of employees' positive voluntary behaviour that benefits the individuals (OCB-I), which may be the case where an employee helps a co-worker or a supervisor with a problem he or she is facing (Williams & Anderson, 1991). A total of seven items were used to measure OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Some examples of the items include, "He/she assists supervisor with his or her work when not asked" and "He/she always takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries". The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.89 (Yun, Takeuchi & Liu, 2007).

3.5.3.3 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Direct to Organization (OCB-O)

OCB-O is defined as behaviour that benefits the organization as a whole; it includes conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue of Organ's (1988) OCB dimensions. In this study, OCB-O refers to the level of employees' positive voluntary behaviour that benefits the organization which may be the case where an employee comes to work on time and protects the organization's assets (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Seven items were used to measure OCB-O (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Some examples of the items include, "He/she is conserve and protects organizational property" and "He/she adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order". The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.84 (Yun, Takeuchi & Liu, 2007).

3.5.3.4 Innovative Citizenship Behaviour

Innovative citizenship behaviour is operationally defined as an employee's effort to provide suggestions for change and improving products, processes, services, ideals

and relationships, which is volitional in nature (Moon et al., 2005; Woodman et al., 1993). According to Moon et al. (2005), innovative citizenship behaviours include offering constructive input (Katz, 1964); speaking up with new ideas (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998); proactively developing new methods (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Shalley, 1995); and taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). A total of six items were used to measure employees' innovative behaviours (Moon et al. 2005). Some examples of the items include, "He/she tries to make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate in this department/organization" and "He/she makes recommendations on issues that affect the department/organization". The internal consistency reliability of the scale reported is 0.90 (Marinova, Moon, & Van Dyne, 2010).

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

Generally, data can be collected through primary or secondary sources. Primary data are new since the researcher obtains the information directly from subjects of interest for specific purposes of research (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Such data can be collected from individual(s), focus group(s) or panel of respondents specifically set up for the purpose of the research. On the other hand, secondary data are already in existence, and can be found in various sources, such as journals, books, annual reports, published statistics, films and government surveys. In this study, individuals are the main source of primary data. The individuals provided the information based on the administered questionnaire.

According to Sekaran (2003), researchers can collect data through interviews, observations and questionnaires. Interviews involve unstructured and structured

approach. Interviews can be classified from highly unstructured to highly structured interviews. Unstructured interviews are usually based on flexible approach. In contrast, the structured interview is controlled by the interviewer in an orderly and consistent way (Hair et al., 2007). There are many types of interviews, such as personal or face-to-face, telephone or online interview. Personal or face-to-face interviews are costly and need more time especially when the research covers a broad geographic district. Furthermore, participants may be worried about confidentiality of data given. Interviews can also introduce researcher biases and interviewers need to be trained (Hair et al., 2007; Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2010).

A questionnaire, however, is a form of closed and structured questions previously written for the respondents to answer (Sekaran, 2003). This can be regarded as an efficient mechanism through which data can be collected especially when the researcher knows what is required and what the measures of the variables involved are (Sekaran, 2003). This study utilized a questionnaire survey as the primary data collection tool because of its effectiveness. A questionnaire enables respondents to provide the required data within a short period, while minimizing response bias (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2010). In this study, questionnaires were used in order to get information about the specific issues being examined, i.e. leadership styles, employees' characteristics and job performance via specific measurements.

Data were obtained from leaders and employees working in the Libyan oil companies. To get the relevant data, self-administered questionnaires were employed in which participants took the task of reading and answering the questions on their

own (Zikmund et al., 2010). The main reason for distributing the questionnaires in this manner is to enable the researcher or the researcher's assistants to explain the purpose and the benefits of the study and to encourage the participants to provide honest answers (Sekaran, 2003). In addition, personally administered surveys are more valid than low-cost interviews, as the former incurs less error than the latter (Creswell, 2012). Thus, a personally administered survey was found useful for the present study, which aims to acquire a high response rate that exceeds the consensual sample size required.

Prior to the distribution of the questionnaires, an official letter was collected from the Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business (OYAGSB) Universiti Utara Malaysia, introducing the researcher and also explaining the purpose of the study. This letter, together with a request letter from the researcher, was forwarded to the Ministry of Higher Education in Libya to explain the objectives and the intention of the researcher. Written approval was obtained from Libyan Ministry of Higher Education for the distribution of the questionnaires to the managers of companies under study. Both letters were attached together with the questionnaire and submitted to the companies under study to get their permission to distribute the questionnaire. The letters helped in facilitating the conduct of this study as it helped the managers to build confidence and trust that the data collected would be used for academic purposes only. The General Managers in the participating companies directed the Managers of Human Resources and/or Training departments to assist the researcher, while one research assistant helped in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires from the employees.

The formal permission to conduct the research at the public oil companies in Libya was obtained in the month of October, 2013. After the approval, the data collection started immediately. The Managers of Human Resources and/or Training departments of each public oil company were then contacted to get access to the company's employees. The Managers were initially briefed about the objectives and purpose of the research, its importance, and the way the study would be carried out. The approvals from the University and the Ministry were also shown to them to encourage active participation in the research. Once the Director of each company approved access to the researcher, the questionnaires were distributed immediately. The researcher, with the help of formal workers in the Human Resources and Training departments, distributed the questionnaires to the participants and explained the components of the questionnaire if they could not understand any of the questions.

The researcher met with the General Manager in each company and was assigned with an assistant who helped to distribute and collect the questionnaires. Completed questionnaires were compiled by the researcher, the assistant and in some cases by workers in both the Human Resources and Training departments of the company. The researcher conducted weekly follow-up visits to increase the participants' response rate. Telephone calls were also made to the head of Human Resources and Training departments reminding them about the survey. New survey forms were also given to those who had misplaced the original form based on the feedback from the head of the department.

Because the respondents were classified into two categories: Leaders (managers, coordinators and supervisors); and general workers (administrative staff and technicians), the questionnaires were coded for both leaders and general employees. This was to ensure that data were obtained from the correct persons. In other words, a leader who measured the performance of the employees under him, was assessed by the same employees in terms of his leadership style.

The major problem encountered during the course of data collection was the two sets of data. First, the leaders were chosen as participants in this study, and when distributing data, the researcher found that some participants' leaders have three followers or less, and followers of some participant leaders were out of duty. Therefore, with the help of the Training and Human Resources departments, new leaders were chosen to participate in this study to allow the researcher to get an appropriate response rate. In total, the data collection exercise lasted 10 weeks.

3.7 Questionnaire Development

A questionnaire is defined as a “form used in a survey design that participants in a study complete and return to the researcher” (Creswell, 2012, p. 382). For Blaxter, Hughes and Malcolm (1998), the questionnaire instrument is one of the most widely used in survey methods administered in a number of formats, face-to-face, postal, telephone and internet. Generally, questionnaires are an “efficient data collection mechanism provided the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 197). According to Sekaran, (2009), researchers can distribute questionnaires personally, through mail or electronically. For this study, the researcher distributed the questionnaires personally.

This method of data collection was used in order to overcome issues of cost and time.

Designing a good questionnaire is a challenging and daunting task. First, there is a need to consider whether a survey instrument is available to measure the variables. There is also a need to consider modifying existing questionnaires to measure the research's variables. If neither of these approaches will work, then there is need for one to design his or her own instrument. In designing a questionnaire, standard procedures are provided by several scholars (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Smith, 2003; Creswell, 2012). Some of the suggestions include the following: avoid ambiguity, questions should be precise and written simply, avoid double negative meanings, avoid loaded words, avoid leading or biased questions, eliminate jargon, avoid overly technical language and finally, avoid generalizations and estimations. To put it differently, the survey instrument must be prepared in such a way that the respondents can understand it and are able to complete it easily. In this study, the above aspects were incorporated when preparing the structured questionnaire.

3.7.1 Personally Administered Questionnaires

The use of self-administered questionnaires is suitable where companies are able to gather their employees to respond to the set of questions. The main benefit of this approach is that it gives the researcher and his team a direct access to the respondents through which complete responses can be collected within a short period of time. Since there is always room for personal interactions, the researcher can attend to any question and clarify any issues that the respondents raise. Additionally, the

researcher also has the opportunity to introduce the research topic and motivate the respondents to offer frank and honest answers (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009).

For this study, two types of questionnaires were delivered to leaders and employees. The leaders were requested to rate their employees' job performance. On the other hand, the employees were requested to rate their leader's style (behaviour), and their own characteristics. The instruments, consisting of employees' job performance items accompanied by a covering letter, were personally administered to those identified as leaders in the Libyan oil organizations. The leader respondents were requested to rate their employees' job performance in terms of task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O and innovative citizenship behaviours by scoring each individual question on a scale from 1 to 5.

The leadership style questionnaire (rater's version), and employees' characteristics questionnaire were also accompanied by a covering letter, and personally administered to those identified as raters. The rater respondents were requested to complete the MLQ rater version by scoring each individual question on a scale from 1 to 5 to rate their leader's style. The rater respondents were also asked to complete the part on their own characteristics on a scale of 1 to 5.

3.7.2 The Components of the Questionnaire

To achieve its objectives, this study used two sets of questionnaires, one for the leaders and one for the employees. The questionnaire starts with a covering letter followed by a letter from the researcher urging the participants to complete the questionnaire and assuring them of total confidentiality. The leaders' questionnaire is

divided into two parts. The first section covers the respondents' background and general information. The main purpose of this part is to obtain a personal profile of the respondents participating in this study. Four questions are designed to achieve this objective. The second part is designed to identify the employees' job performance level.

The second set is divided into four parts. The first section of the questionnaire covers the respondents' background and general information. The main purpose of this part is to obtain a personal profile of the respondents who participate in this study. The second part is designed to examine the leadership style of organization's leaders at middle and lower levels. The third and fourth parts are designed to determine the characteristics of followers. The second parts in the leaders' questionnaire and second part in the employees' questionnaire are designed to assess the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and employees' job performance. Questions directly relating to the link between the two leadership styles and employees' job performance are designed in those sections. The third and fourth parts in the employees' questionnaire are used to evaluate the employees' characteristics in the relationship between the two leadership styles and employees' job performance.

3.8 The Translation of the Questionnaire

Even though the employees in the Libyan oil organisations are highly qualified and the majority of them speak English fluently, the Ministry of Higher Education and LNOC insisted that the questionnaire be translated to Arabic before distribution. The translation was necessary as the questionnaire was originally produced in English,

and English Language is not the official and business language in Libya. Therefore, the questionnaire was translated to the Arabic language which is the official language of Libya and this facilitated the responses.

To translate a questionnaire, Malhotra and Birks (2007) recommended three techniques. First, the researcher can directly translate the original questionnaire to the target language using a bilingual translator. However, this method can lead to discrepancies relating to the meaning between the two languages (quoted in Suanders et al., 2007, p. 378). Second, the translation can also be done by a committee of translators who may be fluent in the original language and the target language. The function of this committee is to ensure that they improve on the translation by engaging in a thorough discussion of different versions of the questionnaire, modify it and come up with a satisfactory copy. The third option is back translation which requires a bilingual speaker who is a native of the target language to translate the questionnaire from its original language. After this, a bilingual who is a native of the original language will then translate the translated version back to the original language. These processes of translation may be repeated many times so as to correct errors and misinterpretation. This method is time consuming and very cumbersome. Having considered some practical issues like time, cost, and the length of the questionnaire, this study adopted parallel translation. The advantages and disadvantages of all the methods were considered before settling for this method. The following processes were followed while translating the research questionnaire:

- The original English version of the questionnaire was initially translated into Arabic, after which it was sent along with target language (Arabic) version to a committee of translators, who are fluent in both languages, to check the

translation. This committee consisted of: one Academic, Ph.D. holder working in Sabha University in Libya, one manager working in a Libyan Oil Company and a Linguistics Ph.D. holder at Tripoli University, who has many years' experience working as a translator.

- Having received the questionnaire from all these groups, the researcher reviewed their comments and suggestions, as well as followed up by contacting them when necessary in order to clarify and discuss any modifications.
- Based on the steps above, and having done all required modifications, the final Arabic copy of the questionnaire was produced. This final copy was sent back to the committee for the purpose of cross-checking the translation and to ensure that they are satisfied with the final version.
- The final Arabic version of the questionnaire was sent to an Arabic language expert who checked out the Arabic language grammar and wording in order to make sure that the Arabic version is clear.
- The final step of questionnaire translation was by sending both Arabic and English versions of the questionnaire to an office of legal translation to check if there was any comment.

3.9 Pilot Study

According to Malhotra and Peterson (2006), pilot studies are meant to collect data from a small sample of a population to act as a guide for the larger study. Normally, the pilot study is meant to guide the researcher on his or her actual study so as to clear any issue that may be ambiguous and to know if the procedures will work as intended. In essence, pilot studies help to refine the research questionnaire and

reduce errors in the main study (Newuman, 1997; Zikmund et al., 2010). Normally, the size of the pilot study ranges from 25-100 subjects (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

For the above reasons, the researcher conducted a pilot study. The questionnaires were distributed to 35 employees in the LNOC. During the pilot study, the employees were encouraged to provide comments to the questionnaire in terms of the wordings used, the format, the layout etc., in addition to answering the questions. For example, the employees commented that the researcher increase the size of the font used. The final questionnaire was later prepared by incorporating the comments given by the participants. The resulting outputs from the pilot test of this study were subsequently analysed to determine the reliability of the survey instrument as presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5
Summary of Pilot Test Reliability Results

No of items	Construct	Alpha
10	Transformational leadership	.86
5	Transactional leadership	.77
9	Agreeableness	.82
9	Conscientiousness	.78
10	Openness to Experience	.83
10	Self-efficacy	.81
7	Task performance	.75
7	OCB-O	.83
7	OCB-I	.78
6	Innovative behaviours	.74

It has been suggested that the acceptable level of reliability is a minimum of .70 (Hair et al., 2010; Nunnally 1978; Zikmund et al., 2010) where reliability estimate of .70 or higher is said to be very good. From Table 3.5 above, it can be seen that the Cronbach's alpha values for the pilot study ranges from .74 to .86. These values are

higher than the threshold value of .70 as suggested by previous scholars and this indicates that the instruments used to measure the main variables are reliable.

3.10 Data Analysis Procedure

Upon completion of data collection, combinations of both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed as methods of data analysis. The data collected was screened using SPSS to ensure that it is suitable for the PLS analysis. Having screened the data with SPSS, then PLS path modelling (Wold, 1974, 1985), Smart PLS 3.0 software (Ringle et al., 2015) was employed to test the theoretical model. The PLS path modelling is considered as the most suitable technique in this study for several reasons: First, even though PLS path modelling is similar to conventional regression technique, it has the advantage of estimating the relationships between constructs (structural model) and relationships between indicators and their corresponding latent constructs (measurement model) simultaneously (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003; Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Gerlach, Kowalski, & Wold, 1979; Lohmöller, 1989).

Secondly, PLS path modelling is practicable and appropriate, especially when the models of the study are complex (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982; Hulland, 1999). PLS has some basic and soft assumptions that give an edge in handling, developing and validating complex models (Akter et al., 2011). This study therefore examined the relationships among 10 models (i.e., transformational style, transactional style, task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O, innovative citizenship behaviours, agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness and self-efficacy) within the structural model using the PLS-SEM techniques for better prediction.

Thirdly, compared to other path modelling software (e.g., AMOS; Analysis of Moment Structures), the Smart PLS software was selected as a tool of analysis because of its friendly graphical user interface, which helps users create a moderating effect for path models with interaction effects (Temme, Kreis, & Hildebrandt, 2006, 2010). Fourthly, in most social science studies, normality is always an issue (Osborne, 2010) but based on the configuration of PLS path modelling, data may not be necessarily normal (Chin, 1998a). In essence, PLS can handle data that is not normal relatively well and this is why this study decided to use it in order to avoid any normality issue that can arise while analysing its data.

As emphasized earlier, SPSS software was used for data cleaning and screening, while the measurement and structural models were established with Smart PLS path modelling. The purpose of a measurement model is to explicate or assess the reliability and validity of the constructs of the current study. Secondly, a standard bootstrapping procedure with 500 bootstrap samples and 191 cases were applied for the purpose of evaluating the structural model (e.g., Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). Specifically, the significance of the path coefficients, level of the R-squared values, effect size and predictive relevance of the model were assessed (e.g., Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

Finally, after the analyses of the main PLS path model were run, a supplementary PLS-SEM analysis (i.e., moderator analysis) was conducted. Hence, following Henseler and Chin's (2010b), as well as Henseler and Fassott's (2010a) approaches to the analysis of moderating effects in PLS path models, a two-stage approach was used to test the moderating effect of employees' characteristics on the relationship

between leadership styles and employees' job performance. Finally, the fourth step required ascertaining the strength of the moderating effects using Cohen's (1988) effect size formula (see Table 4.26, p. 247).

3.11 Summary

This chapter explains the research methodology used in the present study. It outlines the sampling design, which is concerned with methods and strategy of data collection and the rationale for the research design. It specifically discusses the population of the study, sample size and sampling technique, operational definition and measures of variables, data collection and data analysis techniques.

The present study used a quantitative approach to meet the objectives of this study. Stratified random sampling was employed as the main sampling technique to select the sample. The sample of the present study consisted of leaders and employees working in Libyan oil companies. The instruments used to measure the main variables in the study were adopted from previous studies. In the next chapter, results of the analyses are presented.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

It is imperative to reflect on the background of this research. Essentially, this research has two main focal areas of interest. The first core interest is to explain the current relationship between transformational and transactional leadership style with employees' performance (Task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O and Innovative behaviours) in the Libyan oil companies. The second core interest is to identify the factors that need to be considered as possible moderators in the leader-employee relationship such as employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness) in the Libyan oil companies.

The main purpose of this chapter is to present the results of data analysis on the relationship or link between leadership styles, followers' characteristics and followers' performance. This chapter presents the results of data analysed using PLS path modelling. This chapter captures both descriptive and inferential statistics pertinent to the study. Following the introduction, the response rates and the demographic profiles are first discussed. This is followed by discussions on goodness of measures, and descriptive analysis. Next, the main results of the present study are presented in two main sections. In section one; the measurement model was assessed to determine the individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Results of structural model are reported in section two (i.e., significance of the path coefficients, level of the R-squared values, effect size, and predictive relevance of the model). This chapter analyses the structural model-relationships between two exogenous constructs of

leadership (transformational and transactional) and four endogenous constructs of job performance (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours). Finally, results of complementary PLS-SEM analysis, which examines the moderating effects of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience) on the structural model, are presented. The final sections capture the summary of key findings as well as the summary of the chapter.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Respondents

The primary data for this study was gathered via the survey method by using an instrument in the form of a questionnaire administered to supervisors/leaders and employees of Libyan oil companies. Prior to responding to the questionnaires which were distributed by hand delivery; the respondents were explained of the purpose of the study as well as the requirements of the questionnaire.

4.2.1 Response Rate

As indicated earlier, the subjects used in this research were supervisors/leaders and employees of Libyan oil companies. As a mentioned earlier in Chapter Three, the population for this study comprises managers and heads of department, coordinators, supervisors, and general workers working in government-linked oil organizations in Libya. Some of these oil companies include Libyan NOC, Waha Oil Company, Harouge Oil Operation Company, Zueitina Oil Company, Mellita Oil and Gas Company, Mabruk Oil Operation Company, and Brega Petroleum Marketing Company. Furthermore, the population sample size of 400 is within the acceptable range of larger than 30 and less than 500 (Roscoe, 1975). Meanwhile, Table 4.1

depicts information on sampling and return rates of the questionnaires send to the participants. The respondents were selected using stratified random sampling technique. Basically, as suggested by Zikmund *et al.* (2010) the response rate is calculated by dividing the number of questionnaires completed with the number of respondents or participants of the survey. In other words, the response rate is the percentage of total questionnaires distributed and were returned by participants. In this study, tremendous effort was expended in order to encourage the respondents to participate in this study and thus increase the response rate. Some of the measures adopted to encourage the participation of respondents included reminding the respondents through telephone calls, SMS and self-visits as implored by Sekaran (2003). Consequently, these efforts and activities, it is scarcely surprising that 252 questionnaires were returned out of a total of 400 questionnaires which were distributed by hand delivery to the respondents in the government Oil organizations in Libya. As can be seen, there was a response rate of 63% which is within the acceptable rate of response as postulated by Jobber (1989).

Table 4.1
Response Rate of the Questionnaires

Item	Frequency	Percentage %
Distributed questionnaires	400	100
Returned questionnaires	252	63
Rejected questionnaires	61	15.25
Retained questionnaires	191	47.75

Source: Researcher

Notably, after the data collection, a total of 61 responses were omitted from the analysis for two main reasons. First, after the data collection and screening processes were conducted, it was established that twenty five (25) returned questionnaires were

deemed unusable because the proportion of unanswered questions exceeded 10% (12 questions in this case). This threshold was proposed by Cavana, et al. (2001), who noted that the general rule for eliminating a questionnaire from use was when the proportion of missing data exceeded ten percent (10%) of the total response. As a result the affected questionnaires were excluded from the data set. Secondly, univariate and multivariate outliers also caused some questionnaires to be excluded. As a consequence of outlier challenges, thirty six (36) questionnaires were excluded from the analysis. Excluding or rejecting such questionnaires or data is important because they do not represent the sample (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Meyers *et al.*, 2006). In the final analysis, 191 questionnaires were deemed useable for this study, which represented a response rate 47.75% of the sample of the study. This is instructive because 30% response rate is generally considered acceptable (Sekaran, 2003; Hair *et al.*, 2010). For this reason, the response rate of 47.75% utilised in this study can be considered a good response rate. In much the same way, the current response rate is deemed adequate going by the suggestion that a sample size should be between 5 and 10 times the number of study variables (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 2010). Given the number of variables or constructs in this study, which are ten (10), a sample size of 100 respondents will be acceptable. As mentioned earlier, 191 useable responses (47.75 per cent) satisfied or fulfilled the required sample size requirement for conducting the multiple regression analysis.

Additionally, the data was collected in a self-administered mode, with no prior contact or personal connection made with the employees in the Oil organizations. Thirdly, the response rate of 30% in a research conducted in a developing country context has been regarded as a remarkable percentage by the *World Development*

Report (World Bank, 1997). Furthermore, the sample size of 191 can be considered sufficient according to the rule of thumb of Hair, William, Barry, and Anderson (2010). After all, they observed that for maintaining power at 0.80 in multiple regressions, a sample size of 50 is required and preferably 100 observations for most research contexts. Notably, the amount and proportion of the distributed, returned, useable and unusable questionnaires are elaborated in Table 4.1 as above.

In addition to the points outlined in the foregoing, several similar studies have used response rates, which were less than 47.75% (the response rate of this study). For example, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) study utilised a response rate of 34.22%. Meanwhile, a study conducted by Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2003) was premised on a response rate of 23.5%. In a related study undertaken in a similar Arabic environment, Randeree and Chaudhry (2012) attained a response rate of 41.83% to study leadership style in Dubai. Finally, Butler (2008) in his study about leadership in a multicultural Arab organization utilised a sample size of 137 with a response rate of 35%. Under those circumstances, it appears that there is strong evidence that the response rate used in this study is large enough to analyse the data. After all, Roscoe (1975) specified that a sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 were appropriate for most studies.

4.2.2 Profiles of the Respondents

In essence, this section discusses the respondents of the study which involves capturing general background information of the participants. More specifically, it provides information about the respondents to the survey. As a result, certain demographic information was gathered from each subject including

supervisors/leaders as well as employees. The demographic variables for supervisors/leaders include gender, age, job level, and working experience. Meanwhile, the demographic variables of employees' include gender, age, working years, and respondent's working years with the present supervisor. Tables 4.2., 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5 capture the demographic profiles of supervisors/leaders in detail. On the other hand, tables 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and, 4.9 capture the profiles of employees in detail.

4.2.2.1 Respondents' Gender (supervisors/leaders)

The results illustrated in Table 4.2 show that the majority of the respondents in the supervisory grade were male. They represent 97.1% of the research sample size, while 2.9% of the respondents were female. This result reflects the nature of Arabic culture where males dominate the socio-economic fabric of society. This finding is corroborated by prior research (Al- Gahtani, Hubona, & Wang, 2007; Al-Deek, 2010).

Table 4.2
Supervisors/leaders Gender

supervisors gender	Frequency	Percentage%
Male	34	97.1
Female	1	2.9
Total	35	100

4.2.2.2 Respondents' age (supervisors/leaders)

Table 4.3 provides the results for supervisors/leaders age categories. Most of the respondents were under the categories of 31-40 (31.4%) and 41-50 years age groups (31.4%). To put it differently, most of the supervisors and leaders were in the 31-50 age group constituting 62.8 % of the respondents. Meanwhile 22.9% of the respondents were under the category of 51-60 years. The fourth group consists of respondents in 21-30 age group constituting 14.3% of the respondents.

Table 4.3
Supervisors/leaders' Age

supervisors/leaders' Age	Frequency	Percentage%
21 to 30	5	14.3
31 to 40	11	31.4
41 to 50	11	31.4
51 to 60	8	22.9
Total	35	100

4.2.2.3 Respondents' job level (supervisors/leaders)

This demographic variable examines the position of the respondent in the supervisor/leader category. Because the unit of analysis is an individual level, it becomes crucial to know the position of the respondent. As mentioned in Chapter Three, the questionnaire part A section is expected to be answered by the direct leader or supervisor.

The results showed that 20% of the questionnaires were filled by managers, 11.4% were filled by coordinators, and 68.6% of the questionnaires were filled in by supervisors. Table 4.4 below illustrates the percentages of the respondents' job level.

Table 4.4
Supervisors/leaders job level

supervisors/leaders' job level	Frequency	Percentage%
Manager	7	20.0
Coordinator	4	11.4
Supervisor	24	68.6
Total	35	100

4.2.2.4 Respondents' working experience (supervisors/leaders)

Table 4.5 illustrates that 42.9% of the supervisors have 1-10 years working experience, while 22.9% have 11 - 20. 28.6% of the respondents have 21- 30 years working experience, while six of the respondents, which represent 5.7%, have 31- 40

years working experience. These findings show that the respondents have enough working experience.

Table 4.5
Supervisors/leaders Working Years

Supervisors/leaders' Working Years	Frequency	Percentage%
1 to10	15	42.9
11 to 20	8	22.9
21 to 30	10	28.6
31 to 40	2	5.7
Total	35	100

4.2.2.5 Respondents' Gender (employees)

The results in Table 4.6 show that the majority of the respondents were male and they represented 73.3% of the research sample size, while 26.7% of the respondents were female. This result reflects the nature of Arabic culture where males dominate socio-economic activities.

Table 4.6
Respondents' Gender

employee's gender	Frequency	Percentage%
Male	140	73.3
Female	51	26.7
Total	191	100

4.2.2.6 Respondents' Age (employees)

Table 4.7 depicts the results for age categories of the respondents. Most of the respondents were under the category of 31-40 years (46.6%), while 26.7% of the respondents were under the category of 41–50 years. The third group consists of respondents by age 21–30 (24.6%), and the fourth group consists of respondents by age 51-60 (2.1%).

Table 4.7

Respondents' Age

Respondents' Age	Frequency	Percentage%
21 to 30	47	24.6
31 to 40	89	46.6
41 to 50	51	26.7
51 to 60	4	2.1
Total	191	100

4.2.2.7 Respondents' Working Years with Current Leader (employees)

Table 4.8 provides results of the respondents' working years with their current leaders or supervisors. Most of the respondents were under the category of 1-10 years (92.1%), while 6.8% of the respondents were under the category of 11–20 working years with their current leaders or supervisors. The third group consists of respondents by working years with their current leaders or supervisors 21–30 (1.0%).

Table 4.8

Respondents' Working years With Current Leader

	Frequency	Percentage%
1 to 10	176	92.1
11 to 20	13	6.8
21 to 30	2	1.0
Total	191	100

4.2.2.8 Respondents' Working Years (employees)

Table 4.9 illustrates that 64.4% of the respondents have 1-10 years working experience, while 24.1% have 11-20. 8.4% of the respondents have 21-30 years working experience, while six of the respondents, which represent 3.1%, have 31-40 years working experience. These results indicate that most of the respondents were not very experience since the majority were under the 1-10 years working experience category.

Table 4.9

Respondents' Working Years

Respondents' Working Years	Frequency	Percentage%
1 to10	123	64.4
11 to 20	46	24.1
21 to 30	16	8.4
31to 40	6	3.1
Total	191	100

4.3 Data Screening and Preliminary Analysis

As indicated by Coakes (2013) data screening and transformation techniques are “useful in making sure that data have been correctly entered and the distributions of variables that are to be used in analysis are normal” (p. 37). This study employed a series of data screening measures including the detection and treatment of missing data, checking for normality and outliers. After all, the analysis of data requires that the data should be detected to ensure its ability to provide a true picture of the actual phenomena. For that reason, ignoring such issues can affect the validity of data and, accordingly, the findings of the study. Notably, prior to initial data screening, all the 191 returned and usable questionnaires were coded and entered into the SPSS. In addition, all the negatively worded items in the questionnaires were reverse coded. The negatively worded items that were reverse coded include PAG01, PAG03, PAG06, PAG08, PCO02, PCO04, PCO05, PCO09, POE07, POE09, TAP06, TAP07, OCBO03, OCB04,OCBO05, and OCBI06. Studies have established that subsequent to data coding and entry, the following preliminary data analyses should be performed, that is, (1) missing value analysis, (2) assessment of outliers, (3) normality test, and (4) multicollinearity test (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

It should be noted that a three stage process was adopted to enable data analysis, coding and editing. In the initial stage, returned questionnaires were opened and recorded accordingly for purposes of identification (for example, distinguishing the late and early respondents). In this regard, the survey instrument had an individual code to make it easy to trace and check when data was keyed into the SPSS version 19. Secondly, all data obtained from returned questionnaires was coded as per the items and numbers contained in the questionnaire design. The third phase of data screening encompassed the editing of the data from the questionnaires. Accordingly, questionnaires that were submitted by respondents with unanswered questions were automatically discarded and marked as 'blank'. In much the same way, questionnaires with a sizeable number of items (for instance 10 percent) which were left unanswered, also met a similar fate (discarded). Consequently, 25 questionnaires were discarded. As noted by Sekaran and Bougie (2009) data editing "deals with detecting and correcting illogical, inconsistent, or illegal data and omissions in the information returned by the participants of the study" (p. 308). With this in mind, this section discusses the aspects of data screening as follows.

4.3.1 Missing data

Missing data values are likely beyond the researcher's control. Nonetheless, the challenge of missing data should be tackled because of its impact on data analysis and generalizability of findings (Hair et al. 2006). Similarly, extant literatures have indicated that missing data is an issue of chief concern to many scholars since it has the capability of negatively impacting the findings of empirical research. As indicated in previous sections, 25 cases were excluded from the data set because they were mostly incomplete thereby reducing the negative statistical effect due to

missing data. Notably, the criteria adopted to determine the exclusion of cases due to missing data was that more than 10% of the cases had missing values (Hair et al. 2006). Under those circumstances and as suggested by Mickey et al. (2004) cases having less than 10% missing data values were considered and replacement of missing data was done using mean scores.

4.3.2 Test for Non-response bias

In the first place, non-response bias has been described as the mistake a researcher anticipates to make while estimating a sample characteristic because some types of respondents are under-represented due to non-response (see Berg, 2002). As can be seen in existing literature “there is no minimum response rate below which a survey estimate is necessarily biased and, conversely, no response rate above which it is never biased” (Singer, 2006, p. 641). Nonetheless, as noted by a number of scholars (Pearl & Fairley, 1985; Sheikh, 1981), no matter how small the non-response, there is a probable bias which must be examined, hence the need to undertake the non-response bias analysis for this research. Results from descriptive statistics show that from the 400 distributed questionnaires, only 191 questionnaires were deemed usable in this study. With this in mind there is a legitimate concern about whether non-respondents did not respond due to a systematic reason, which might raise a question about the validity of the study’s findings (Bhattacharjee, 2012). In line with Armstrong and Overton (1977) recommendation, the study considered last respondents as a prediction of the non-respondents for cases in which there were a priori grounds.

As depicted in Table 4.10, respondents were divided into two independent samples based on their response to survey questionnaires pertaining to three key survey variables (leadership style, employees' characteristics and employees' job performance). All returned questionnaires were divided into two category groups. Notably, the first group, namely early respondents, included questionnaires that were returned during a one-month period from the distribution date; and the second group, namely late respondents, included questionnaires that were returned more than a month after the distribution date. The first groups included 100 questionnaires, 14 of them were unusable due to the high level of missing data (more than 10% in each questionnaire), and outliers. Consequently, the usable early respondents group comprised 86 questionnaires. After the first month, reminder telephone calls resulted in obtaining 127 questionnaires. Likewise, 22 questionnaires were unusable because of the high level of missing data, and outliers. In other words the late respondents group contained 105 questionnaires. Therefore, those who responded to questionnaires distributed late after one month are, in principle, a sample of non-respondents to the first distributed questionnaires and therefore assumed to be representative of the non-respondents group. Similarly, research has established that late responders are often similar to non-respondents (Miller & Smith, 1983; Oppenheim, 1966).

A non-response bias was tested using SPSS (19) program. The result indicated that there were small deviations between the early and late respondents. Given that such a result reduced the likelihood of the existence of a systematic reason for the non-respondents (Armstrong & Overton, 1977; Bhattacharjee, 2012; Roscoe, 1975). As shown in Table 4.10 the differences between the means and standard deviations of

the answers of the two groups (early and late respondents) presented an interesting read. A comparison of the first and second waves of respondents showed that there were no significant differences between the early and late respondents, which in turn led to the conclusion that non-response bias was non-existent. In a way, the purpose of the above test is to examine if there are any considerable differences in the major variables between early and late responses. Therefore, t-test was performed to examine the differences between the two groups.

Table 4.10
Descriptive Statistics of Respondents

Variables	Response bias	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Transformational	early	86	3.3075	.76425	.08241
	late	105	3.2730	.82345	.08036
Transactional	early	86	3.2209	.77024	.08306
	late	105	3.2881	.71369	.06965
Agreeableness	early	86	3.2535	.76415	.08240
	late	105	3.3638	.76499	.07466
Conscientiousness	early	86	3.5039	.71294	.07688
	late	105	3.5619	.75600	.07378
Openness	early	86	3.3279	.93200	.10050
	late	105	3.2686	.93678	.09142
Self-efficacy	early	86	3.5580	.72776	.07848
	late	105	3.6845	.69685	.06801
Task	early	86	3.3256	.76863	.08288
	late	105	3.4317	.78300	.07641
OCB-O	early	86	3.4913	.81840	.08825
	late	105	3.6214	.71733	.07000
OCB-I	early	86	3.2977	.89271	.09626
	late	105	3.3040	.84151	.08212
Innovative	early	86	3.1395	.83455	.08999
	late	105	3.1288	.84862	.08282

Source: The Researcher

In a related development, Armstrong and Overton (1977); Bluman (2011); and Hair, et al. (2007) proposed the use of the P value to determine if there are any differences between two samples. In line with this suggestion, an Independent-Sample T Test

was undertaken to investigate the differences between the two groups (early and late respondents). The findings of the independent-samples T test showed that the P value was greater than 0.05 for all continuous variables, which implied that there were no systematic differences between the early and late respondents as illustrated in table 4.11 below:

Table 4.11
Independent Samples T-test for Equality of Means

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Transformational	Equal variances assumed	1.700	.194	.297	189	.767	.03448	.11597	-.19428	.26323
	Equal variances not assumed			.300	186.030	.765	.03448	.11511	-.19260	.26156
Transactional	Equal variances assumed	.800	.372	-.624	189	.533	-.06717	.10757	-.27936	.14503
	Equal variances not assumed			-.620	175.605	.536	-.06717	.10839	-.28109	.14676
Agreeableness	Equal variances assumed	.005	.944	-.992	189	.322	-.11032	.11120	-.32968	.10904
	Equal variances not assumed			-.992	181.736	.322	-.11032	.11119	-.32971	.10907
Conscientiousness	Equal variances assumed	.014	.905	-.541	189	.589	-.05798	.10718	-.26940	.15344
	Equal variances not assumed			-.544	185.244	.587	-.05798	.10655	-.26819	.15223
Openness	Equal variances assumed	.025	.875	.437	189	.663	.05934	.13593	-.20880	.32747
	Equal variances not assumed			.437	182.013	.663	.05934	.13586	-.20873	.32740
Self-efficacy	Equal variances assumed	.463	.497	-1.224	189	.223	-.12654	.10339	-.33049	.07741
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.219	178.380	.225	-.12654	.10384	-.33146	.07838

Table 4.11 (Continued)

Task	Equal variances assumed	.002	.960	-.940	189	.348	-.10616	.11294	-.32895	.11662
	Equal variances not assumed			-.942	182.904	.348	-.10616	.11273	-.32859	.11626
OCB-O	Equal variances assumed	2.909	.090	-1.171	189	.243	-.13015	.11118	-.34946	.08916
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.155	170.463	.250	-.13015	.11264	-.35251	.09221
OCB-I	Equal variances assumed	1.409	.237	-.050	189	.960	-.00628	.12579	-.25442	.24185
	Equal variances not assumed			-.050	177.085	.960	-.00628	.12653	-.25599	.24343
Innovative	Equal variances assumed	.007	.932	.088	189	.930	.01074	.12250	-.23091	.25239
	Equal variances not assumed			.088	182.787	.930	.01074	.12230	-.23056	.25204

4.3.3 Normality

Though many different types of distributions exist such as normal, binomial, and Poisson, scholars working with SEM generally only need to distinguish normal from non-normal distributions (Hair et al., 2014). While normal distributions are not usually desirable when working with PLS-SEM (since it does generally makes no assumptions about the data distribution), it is however valuable to consider the distribution when working with PLS-SEM. As can be seen in prior research it has traditionally been assumed that PLS-SEM provides precise or exact model estimations in situations with extremely non-normal data (e.g., Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009; Wetzels, Odekerken-Schroder, & Van Oppen, 2009). Nonetheless, this assumption may turn out to be false.

In order to prevent the occurrence of abnormality, this study undertook requisite data cleansing. For this reason, researchers are expected to conduct a normality test on the data (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012). To assess whether the data are normal or to what extent the data deviate from normality, this study used two measures of distributions, that is, skewness and kurtosis. Basically, positive values of skewness suggest too many low scores in the distribution (positive skew), whereas negative values show a build-up of high scores (negative skew). On the other hand, positive values of kurtosis indicate a pointy and heavy-tailed distribution (leptokurtic), whereas negative values show a flat and light-tailed distribution (platykurtic). In essence, values for skewness and kurtosis are zero if the observed distribution is precisely normal. In other words, the further the value from zero, the more likely it is that the data are not normally distributed (Field, 2009). Accordingly, highly skewed or kurtotic data can inflate the bootstrapped standard error estimates (Chernick, 2008), which in turn underestimate the statistical significance of the path coefficients (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012a).

Basically, normality of data is an assumption that is important and therefore a prerequisite for many statistical tests and research (Coakes, 2013; Field, 2009; Park 2008). After all, assessing normality is critical particularly in relation to small samples because of the important role played by sample sizes in terms of statistical power (Gravetter et al. 2005; Stout et al. 2000; Tabachnick et al. 2007). Meanwhile, transformations of data are not generally recommended with a large sample size because they make interpretations of variables difficult and problematic (Tabachnick et al. 2007). In this regard, if a sample size is greater than 30 it is assumed that the population sample mean is almost or roughly normally distributed as stipulated by

the Central Limit Theorem irrespective of the shape of the original population (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2006; Tabachnick et al. 2007). Notwithstanding this assumption, data was assessed for normality and outliers.

As mentioned earlier, the present study used descriptive statistics to test the assumptions of normality. These descriptive statistics include skewness and kurtosis (Pallant, 2007, 2011, 2013). As noted by Hulland (1999), this is because a non-normally distributed variable will be highly skewed and could possibly distort the associations between the variables of interest and the significance of the tests results. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2009), a normality test is utilised to describe a symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle, with smaller frequencies towards the extremes. Similarly, Pallant (2007) revealed that normality can be examined to some degree by obtaining skewness and kurtosis. In much the same way, Coakes, Steed and Ong (2009) observed that skewness and kurtosis refer to the shape of the distribution. Thus, the positive values for skewness are an indication for a positive skewness. Meanwhile, Pallant (2001) explained that the skewness value provides an indication of the symmetry of the distribution while the kurtosis value offers information about the peakedness of the distribution. As suggested by Hair et al. (2006), normality is present when skewness and kurtosis ratios are ± 2.58 . The findings on skewness and kurtosis of this study indicated that all items are normally distributed since all the results of skewness and kurtosis are in the range of ± 2.58 , which is within the range indicated by Hair et al. (2006). This demonstrates that the data was ready and suitable for further analysis.

4.3.4 Outliers

Many of the statistical techniques used in research are sensitive to outliers. Essentially outliers are cases with values well above or well below the majority of other cases (Pallant, 2010). In the stages of data collection or/and data entry, a researcher may make mistakes that yield distinctly varying values from those of the other respondents, which are considered to be outliers (Hair, et al., 2007). As noted by Byrne (2010) outliers are any observations which are numerically distant if compared to the rest of the data set. An outlier can also include an accurate observation that reflects the true characteristics of the population but still distorts the results of the study (Hair, et.al. 2007). To put it differently, an outlier is an extremely high or low data value when compared with the rest of the data set (Bluman, 2011; Pallant, 2010). Outliers can have a significant impact on the correlation coefficient, especially in small samples. In certain situations outliers can make the r value much higher than the case, and in some scenarios they can cause an underestimate of the true relationship. Ultimately, the presence of outliers can affect the validity of a study and therefore a researcher has to detect the outliers and deal with their issues (Bluman, 2011; Denscombe, 2007; Hair, et al., 2007; Pallant, 2007, 2011; Stevens, 1984). It is of great concern if the effects of outliers become larger when the sample size is small (Denscombe, 2007).

There are several reasons that may explain the existence of outliers. This may due to incorrect entering of data as well as failure to specify missing value codes in computer syntax resulting in missing value indicators being read as real data. Another reason for the presence of outliers is when an outlier may not be a member of the population from which the study is intended for. Finally, a key reason for the

existence of outliers is that the case is from the projected distribution but the distribution for the variable in the population has more extreme values than a normal distribution. Nevertheless, the decision to remove outliers from the data set must be made cautiously because removing outliers often yields the generation of further outlying cases (Coakes, 2013).

This study adopts one of the common methods used to identify the outliers' cases, that is, Mahalanobias distance, which represent the distance from the case to the centroid of all cases for predictor variables (Hair, et al., 2010; Stevens, 1984). Basically, this method will identify any cases or values that have an odd pattern of scores across the predictor variables. Hence, to identify which cases are outliers, one needs to determine the crucial chi-square value by utilising the number of independent values as the degrees of freedom. As indicated by Hair, et al., (2010) a large distance indicates that the observation is an outlier. Such a method requires plotting Mahalanobias distance' value against Chi-square percentile points to determine which cases are outliers. In other words, to decide whether a case is an outlier, one needs to compare the Mahalanobis distance value against a critical value (usually the critical chi-square value). If a subject's *MAH_1* value exceeds the critical value, it is identified as an outlier. In this study, the SPSS (19) program was used to investigate the values of Mahalanobias distance, which yielded values located between 22.315 and 127.840. Then, these values were compared with the critical value on Chi-square at 0.05. By doing so, the results showed that 36 values were more than the critical value 101.879. All the items that had a value greater than 101.879 were deleted. After doing so, the values for the remaining 191 items were located between 22.315 and 101.840. This result provided a clear indicator that each

case was not significantly separated from the rest of data, which in turn led to the conclusion that there were no outlier respondents in the remaining dataset after the deletion of the abnormal questionnaires.

4.4 Common Method Bias

Undoubtedly, most scholars concur that the common method variance (CMV) or common method bias which refers to “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 879), is a possible challenge in research. Unsurprisingly, there has been increasing concern about how to reduce, or eliminate method biases because they are one of the sources of measurement error found in behavioural research. After all, as noted by Bagozzi & Yi (1991) measurement error threatens the validity of the conclusions about the relationships between measures and is widely acknowledged to have both a random and a systematic component. With this in mind, researchers have generally agreed that CMV is a key concern for scholars utilising self-report surveys (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Spector, 2006). For Conway and Lance (2010), CMV or the common method bias “inflates relationships between variables measured by self-reports” (p. 325).

In order to minimize the impact of common method variance the present study adopted several procedural remedies as recommended by a number of studies (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Viswanathan & Kayande, 2012). First, to reduce evaluation apprehension, the participants were informed that there is no

right or wrong answer to the items in the questionnaire. The participants were also assured that their responses will be treated as confidential material throughout the whole research process. Second, strategies aimed at improving scale items were also adopted to reduce method bias in the present study. This was attained by avoiding vague concepts in the questionnaire construct as well as writing all questions in the survey instrument in a simple, specific and concise language.

In addition to the procedural remedies described above, the present study also used the Harman's single factor test proposed by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) to scrutinise the common method variance. Conventionally, in this procedure all variables of interest are subjected to an exploratory factor analysis and the results of the unrotated factor solution are then examined to ascertain the number of factors that are needed to account for the variance in the variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Notably, the main proposition of Harman's (1967) single factor test is that if a substantial amount of common method variance is present, either a single factor may emerge, or one general factor would account for most of the covariance in the independent (predictor) and dependent (criterion) variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

In line with Podsakoff and Organ (1986), all items in this research were subjected to a principal components factor analysis. In this regard, the findings of the analysis yielded 10 factors, explaining a cumulative of 70.49% of the variance; with the first (largest) factor explaining 28.73% of the total variance, which is less than 50% (see Kumar, 2012). Furthermore, the results show that no single factor accounted for the majority of covariance in the independent and dependent variables (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Hence, this suggests that the common method variance is not a foremost

concern and is unlikely to inflate relationships between variables measured in the present research.

4.5 Descriptive Analysis of Constructs

It should be noted that all variables are subject to descriptive statistics in order to identify their characteristics. In that case, mean, standard deviation, maximum, and minimum values should be computed. After all, most studies use descriptive statistics to measure central tendencies and dispersions of the data set through the values obtained for the mean, standard deviation, and maximum and minimum values (Meier & Brudney, 2002; Doane & Seward, 2007; Dielman, 2005; Kazmier, 1996; Sekaran, 2003). These statistical techniques can be more suitable for interval-scale variables (Sekaran, 2003; Coakes & Steed, 2003).

The purpose of the mean value is to determine the central tendency location of the data set or the centre of a distribution of scores, which is generally assumed to be the average (Meier & Brudney, 1987; Kazmier, 1996). Notably, the standard deviation is an estimate of the average spread or variability of a data set measured in the same units of measurement as the original data (Field, 2009). If the estimated standard deviation is large, the responses in a sample distribution of numbers do not fall very close to the mean of the distribution. On the other hand, if the estimated standard deviation is small, the distribution values are close to mean (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Put another way, if the estimated standard deviation is smaller than 1, it means the participants in the survey were very unwavering in their opinions, while if the estimated standard deviation is larger than 3, it means the participants had a lot of variability in their opinions (Hair *et al.*, 2010). To sum it up, standard deviation

measures the dispersion of data that deviate around the mean (Webster, 1998). The minimum and maximum values are used to check for errors in data entry (Doane & Seward, 2007; Nachmias & Nachmias, 1976). In this study, the findings of the descriptive statistics are presented separately for each item in each variable in respect of 191 valid cases of the study. For the purpose of the interpretation of the mean scores, three (3) was computed as the mean score for the five-point Likert scale. Consequently, a mean score of more than three is regarded as high (positive) while the mean score of below three is considered as low (negative) (National Institute of Standard and Technology, 2010).

4.5.1 Descriptive Analysis for Leadership Style

The first stage of the descriptive analysis considers the leadership style adopted by the leaders in order to improve the organizations' performance through their employees. In general, those variables scored a mean value of 3.2885 for all items measuring the concept of transformational leadership style with a standard deviation of .79545, and mean value of 3.2579 for all items measuring the concept of transactional leadership style with a standard deviation of .73847. Because the mean value is above that of the average of 5-point scale (3), it can be accepted that these practices have been given moderate importance. Table 4.12 below depicts the importance of each item of the leadership style as follows:

Table 4.12

Descriptive Statistics of leadership style

Items	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TFS02	1	5	3.27	.950
TFS03	1	5	3.50	.917
TFS04	1	5	3.26	.947
TFS05	1	5	3.29	.956
TFS06	1	5	3.54	.927
TFS07	1	5	3.34	1.097
TFS08	1	5	3.26	1.092
TFS09	1	5	3.15	.923
TFS10	1	5	2.99	1.008
TCS01	1	5	3.30	.896
TCS02	1	5	3.30	.906
TCS03	2	5	3.32	.911
TCS04	1	5	3.11	.948

N = 191. 5-point scale, in which 1 means strongly disagree, and 5 means strongly agree

The findings in Table 4.12 showed that the item of transformational leadership style with the highest mean score was TFS06 (3.54), which can be deemed moderate, with a standard deviation of 0.927, minimum score of 1.00, and maximum score of 5.00. Meanwhile, it is also established that the lowest item of transformational leadership style with the lowest mean score TFS10 (2.99), which can be considered low, with a standard deviation of 1.008 and the minimum and the maximum scores of 1.00 and 5.00, respectively. All the same, the item of transactional leadership style with the highest mean score was TCS03 (3.32) can be regarded as moderate, with a standard deviation of 0.911, minimum score of 2.00, and maximum score of 5.00. Meanwhile, the lowest item of transactional leadership style with the lowest mean score was TCS04 (3.11), which can be considered moderate, with a standard deviation of .948 and the minimum and the maximum scores of 1.00 and 5.00.

4.5.2 Descriptive Analysis for Employees' Characteristics

This section deals with measures of the moderator variables of employees' characteristics in terms of agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and self-efficacy. Using the similar 5-point scale as was the case in the previous

concept, the descriptive analysis of agreeableness yielded a mean value of 3.3141 for this concept with a standard deviation of .73847. Meanwhile, the descriptive analysis of conscientiousness resulted in a mean value of 3.5358 for this concept with a standard deviation of .73557. With reference to openness to experience the descriptive analyses yielded a mean value of 3.2953 for this concept with standard deviation of .93264, and mean value of 3.6275 for all items those measuring the concept of self-efficacy with standard deviation of .71185. The given mean value showed that the employees' characteristics in Libyan Oil organizations has received moderate attention, and the attention given varied across the different categories of employees personality. Table 4.13 below depicts the mean and standard deviation values for each item of employees' characteristics.

Table 4.13
Descriptive Statistics of employees' characteristics

Items	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PAG01	1	5	3.17	1.045
PAG04	1	5	3.57	1.063
PAG05	2	5	3.31	1.023
PAG06	1	5	3.14	.958
PAG07	1	5	3.38	1.003
PCO01	2	5	3.77	.781
PCO03	1	5	3.86	.886
PCO04	1	5	3.34	1.073
PCO05	1	5	3.34	1.121
PCO06	1	5	3.26	.996
PCO07	2	5	3.71	.831
PCO09	1	5	3.48	.893
POE01	1	5	3.25	1.156
POE03	1	5	3.30	1.077
POE05	1	5	3.30	1.041
POE06	1	5	3.36	1.061
POE10	1	5	3.26	1.054
SEF01	1	5	3.77	.818
SEF03	1	5	3.62	.879
SEF04	1	5	3.53	.955
SEF05	1	5	3.49	.899
SEF06	1	5	3.75	.882
SEF07	1	5	3.48	.886
SEF09	1	5	3.73	.820
SEF10	2	5	3.65	.825

N = 191. 5-point scale, in which 1 means strongly disagree, and 5 means strongly agree

The first dimension, "agreeableness", had mean values between (3.14) to (3.57) which can be deemed moderate, with a standard deviation between (.958) to (1.063), minimum score of 1.00, and maximum score of 5.00. The mean values for the second dimension, "conscientiousness", ranged between 3.26 for PCO06 to 3.86 for PCO03 with a standard deviation of .996 and .886 respectively, minimum score of 1.00, and maximum score of 5.00. The third dimension, "openness to experience", the item with the highest mean score was POE06 (3.36), which can be regarded moderate, with a standard deviation of 1.061, minimum score of 1.00, and maximum score of 5.00. The lowest items of openness to experience with the lowest mean score were POE01 (3.25), which can be considered low, with a standard deviation of 1.156, and the minimum and the maximum scores of 1.00 and 5.00. finally, the last dimension, "Self-Efficacy", the mean values ranged between 3.48 for SEF07 to 3.77 for SEF01 with a standard deviation of .886 and .818 respectively, minimum score of 1.00, and maximum score of 5.00. These results reflected the positive agreement of the respondents with the items of employees' personality factor.

4.5.3 Descriptive Analysis for Employees' Job Performance

This construct assesses the employee's job performance within four dimensions, namely, task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours. Generally, those dimensions scored a mean value of 3.3839 for all items measuring the concept of task performance with standard deviation of .77633, and mean value of 3.5628 for all items that measuring the concept of OCB-O with standard deviation of .76518. In the same ground, the items that measured the concept of OCB-I resulted in a mean value of 3.3011 with standard deviation of .86264. in line with above the descriptive analysis of innovative behaviours items resulted in a mean value of 3.1336 for this

concept with standard deviation of .84012. Because the mean value is above that of the average of 5-point scale (3), it can be accepted that these practices have been given moderate importance.

The results shown in Table 4.14 show that the item of task performance with the highest mean score was TAP02 (3.55), which can be classified as moderate, with a standard deviation of 0.938, minimum score of 1.00, and maximum score of 5.00. on the other hand, the lowest item of task performance with the lowest mean score was TAP06 (3.20), which can be deemed moderate as well with a standard deviation of .0868 and the minimum and the maximum scores of 1.00 and 5.00, respectively.

Table 4.14
Descriptive Statistics of employees' performance

Items	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TAP02	1	5	3.55	.938
TAP06	1	5	3.20	.868
TAP07	1	5	3.39	.863
OCBO01	1	5	3.55	.949
OCBO02	1	5	3.76	.943
OCBO04	1	5	3.27	.825
OCBO07	1	5	3.68	.917
OCBI01	1	5	3.17	1.060
OCBI02	1	5	3.39	1.040
OCBI03	1	5	3.34	1.078
OCBI04	1	5	3.32	1.020
OCBI07	1	5	3.28	.957
INOV02	1	5	3.15	.996
INOV03	1	5	3.18	.935
INOV04	1	5	3.09	.939
INOV06	1	5	3.12	.972

N = 191. 5-point scale, in which 1 means strongly disagree, and 5 means strongly agree

Meanwhile, the item of OCB-O with the highest mean score was OCBO02 (3.76), which can be considered as moderate, with a standard deviation of 0.943, minimum score of 1, and maximum score of 5. The lowest item of OCB-O with the lowest

mean score was OCBO04 (3.27), which can be regarded low, with a standard deviation of .825 and the minimum and the maximum scores of 1. and 5. The third dimension, “OCB-I”, the item with the highest mean score was OCBI02 (3.39), which can be considered moderate, with a standard deviation of 1.040, minimum score of 1.00, and maximum score of 5.00. The lowest item of OCB-I with the lowest mean score was OCBI01 (3.17), which can be considered low, with a standard deviation of 1.060, and the minimum and the maximum scores of 1.00 and 5.00. The last dimension, “innovative behaviours”, the mean values ranged between 3.09 for INOV04 to 3.18 for INOV03 with a standard deviation of .939 and .935 respectively, minimum score of 1.00, and maximum score of 5.00. These results reflected the positive agreement of the respondents with the items of employees' performance.

4.6 Measurement Scale and Research Variables

Measurement is a key concept in conducting social science research. Equally important are measurement scales which are tools with a predetermined number of closed-ended responses that can be used to obtain an answer to a question. By and large there are four types of measurement scales that have been widely used in research, each representing a different level of measurement, namely, nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. As exhibited in Table 4.15, about ten variables of the present study comprising transformational leadership, transactional leadership, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, self-efficacy, task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours were measured using the interval scale. Basically, the interval scale enables researchers to measure the distance between any two points on a particular scale. In other words, by using this type of scale, we can have precise information on the rank order at which something

is measured and, furthermore, we can interpret the magnitude of the differences in values directly. Nevertheless, pertaining to the five demographic variables utilised in this study, which were measured with the nominal scale. Essentially, the nominal scale is a measurement tool which enables researchers to classify subjects into certain groups or categorical scales (Cavana et al., 2001). Below is Table 4.15 which captures the measurement scales and research variables of the present study.

Table 4.15
Descriptive Analysis of Data Type

Variables	Type of Scale
Transformational	Interval
Transactional	Interval
Agreeableness	Interval
Conscientiousness	Interval
Openness to experience	Interval
Self-efficacy	Interval
Task performance	Interval
OCB-O	Interval
OCB-I	Interval
Innovative behaviours	Interval
Age	Nominal
Gender	Nominal
Job level	Nominal
Experience	Nominal
working with leaders	Nominal

4.7 The Goodness of Measures and Assessment of Measurement Model

In order to test the goodness of measures, three procedures were undertaken before conducting any analysis, that is, validity, reliability analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The assessments of the measurement model as well as the findings of validity, reliability analysis and confirmatory factor analysis for all variables in this study are discussed as follows. In essence, researchers using PLS-SEM depend on measures indicating the model's predictive capabilities to assess the model's quality. More specifically, the assessment of "the measurement and structural model

results in PLS-SEM builds on a set of nonparametric evaluation criteria and uses procedures such as bootstrapping and blindfolding” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 96). To this end, a two-stage process involving separate evaluations of the measurement model and the structural model is undertaken. Primarily, model assessment focuses on the measurement models. In this regard, the examination of PLS-SEM estimates allows the researcher to assess the reliability and validity of the variables or construct measures.

4.7.1 Assessment of PLS-SEM Path Model Results

Having created and estimated a PLS path model, this section focuses on the assessment of the quality of the results. In this quest, this study utilised PLS structural equation modelling (SEM) to estimate its theoretical model using the software application SmartPLS as outlined by Ringle, Wende, and Will (2012). As has been noted PLS SEM is premised on two key multivariate techniques, that is, factor analysis and multiple regression (Hair *et al.* 2010). The PLS tool is used throughout the analyses of the main and moderating results for this study.

As indicated earlier, in PLS-SEM analysis, the first stage is to evaluate the measurement model (the outer model). The Measurement model is concerned with determining the goodness of measures. As noted by Ramayah, Lee and In (2011) the two key criteria used in PLS analysis to assess the measurement model or what is alternatively called the outer model include validity and reliability. Reliability test tries to find how consistently a measuring instrument measures the concept it is supposed to measure, whereas validity tests try to find out how well an instrument measures a certain concept it is designed to measure (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

More elaborately, the measurement model is evaluated by the individual item reliability, internal consistency (composite reliability) as well as constructs validity. The reliability, convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement instruments utilised in this study are evaluated using the approaches developed for a PLS-SEM context by Fornell and Larcker (1981). In PLS-SEM analysis, the predictive power of a specific model is evaluated or assessed by the R squared (R^2) values of the endogenous constructs or latent variables, as well as ascertaining the standard path coefficient for each relationship from exogenous variables to endogenous variables. The R^2 values are interpreted in the same way as those obtained from multiple regression analysis. The R^2 values demonstrate the amount of variance in the construct that is explained by the measurement model (Barclay *et al.* 1995; Chin, 1998b).

Since the PLS model does not follow distributional normality assumption of the observations in its procedure for estimating parameters, the traditional parametric-based methods for significance testing are not suitable in PLS (Chin, 2010). As an alternative, two techniques are utilised in PLS analysis for assessing statistical significance, namely, the bootstrap; and the jack-knife techniques. Generally, the jack-knife technique is a more cursory algorithm and the hypotheses are tested by the assessment of statistical significance of the path coefficients. Hence, the jack-knife technique is used to save resources and reduce execution time for large data sets (Chin, 2010).

Bootstrapping, on the other hand, represents a more precise calculation of measures (Mooney, 1996). It is a procedure from which the "sampling distribution of a statistic

is estimated by taking repeated samples from the data set" (Field, 2009, p. 782). Notably, the present study uses the bootstrapping technique for testing the significance of all the path coefficients because in PLS analysis, bootstrapping is the only mechanism for examining the significance of path coefficients (Chin, 2010). In PLS-SEM analysis, bootstrapping is used to evaluate the significance of model's path coefficients and estimate the standard error (Chin, 1998b). Bootstrapping is a non-parametric re-sampling technique that involves repeated random sampling with replacement from the original sample (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). It is a superior re-sampling method which attempts to approximate the sampling distribution of an estimator by re-sampling with replacement from the original sample (Good, 2000). Despite, the role of bootstrapping in PLS, the technique is still not a standardized one as the user decides the number of bootstrap retrials to undertake basing on the uniqueness of the situation at hand (Rasmussen, 1988). It has been argued that insufficient number of retrials may create incorrect estimates of standard error, t-values, confidence intervals or conclusions in the test of hypotheses (Bontis *et al.*, 2007). Important guidelines for the selection of the number of re-sampling are still being explored (Andrews & Buchinsky, 2002). Moreover, the accepted guideline is that each bootstrap sample should have the same number of observations (usually termed bootstrap cases in PLS-SEM software's bootstrap modules) as the original sample (Hair et al, 2014). Nonetheless, in the present study, a total of 500 retrials were chosen for determining the significance of model's path coefficients and standard error as recommended by Chin (2010).

It is essential to mention that a recent study conducted by Henseler and Sarstedt (2013) indicates that goodness-of-fit (GoF) index is not appropriate for model

validation (see also Hair et al., 2014). For example, using PLS path models with simulated data, the authors demonstrate that goodness-of-fit index is not proper for model validation because it cannot separate valid models from invalid ones (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). In view of this development, this study implemented a two-step process to assess and report the PLS-SEM path model results as indicated by Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009). This two-step process adopted in the present study consists of (1) the assessment of a measurement model, and (2) the assessment of a structural model, as depicted in Figure 4.1 (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009).

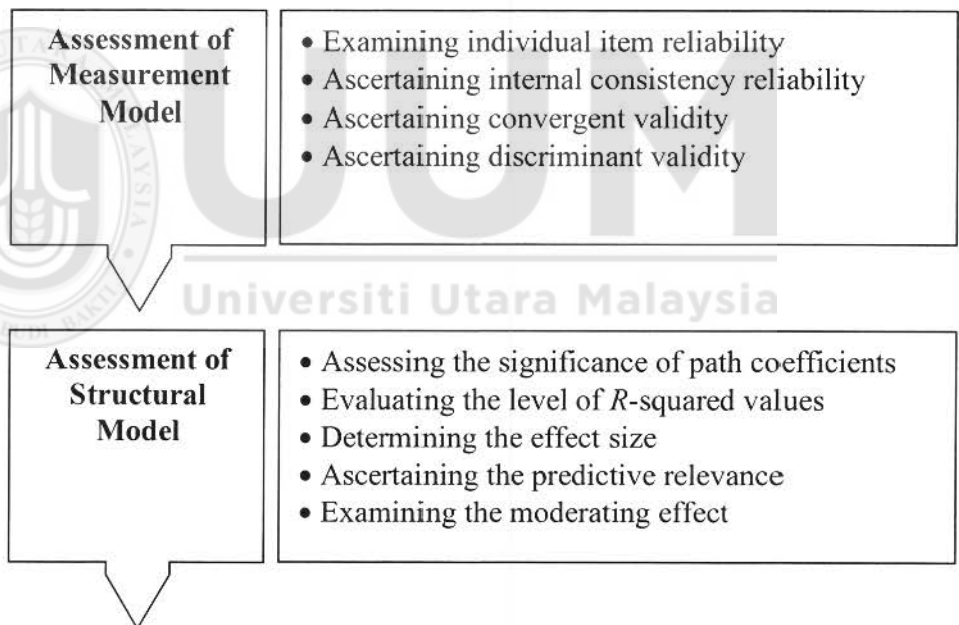


Figure 4.1
A Two-Step Process of PLS Path Model Assessment
 Source: (Henseler et al., 2009)

4.8 Assessment of Measurement Model

An assessment of a measurement model involves determining individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability, content validity, convergent validity and

discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). On close inspection, when assessing the measurement models, there is needed to distinguish between reflectively and formatively measured constructs (Hair et al., 2014). On one hand, reflective measurement models are evaluated on their internal consistency reliability and validity. Some of the specific measures of reflectively measurement constructs comprise the composite reliability, discriminant validity, and convergent validity. On the other hand, with formative measures, the first stage is to ensure content validity before collecting the data and estimating the PLS path model. Following model estimation, then, formative measures are “assessed for their convergent validity, the significance and relevance and the presence of collinearity among indicators” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 98). It is important to mention that this study is reflective in nature.

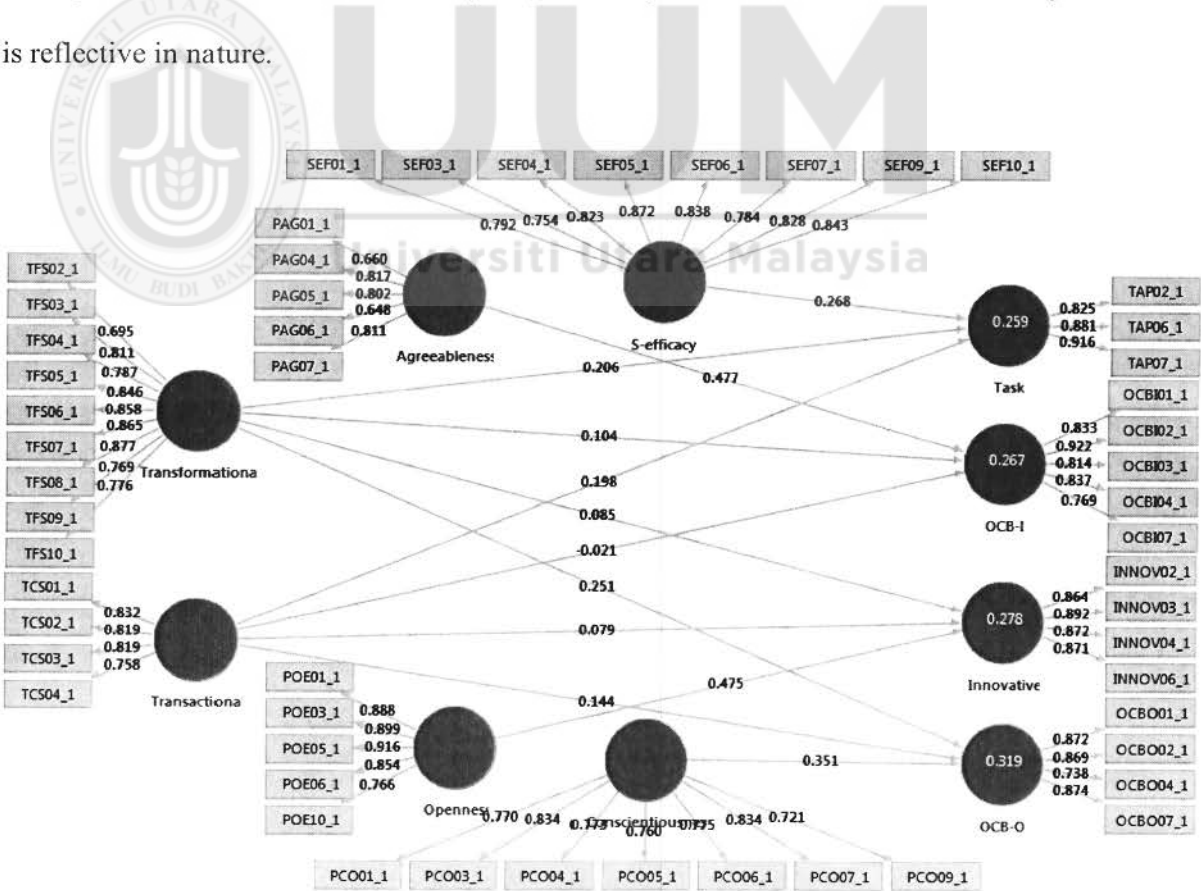


Figure 4.2
Measurement Model of the study

Furthermore, this section discusses the properties that attempt to ensure that measurement error is kept to a minimum. The first aspect is validity, which entails whether a tool measures what it sets out to measure (Field, 2009, p. 11). The second element is reliability, which is whether an instrument is free from random error. In other words, reliability is an indication of whether a scale or an instrument can be interpreted consistently across time and across the various items in the measuring instrument. We will now discuss the various types of validity and reliability as well as Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

4.8.1 Content Validity

Content validity refers to “evidence that the content of a test corresponds to the content of the construct it was designed to cover” (Field, 2009, p. 783). In other words, content validity is the extent to which measurement scales cover sufficiently the questions under investigation (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Put another way, the data are considered to be contently validated if experts agree that the instruments of the study include items that are able to cover all variables that are being measured (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Hair, et al., 2010; Sekaran, 2006). In a related development, Hair, et al. (2007) noted that validation involves consulting a small sample of distinctive respondents and/or experts to pass judgments on the appropriateness of the items selected to represent the construct. Hair et al. (2010) argued that content validity or face validity of a scale encompass a regular but subjective evaluation of a scale’s ability to assess what it is supposed to measure. According to, Sekaran (2003), “face validity is considered by some as a basic and a very minimum index of content validity” (p. 206).

Following the above suggestions, the instrument of this study has been checked by experts in the area of human resource management and leadership field to insure that the instrument is comprehensive, relevant, and represents the phenomena under measure. Therefore, five experts from Sabha University including senior lecturers have examined the research instrument used in this study and established that it is representative of the constructs under study. Moreover, the researcher conducted four interviews with employees who are working in some organizations similar to those of the target population. Hence, the selection of the measurement items was premised on generally accepted procedures and practices designed to obtain content validity (Cronbach, 1951; Straub, 1989). As such, it is therefore pertinent to suggest that the measurement scales representing the main constructs of the present study have met or fulfilled the content validity criteria. Nevertheless, content validity alone is not enough to determine the whole validity of the data; therefore, other types of validity have to be checked.

4.8.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is one of the most frequently used criteria to support construct validity. It refers to the extent to which items truly represent the intended latent construct and indeed correlate with other measures of the same latent construct (Hair et al., 2006). To put it differently, convergent validity is “the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 103). Convergent validity was evaluated by examining the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of each latent construct, as indicated by Fornell and Larcker (1981). To attain adequate convergent validity, Chin (1998) recommends that the AVE of each latent construct should be .50 or more. Following the guide

developed by Chin (1998), the AVE values in this study (see Table 4.21) exhibited high loadings ($> .50$) on their respective constructs, indicating adequate convergent validity.

4.8.3 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a construct is truly different or distinct from other latent constructs by empirical standards (Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Hair et al., 2014). In a way, establishing discriminant validity suggests that a construct is unique and captures phenomena not represented by other constructs in the measurement model. As indicated by Dunn et al (1994), discriminant validity relies on the degree to which scales measure distinct constructs.

Two measures of discriminant validity were used in the present study, namely, (1) the Fornell-Larcker criterion, and (2) by examining the cross loadings of the indicators. Notably, the Fornell-Larcker criterion is a more conservative or traditional approach to assessing discriminant validity, and it compares the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations. First, as a rule of thumb for evaluating discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggest the use of AVE with a score of .50 or more. To put it differently, the loading of the item on its factor should be at least .50 or above. To attain adequate discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker (1981) further proposed that the square root of the AVE should be larger than the correlations among latent constructs.

Table 4.16

Latent Variable Correlations and Square Roots of Average Variance Extracted

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Agreeableness	.751									
Conscientiousness	.406	.782								
Innovative	.208	.252	.875							
OCB-I	.509	.407	.311	.836						
OCB-O	.196	.462	.304	.408	.840					
Openness to experience	.313	.481	.510	.255	.310	.866				
S-efficacy	.398	.458	.396	.374	.505	.479	.818			
Task	.279	.311	.272	.301	.475	.203	.394	.875		
Transactional	.168	.120	.188	.107	.303	.146	.230	.355	.807	
Transformational	.343	.371	.253	.258	.449	.278	.389	.402	.461	.811

Note: Entries shown in bold face represent the square root of the average variance extracted.

Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, discriminant validity can be ascertained comparing the indicator loadings with cross-loadings (Chin, 1998). To achieve adequate discriminant validity, Chin (1998) suggests that all the indicator loadings should be higher than the cross-loadings. Table 4.17 compares the indicator loadings with other reflective indicators. All indicator loadings were greater than the cross loadings, suggesting adequate discriminant validity for further analysis.

Table 4.17

Cross Loadings

	PAG	PCO	INNO	OCBI	OCBO	POE	SEF	TAP	TCS	TFS
INNOV02	0.146	0.222	0.864	0.330	0.301	0.440	0.336	0.249	0.131	0.171
INNOV03	0.217	0.232	0.892	0.245	0.257	0.462	0.379	0.255	0.180	0.273
INNOV04	0.200	0.165	0.872	0.206	0.206	0.441	0.331	0.187	0.138	0.149
INNOV06	0.165	0.258	0.871	0.308	0.299	0.440	0.338	0.257	0.204	0.284
OCBI01	0.410	0.268	0.190	0.833	0.289	0.105	0.243	0.233	0.055	0.199
OCBI02	0.490	0.436	0.320	0.922	0.349	0.270	0.346	0.245	0.138	0.233
OCBI03	0.325	0.333	0.218	0.814	0.374	0.228	0.247	0.255	0.081	0.190
OCBI04	0.436	0.334	0.272	0.837	0.287	0.212	0.269	0.193	0.110	0.245
OCBI07	0.438	0.319	0.282	0.769	0.414	0.242	0.439	0.335	0.053	0.204
OCBO01	0.182	0.325	0.210	0.308	0.872	0.195	0.397	0.374	0.233	0.349
OCBO02	0.196	0.381	0.278	0.421	0.869	0.264	0.409	0.354	0.280	0.377
OCBO04	0.148	0.401	0.227	0.273	0.738	0.318	0.402	0.471	0.289	0.361
OCBO07	0.135	0.430	0.295	0.359	0.874	0.252	0.475	0.387	0.210	0.411
PAG01	0.660	0.336	0.096	0.340	0.036	0.161	0.187	0.103	0.103	0.248
PAG04	0.817	0.312	0.222	0.427	0.239	0.265	0.359	0.310	0.134	0.311

Table 4.17 (Continued)

	PAG	PCO	INNO	OCBI	OCBO	POE	SEF	TAP	TCS	TFS
PAG05	0.802	0.262	0.157	0.369	0.180	0.222	0.318	0.220	0.080	0.165
PAG06	0.648	0.279	0.026	0.289	0.111	0.150	0.215	0.156	0.143	0.224
PAG07	0.811	0.338	0.229	0.456	0.147	0.336	0.377	0.230	0.167	0.321
PCO01	0.301	0.770	0.318	0.332	0.395	0.405	0.412	0.332	0.068	0.377
PCO03	0.351	0.834	0.240	0.420	0.359	0.457	0.474	0.265	0.105	0.380
PCO04	0.311	0.773	0.129	0.220	0.286	0.305	0.249	0.173	0.035	0.197
PCO05	0.252	0.760	0.134	0.267	0.335	0.307	0.255	0.210	0.069	0.176
PCO06	0.376	0.775	0.232	0.387	0.407	0.388	0.415	0.280	0.129	0.329
PCO07	0.341	0.834	0.139	0.305	0.382	0.404	0.375	0.207	0.091	0.332
PCO09	0.276	0.721	0.151	0.264	0.337	0.339	0.278	0.204	0.145	0.196
POE01	0.247	0.479	0.465	0.243	0.296	0.888	0.402	0.181	0.076	0.230
POE03	0.301	0.443	0.447	0.201	0.282	0.899	0.437	0.178	0.041	0.188
POE05	0.300	0.414	0.457	0.192	0.310	0.916	0.434	0.169	0.129	0.233
POE06	0.284	0.397	0.461	0.272	0.250	0.854	0.408	0.179	0.188	0.268
POE10	0.216	0.341	0.369	0.190	0.192	0.766	0.398	0.172	0.216	0.297
SEF01	0.355	0.430	0.277	0.276	0.388	0.449	0.792	0.294	0.178	0.250
SEF03	0.371	0.421	0.387	0.371	0.385	0.432	0.754	0.311	0.108	0.285
SEF04	0.293	0.373	0.360	0.253	0.358	0.443	0.823	0.269	0.176	0.304
SEF05	0.358	0.380	0.366	0.407	0.439	0.407	0.872	0.323	0.163	0.347
SEF06	0.361	0.344	0.297	0.220	0.403	0.357	0.838	0.356	0.237	0.312
SEF07	0.242	0.233	0.313	0.286	0.432	0.321	0.784	0.280	0.166	0.298
SEF09	0.313	0.379	0.308	0.358	0.454	0.347	0.828	0.363	0.229	0.345
SEF10	0.303	0.421	0.298	0.272	0.429	0.398	0.843	0.355	0.229	0.384
TAP02	0.360	0.335	0.249	0.331	0.434	0.239	0.359	0.825	0.313	0.362
TAP06	0.157	0.200	0.250	0.258	0.400	0.131	0.334	0.881	0.313	0.318
TAP07	0.209	0.275	0.214	0.197	0.409	0.157	0.338	0.916	0.304	0.372
TCS01	0.146	0.083	0.204	0.070	0.251	0.104	0.233	0.268	0.832	0.366
TCS02	0.014	0.087	0.110	-0.023	0.190	0.138	0.125	0.266	0.819	0.347
TCS03	0.196	0.139	0.134	0.111	0.303	0.117	0.233	0.307	0.819	0.485
TCS04	0.153	0.073	0.151	0.160	0.215	0.117	0.134	0.299	0.758	0.275
TFS02	0.210	0.275	0.148	0.123	0.223	0.132	0.196	0.260	0.312	0.695
TFS03	0.261	0.323	0.237	0.276	0.378	0.218	0.388	0.366	0.369	0.811
TFS04	0.286	0.285	0.100	0.149	0.355	0.200	0.348	0.355	0.344	0.787
TFS05	0.328	0.310	0.229	0.203	0.398	0.305	0.353	0.424	0.436	0.846
TFS06	0.334	0.344	0.207	0.282	0.377	0.301	0.326	0.290	0.416	0.858
TFS07	0.304	0.309	0.216	0.156	0.403	0.249	0.343	0.376	0.435	0.865
TFS08	0.283	0.288	0.275	0.212	0.408	0.256	0.290	0.324	0.414	0.877
TFS09	0.212	0.220	0.154	0.117	0.295	0.148	0.246	0.180	0.315	0.769
TFS10	0.252	0.335	0.236	0.303	0.378	0.162	0.300	0.296	0.299	0.776

4.8.4 Criterion Validity

One approach to ensure that measurement error is kept at bay is to determine criterion validity, which is whether an instrument is measuring what it sets out to

measure. Essentially, criterion validity seeks to assess whether a given measure relates well to a current or future criterion (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Put another way, criterion validity concerns the association between scale scores and some specified, measurable criterion (Pallant, 2010). For one thing such validity can be established by assuring both the concurrent and predictive validities (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Sekaran, 2006; Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). In other words, concurrent or predictive validity are both measures of criterion validity. As noted by Bhattacharjee (2012) concurrent validity is established when the scale discriminates individuals who are known to be different. To put it differently, concurrent validity utilises an already existing and well-accepted measure against which the new measure can be compared. Meanwhile, predictive validity entails the ability of an instrument to differentiate among individuals with reference to future criterion. In a way, predictive validity measures the extent to which a measure or scale can predict a future event of interest. In reality, many different techniques can be used to assess the criterion validity or determine the degree of the collinearity between the predictors. Some of the most commonly used techniques include Pearson correlations, Tolerance Value, and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). As suggested by Hair, et al. (2007), when the correlation between two independent variables is higher than 0.8, it can be an indicator of the existence or presence of multicollinearity, which can deteriorate the results of the analysis.

Performing the correlation assessment of the variables of the present study yielded the correlations depicted in Table 4.18. It is evident that the correlations between all predictor variables were significant at the given levels. Moreover, the table indicates that there is no multicollinearity between the given variables since the Pearson

correlation of all variables is lower than 0.8, which indicates that there are no multicollinearity problems between the variables.

Table 4.18
Correlation Matrix of the Exogenous Latent Constructs

No	Latent constructs	1	2
1	Transformational	1	
2	Transactional	0.46**	1

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

The analysis also tested Tolerance Value, and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) to ensure that no serious collinearity problems were present among the independent variables that might blight the accuracy and stability of the next steps of the analysis. As generally accepted, multicollinearity can be achieved by testing the tolerance value and the variance inflation factor (VIF) (Pallant, 2001). Notably, the tolerance value is an indicator of the outcome variable prediction that uses other independent variables in the regression equation. Meanwhile, VIF is an indicator of other predictor (independent) variables that have an effect on the standard error of a regression coefficient. As indicated by Hair *et al.* (2010) VIF is the inverse of the tolerance value. It should be noted that multicollinearity is present when the results indicate a tolerance value below or equal to 0.10 and a VIF that is higher than or equal to 10 (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). From the tolerance value and VIF listed in Table 4.19, the multicollinearity among variables is found to be very low. Using Tolerance value each independent variable has a tolerance value greater than .1 which can lead us to conclude that all variables in the model are free from multicollinearity challenges.

Table 4.19

Multicollinearity Test Based on Assessment of Tolerance and VIF Values

Independent Variables	Tolerance	VIF
Transformational	0.795	1.257
Transactional	0.795	1.257

Source: The Researcher

Meanwhile, Table 4.19 indicates that multicollinearity did not exist among the exogenous latent constructs as all VIF values were less than 10, and tolerance values exceeded .10, as suggested by Hair *et al.* (2010). Therefore, multicollinearity is not an issue in the current study.

4.8.5 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

This section presents results of confirmatory factor analysis for this study using the PLS principal component analysis (PCA). All things considered, confirmatory factor analysis is a type of factor analysis in “which specific hypotheses about structure and relations between the latent variables that underlie the data are tested” (Field, 2009, p.783). All the constructs’ measurements for the present study were adopted from existing studies; hence, there is no need to conduct exploratory data analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Notably, PLS CFA using the PLS-inbuilt principal component analysis is used to determine the structure of the constructs. Meanwhile, the leadership style construct (transformational and transactional) is measured using the Bass *et al* (1991) 15-item measurement; whilst the employees’ characteristics construct is measured using the John *et al*’s., (1991) 9-item measurement for agreeableness, 9-item measurement for conscientiousness, 10-item measurement for openness to experience, and self-efficacy is measured using the Schwarzer *et al* (1995) 10-item measurement. Finally the job performance construct is measured using the Williams and Anderson’s (1991) 7-item measurement for task performance, 7-item

measurement for OCB-O, 7-item measurement for OCB-I, and innovative behaviours is measured using the Moon et al (2005) 6-item measurement. After the confirmatory factor analysis using the PLS principal component analysis was performed, out of the initial 80 items from the initial 10 constructs of this study, a total of 54 items and 10 constructs were retained for further analysis (as indicated in Table 4.17).

The main predictors or independent variables of this study are transformational and transactional leadership styles. The constructs of both leadership styles were originally measured by 15 items of Bass *et al* (1991) 15-item instrument. After the PLS PCA 13 items and the two constructs (transformational and transactional) were retained. Specifically, two (2) items were deleted for low or cross loading. Removing items with low loading increased the total variance explained. The compositions of the retained dimensions (constructs) have been explained individually in the next sections for better understanding.

Firstly, the transformational leadership style was represented by 10 items that were related to manager/supervisor's ability to give vision and sense of mission, instilling pride and gain, respect and trust. After the confirmatory factor analysis, the construct has retained 9 items, indicating that only 1 item was removed. The deleted item is TFS01 (instilling pride in others). On the other hand, the retained items consist of spending time in teaching and coaching, considering moral and ethical consequences of others, considering different needs, abilities, and aspirations of workers, listening to others concerns, encourage others to perform, increasing motivation of others, encourage others to think more creatively, set challenging standards, and get others to rethink never-questioned ideas.

Secondly, the transactional leadership style highlighting manager/supervisor's strong interest on encouraging employees by exchange agreement rewards effort, promises of rewards for better performance was dominated by 4 items including TCS01, TCS02, TCS03, and TCS04. Specifically, these four items are: making clear expectation, taking action before problems are chronic, giving standards to carry out the work, and make agreements with employees. Only one item was deleted which is TCS05 (monitoring performance and keeping track of mistakes).

Next is the moderating variable of this study, which is employees' characteristic. The construct comprises of 38 items and 4 dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and self-efficacy). After the confirmatory factor analysis, the construct has retained its 4 dimensions and 25 items only, indicating that only 13 items were deleted. The deleted items were those that showed a sign of non fit with other items in their components. Firstly, the agreeableness component reflecting the subordinate's tendency to be cooperative, trusting, gentle and kind to others was represented by 9 items. The construct retained 5 items indicating that 4 items were deleted. The retained items included PAG01, PAG04, PAG05, PAG06, and PAG07. Specifically, these five items were: tending to find fault with others, having a forgiving nature, generally trusting, can be cold aloof, and considerate and kind with others.

Secondly, the conscientiousness component reflects the subordinate's persistent, hard work, and motivation towards the pursuit of organizational goal achievement. The construct was at first represented by 9 items. After the confirmatory factor analysis, the construct has retained 7 items only, indicating that only 2 items were deleted. The

retained 7 items include PCO01, PCO03, PCO04, PCO05, PCO06, PCO07, and PCO09. Explicitly, these seven items include: doing a thorough job, reliable worker, tending to be disorganized, tending to be lazy, perseveres at tasks, doing things efficiently and easily distracted. Thirdly, openness to experience was represented by 10 items that were related to the subordinates' tendency to be insightful, creative, resourceful, imaginative, and introspective individual. After the confirmatory factor analysis, the construct retained 5 items, indicating that only 5 items were deleted. The retained items comprise the following: coming up with new ideas, ingenious, deep thinker, inventive, values artistic, and sophisticated in art.

Fourthly, self-efficacy component reflecting the subordinate's self-beliefs in his or her ability to do particular job tasks was represented by 10 items. . After the confirmatory factor analysis, the construct retained 8 items indicating that 2 items were deleted. The deleted items were those that showed a sign of non fit with other items in their components. The retained items included SEF01, SEF03, SEF04, SEF05, SEF06, SEF07, SEF09 and SEF10. Specifically, these eight items include: solve difficult problems if try hard enough, stick to aims and accomplish goals, dealing efficiently with unexpected events, dealing with unforeseen situations, solving problems if necessary effort invested, remain calm when facing difficulties, thinking of solution when trouble arise, and handling whatever comes in way.

Finally, is the dependent variable of this study, which is employees' job performance. The construct was originally a multidimensional construct comprising of 27 items and 4 dimensions (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours). After the confirmatory factor analysis, the construct has retained its 4

dimensions and 16 items only, indicating that only 11 items were deleted. The deleted items were those that showed a sign of non fit with other items in their components.

Meanwhile, the task performance component reflecting the subordinate's contribution to the work was represented by 7 items. The construct retained 3 items indicating that 4 items were deleted. The retained items including: TAP02, TAP06, and TAP07. Specifically, these three items include: fulfil responsibilities/tasks specified in job description, neglect aspects of the job, and fail to perform essential duties.

On the other hand, the OCB-O component reflects the subordinate's efforts toward helping the whole organization. The construct was at first represented by 7 items. After the confirmatory factor analysis, the construct has retained 4 items only, indicating that only 3 items were deleted. The retained 4 items including: OCBO01, OCBO02, OCBO04 and OCBO07. Specifically, these four items include: attendance at work is above norm, give advance notice when unable to come to work, spending time with personal phone conversations, and adhere to informal rules devised to maintain orders.

The OCB-I was represented by 7 items that were related to the subordinates' efforts toward helping individual members in the organization. After the confirmatory factor analysis, the construct has retained 5 items, indicating that only 2 items were deleted. The retained items consist of helping others who have been absent, helping others

with heavy workload, assist supervisor when not asked, listen to co-workers' problems and worries, and passing along information to co-workers.

Finally, innovative behaviours component reflecting the subordinate's effort to be innovator and create new way to do the work was represented by 6 items. The construct retained 4 items indicating that 2 items were deleted. The deleted items were those that indicated a sign of non fit with other items in their components. The retained items including: INNOV02, INNOV03, INNOV04, and INNOV06. Specifically, these four items include: adopt improved procedures, institute effective work methods, constructive suggestions for improving how thing operate, and speaks up new changes.

4.8.6 Individual Item Reliability

Individual item reliability was assessed by examining the outer loadings of each construct's measure as suggested by several scholars (Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012; Hulland, 1999). In line with the rule of thumb for retaining items with loadings between .60 and .70 (Hair et al., 2014), it was discovered that out of 80 items, 10 were deleted because they presented loadings below the threshold of 0.60. Moreover, 16 items were deleted because of cross loading. Thus, in the whole model, only 54 items were retained as they had loadings between 0.648 and 0.922 (see Table 4.21).

4.8.7 Internal Consistency Reliability

Internal consistency reliability refers to the degree to which all items on a particular (sub) scale are measuring the same concept (Bijttebier et al., 2000; Sun et al., 2007).

Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient are the most commonly used estimators of the internal consistency reliability of an instrument in organizational research (see Bacon, Sauer, & Young, 1995; Hair et al., 2014; McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, 2011; Peterson & Kim, 2013). However, it should be noted that, Cronbach's alpha is often utilised as a conservative measure or estimator of internal consistency reliability because of its sensitivity to the number of items in the scale. As a result, it generally tends to underestimate the internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2014). Apparently, due to the limits of the Cronbach alpha's estimator in the population, it is more ideal to use a different measure of internal consistency reliability, namely, composite reliability. Nonetheless, in this study, both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability coefficient was adopted to ascertain the internal consistency reliability of measures adapted.

As can be seen this section discusses the results of reliability. Scale reliability was determined in terms of items-to-total correlation. The Cronbach's alpha was utilised to assess the internal consistency of the measurement scale. All things considered reliability is a type of association used to correlate a variable with itself and is typically used to determine inter-rater similarity on a variable. Furthermore, reliability can simply be defined as "consistency". It raises the following question: "do we get the same results time after time". As noted by Babbie (2001) despite the repeated application of the same procedures, reliability should obtain the same results for the same study. Nonetheless, measurement is considered reliable if it produces the same results when the same technique is applied repeatedly on the same participants over various periods of time. The reliability of the scale can be measured

by the Cronbach's alpha, which ranges from 0 to 1. In this regard, the closer the Cronbach's alpha is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. As suggested by Hair *et al.* (1998), a value of 0.6 is the generally accepted alpha value for research, a bit above the minimum of 0.5 suggested by Nunnally (1978). However, in line with the rule of thumb by George and Mallery (2003), alpha values greater than 0.9 are considered excellent, higher than 0.8 are deemed good and higher than 0.7 are regarded as acceptable. Furthermore, George and Mallery (2003) considers alpha levels as low as 0.6 as questionable and those that are less than 0.5 as unacceptable.

In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine the internal consistency of the measured items. Results of the reliability test for each factor were summarized after each factor analysis. To this end reliability analysis was performed on the 10 dimensions extracted (i.e. transformational, transactional, conscientiousness, Agreeableness, openness to experience, self-efficacy, task performance, innovative behaviour, organizational citizenship behaviours that benefit the individual (OCB-I), and organizational citizenship behaviours that benefit the organization (OCB-O)). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was applied for each variable or construct, and the findings are depicted in Table 4.20. The internal consistency of the scales ranged from 0.80 (agreeableness) to 0.93 (transformational leadership), which suggests that the specified indicators are sufficient for use (Nunnally, 1978). In essence, the Cronbach's alpha of the measures was all above the limit of acceptability which is 0.7 (using George & Mallery scale) or 0.6 (using Hair *et al.* scale).

Table 4.20

Cronbach's Alphas of the Study Variables after Factor Analysis

No. of items	Variables	Alpha	Items dropped after factor analysis
10	Transformational	.935	1
5	Transactional	.822	1
9	Agreeableness	.806	4
9	Conscientiousness	.894	2
10	Openness to experience	.916	5
10	Self-efficacy	.929	2
7	Task performance	.846	4
7	OCB-O	.859	3
7	OCB-I	.892	2
6	Innovative behaviour	.898	2

On the other hand, two compelling reasons justified the use of the composite reliability coefficient. Firstly, composite reliability coefficient provides a much less biased estimate of reliability than Cronbach's alpha coefficient because the latter assumes all items contribute equally to its construct without considering the actual contribution of individual loadings (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995; Hair et al., 2014; Gotz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010). In other words, Cronbach's alpha assumes that all dimensions or indicators are equally reliable or have equal outer loadings on the construct (Hair et al., 2014). On the contrary, PLS-SEM prioritizes the indicators in accordance to their individual reliability.

Secondly, Cronbach's alpha may over or under-estimate the scale reliability. The composite reliability takes into account that indicators have different loadings and can be interpreted or deduced in the same way as Cronbach's alpha (that is, no matter which particular reliability coefficient is utilised, an internal consistency reliability value above .70 is considered as satisfactory for an adequate model, whereas a value below .60 indicates a lack of reliability). Nonetheless, the interpretation of internal consistency reliability using composite reliability coefficient was premised on the

rule of thumb outlined by Bagozzi and Yi (1988) as well as Hair et al (2011), who indicated that 0.70 is a good benchmark for accepting the Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability of a construct.

Table 4.21
Loadings, Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted

Latent constructs and indicators	Standardized Loadings	Composite Reliability (ρ_c)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Transformational leadership		.945	.658
TFS02	.695		
TFS03	.811		
TFS04	.787		
TFS05	.846		
TFS06	.858		
TFS07	.865		
TFS08	.877		
TFS09	.769		
TFS10	.776		
Transactional leadership		.882	.652
TCS01	.832		
TCS02	.819		
TCS03	.819		
TCS04	.758		
Agreeableness		.865	.565
PAG01	.660		
PAG04	.817		
PAG05	.802		
PAG06	.648		
PAG07	.811		
Conscientiousness		.917	.611
PCO01	.770		
PCO03	.834		
PCO04	.773		
PCO05	.760		
PCO06	.775		
PCO07	.834		
PCO09	.721		
Openness to experience		.937	.750
POE01	.888		
POE03	.899		
POE05	.916		
POE06	.854		
POE10	.766		

Table 4.21 (Continued)

Latent constructs and indicators	Standardized Loadings	Composite Reliability (ρ_c)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Self-efficacy		.942	.668
SEF01	.792		
SEF03	.754		
SEF04	.823		
SEF05	.872		
SEF06	.838		
SEF07	.784		
SEF09	.828		
SEF10	.843		
Task performance		.907	.765
TAP02	.825		
TAP06	.881		
TAP07	.916		
OCB-O		.905	.706
OCBO01	.872		
OCBO02	.869		
OCBO04	.738		
OCBO07	.874		
OCB-I		.921	.700
OCBI01	.833		
OCBI02	.922		
OCBI03	.814		
OCBI04	.837		
OCBI07	.769		
Innovative behaviours		.929	.765
INNOV02	.864		
INNOV03	.892		
INNOV04	.872		
INNOV06	.871		

Source: The Researcher

To calculate composite reliability for the study, below is the formula as suggested by previous researchers (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2006).

$$\text{Composite Reliability (CR)} = \frac{\Sigma (\text{Factor Loading}^2)}{\Sigma (\text{Factor Loading}^2) + \Sigma \epsilon_j}$$

Equation 4.1

Where CR = Composite Reliability

Σ = Summation, ϵ_j = standardized error

As displayed in Table 4.21, the composite reliability coefficient of each latent constructs ranged from .865 to .945, with each exceeding the minimum acceptable level of .70, suggesting adequate internal consistency reliability of the measures utilised in the present study (see Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2011).

4.9 Level of Job Performance (Task and OCB) Among Employees' of Libyan Oil Organizations

The first research question dealt with job performance level among employees' of Libyan oil organizations. This necessitates an analysis by mean test to assess the level of employees' performance. As indicated in Table 4.22, the job performance level among employees of Libyan oil organizations as perceived by the leaders (supervisors) was deemed "moderate" (mean= 3.34).

Table 4.22

Mean Values of Employees' Performance (Task & OCB) (n = 191)

Variables	Mean
Task performance	3.3839
OCB-O	3.5628
OCB-I	3.3011
Innovative behaviors	3.1336

N = 191. 5-point scale, in which 1 means strongly disagree, and 5 means strongly agree.

4.10 Assessment of Significance of the Structural Model

Having ascertained the measurement model, this section presents results of the structural model as well as the findings of the statistical tests of the hypotheses tests of the study. Notably, the section is particularly concerned with testing of the hypotheses related to the main and moderating effects. The present study also adopted the bootstrapping technique comprising 500 bootstrap samples and 191 cases to assess significance of the path coefficients (Hair et al., 2014). Figure 4.3, therefore, show the estimates for the full structural model, which contain moderator variables (i.e., agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and self-efficacy).

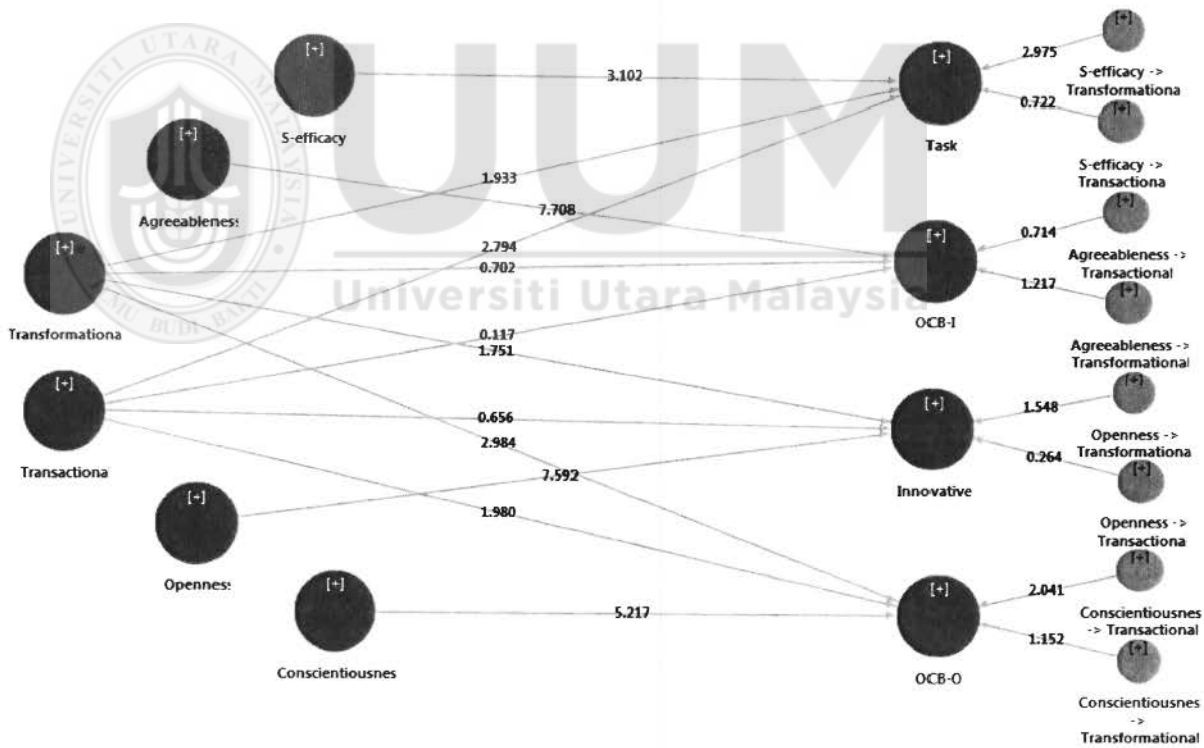


Figure 4.3
Structural Model with Moderator (Full Model)

4.10.1 Main Effects

To understand the main relationship effects within the variables or constructs, SEM PLS structural model analysis was undertaken. The individual contribution of each exogenous variable is represented by the standardized beta values within the PLS structural model (Chin, 1998b). For that reason, the results of the main effect are in one main section. This section presents main effects results for leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and employees' job performance constructs (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and Innovative behaviours) as earlier hypothesized. All the relationships are represented by standardized beta values. In testing the structural model relationships, the choice of significance level was set at $p < .05$ and $p < .01$ (Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Hair *et al.*, 2010), the value .1 also can be accepted as significant level (Ang, Davies & Finlay, 2001; Speed, 1994). Speed (1994) revealed that the rationale behind accept .1 as significant level is the sample size of the study.

Table 4.23
Structural Model Assessment for the direct relations

Path Coefficients	Beta	SE	T-Value	Findings
Transformational-> Task	0.206**	0.078	1.933	Supported
Transactional-> Task	0.198***	0.075	2.794	Supported
Transformational-> OCB-O	0.251***	0.077	2.984	Supported
Transactional-> OCB-O	0.144**	0.070	1.980	Supported
Transformational-> OCB-I	0.104	0.074	0.702	Not Supported
Transactional-> OCB-I	-0.021	0.078	0.117	Not Supported
Transformational-> Innovative	0.085**	0.076	1.751	Supported
Transactional-> Innovative	0.079	0.068	0.656	Not Supported

Note: ***Significant at 0.01 (1-tailed), **significant at 0.05 (1-tailed), *significant at 0.1 (1-tailed).

Table 4.23 shows the standardized path coefficient (β), standard error, t-values and decision taken. Similarly, Figures 4.3 and 4.2 graphically indicate standardized path coefficient (β) and t-values for the hypothesized relationships. As captured in the

figures and Table 4.23, five out of the eight direct relationships between the two leadership styles and four job performance constructs have demonstrated significant positive effects. Therefore, three paths have demonstrated non-significant effects. The five significant relationships include: Firstly, Hypothesis 1 predicted that transformational leadership style is positively related to task performance. Results captured in Table 4.23 and Figure 4.3 show a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership style and task performance ($\beta = 0.206$, $t = 1.933$, $p < 0.027$), supporting Hypothesis 1. Secondly, concerning the influence of transactional leadership style on task performance, the results indicate that transactional leadership has a significant positive relationship with task performance ($\beta = 0.198$, $t = 2.794$, $p < 0.003$). Hence, Hypothesis 2 was fully supported.

Thirdly, transformational leadership was also predicted to be positively related to OCB-O (Hypothesis 3). As indicated by the results a significant positive relationship between transformational style and OCB-O ($\beta = 0.251$, $t = 2.984$, $p < 0.001$) was established. As such, Hypothesis 3 was supported. Fourthly, Hypothesis 4, which predicted a positive relationship between transactional style and OCB-O was supported because the estimates from the PLS model were significant ($\beta = 0.144$, $t = 1.980$, $p > 0.024$). Fifthly, in determining the influence of transformational leadership style on innovative behaviours, results reveal that that transformational leadership style has a significant positive relationship with innovative behaviours ($\beta = 0.085$, $t = 1.751$, $p < 0.040$). Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported or confirmed.

In a way, the results show that under a condition of transformational leader behaviour, followers show high task performance ($\beta = 0.206$, $t = 1.933$, $p < 0.027$).

To put it differently, whenever a leader exhibits inspirational motivation towards his followers by typically and specifically stresses to his followers the need for high performance and assists the followers in accomplishing set organizational goals and objectives, the followers reciprocate strongly by working hard to accomplish job tasks. The results also demonstrate that when a leader exhibits transactional leadership style, followers react by increasing their effort to accomplishing their tasks ($\beta = 0.198$, $t = 2.794$, $p < 0.003$). The two independent variables impacted on the outcome variable in the direction hypothesized. Hence, better employee' job performance (task performance) can be obtained when employees' work under transformational and transactional leaders or supervisors. With this in mind the results support the contention that employees' task performance can be affected by transformational leadership style more than its affected by transactional leadership style.

In much the same way as established by previous results, the findings have also demonstrated that the transformational leadership style strongly influences follower citizenship behaviours that are linked to the whole organization ($\beta = 0.251$, $t = 2.984$, $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, employees perform OCB that benefit the whole organization (OCB-O) when a leader or supervisor exhibits his/her ability to treat subordinates as individuals and accords everyone equal and fair treatment. Through this medium, individual's needs are easily identified and tasks are delegated to subordinates in order to create an opportunity for learning and growth (individualized consideration). Examples of OCB-O include offering useful suggestion for improvement, outstanding work performance, protecting organizational image, perseverance when facing apparent difficulties etcetera.

Likewise, results have also revealed that transactional leadership style also leads to moderate level of citizenship behaviours that benefit the whole organization ($\beta = 0.144$, $t = 1.980$, $p > 0.024$). By the same token, results have also demonstrated that the transformational leadership style has a positive influence or impact on employee innovative behaviours ($\beta = 0.085$, $t = 1.751$, $p < 0.040$). To put it another way, employees perform innovative behaviours when a leader or supervisor exhibit his/her ability to treat subordinates as individuals and accords everyone equal and fair treatment. Through this medium, individual's needs are easily identified and tasks are delegated to subordinates in order to create an opportunity for learning and growth (individualized consideration).

Equally important, the results demonstrate that among the two independent variables (predictors) of task performance, transformational leadership style has the highest significant standardized beta coefficient ($\beta = 0.206$), which demonstrates that the predictor is the most important variable in predicting task performance. In much the same way, among the two predictors of OCB-O, transformational leadership style has the highest significant standardized beta coefficient ($\beta = 0.251$), which indicates that transformational behaviours are the most important variables in predicting the OCB-O. Furthermore, the findings show that only transformational leadership style has a positive significant influences on innovative behaviours ($\beta = 0.085$), but, its influence was smaller than its influence on the other two variables. This differential influence is scarcely surprising because positive leader behaviour impacts the organization's operations by enhancing employees' skills which may likely be a catalyst in improving the employees' job performance.

On the other hand, the non-significant paths concerning the leadership style (transformational and transactional), OCB-I and innovative behaviours include: (1) transformational style and OCB-I ($\beta = 0.104$; $t = 0.702$, $p < .242$); (2) transactional leadership style and OCB-I ($\beta = -0.021$; $t = 0.117$, $p < .454$); (3) transactional leadership style and innovative behaviours ($\beta = 0.144$; $t = 0.656$, $p < .256$). Elaborately, the non-significant results show that: (1) leader behaviour which focuses on the ability to motivate their subordinates to do more than what is initially expected of them (transformational leadership style), does not produce a significant impact on OCB-I; (2) leader behaviour directed at motivating subordinates primarily through conditional reward-based exchange (transactional leadership style) does not show any significant relationship with OCB-I. The not significant relationship between transactional leader behaviour and OCB-I is not surprising considering that transactional leaders have a small direct effect on promoting OCB; (3) transactional leadership style also does not yield any significant effect on employees' innovative behaviours.

All in all, insignificant results regarding relationships between transformational and transactional leadership styles and the two job performance constructs appear to be unexpected and surprising. These findings appear surprising because the exhibited transformational and transactional leadership styles were expected to have positive effect on employees' job performance (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006), including OCB-I and innovative behaviours. To sum up, whilst hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H4, and H7 are supported, hypotheses H5, H6, and H8 are not supported and, therefore, rejected.

4.10.2 Assessment of Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variables

Another key criterion for assessing the structural model in PLS-SEM is the *R*-squared value, which is also identified as the coefficient of determination (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). In a way, the *R*-squared value represents the proportion of variation in the dependent variable(s) that can be explained by one or more predictor variable (Elliott & Woodward, 2007; Hair et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2006). Though the acceptable level of *R*² value relies on the research context as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), Falk and Miller (1992) propose an *R*-squared value of 0.10 as a minimum acceptable level. Meanwhile, Chin (1998) also suggests that the *R*-squared values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 in PLS-SEM can be considered as substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively. Table 4.24 presents the *R*-squared values of the two endogenous latent variables.

Table 4.24

Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variables

Latent Variables	Variance Explained (R ²)
Task performance	26%
OCB-O	32%
OCB-I	27%
Innovative behaviours	28%

Source: The Researcher

As indicated in Table 4.24, the research model explains 26% of the total variance in task performance, 32% of the total variance in OCB-O, and 27% of total variance in OCB-I, and 28% of the total variance in innovative behaviours. This indicates that the six sets of exogenous latent variables (i.e., transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, and self-efficacy) collectively explain 26%, 32%, 27%, and 28% of the variance of the task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours,

respectively. Hence, following Falk and Miller's (1992) and Chin's (1998) criteria, the four endogenous latent variables showed acceptable levels of R-squared values, which were considered as weak. Moreover, the result of R^2 in this study is supported by prior research such as Hair, et al. (2010). As shown in Table 4.25 below:

1. When the $n = 250$ and the number of independent variables is 2, the suggested R^2 is 5 % at $\alpha = 0.01$
2. When $n = 250$ and the number of independent variables is 2 but $\alpha = 0.05$, the suggested R^2 is 4 %.

Because the sample size of this study is 191 (less than 250), but the number of independent variables are 2, $R^2 = 0.26, 0.27, 0.28,$ and 0.32 can be considered a statistically significant value which in turn demonstrate the goodness of the model.

Table 4.25
Acceptable Value of R^2

Sample size	Significance level = 0.01				Significance level = 0.05			
	Number of independent variable				Number of independent variable			
	2	5	10	20	2	5	10	20
20	45	56	71	NA	39	48	64	NA
50	23	29	36	49	19	23	29	42
100	13	16	20	26	10	12	15	21
250	<u>5</u>	7	8	11	<u>4</u>	5	6	8
500	3	3	4	6	3	4	5	9
1000	1	2	2	3	1	1	2	2

Resource: Hair, et.al (2010, p.174)

4.10.3 Assessment of Effect Size (f^2)

Effect size illustrates the relative effect of a specific exogenous latent variable on endogenous latent variable(s) by means of changes in the R -squared (Chin, 1998). It

is computed as the increase in R -squared of the latent variable to which the path is connected, relative to the latent variable's proportion of unexplained variance (Chin, 1998). Hence, as noted by a number of studies (Cohen, 1988; Selya, Rose, Dierker, Hedeker, & Mermelstein, 2012; Wilson, Callaghan, Ringle, & Henseler, 2007) the effect size could be expressed using the following formula:

$$\text{Effect size: } f^2 = \frac{R^2_{Included} - R^2_{Excluded}}{1 - R^2_{Included}}$$

Equation 4.2

Meanwhile, Cohen (1988) presents f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 as having weak, moderate, strong effects respectively. Table 4.26 shows the respective effect sizes of the latent variables of the structural model.

Table 4.26
Effect Sizes of the Latent Variables

Variables	f-squared	Effect Size
Task Performance		
Transformational Leadership Style	0.04	Small
Transactional Leadership style	0.04	Small
OCB-O		
Transformational Leadership Style	0.06	Small
Transactional Leadership Style	0.02	Small
OCB-I		
Transformational Leadership Style	0.01	None
Transactional Leadership Style	0.00	None
Innovative Behaviours		
Transformational Leadership Style	0.00	None
Transactional Leadership style	0.00	None

Source: The Researcher.

As displayed in Table 4.26, the effect sizes for the transformational, and transactional leadership styles on task performance, were 0.04 and 0.04, respectively. Hence, following Cohen's (1988) guideline, the effects sizes of these two exogenous latent variables on task performance can be considered as small. Moreover, it also indicates

that the effect sizes for the transformational, and transactional leadership style on OCB-O, were 0.06 and 0.02, respectively. In much the same way, and in line with Cohen's (1988) guideline, the findings suggest that the effects sizes of these two exogenous latent variables on OCB-O can be considered as small.

Furthermore, Table 4.26 indicates that the effect sizes for the transformational, and transactional leadership style on OCB-I were 0.01, and 0.00 respectively. Similarly, on the basis of Cohen's (1988) guideline for interpretation of the effect size, the results suggest that the effects sizes of these two exogenous latent variables on OCB-I can be considered as none. In much the same way, the table also shows that effect sizes for the transformational and transactional leadership style on innovative behaviours, were 0.00 and 0.00, respectively. Hence, following Cohen's (1988) guideline, the effects sizes of these two exogenous latent variables on innovative behaviours can be considered as none.

4.10.4 Assessment of Predictive Relevance

The current study has applied the Stone-Geisser Q^2 value test of predictive relevance of the research model using blindfolding procedures (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). In essence, this measure is an indicator of the model's predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2014). As indicated by Duarte & Raposo (2010) the Stone-Geisser test of predictive relevance is typically used as a supplementary estimator of goodness-of-fit in partial least squares structural equation modelling. Although the current study used blindfolding to assess the predictive relevance of the research model, it is worth noting that "blindfolding procedure is only applied to endogenous latent variables that have a reflective measurement model operationalization" (Sattler, Völckner,

Riediger & Ringle, 2010, p. 320). Notably, a reflective measurement model “specifies that a latent or unobservable concept causes variation in a set of observable indicators (McMillan & Conner, 2003, p. 1). Hence, because all endogenous latent variables in the present study were reflective in nature, a blindfolding procedure was adopted generally to these endogenous latent variables. Specifically, a cross-validated redundancy measure (Q^2) was adopted to evaluate the predictive relevance of the research model (Chin, 2010; Geisser, 1974; Hair et al., 2014; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012b; Stone, 1974). In essence, the Q^2 is a criterion to assess how well a model predicts the data of omitted cases (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2014). As noted by several researchers, a research model with Q^2 statistic (s) greater than zero is regarded as having predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009). In other words, in the structural model, Q^2 values larger than zero for a certain reflective endogenous latent variable demonstrate the path model’s predictive relevance for this specific construct. Moreover, a research model with higher positive Q^2 values suggests more predictive relevance. As can be seen, Table 4.27 presents the results of the cross-validated redundancy Q^2 test.

Table 4.27
Construct Cross-Validated Redundancy

Total	SSO	SSE	1-SSE/SSO
Task Performance	573	465.098	0.1883
OCB-O	764	600.837	0.2136
OCB-I	955	787.536	0.1754
Innovative Behaviours	764	606.791	0.2058

Source: The Researcher.

As indicated in Table 4.27, the cross-validation redundancy measure Q^2 for all endogenous latent variables were above zero, suggesting predictive relevance of the model (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009).

4.11 Testing Moderating Effect

The current study adopted a product indicator approach using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling to determine and estimate the strength of the moderating effects of employees' characteristics (i.e., agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and self-efficacy) on the relationship between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and job performance (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours), (Henseler & Chin, 2010a; Henseler & Fassott, 2010b). The product term approach is deemed appropriate in this study because the moderating variable is continuous (Rigdon, Schumacker, & Wothke, 1998). After all, a continuous moderating effect is present when the moderating variable is metrically measured such as employee characteristics. As noted by Henseler and Fassott, (2010a) "given that the results of the product term approach are usually equal or superior to those of the group comparison approach, we recommend always using the product term approach" (p. 721).

To apply the product indicator approach in testing the moderating effects of employees' characteristics (i.e., agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and self-efficacy) on the relationship between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and job performance (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours), the product terms between the indicators of the latent independent variable and the indicators of the latent moderator variable need to be created, hence, these product terms would be utilised as indicators of the interaction term in the structural model (Kenny & Judd, 1984). Likewise, to ascertain

the strength of the moderating effects, this study applied Cohen's (1988) guidelines for determining the effect size.

Meanwhile, Figure 4.3 and Table 4.28 reveal the estimates after applying the product indicator approach to ascertain the moderating effect of employee characteristics on the relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent variable.

Table 4.28
Structural Model Assessment for the interaction relations

Path Coefficients	Beta	SE	T-Value	Findings
Transformational*Openness-> Innovative	0.214*	0.138	1.548	Supported
Transactional*Openness-> Innovative	0.041	0.156	0.264	Not Supported
Transformational*Conscientiousness-> OCB-O	-0.135	0.117	1.152	Not Supported
Transactional*Conscientiousness-> OCB-O	-0.302**	0.148	2.041	Supported
Transformational*Agreeableness-> OCB-I	-0.139	0.114	1.217	Not Supported
Transactional*Agreeableness-> OCB-I	-0.153	0.214	0.714	Not Supported
Transformational*Self-efficacy-> Task	-0.382***	0.129	2.975	Supported
Transactional*Self-efficacy-> Task	-0.096	0.132	0.722	Not Supported

Note: ***Significant at 0.01 (1-tailed), **significant at 0.05 (1-tailed), *significant at 0.1 (1-tailed).

It could be recalled that Hypothesis 9 stated that employees' openness to experience moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style innovative behaviours. More specifically, this relationship is stronger, that is, more positive for individuals with high openness to experience than it is for individuals with low openness to experience. As anticipated, the results displayed in Table 4.28, and Figure 4.3 indicate that the interaction terms representing transformational leadership style x openness to experience ($\beta = 0.214$, $t = 1.548$, $p < 0.061$) was statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.1$ (Ang, Davies & Finlay, 2001; Speed, 1994). In that case, Hypothesis 9 was fully supported.

Meanwhile, information from the path coefficients was used to plot the moderating effect of openness to experience on the relationship between transformational leaders style and innovative behaviours, following the procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1993), Dawson and Richter (2002) and Dawson (Marcus et al., 2002). As indicated in Figure 4.4, openness to experience significantly moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovative behaviours. Figure 4.4 demonstrates that the relationship between transformational leadership and innovative behaviours is strongest among the individuals whom display high openness to experience personality and weakest among the individuals whom display low openness to experience personality. In other words, under conditions of high transformational leadership style, individuals possessing higher openness to experience personality had better innovative citizenship behaviour than those possessing low openness to experience personality. In both scenarios either low or high transformational leadership individuals displaying high openness to experience personality have better innovative behaviours.

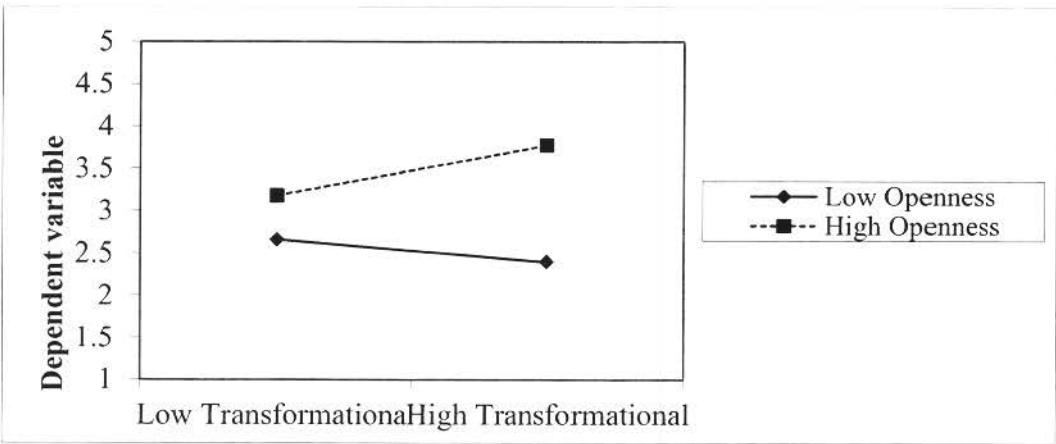


Figure 4.4
Interaction Effect of Transformational Leadership Style and Openness to Experience on Innovative Behaviours

On the other hand, the results displayed in Table 4.28, and Figure 4.3 did not support Hypothesis 10, which posited that openness to experience moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style and innovative behaviours ($\beta = 0.041$, $t = 0.264$, $p > 0.396$). In much the same way, Hypothesis 11, which predicted an interaction between transformational leadership style and conscientiousness with regard to their effect on the incidence of OCB-O was not supported ($\beta = -0.135$, $t = 1.152$, $p > 0.125$).

Meanwhile, Hypothesis 12 stated that conscientiousness moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style and OCB-O. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high conscientiousness than it is for individuals with low conscientiousness ($\beta = -0.302$, $t = 2.041$, $p < 0.021$). The moderating effect of conscientiousness on the relationship between transactional leadership style and OCB-O is depicted in Figure 4.5, which shows a stronger negative relationship between transactional leadership style and OCB-O for individuals with high conscientiousness than it is for individuals with low conscientiousness.

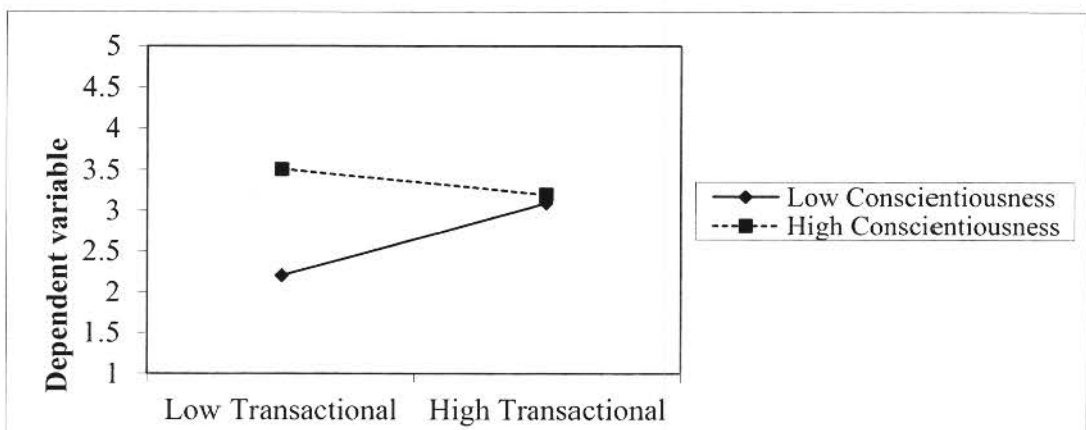


Figure 4.5
Interaction Effect of Transactional Leadership Style and Conscientiousness on OCB-O

As can be seen in Table 4.28, conscientiousness significantly moderated the relationship between transactional leadership with OCB-O. Figure 4.5 shows that conscientiousness dampens the positive relationship between transactional leadership style and OCB-O. Specifically, the relationship between transactional leadership and employees' OCB-O is strongest among the individuals who display low conscientiousness, and weakest among the individuals who display high conscientiousness. In conditions of high transactional leadership there is a reduction in OCB-O between employees who display high conscientiousness. Nonetheless, under condition of high transactional leadership, there is increase in OCB-O between employees who display low conscientiousness. To put it differently, under condition of low transactional leadership, employees with high conscientiousness have better OCB-O than those employees with low conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 13 posited that agreeableness moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and OCBI. the results shown in Table 4.28, Figure 4.3 did not support Hypothesis 13, which posited that Agreeableness moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and OCBI ($\beta = -0.139$, $t = 1.217$, $p > 0.112$). Similarly, Hypothesis 14, which predicted an interaction between transactional leadership style and agreeableness with regard to their effect on the incidence of OCB-I, was not supported ($\beta = -0.153$, $t = 0.714$, $p > 0.238$).

Hypothesis 15 stated that employees' self-efficacy moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and task performance. More specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-efficacy. The results depicted in Table

4.28, and Figure 4.3 indicated that the interaction terms representing transformational leadership style x self-efficacy ($\beta = -0.382$, $t = 2.975$, $p < 0.002$) was statistically negative significant. Information from the path coefficients was used to plot the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between transformational leadership style and task performance, following the procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1993), Dawson and Richter (2002) and Dawson (Marcus et al., 2002). Figure 4.6 also demonstrates that the relationship between transformational leadership style and task performance is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-efficacy.

As indicated in Table 4.28, self-efficacy significantly moderated the relationship between transformational leadership with task performance. Figure 4.6 shows that the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' task performance is strongest among the individuals whom display low self-efficacy and weakest among the individuals whom display high self-efficacy. In conditions of high transformational leadership there is a reduction in task performance between employees whom display high self-efficacy. Nonetheless, under condition of high transformational leadership, there is increase in OCB-O between employees who display low self-efficacy. However, under condition of low transformational leadership, employees with high self-efficacy have better task performance than those employees with low self-efficacy.

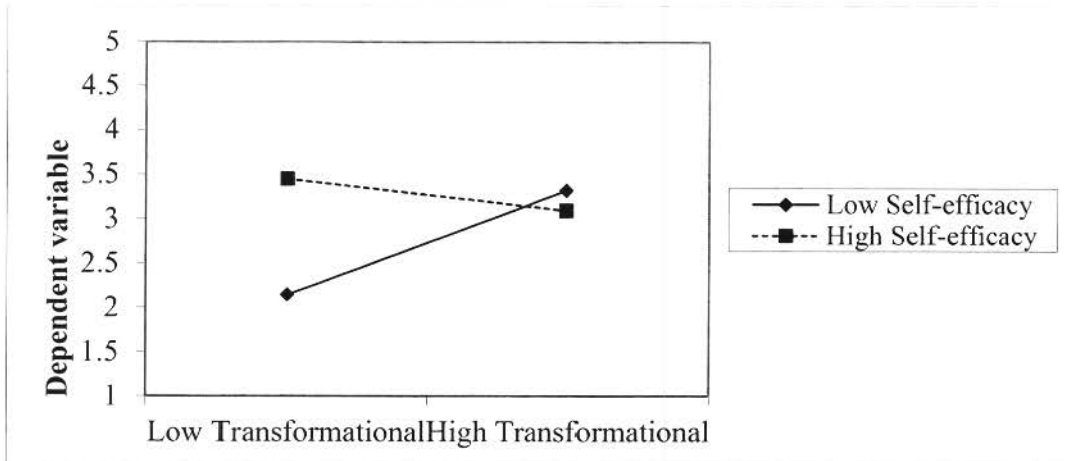


Figure 4.6
Interaction Effect of Transformational Leadership Style and Self-efficacy on Task performance

Finally, the results depicted in Table 4.28 and Figure 4.3 did not support Hypothesis 16, which posited that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style and task performance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-efficacy ($\beta = -0.096, t = 0.722, p > 0.235$).

4.11.1 Determining the Strength of the Moderating Effects

Meanwhile, in order to evaluate the strength of the moderating impact of employees' characteristics (i.e., agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and self-efficacy) on the relationship between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and job performance (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours), Cohen's (1988) effect sizes were calculated. Furthermore, the strength of the moderating effects can be measured by comparing the coefficient of determination (R-squared value) of the main effect model with the R-squared value of the full model that incorporates both exogenous latent variables and moderating variable (see Henseler & Fassott, 2010a; Wilden, Gudergan, Nielsen, &

Lings, 2013). Thus, the strength of the moderating effects could be expressed using the following formula (see Cohen, 1988; Henseler & Fassott, 2010a):

$$\text{Effect size: } f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{model with moderator}} - R^2_{\text{model without moderator}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{model with the moderator}}}$$

Equation 4.3

As can be seen, moderating effect sizes (f^2) values of 0.02 can be considered as small. Meanwhile effect sizes of 0.15 can be regarded as medium, while the effect sizes above 0.35 may be regarded as large (see Cohen, 1988; Henseler & Fassott, 2010a). However, according to Chin *et al.* (2003), a low effect size does not necessarily mean that the underlying moderating effect is insignificant. As suggested by Chin *et al.* (2003), “Even a small interaction effect can be meaningful under extreme moderating conditions, if the resulting beta changes are meaningful, then it is important to take these conditions into account” (p. 211). The results of the strength of the moderating effects of employees’ characteristics (i.e., agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and self-efficacy) are presented in Table 4.29. Following Henseler and Fassott’s (2010b) and Cohen’s (1988) rule of thumb for determining the strength of the moderating effects, Table 4.29 indicates that the effect sizes for task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovative behaviours were .456, .307, .094 and .071, respectively. This suggests that the moderating effect was large, medium, small, and small respectively (c.f., Henseler, Wilson, Götz, & Hautvast, 2007; Wilden et al., 2013).

Table 4.29

Strength of the Moderating Effects

Endogenous Latent Variables	R-squared		f-squared	Effect Size
	Included	Excluded		
Task Performance	.491	.259	.456	Large
OCB-O	.479	.319	.307	Medium
OCB-I	.330	.267	.094	Small
Innovative Behaviours	.326	.278	.071	Small

Source: The Researcher.

4.12 Summary of Findings

Having presented all the results including main and moderating effects in preceding sections, Table 4.30 summarizes the results of all hypotheses tested.

Table 4.30

Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Statement	Finding
H1	There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and employees' task performance.	Supported
H2	There is a significant relationship between transactional leadership and employees' task performance.	Supported
H3	There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and employees' OCB-O.	Supported
H4	There is a significant relationship between transactional leadership and employees' OCB-O.	Supported
H5	There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and employees' OCB-I.	Not Supported
H6	There is a significant relationship between transactional leadership and employees' OCB-I.	Not Supported
H7	There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and employees' innovative behaviours.	Supported
H8	There is a significant relationship between transactional leadership and employees' innovative behaviours.	Not Supported
H9	Openness to experience moderates the relation between transformational leadership styles and employee innovative behaviours.	Supported
H10	Openness to experience moderates the relation between transactional leadership styles and employee innovative behaviours.	Not Supported
H11	Conscientiousness moderates the relation between transformational leadership styles and employee OCB-O.	Not Supported

Table 4.30 (Continued)

H12	Conscientiousness moderates the relation between transactional leadership styles and employee OCB-O.	Supported
H13	Agreeableness moderates the relation between transformational leadership styles and employee OCB-I.	Not Supported
H14	Agreeableness moderates the relation between transactional leadership styles and employee OCB-I.	Not Supported
H15	Self-efficacy moderates the relation between transformational leadership styles and employee task performance.	Supported
H16	Self-efficacy moderates the relation between transactional leadership styles and employee task performance.	Not Supported

Source: The Researcher.

4.13 Other Important Findings

Clearly, the main areas of interests in this study was to explain the current relationship between transformational and transactional leadership style with employees' performance (Task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O and Innovative behaviors) in the Libyan oil companies. However, the other focal area of interest which was examined in this study was to identify the factors that need to be considered as possible moderators in leader-employee relationships such as employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness). Surprisingly, the effect of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness) were much higher than the effect of the independent variables which are transformational and transactional leadership style on the dependent variable employees' performance (Task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O and Innovative behaviours). Therefore, this section was created to explain the relationship between the dimension of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness) and the dimension of employees' performance (Task performance,

OCB-I, OCB-O and Innovative behaviours) even though these relations were not among the key objectives of the study.

Accordingly, the results of the effects of employees' characteristics on the employee's job performance are explained. In the first place the results show that openness to experience had a significant positive relationship with innovative behaviours ($\beta = 0.475$; $t = 7.592$, $p < .000$). In other words, whenever employees exhibit high openness to experience personality, that will affect the employee's innovative behaviours in a positive way and it will lead to higher innovation performance. Secondly, the result indicated that conscientiousness had a significant positive relationship with OCB-O ($\beta = 0.351$, $t = 5.217$, $p < .000$). Put another way, employees perform OCB that benefit the whole organization (OCB-O) when they exhibit high conscientiousness personality.

Thirdly, results have also demonstrated that agreeableness strongly influence employee citizenship behaviours that benefit the individual employees ($\beta = 0.477$; $t = 7.708$, $p < .000$). The results, thus indicate that employees perform OCB that benefit individual employees (OCB-I) when they exhibit high agreeableness personality. Finally, as shown by the results a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and task performance ($\beta = 0.268$, $t = 3.102$, $p < .001$) was established. Hence, the results indicate that employees with high self-efficacy work hard to accomplish their assigned job tasks. From the above it can be deduced that the effect of employees' characteristics on job performance was much higher than the effect of leadership style.

4.14 Chapter Summary

In Chapter Four, we have seen findings from various descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. In essence, this chapter summarizes the findings obtained from data analysis of the survey that was performed to examine the factors that influence employees' job performance in the Libyan oil organizations. A strong case for justifying the use of PLS path modelling to test the theoretical model in this study was made. Following the assessment of significance of the path coefficients, the main results of the study were outlined. Generally, self-report techniques have provided considerable support for the moderating effects of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership style and job performance. More specifically, the path coefficients revealed a significant positive relationship between: (1) Both leadership styles and task performance, (2) transformational and transactional leadership styles and OCB-O, and (3) transformational leadership style and innovative behaviours. On the other hand, the path coefficients did not reveal any relationship between: (1) transactional leadership style and innovative behaviours, and (2) both leadership styles and OCB-I.

More importantly, regarding the moderating effects of employees' characteristics on the relationship between the two predictor variables and four dimensions of job performance, the PLS path coefficients indicated that of the eight formulated hypotheses, three were significant. In particular, employees' characteristics moderate the relations as follows: (1) openness to experience moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and innovative behaviours; (2) conscientiousness moderates the relationship between transactional leadership and OCB-O; and (3) self-efficacy moderates the relationship between transformational

leadership and task performance. On the other hand, the results show that the other five hypotheses were rejected. The next chapter (Chapter Five) will discuss further the findings, followed by implications, limitations, suggestions for future research directions and conclusion.



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CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the findings of this study are presented. Out of the 16 research hypotheses formulated for the study, eight hypotheses are supported, whereas the other eight are not supported. In this chapter, researcher seeks to establish whether the main findings of this study address the key objectives of the research. In this regard, this chapter consists of several sections. First, it provides a discussion and summary of the data analyses and findings. Second, the study discusses the research implications, limitations, as well as suggestions for future research. Finally, the study highlights the concluding remarks.

5.2 Discussion

The main purpose of the current study is to examine the relationship between leadership styles, followers' characteristics and employees' job performance in the context of Libya. More specifically, this study examines the direct relationship of leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership) and job performance (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I and innovative behaviours) in the oil organizations in Libya. To this end, a number of hypotheses were formulated based on the research questions. Based on the findings of the present study, the moderating impact of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership styles and employees' performance has yielded mixed results. The following sections discuss the major findings of the present study in line with the research objectives or questions as well as the empirical findings highlighted in prior studies. On reflection,

this study has generally succeeded in establishing the determinants of job performance. The first part of this section discusses the level of job performance in the local oil organizations in Libya, and this is followed by a discussion on the direct effect of the predictor variable (leadership styles) on the outcome variable (job performance). Finally, the moderating effect of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance is discussed.

5.2.1 Job Performance

One of the key objectives in the current study is to assess the level of job performance in the Libyan oil companies, which was measured by examining the mean value of the four dimensions of job performance measures (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I and innovative behaviours). Basically, the term 'task performance' refers to the value of a subordinate's contribution to the work; and the quantity or quality of work, i.e., employees' productivity. Hence, such behaviour refers to those activities that aid an organization's core areas (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Additionally, as noted by Kamdar and Van Dyne (2007), there are two main categories of task behaviour, namely, organizational activities that directly convert raw materials into goods and services; and those activities that provide and sustain support to the technical core. In sum, task performance encompasses all behaviours that are directly related to main job functions. In other words, it involves the proficiency of activities that formally are seen as part of employees' jobs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Meanwhile, contextual performance is synonymous with OCB or extra-role performance (Asgari et al., 2008, p. 228; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Smith et al. (1983) described OCB as individual contributions that exceed the role expectations as reflected in the formal reward system. In essence, contextual performance was introduced by Organ (1997); and Podsakoff et al. (2000), as a key contributing factor to organizational effectiveness. As noted earlier, contextual performance is concerned with the positive behavioural aspects that are neither enforced by employment contract nor stated in the job description. Organ (1988) viewed OCBs as individual behaviours that are discretionary, meaning that these behaviours or contributions are not directly captured by the formal reward system, and as a result, do not have any bearing on the smooth functioning of a particular organization.

For example, Williams and Anderson (1991) split the concept of OCB into two forms, namely, OCB-I and OCB-O. OCB-I focuses on behaviours at individual level whereas OCB-O focuses on workers' behaviours at the organizational level. Williams and Anderson's (1991) conceptualization was derived from Organ's (1988) five dimensions of OCB. OCB-I, comprises altruism and courtesy of Organ's (1988) OCB dimensions; while OCB-O encompasses conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship. However, in recent times, the OCB concept also incorporates innovation as one of its key elements (Moon, Van Dyne, & Wrobel, 2005). According to Moon et al. (2005), innovation is a key factor in modern times where employees' innovative behaviour is crucial for an organization's continuous improvement. They further observed that this aspect is slightly distinct from the classic conceptualization of innovation and creativity because innovative behaviour in OCB relates to the engagement level of subordinates in giving and adopting constructive ideas for organizations' functional improvement.

Based on the collected data, the mean of OCB-O (3.56) is relatively higher than that of task, OCB-I and innovative behaviour (3.38, 3.30 and 3.13), respectively). These findings indicate that the level of job performance in the Libyan oil organizations is moderate but it is quite low compared to other studies in the same field. When compared to the level of job performance in Libyan oil organizations in previous studies that have considered job performance (task performance and OCB), the result is almost consistent with some studies and different from other studies. This finding is consistent with previous findings established by Wang et al. (2005), who undertook a related study on the mediating effect of LMX on the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' performance and OCB. In their study, Wang et al. (2005) established a mean task performance of 3.55, as well as a mean for OCB of 3.47. Furthermore, Liang et al. (2011), in their research on the relationship between leadership behaviours and task performance, established a mean task performance of 3.23.

Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), in a study that investigated the mediating effect of core job characteristics on the relationship between transformational leadership and job behaviours, established a mean for task performance of 4.31, and a mean for OCB of 4.07. In another related study, Vigoda-Gadot (2006) established the means of in-role performance and OCB of 4.10 and 3.73, respectively. In their study, they examined the relationship between leadership style, organizational politics and employees' performance. In much the same way, Islam et al. (2012), in their study that investigated the mediating effect of organisational politics on the relationship between leadership, citizenship behaviour, performance and organizational commitment, established a mean for in-role performance (task performance) of 4.21

as well as a mean for OCB of 3.75. There are several possibilities for the above findings. For instance, Libya is one of the world's developing economies that has experienced many changes over a short period of time. Notably, the falling world oil prices experienced in the early 1980s and the combined effect of the economic sanctions regime imposed against the country caused a serious decline in the country's economic activities. Specifically, US sanctions imposed in 1986 prohibited US firms from any trade or financial dealings with Libya. Meanwhile, the sanctions regime also froze Libyan assets in the US. Furthermore, comprehensive United Nations (UN) sanctions were imposed in 1992 and suspended in 1999, and lifted in 2003. The US sanctions were lifted in 2004. As a consequence of the sanctions regime and the falling of oil prices, it is not surprising that Libya's oil production declined almost by half from three million barrels per day (mb/d) to 1.65 million barrels per day in that period.

Besides this, the national economic strategy (2006) has suggested that Libya needs to enhance its performance and production of the energy sector in order to enhance the overall economic performance as the Libyan government has increased investment in oil and natural gas (Biltayib, 2006). By 2003, Libya was exporting roughly 1.5 million barrels per day, considerably less than its 1970 production level. After the lifting of sanctions, the LNOC wanted to increase production to three million barrels per day – more or less the same as its 1970 production level. However, this trajectory would require improving the performance of employees to exploit the new opportunities in the Libyan oil industry after the Libyan government increased investments in oil and natural gas in the post-2004 sanctions era (Biltayib, 2006). Consequently, Libya, after 2003, moved gradually towards a more liberal approach

which slowly rehabilitated the economy. However, the momentum of reforms has started to slow down the economy and the country practically stagnating on the eve of the February 2011 'Arab Spring' uprising (Ordu et al 2011). The revolution that occurred in 2011 negatively affected the Libyan economy as it affected the energy sector which is the backbone of the Libyan economy. As a result, Libya's oil production in 2011 declined to 378,000 barrels per day (Stankovska, 2011). Undoubtedly, the conflict in Libya which has continued despite the overthrow of the previous government, has affected the organizational performance as well as employees' performance in those organizations. This further supports the contention that job performance is only given priority in a non-crisis environment. Therefore, it is not surprising that the findings of the current study are not in line with conventional wisdom as expressed in existing studies.

5.2.2 Main Effect of the Relationship between Leadership Styles on Employees' Job Performance

Following the second and third research questions, transformational leadership is hypothesized to have a significant effect on job performance (H1, H3, H5, and H7). The same is assumed for transactional leadership style (H2, H4, H6, and H8). The results presented in Figures 4.2 and 4.3 as well as the findings presented in Table 4.23 in the previous chapter partially support the hypotheses on leadership styles in relation to job performance. A number of sections in this chapter explain the relationship of each variable examined. In this study, leadership style refers to the particular style employed by those who are in positions of leadership (Ferrer, 2009). As mentioned in prior studies, leadership styles have been described as directly affecting individual and organizational level outcomes (Bass, 1990; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Consistently, there is wide agreement that the success or failure of an

organization hinges on the styles and skills of the leader. Similarly, available evidence shows that the success or failure of the employees is also heavily influenced by the leadership style in place in an organization (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Oluseyi & Ayo, 2009; Wang et al., 2010). As noted by Mosadegh and Yarmohammadian (2006), leaders who are able to influence, inspire and direct subordinates will often be rewarded by employee loyalty, commitment and performance. In other words, effective leadership matters to the job performance of employees in an organization. As can be seen, the present study employed two dimensions of leadership styles, namely, transformational and transactional styles. The following sections explain the relationship of each variable examined in this study.

5.2.2.1. Direct Effects of Leadership Styles on Task Performance (In-role Performance)

In this study, task performance (in-role performance) refers to the role-prescribed tasks specific to each job role. Hence, it refers to those activities that aid an organization's core areas (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In relation to leadership styles and task performance of Libyan oil sector organizations, this study found that both forms of leadership style, i.e., transformational and transactional, have significant relationships with the overall task performance. Moreover, the present study hypothesized that transformational leadership style positively relates to employees' task performance (in-role performance) [H1]. Empirical support is established as employees who perceived their leader as exercising transformational leadership participated more in task performance than those who did not perceive their leader as such. Notably, this finding appears to be consistent with available

evidence from other studies that demonstrate a significantly positive effect of transformational leadership style on task performance (see Islam et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2011; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Likewise, Bacha (2013) established a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and task performance in French firms.

Meanwhile, transformational leadership refers to a leader's behaviour that induces major changes to organizational members' attitudes, assumptions and commitment towards the realization of organizational objectives and mission (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001). As such, transformational leadership theory rests on the proposition that certain leader behaviours can inspire subordinates to attain higher levels of thinking or commitment (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). By appealing to subordinates' ideals and values, transformational leaders are able to induce commitment to organizational vision. Moreover, transformational leaders arouse followers to develop innovative ways of thinking about problems. In view of the foregoing, it is not surprising that transformational leaders enhance employees' commitment, which allows them to easily achieve higher levels of formal performance. To put it differently, transformational leaders have the ability to raise employees' task performance.

Since its inception by Burns (1978); and Bass (1985), transformational leadership theory has grown and basically encompasses four dimensions of leader behaviour. First, individualized consideration is the extent to which the leader attends to each subordinate's needs, acts as a mentor to the subordinates and listens to their worries. Secondly, intellectual stimulation is the degree to which the leader contests assumptions, takes risks and solicits followers' ideas. Leaders with these

characteristics stimulate and encourage innovation in their subordinates. In response, the subordinates raise questions, think deeply about things and devise better ways to perform their tasks. Thirdly, inspirational motivation is the extent to which the leader expresses a vision that is attractive and inspiring to subordinates. As such, leaders with such inspirational motivation challenge followers to raise their standards. Such leaders also communicate optimism about future goals and offer meaning for the tasks at hand. Finally, idealized influence, which refers to leader behaviour that results in their being role-models for their subordinates, is generally considered to be the highest level of transformational leadership. Generally, transformational leaders are trusted, respected and admired because of their selflessness. In other words, they consider the needs of others ahead of their personal needs. Compared to transactional leadership that uses mutual benefit as the main strategy, the role of transformational leadership is to impose an effect on internal team, so as to promote trust and cooperation among the subordinates, followed by efforts to achieve team goals (Podsakoff, McKenzie and Bommer, 1996).

Essentially, transformational leaders inspire their employees to perform their assigned tasks in a variety of ways. In this regard, transformational leaders align subordinates' work roles to the organization's compelling vision, causing their subordinates to perceive their work as more meaningful and important, thus boosting the intrinsic motivating value (Bono & Judge, 2003; Zhu et al., 2009). Furthermore, transformational leaders inculcate in their subordinates a belief that they can accomplish the set goals (Shamir et al., 1993). Consequently, the subsequent increased levels of employees' self-efficacy have a positive impact on their performance (Bandura, 1986). Finally, as noted by Howell & Hall-Merenda (1999),

transformational leaders function as effective mentors and coaches to their subordinates, offering them with the necessary support and tools that they need to achieve their job tasks. For the foregoing reasons, studies have consistently established significant and positive associations between transformational leadership and employees' job performance (see Liao & Chuang, 2007; MacKenzie et al., 2001).

Transformational leadership can generate superior employees' task performance by instilling a positive vision of the organization's future, empowering subordinates and prioritising their needs (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). However, empirical evidence indicates that transformational leadership behaviour of a supervisor will result in employee's adherence to do his or her job to the fullest. This finding appears to be consistent with that of prior studies that established a significant effect of transformational leadership on task performance (Islam et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2011; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006).

Meanwhile, transactional leadership, the other leadership style used in this study, is basically an exchange-driven style premised on the realization of contractual commitments (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 265). In other words, transactional leaders inspire and motivate subordinates via conditional reward-based exchanges. Hence, this type of a leader is concerned with economic, political or psychological value of a subordinate or follower. This suggests that transactional leadership behaviours strive to monitor and control employees through rational economic means based on the leader's ability to identify conditions for performance as well as the rewards for achieving these performance indicators (Bono

& Judge, 2004, p. 902). In a way, transactional leadership is a leadership type that highlights transactions between leaders and followers. As indicated by Bass and Avolio (2003), there are two characteristics of transactional leadership, i.e., contingent reward and exception management. Notably, contingent reward occurs when leaders agree on what followers must do as well as promise rewards when the goal is attained. Meanwhile, exception management occurs when leaders monitor deviations from agreed standards and take corrective action.

Hypothesis H2 states that transactional leadership style is significantly related to employees' task performance. The current findings provide empirical support for the hypothesis, thus being consistent with past studies (Sundi, 2013; Liang et al., 2011). In their study, Podsakoff et al. (2006) indicated that employees' attitudes, perceptions and behaviours have a strong relationship with the existing leader reward and punishment behaviours (p. 135). Furthermore, their study established that the way in which leaders administer rewards and punishment is a key determinant of their effectiveness. Transactional leaders (particularly those utilizing contingent reward behaviours) clearly stipulate performance expectations and offer rewards for the attainment of these goals and expectations (Bass, 1985). Hence, the task performance of subordinates is anticipated to be greater when they work under transactional leaders because of the motivational effects of performance task goals (Locke & Latham, 1990), and because of the strong link between performance and reward system in place.

Additionally, the Path-Goal theory posits that it is the leaders' job to support their subordinates in accomplishing their goals as well as providing them with the

appropriate guidance and assistance in order to ensure that their goals are consistent with the overall organizational vision (Robbins & Judge, 2007). According to Pearce et al. (2003), the path-goal theory was proposed to describe how various leader behaviours affect employees' job satisfaction and performance by explaining the way to desired rewards (p. 279). Furthermore, this model of leadership promotes the perspective that the leader should change the way subordinates view the contingency relationships involving effort and job satisfaction by tampering with the environment of employees (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 279). In a way, this theory focuses on the need for leaders to possess different types of leadership behaviours so as to enhance the personal goals of their employees (Yusuff, 2008).

The theories on leadership indicate that transformational leadership style has much greater impact on employees' job related behaviours and this would eventually affect their task performance compared to that of the transactional leadership style (Islam et al, 2012). Similarly, Vigoda-Gadot (2006) observed that most studies focusing on the association between leadership and performance have indicated a stronger relationship between transformational leadership and employees' performance than between transactional leadership and employees' performance. In a related study examining the impact of these two leadership styles on marketing personnel's performance at an insurance firm, MacKenzie et al. (2001) established that transformational leadership has more influence on employees' performance than transactional leadership. Interestingly, this result is consistent with the proposition that transformational leadership has a stronger relationship with in-role performance and with OCB compared to that of the transactional leadership style. It is therefore not surprising that the findings of the present study are consistent with the results of

prior studies, indicating that the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' task performance is greater than the link between transactional leadership style and employees' task performance. Having discussed the findings regarding the direct relationships found in the task performance model, the following section discusses findings about the direct relationships in the OCB-O model.

5.2.2.2 Direct Effects of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles on Followers' OCB-O

In relation to leadership style and OCB-O in oil organizations, this study establishes that both leadership styles (transformational and transactional) initially showed significant relationships with the overall employees' OCB-O of Libyan oil organizations.

Firstly, hypothesis H3 of this study states that transformational leadership is significantly related to OCB-O. As expected, the results for this study provide empirical support for the hypothesis. Employees exhibit OCB-O as a result of their satisfaction with the leader who provides constructive feedback, persuades them to put in extra effort and encourages them to think innovatively about complex issues. Consequently, as noted by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), in such situations, subordinates tend to behave in a manner that facilitates higher levels of job performance (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006). Therefore, this finding is supportive of the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which states that when a person does a favour for another person, there is an expectation of some future favourable return. Thus, it is likely that OCB-O shown by the participants in the current study is an appreciation for the treatment and assistance they might have received from their supervisors. In

fact, it is expected that the sample participants who were drawn from oil organizations would demonstrate OCB-O as a result of the conceptual skills of their supervisors.

Similarly, the foregoing finding is also in line with the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), which states that whatever behaviours people exhibit are products of the environment. In the current study, participants might have demonstrated OCB-O as a result of supervisors' extra efforts regarding compliance with rules that have been developed to maintain order, commitment to working hours and to not waste time, and commitment to protect the company's property. Therefore, because supervisors are perceived to expend extra effort outside the formal job contract, employees learn similar behaviours by expending extra effort to help the organization to accomplish task objectives, attending meetings regularly and avoiding talking to the outsiders that can tarnish the image of the organization (OCB-O). The current result is also in line with prior works (Ehrhart, 2004; Liden et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2011).

Notably, Bass (1985) traced the development of transformational leadership theory developed into four elements of leadership behaviour, i.e., idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration. As mentioned earlier, transformational leaders provide constructive feedback to their subordinates, convince them to put in extra work and encourage them to think creatively about complex issues. Consequently, as stated by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), subordinates tend to behave in a manner that enhances job performance. Moreover, transformational leaders convince their subordinates to promote the

collective good ahead of personal interest. After all, when employees equate their own success with that of their organization and identify with the organizational values and goals, they become more keen to make a positive contribution (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

In a number of studies (Podsakoff et al., 1996; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986; Bennis & Nanus, 1985), it has been demonstrated that transformational leaders are articulate about the vision, inspire the followers with positive attitude, bring clarity in their role, and bring the best out of them by managing their behaviours. As suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2000), transformational leadership is closely associated with the LMX theory. A similar association has also been established in other studies between transformational leadership and OCB (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990). As can be seen, leaders with a transformational leadership style can stimulate followers in a number of ways. Firstly, they enhance followers' self-efficacy; secondly, they enable followers to socially identify with their group or organization; and finally, they align the organization's work values to followers' values or vice versa (Shamir et al., 1993). In a way, transformational leadership is effective when a leader's ethos and values are internalised by subordinates, thereby resulting in the transformation of their attitudes, beliefs and goals (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). No wonder then that a positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB is supported empirically as demonstrated by Podsakoff et al. (1990).

In a nutshell, transformational leaders have the capacity to increase employees' task performance while also raising OCB (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011). Without a doubt, a litany of studies (Fuller et al., 1996; Judge and

Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996), have established a constant relationship between transformational leadership and in-role job performance and OCB. As proven by Podsakoff et al. (1990); and Yukl (1989), transformational leadership is closely associated with OCB through the impact of increased trust and respect in the transformational leader that spur followers to attain greater OCB. Additional empirical support for such a pattern of relationship was discovered by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006). Generally, transformational leadership's collective emphasis is also directly related to OCB (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), while its proactive orientation and change agenda motivate employees to engage in challenging OCB, in particular (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007).

Transformational leaders are able to express an attractive and challenging futuristic organizational vision and behave in a manner that fortifies the values integral in that vision. These types of leaders imbue work with meaning, connect individual goals to those of the collective and motivate subordinates to place their collective interests over self-interests. They inspire subordinates intellectually by encouraging them to challenge the status quo, and set high performance goals. Furthermore, these leaders are selfless and more than willing to attend to individual needs of followers. With this in mind, it is not surprising that these leaders nurture an environment in which followers feel safe to take initiative and act in accordance with the leader's vision. As a result of this set of transformational leader behaviours, subordinates become highly motivated and committed to the realization of organizational goals resulting in superior employees' performances beyond expectations (Bass, 1985, 1997; Shamir & Howell, 1999).

Generally, transformational leaders are commonly known to inspire subordinates to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007). As a result of this inspiration, followers' OCB and performance are enhanced (Podsakoff et al., 1990). As noted earlier, transformational leaders provide meaning, and as such, make subordinates identify with the respective goals and challenges of their organizations (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Previous studies have provided ample evidence that consistently supports a positive association between transformational leadership and OCB across different contexts (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Moreover, subordinates generally perform better under the condition of having a high quality LMX relationship with their supervisor (Yukl & Heaton, 2002). According to Kuvaas et al. (2012), SLMX relationships are positively related to outcomes, such as OCB. Hence, when a supervisor enjoys a SLMX relationship with a specific employee, and the same is perceived by that employee to exert values that are congruent with the perceptions of the organization's values, the OCB-O of that employee will increase correspondingly. This is based on the belief that OCB-O to some extent depends on managers being able to link the organizational values with the values of the followers, while at the same time, having close social relationships with their employees. As stated by Einarsen, Aasland and Skogstad (2007), constructive leaders are "concerned with the welfare of their subordinates while simultaneously being focused on goal attainment and the effective use of resources in the service of the legitimate interests of the organization" (p. 214). A study undertaken by Meglino et al. (1989) found that the value congruence between subordinates and supervisors is considerably related to employees' satisfaction and

commitment. Moreover, Posner (1992), as cited in Krishnan (2002), found perceived value congruence between followers and leaders to be directly related to positive work attitudes. These findings underscore the importance for leaders to share values with their followers.

If employees, in addition to enjoying a SLMX relationship with their supervisor, also perceive their leader as acting in a pro-organizational manner (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007) and leading by example, it is therefore reasonable to assume that they will exert OCB-O. This is based on the assumption that employees here see a clear link between their own goals and values, those possessed by their leader and those of the organization. Hoffman et al. (2011) stated that employees who view the organizational goals as their own may put in extra efforts in order to reach them. If employees have a SLMX relationship with their leader, hence actions aimed at benefitting the organization or their leader will likely occur, due to a felt need to give something in return (Kuvaas et al., 2012). Although Ilies, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007) found that high quality LMX predicts OCB-I more strongly than OCB-O, they also stated that in cases where employees perceive the supervisor to act in line with the values of the organization, they might reciprocate with organization-targeted behaviour as well.

In a related study, Kuvaas et al. (2012) found that SLMX is positively related to outcomes, such as OCB and work performance, and it is argued that perceptions of value congruence between leaders and the organization could strengthen the relationship between SLMX and OCB-O among employees. If employees have a SLMX relationship with their leader, actions intended at benefitting the organization

or the individual will likely occur, due to a felt need to give something back (Kuvaas et al., 2012). If these employees in addition, perceive their leader as acting in a pro-organizational manner and leading by example, we find it reasonable to assume that the employees will assimilate this behaviour because they see a clear link or connection between their own values, those possessed by their leaders and those of the organization. As noted by Wang et al. (2005), subordinates who experience having a high quality LMX relationship with their leader have higher levels of OCB. The social exchange theory states that subordinates in such relationships experience feelings of obligation and a need to reciprocate rewards given by a social relationship with one's supervisor and may therefore exhibit actions positively affecting the organization (Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007). Since increased employees' job satisfaction is seen as an outcome of a high-quality relationship with their supervisor (Lapierre & Hackett, 2007), subordinates may reciprocate their higher job satisfaction by performing activities that go beyond what is required of them in order to maintain their relationship. Expectedly, this finding is quite similar to those established in prior studies (Schlechter & Engelbrecht, 2006; Ferres et al., 2002; Mackenzie et al., 2001; Gerstner & Day, 1997) that unequivocally shows the presence of a significant association between transformational leadership and OCB.

Furthermore, empirical researches have demonstrated that transformational leadership style is consistently associated with employees' higher level of OCB (Goodwin et al., 2001; Mackenzie et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2005). Thus, there is a strong conceptual support for the proposition that transformational leaders inspire their subordinates to perform extra-role behaviours or go beyond expectations. A study undertaken by MacKenzie et al. (2001), on the link between transformational

leadership style and salespersons' performance, established that this type of leadership motivates salespersons to perform beyond expectations. Additionally, this study found that transformational leadership behaviours have stronger direct and indirect associations with job performance and OCB. In much the same way, Bass (1985) established that followers opt to execute tasks out of identification with transformational leaders in their organizations. Bass also discovered that transformational leaders can generate desirable ethos among followers as opposed to the limited goal of transactional leadership of producing an acquiescent workforce. Under those circumstances, followers are motivated to go beyond self-interest and perform beyond expectations. The resultant effect will be employees who are more productive, enthusiastic, hardworking and committed to the organization.

Hypothesis H4 states that conceptual transactional leadership style is significantly related to OCB-O. As expected, the results for this study provide empirical support for the hypothesis. Employees exhibit OCB-O as a result of their satisfaction with the leader who quickly understands their effort and rewards them fairly according to the effort they have shown. Since OCB-O includes behaviours, such as, protecting organization's assets, because of the civil war in Libya, followers may need to be rewarded for such behaviour because of the risks they may have been exposed to when protecting the company's assets. Furthermore, due to the civil conflict in Libya where there is the proliferation of weapons and the lack of fuel supplies, followers may prefer to deal with the transactional leadership style so that payment is made for them in exchange for exhibiting positive behaviours of OCB-O. All things considered, we can say that the environment and the security situation play a pivotal role in nurturing some positive behaviour of the followers.

While OCB is defined as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate, it promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4), prior research, such as Podsakoff et al. (2000), has indicated a positive relationship between contingent reward transactional leader behaviour and OCB. Moreover, Podsakoff et al. (2000) showed that this result may be due to the fact that followers have a broader outlook of job performance that encompasses OCB. Consequently, followers believe that their leaders administer rewards subject to both task performance and OCB. Notably, as demonstrated by the social exchange theory, subordinates form economic or social exchange relationships with their bosses.

However, quality social exchange relationships, attributable to contingent reward transactional leader behaviour and fair exchanges, frequently yield higher employee job satisfaction, commitment and OCB (Liao & Rupp, 2005). It is therefore not surprising that existing research (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Mossholder et al., 1998; Naumann & Bennett, 2000) has also demonstrated that subordinates have a tendency to react more positively (higher job satisfaction, commitment, and OCB) to the extent that the procedures related to the outcomes are seen as reasonable or fair. Undoubtedly, the sentiment of being treated fairly as a group serves to advance a positive state of mind, which has been inextricably linked to the probability of seeing extra-role tasks as in-role (Bachrach & Jex, 2000). With this in mind, Judge and Ilies (2004) observed that when subordinates are in a positive mood, they are usually more innovative and more motivated to execute their tasks at a high level, as well as being more helpful toward their colleagues.

Other possible explanations pointed out by Cherry (2007), include the following: transactional leaders are goal-oriented, articulate tasks and activities clearly and align the resources with the cooperation of the labour force to accomplish the targets which eventually inspire the followers. As it were, transactional leaders maintain a significant influence on the workforce (Boseman, 2008) as well as facilitate the attainment of organizational goals (Laohavichien et al., 2009). A few studies have shown the positive association between transactional leadership and followers' attitudes and behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Bass et al., 2003). Some recent studies have established a significant relationship between transactional leadership and OCB (Khan, Ghouri, & Awang 2013; Rubin et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Meanwhile, Bensimon (1989) observed that a good transactional leader always maintains a two-way process of exchange and mutual influence when dealing with subordinates. Similarly, Bass and Riggio (2006) noted that transactional leaders have a tendency to lead through social exchange, such as subsidies, financial rewards and jobs for vote which increase OCB. Riaz and Haider (2010) demonstrated that transactional leadership positively rewards the subordinates, subject to good performance.

Moreover, as one of the theoretical features of an ELMX relationship is the balance between what one gives and gets in return, therefore it is assumed that employees might engage in activities that go beyond the formal job description resulting in OCB. However, according to Kuvaas et al. (2012), this is only if the subordinates know precisely what to get as a relatively immediate return. Accordingly, if the mechanisms underlying an economic relationship with a leader apply to the exchanges with an organization as well, it is therefore not expected that employees in

ELMX relationships to engage in activities that promote OCB (Kuvaas et al., 2012). Hoffman et al. (2011) stated that employees who view the organizational goals as their own may therefore put in extra effort in order to achieve them. However, Kuvaas et al. (2012) stated that this only happens if the subordinates know exactly what to get in return. Even so, we may, theoretically assume that employees might engage in activities that go beyond the formal job description, resulting in OCB-O, even in situations where they have an ELMX relationship with their supervisor and their perceptions of leader-organization value congruence is high. In cases where the employees perceive the supervisor as acting in accordance with organizational values, they might reciprocate with organization-targeted behaviour as well (Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007). The application of transactional leadership can be compelling in certain contexts, for instance, the study by Yammarino and Bass (1990) discovered that transactional leadership can have a favourable impact on attitudinal and behavioural responses of followers (even though it generally fails to conjure up a spirit beyond the normal call of duty). Nonetheless, this does not necessarily degenerate to the degree that it generates a negative response to the OCB.

5.2.2.3 Direct Effects of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles on Followers' OCB-I

In this study, OCB refers to the level of employees' positive voluntary behaviour that benefits the individuals (OCB-I), which may be the case where an employee helps a co-worker or a supervisor with a problem he or she is facing (Williams & Anderson, 1991). After all, helping behaviour fuels performance because new associates or co-workers are easily incorporated into the working group. As a result, the work group can practice best practices and have easy coordination; hence, variations of

performance become less likely. In relation to leadership styles and OCB-I of Libyan national oil organizations, this study establishes that transformational leadership style has no significant relationship with the overall OCB-I. Furthermore, transactional leadership does not significantly relate to the overall employees' OCB-I. Not surprisingly, several empirical studies have found that both transformational leadership (leadership behaviour that motivates people to perform beyond the call of duty), and transactional leadership (leadership behaviour that is focused on standard performance), are directly related to a vast assortment of positive follower attitudes and behaviours in organizations (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Hypothesis H5 states that transformational leadership style is strongly related to OCB-I. However, no empirical support is found, indicating that transformational leadership behaviour of a supervisor will not result in employees helping his or her supervisor and co-workers. In this context, the present findings significantly differ from previous studies (Asgari et al., 2008; Islam, Khan, Shafiq, & Ahmad, 2012; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011) that found a positive relationship. On the other hand, this result appears to be consistent with that of other studies that established no significant effect of transformational leadership on employees' OCB-I (Mackenzie et al. 2001). Furthermore, Mackenzie et al.'s (2001) study indicated that managers who exhibit transformational behaviour tend to have a workforce that is less willing to help others. Likewise, a number of studies have found that transformational leaders, i.e., leaders who always attempt to get their followers to discover better ways of doing their jobs (intellectual stimulation behaviour) generate ambiguity and are seen as less trustworthy; consequently, their staff's OCBs are negatively affected (Mackenzie et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1990). In a related study by Nguni et al.

(2006), transformational leaders are also depicted as having a weak influence or impact on OCB. Therefore, it is apparent that the present study's findings are in line with the results established by Mackenzie et al. (2001).

As indicated by Shamir, House and Arthur (1993), transformational leaders provide meaning, and thereby enable subordinates to identify with organizational goals and challenges. If the team leader articulates the vision and objectives in an inspiring manner, the vision and objectives may become the basis of a shared social identity (Tajfel, 1981). Meanwhile, extant literature shows that transformational leadership enhances the common identity of work and team groups (Dionne et al., 2004; Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003; Spangler, 2004). In this regard, a common identity may arouse subordinates' team spirit and cooperation. Shapiro, Kessler and Purcell (2004) have two explanations for why followers engage in OCB. In the first place, OCB is viewed as a form of reciprocity where followers indulge in OCB in response to fair or good treatment from the organization. Secondly, employees engage in OCB because they perceive those behaviours as part of their job.

As can be seen, transformational leadership style is based on the attestation that leaders can stimulate employees to high levels of performance by appealing to their emotions, values, attitudes and belief systems (Bass, 1985). Notably, key indicators of transformational leadership encompass the following aspects: communicating a vision, engendering the acceptance of group goals, aligning behaviours to the articulated vision, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized backing and consideration and setting high performance goals (Podsakoff et al., 1996; Podsakoff et al., 1990). More importantly, these leaders are expected to be role

models who serve as an example for others to follow. Engendering the acceptance of group or collective goals encompasses leaders' behaviours targeted at encouraging cooperation among subordinates so that they work toward the realization of a common goal (Kark et al., 2003; Lowe., 1996). After all, transformational leaders are glorified as they are a moral example of working towards the collective good of the team, organization and/or community. This, in turn, establishes a strong sense among employees to follow the example of their leader to give priority to the interest of the group, and work collectively. In this regard, transformational leaders convince subordinates to place the collective good ahead of personal interest. As mentioned earlier, when employees associate their own success with that of their organization and identify with their organization's vision, they become more keen to make a positive contribution to the work context (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Unfortunately, the situation in the Libyan oil companies is completely different with what is stated in the previous paragraphs. One possible explanation may be due to tribal influence in the Libyan social system, because in this context, organizations and followers care about the reputation or standing of their names, families and tribes. For that reason, social reputation is a key element in the Libyan society (Twati, 2006). The Libyan society is a purely tribal society and employees of oil companies in Libya are interested in mentioning the names of their families and tribes. In a tribal society such as the Libyan society, the managers/supervisors will treat employees who belong to their tribe, differently from other employees. Lawaj (2014), in his study, supported the argument that Libyan organizations as well as Arab companies still suffer from the negative aspects of tribal ties and primary group relations. The study also reveals that most company managers have strong

relationships with their tribes; thus they treat employees differently and support them when they need help from those managers, which may generate distrust in supervisors. As a result, the exchange level between the employee and the supervisor will drop to its lowest level (low level of LMX) due to a sense of discrimination by supervisors. Therefore, the employees will not provide assistance to the supervisor or other employees because of their sense of discrimination. Furthermore, unhealthy relationships in the workplace environment may cause bad communication amongst co-workers and colleagues. This, in turn, may result in poor utilization of employee skills, as well as low level of job satisfaction. Ultimately, such a situation breeds low productivity and an unhealthy work environment (Baron & Paulus, 1991; Bruce et al., 2002; Cooper, 2002; Topolosky, 2000).

According to Agnia (1997), the Libyan social environment is a group-oriented or collective-driven society shaped by the extended family, kin and kith, tribe, clan and village social systems. These collectives play a key role in community life and people's interactions. As a result, key decisions in Libyan organizations can be affected by community attitudes, personal connections, values, beliefs and customs, in areas such as recruitment, selection and promotion. A number of studies on Libya have given credence to the foregoing by discovering that personal relations and family ties, rather than merit based considerations, play a critical role in the appointment and selection of managers and supervisors (Agnia, 1997; Lawaj, 2014). It is therefore not surprising that Libyan managers are more concerned with establishing social relationships at the workplace than in the job itself (Agnia, 1997; Lawaj, 2014). In addition to that, Handy (1993) stated that for any Libyan organization striving for success, it has to take into account the political

circumstances. For instance, one of the negative political influences in Libya is that managerial appointment is based on political connections rather than professional considerations (Agnia, 1997).

Basically, a transformational leader inspires subordinates by getting them to place collective interests ahead of individual interests. In that sense, followers who are intrinsically motivated to accomplish a shared vision without expecting immediate tangible personal benefits may be disposed to contribute toward attaining the collective goal in ways that their roles do not suggest. It should be noted that these followers make these collective-bound contributions because their sense of self-worth and self-concept are boosted in making these types of contributions. Conversely, selfish employees who place individual interests ahead of the collective good are less likely to make largely discretionary, non-tangible rewarded contributions (Wang et al., 2005). Transformational leaders enhance the followers' confidence by stating their high expectations; cultivating followers' capabilities through constructive feedback and advice for their development; encouraging followers to apply new problem-solving methods; and rewarding followers by praising their work skills and performance. Such behaviours make the followers realize the transformational leader's caring and support which tighten their bond of affection. However, transformational leadership appears not to affect the OCB-I among followers in Libyan oil organizations.

Another possible reason for this finding may have to do with the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). Transformational leaders act as role models for the followers to learn and imitate. Likewise, the followers would mimic these behaviours and help

the other group members. In addition, from the perspective of the social exchange theory and norm of reciprocity (Blau, 1964), (Gouldner, 1960), followers may help other group members achieve group goals, as reciprocity for transformational leaders' support. As indicated by the social exchange theory, when subordinates are treated well by their bosses and supervisors, they are likely to feel the obligation to respond by expressing behaviours that have positive effects for their relational partners (Lavelle et al., 2009). Ultimately, these positive behaviours, such as OCB, will also benefit the organization (Organ, 1988). Another key element that builds positive social exchange relationships is trust, especially between managers and employees (Holmes, 1991). There is ample evidence that social exchange relationships premised on trust promote OCB. For instance, Zhong, Lam and Chen (2009) indicated that high quality LMX is positively linked to OCB.

The result of this study is supportive of the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), which states that whatever behaviours people exhibit are learnt from the environment. In the current study, participants might have not demonstrated positive citizenship behaviour toward supervisors and co-workers (OCB-I) in an attempt to emulate the absence of supervisors' extra efforts toward trust and confidence among subordinates. Therefore, because supervisors did not demonstrate extra effort outside the formal job contract to help subordinates to solve technical and complex work problems, employees learn similar behaviours by not demonstrating extra effort to help their co-workers (OCB-I). Moreover, when organization leaders do not spend time and resources of the organization to develop and benefit the surrounding community, followers/subordinates will not be motivated to show positive extra-role behaviours directed at the leader or co-workers (OCB-I). Furthermore, when

followers do not see their leaders helping subordinates to develop, providing personal support to their followers and showing genuine interest, their followers will not be motivated to emulate the leader by not delivering services and benefits to others.

Additionally, in line with the social exchange theory, when a person does a favour for another person, there is an expectation of some future favourable return (Blau, 1964) which is not the case in the Libyan oil organizations. It is likely that the OCB-I is not shown by the participants in the current study because of the absence of the leadership trust that they might have not been receiving from their supervisors. It has been observed that subordinates who have a fairly poor working relationship with their seniors, i.e., low quality LMX relationship, are more likely to display higher levels of envy than individuals who have somewhat good working relations with the same supervisors (Kim, O'Neill, & Cho, 2010). Eventually, higher levels of envy decrease employees' voluntary helping behaviour or OCB toward colleagues. From the above discussion, it is clear that the OCB-I at the workplace is very crucial to both employees and supervisors. It plays a key role in hindering or facilitating the efficacy of an organization. As such, it is imperative to understand the nature of OCB-I as it occurs in the context of the workplace. Thus, managers and supervisors in the Libyan oil companies need to work hard to raise the spirit of cooperation and teamwork among employees, which will contribute to creating a healthy working environment, thus raising the efficiency of the organization.

Undoubtedly, a key activity for managers is to appreciate the significance of organisational culture because it affects productivity, organizational learning and

strategic development at all levels of the organization. With this in mind, it has been suggested that many of the managerial failures in implementing organizational change happen because of the disregard for the organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). In much the same way, Schneider (2000) stated that organizational culture is a key element of organizational success since effective leadership is based on the effective management of culture. From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that Libyan social characteristics play a crucial role in people's relationships and interactions, community life, as well as the working environment. For that reason, providing a suitable working environment is necessary to boost the relationship between employees and their supervisors. This enabling environment can be achieved through the provision of a sense of security and satisfaction, by offering opportunities irrespective of tribe, social class or family connections inside or outside their firms. As a result, the Libyan organizations need to have accurate and objective criteria for staffing and promotion of staff in the public sector must be based on efficiency, integrity and probity, experience, achievement rates and excellence in business performance, rather than political loyalty and tribal affiliation, village or family relations and mutual interests.

Secondly, Hypothesis H6 states that transactional leadership style is significantly related to OCB-I. The finding demonstrates that the relationship between the two variables is not significant. This result is in line with that reported by previous studies (Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2004; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Bommer, 1996) which have shown that transactional leadership is less likely to have a positive influence on OCB compared to transformational leadership. Moreover, compared to transformational leadership, the relationship between

transactional leadership and OCB has attracted limited scholarly interest (Lee & Salleh, 2009). Nonetheless, a number of studies have established that transactional leadership is negatively associated with OCB-I (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Graham, 1988). One plausible explanation might be that the transactional leadership depends on basic exchange with the employees. Notably, transactional leaders exchange benefits with their subordinates and express a sense of duty with rewards and punishments to attain goals. In other words, if the employees succeed in performing their job tasks as reflected in their job descriptions, they will be rewarded. As a result the OCB-I level will decrease. Furthermore, since the relationship between the employees and their co-workers is not captured in the job descriptions, employees will not take that kind of relationship into account. On the other hand, if good performance is not rewarded promptly and regularly by supervisors and managers, employees' impression of being effective will suffer considerably.

Another possible explanation for the above expectation is that leadership premised on basic economic exchange at the expense of social exchange that is displayed by transformational leaders when they engage their followers, proves that transactional leaders do not care and/or motivate their followers to enhance their relationship with co-workers. As indicated by Organ's definition of OCB, "OCB represents individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate, promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Hence, since the transactional leaders' only concern is to get the job done at the expense of developing a good relationship with their followers, it will not motivate the followers to develop a good relationship with co-workers because they do not have that kind of relationship with their supervisors.

They may think that kind of relationship will affect their salaries or their jobs since it is not in the job description and the leaders do not motivate them to engage in such relationship. Moreover, leaders often play an important role in creating the enthusiasm needed to fuel such effort among their employees. In order to facilitate such actions, leaders may need to lead by example and “walk the talk”. By this, it mean that leaders should strive to act as role models of the behaviour they want to see among their employees.

In line with above, transactional leadership is basically an economic exchange process (Pillai et al., Williams, 1999). As noted by Bass (1985), these transactional leaders identify the needs of their followers, spell out and negotiate the desired goals and regulate subordinates' behaviour using contingent positive or negative reinforcement (Bass, 1985). In other words, transactional leadership implies that subordinates agree, accept or comply with their leaders in exchange for rewards, praise and resources as well as to avoid punishment (Bass et al., 2003). In essence, elements of transactional leadership are management by exception and contingent reward (Avolio & Bass, 2002). In the first place, when leaders use contingent reward, they specify and clarify goals, which their followers are expected to attain, as well as the rewards to be given upon fulfilment of goals. Meanwhile, management by exception in its active and passive forms is characterized by leaders who limit themselves to their role as monitors who intercede only in exceptional circumstances.

In the same vein, Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) pointed out that a leader can do a variety of things to shape the degree to which subordinates want to engage in OCB. After all, leaders can attempt to influence the work environment to offer

greater opportunities for OCB. In that sense, it would be difficult for an employee to display altruism if that employee has minimal contact with colleagues, especially if the working environment and rules are very inflexible. Such a scenario will prevent employees from assisting fellow co-workers. Likewise, employees would find it hard to participate responsibly or constructively in the governance of any organization without a culture of staff meetings or other interactive forums. As can be seen, leaders can potentially enhance OCB by influencing the working environment, especially the conditions under which employees do their work, as well as the human resource practices that govern their behaviour.

As indicated by Bass (1985), passive or avoidant leaders are generally viewed by employees as being ineffectual. As such, these leader behaviours are counterproductive and may affect followers' motivation. Furthermore, passive leaders are perceived by followers as reactive rather proactive. In this sense, employees have the feeling that passive managers only react after the issue has become serious or when the execution of task has been affected. For that reason, subordinates prefer leaders who anticipate problems and correct errors in advance before they become serious. Thus, as long as management by exception (passive) and laissez-faire are the dominant leadership styles in any organization, dissatisfaction, discomfort and frustration will creep in among subordinates. Ultimately, the level of motivation to work beyond the call of duty will decrease, and employees' OCBs will be degraded.

Another possible explanation is the social and economic LMX theory. According to, Kuvaas et al. (2012), SLMX (transformational) relationships, on the one hand, are

founded on a long-term orientation, where the exchanges between leaders and subordinates are continuous and premised on sentiments of diffused obligation, and less in need of an immediate reward (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Shore et al., 2006; Walumbwa et al., 2011). In a way, the emphasis is on abstract and intangible socio-emotional elements of exchange based on trust and reciprocity. In this regard, as noted by Walumbwa et al. (2011), SLMX corresponds to the traditional notion of LMX. Meanwhile, ELMX (transactional) relationships, exhibit more marketplace, transactional and contractual characteristics, and do not indicate long-term or open-ended and diffused commitments (Kuvaas et al., 2012). Rather, the exchanges follow a top-down approach characterised by formal status differences, self-interests and discrete agreements within a specific time frame, involving economic or quasi-economic goods and services (Shore et al., 2006; Walumbwa et al., 2011). In such relationships, emphasis is placed on the balance between what one gets from the social exchange and what one gives. For instance, an employee can perform beyond expectations, but only when he or she knows exactly the attendant rewards. Clearly from the foregoing, it can be concluded that employees supervised by transactional leaders will prioritize individual interest over the collective interest. Some scholars, like Shore et al. (2006), have suggested that ELMX relationships should encourage subordinates to engage in behaviours that meet, but not exceed, the organizational expectations.

Kuvaas et al. (2012) found ELMX to be negatively related to OCB. According to Shore et al. (2006), ELMX relationships should encourage subordinates to engage in behaviour that meets organizational expectations. However, these behaviours will only meet, rather than exceed, the organizational expectations and can therefore not

be seen as high levels of OCB. Therefore, ELMX might motivate productive behaviours among employees when expectations of rewards are presented (Kuvaas et al., 2012). In addition, employees who have a transactional relationship with their supervisor, and at the same time, perceive the values of their leader and those of the organization to be congruent, will develop a transactional relationship with the co-workers and organization as well. We argue that the feelings and attitudes an employee has towards his or her leader could rub off onto the attitudes one has towards the organization. Thus, employees in such relationships will exhibit low levels of OCB-I. Furthermore, leaders who engage in relationships with their employees characterized by tangible resources and low levels of trust (Markham, Yammarino, Murray, & Palanski, 2010) may not expect their employees to engage in activities that are not defined by the formal reward system to benefit them as a leader or co-workers.

All the same, studies on organizational exchange perceptions have established negative associations between economic exchange perception and employees' job performance and OCB (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009, 2010; Song et al., 2009). In a way, if the dynamics underlying these exchange relationships within organizations are applied to ELMX relationships, one should anticipate a negative association between ELMX and employees' job performance and OCB. In a related development, Song et al. (2009), observed that subordinates indulging in an ELMX relationship "worry about the equivalence of returns, calculate and negotiate with their employer for rewards, have no patience for or expectations of future returns and finally, resort to the pursuit of self-interest" (p. 63). Similarly, if the ELMX relationship between leaders and employees instils the same type of attitudes and behaviours as an

exchange relationship within an organization does, one may expect a negative relationship between ELMX relationships and employees' job performance and OCB.

5.2.2.4 Direct Effects of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles on Followers' Innovative Behaviours

In this study, employees' innovative behaviour refers to the development and initiation of novel and valuable ideas and implementing these ideas into new and improved products and services (Baer, 2012; Kanter, 1988; van de Ven, 1986). This is in line with previous research, which has differentiated between the idea generation phase and idea implementation phase and combined these two phases in one construct, named innovation behaviour (Baer, 2012; Baer & Frese, 2003; Scott & Bruce, 1998; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2013). In relation to leadership style and innovative behaviours of Libyan oil organizations, this study discovered that only transformational behaviours have a significant relationship with the employees' innovative behaviour. On the other hand, transactional leader behaviour does not significantly relate to the overall performance of employees' innovative behaviour.

As indicated earlier, transformational leadership has been described as leader behaviour that motivates followers to perform beyond the call of duty. Hence, it is the leader's ability to inspire followers by articulating an energizing vision and challenging goals. As a result, leaders and subordinates compel each other to advance to a higher level of morality and inspiration (Burns, 1978). Leaders who use transformational style are imbued with inspirational motivation, collective sense of mission, self-confidence, heightened awareness of goals, exciting vision and

aspiration (Avolio & Bass, 1995). These aspects of transformational leadership arouse intellectual stimulation and intrinsic motivation as well as support employees' creativity and innovation (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008; Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009; Pieterse et al., 2010; Tipu et al., 2012); which closely match the antecedents which stimulate innovative behaviour among employees. Hypothesis H7 of the present study states that transformational leadership style is significantly related to innovative behaviours.

As anticipated, the finding provides support for the hypothesis. As supervisors/managers increase the level of transforming toward their subordinates, the subordinates, in turn, respond by increasing their innovative behaviours. Transformational leadership style is about the leader's effect in creating valuable and positive change in the followers and it has four elements or dimensions, namely, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and inspirational motivation. In the first place, idealized influence refers to the capability of a leader to act as a role model. In this regard, the leader is often an object of admiration, respect, and trust in the eyes of followers. Meanwhile, intellectual stimulation refers to the leader's ability to broaden and elevate the interests of his or her followers, as well as arousing them to question decisions and tackle challenging tasks. Hence, intellectual stimulation boosts exploratory thinking by providing support for innovation, independence and the tackling of problems. Individualized consideration is about giving personal attention to employees' differences and personal growth, and linking their needs to the organizational mission through continuous mentoring and feedback. Put another way, individualized consideration serves as a reward for the subordinates by offering recognition and support. Finally,

inspirational motivation involves encouraging subordinates to believe in their ability to fulfil an exciting vision (Bass, 1985, 1991). Undoubtedly, the resultant inspiration encourages the generation of ideas by motivating employees to work towards the fulfilment of the organizational vision (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Sosik et al., 1998).

Generally, transformational leadership behaviours are closely related to the determinants of innovation and creativity at the workplace, such as encouragement, autonomy, support for innovation, vision and recognition (Elkins & Keller, 2003). In a way, these determinants likely act as creativity reinforcing measures. As indicated earlier, the resulting intrinsic motivation felt by the subordinates under transformational leadership is a key source of innovation and creativity (Tierney et al., 1999). Moreover, the emotional relationships a transformational leader nurtures with subordinates might be another creativity-enhancing measure since emotional bonding is likely to yield higher levels of innovation (Bass, 1990b; Hunt et al., 2004). In other words, given their emotional attachment to their leaders, followers are more likely to respond to the leader's challenges and support for creativity by displaying more innovation in their performance tasks.

The results of this study appear to be consistent with other existing studies that have established a strong impact of transformational leadership on innovative behaviour (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Jung et al., 2003; Jung, Wu, & Chow, 2008). According to Dvir et al. (2002), transformational leaders ensure that individuals challenge the status quo and are stimulated intellectually by transcending their own self-gain for a higher collective gain. Transformational leaders develop energizing goals, vision and values; and motivate subordinates to pursue entrepreneurial intentions to influence

their creative behaviours. Consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964, p. 566), a leader's individualized consideration encourages followers to respond with greater creativity and imagination. Giving inspirational motivation to employees to transform existing systems and plan new ways to address problems helps them to display behaviours focused on crafting new ways of doing things. Transformational leaders with idealized influence exhibit optimism and excitement about novel perspectives and this "championing role" enhances organizational innovation through intellectual stimulation (Elkins and Keller, 2003). Without doubt, this heightened level of intellectual stimulation is likely to increase exploratory thinking and innovative behaviour. After all, intellectual stimulation is about the leader's capacity to challenge subordinates to evaluate some of their assumptions as well as encourage them to be innovative and creative through problem reformulation, imagination, intellectual curiosity and novelty.

Furthermore, innovative behaviour compels employees to have a high need for achievement and low need for conformity which is usually encouraged by transformational leaders. As pointed out by Pearce and Ensley (2004), transformational leaders are risk takers who are not afraid of trying new ways and procedures, including changing existing processes and systems for long-term benefits to the organization. These leaders also help subordinates to develop ways of exploiting opportunities effectively. Similarly, Sosik, (1997) observed that transformational leaders inspire followers to exhibit creative endeavour and increase their problem-solving and analytical capacities. Transformational leaders help followers to strive for more difficult and challenging goals by changing followers' propensity for creative perspectives (Whittington et al., 2004). They provide personal

as well as collective value system, access to resources and information, effective communication, self-confidence and inner direction. When followers' individual needs and expectations are considered, they tend to reciprocate by exploring new opportunities with a better focus on important organizational issues and processes. Transformational leaders help to balance short-term goals with opportunity exploitation and motivate employees to take risks associated with trying out new processes.

Transformational leaders foster innovative behaviour by motivating employees to strive for collective goals (Basadur, 2004; Krause, 2004; Majumdar and Ray, 2011); encourage individuals' learning and help them to socialize more to find support for the implementation of their ideas (Gong et al., 2009; Kahai et al., 2003; Ramamoorthy et al., 2005). Thus, transformational leadership influences employees' idea promotion and idea implementation by encouraging them to think out of the box by providing intellectual stimulation, consoling strong social ties among co-workers, involving them more and more into their jobs and organization, catering to their intrinsic motivation and considering their needs for development and recognition (Tierney & Farmer, 2002; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003).

As a matter of fact, transformational leaders emphasise unconventional approaches, including encouraging their subordinates to critically appraise and reflect on existing working methods and assumptions (Bass, 1985). In this regard, they inspire their followers to develop an open mind-set and to think 'out of the box' (Jung, Chow & Wu, 2003). As a result, subordinates are expected to rekindle their intellectual curiosity, utilize their imagination and develop original solutions as well as fresh and

novel ideas (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1985). As mentioned earlier, transformational leaders' unconventional and creative behaviour enables them to serve as role models for creativity and innovation. As aptly captured in the social learning theory (Bandura, 1998), subordinates are likely to imitate a transformational leader resulting in them engaging in creative behaviour as well.

The finding of this study is consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) which emphasizes that when leaders' exhibit genuine consideration and care for each subordinate, they are more likely to inspire positive leader-follower relationships that enhance the followers' sense of belonging to the organization (Zhu et al., 2009). Consequently, the enhanced sense of belonging will spur followers to devote their very best effort in their work tasks. As such, if leaders provide critical personal resources to subordinates, such as respect, care and consideration, followers are likely to view their working environment as supportive. This would in turn help foster a sense of duty amongst followers who will reciprocate positively to this supportive environment. A number of studies have stated that this reciprocation could be in the form of many desired attributes, including engagement at work (Saks, 2006). At this juncture, it might be argued that individualized consideration behaviours of leaders enhance employees' desirable behaviours, such as engagement at work.

The social exchange theory contends that citizenship behaviour will appear when an employee experiences positive feelings and an affinity toward the organization. Thus, the individual is motivated to respond to organizational demands, resulting in positive experiences. Researchers have discussed the fact that transformational

leadership creates positive feeling and higher motivation among employees (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Gebert et al., 2011). Tierney et al. (1999) contended that the quality of leader–follower relationship as premised in the LMX theory has been established to be positively related to workers’ creative and innovative performance. In a related development, a study by Oldham and Cummings (1996) has also established that subordinates produce more creative work when they are supervised in a supportive, rather than controlling manner.

The present study also hypothesized that transactional leadership positively relates to innovative behaviour [H8]. Contrary to expectation, results demonstrate that the relationship is not significant. Hence, hypothesis H8 is not supported. However, no empirical support is found, indicating that transactional leadership behaviour of a supervisor will not result in employees’ innovative behaviours. This finding appears to be consistent with that of previous studies that found no significant effect of transactional leadership on innovative behaviours (Boerner et al., 2007; Moss & Ritossa, 2007). For example, Boerner et al. (2007) undertook a study to examine the effect of transformational leaders on followers’ behaviour and organizational performance in German companies. They found transactional leadership to be unrelated to innovative behaviour.

One possible explanation for this result may have to do with the nature of transactional leadership. In particular, transactional leadership style is essentially an economic exchange process (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999). After all, transactional leaders identify the needs of their followers, specify and negotiate the desired goals, and control individual behaviour by utilizing contingent positive or

negative reinforcement (Bass, 1985). In this type of leadership, followers agree, accept or comply with the leader in exchange for certain benefits, such as rewards, praise, commendation and resources or escaping disciplinary action (Bass et al., 2003). On close inspection, it could be argued that transactional leadership is unrelated to innovative behaviour because it is fixated more with in-role performance and less on the stimulation of novel ideas (which may be detrimental in certain job contexts). Given that transactional leaders clarify their expectations and provide feedback about fulfilling these expectations, they will display the leader's predilections. The assumption here is that the leader preferences or perceptions will likely influence the followers, thereby diverting them from their own creative quests. Further, transactional leadership may be viewed as controlling and demotivating, thereby discouraging innovative behaviour among followers (Deci & Ryan, 1987). As can be seen, the transactional leadership style hampers the development of employees' innovative and creative skills, and hence, forestalls personal and organizational growth.

Bass (1985) described leaders who adopt a transactional style as being engrossed with clarifying roles and guiding followers to attain pre-determined goals premised on rewards. Certainly, transactional leaders only offer followers limited participation in decision-making or even none at all (Patiar & Mia, 2009). By and large, leaders using the transactional leadership style may use compensation measures to boost corporate performance. According to Burns (1978), some of these measures include rewarding employees who perform highly, reprimanding those displaying low performance and coping with employees' behaviours with strengthened and punishment mechanisms. From the viewpoint of the social exchange theory as

articulated by Blau, (1964), individual voluntary actions are inspired by returns individuals receive from others. Hence, leaders and subordinates develop commitments with each other through economic and compensatory mechanisms.

Fundamentally, the main focus of transactional leadership is to maintain the status quo and motivate followers via contractual agreement (Bass, 1985). This type of leadership style has a tendency to highlight extrinsic rewards, such as monetary incentives and promotion, as a means of boosting followers' motivation. Several studies have found that transactional leadership is detrimental to creative behaviour (Amabile et al., 1996; Bono & Judge, 2004). Meanwhile, transformational leadership may generate higher job satisfaction of employees and autonomous goal-directed motivation. Pieterse, Knippenberg, Schippers and Stam (2010) argued that the relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates' innovative behaviour as well as the relationship between transactional leadership and individual's innovative behaviour, are dependent on employees' psychological empowerment. As already demonstrated, the inspirational nature of transformational leadership is more effective in prompting innovative behaviour. This type of leadership makes subordinates feel more able to proactively influence their job tasks and working environment, since psychological empowerment is very high. Meanwhile, transactional leadership's focus on clarifying in-role task requirements and performance monitoring may impede extra-role innovative efforts, resulting in decreased subordinates' innovative behaviour. In the final analysis, employees' psychological empowerment should therefore moderate the effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership in stimulating individual innovative behaviour.

Furthermore, according to the LMX theory on a relationship based on transactional or an economic exchange, it may have a stifling effect on employees' creativity because employees are incentivized to perform to the job's explicit specifications (Pieterse et al., 2010). This rationale is in line with existing research findings that indicate that controlling supervisory behaviour is negatively related to employees' creativity (George & Zhou, 2002). Therefore, LMX is an important boundary condition that can augment or mitigate the effect of supervisors' leadership style on employees' behaviour.

5.2.3 Interacting Effects

The current study develops existing research performed within the field of leadership style and employees' job performance by examining whether a specific individual characteristic could moderate the relationship between certain dimensions of these variables. Eight hypotheses (H9, H10, H11, H12, H13, H14, H15 and H16) regarding moderating effects of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness) on the relationships between the transformational and transactional leader behaviours and four job performance constructs (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I and innovative behaviours) were tested. Results demonstrate that three hypotheses (H9, H12, and H15) are significant while the remaining five (H10, H11, H13, H14, and H16) are not significant.

Although intuitively appealing, no study has thus far assessed the possible moderating role of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness) on the relationship between leadership styles, specifically in the light of employees' job performance (task performance,

OCB-O, OCB-I and innovative behaviours). Moreover, studies that have examined personality traits as a moderator have focused on attitude toward advertisements and purchase intentions (Myers et al., 2010); people management and OCB (Chou, 2009); self-other profile agreement and profile consensus (Biesanz & West, 2000); demographic risk on parenting (Kochanska et al., 2007); video games and violence (Markey & Markey, 2010); communication and couple stability (Lazaridè et al., 2010); workplace monitoring system characteristics, fairness, privacy and acceptance (Zweig & Webster, 2003); social structural characteristics and employee empowerment (Samad, 2007); as well as perceptions of organizational justice and sickness absence (Elovainio et al., 2003).

These studies are similar to one another because the dependent variables are measured at the individual level, but the application fields and issues differ. On the other hand, the present study measures the dependent variable also at the individual level, but with job performance (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I and innovative behaviours) of government oil companies, thereby making it different from other studies. Moreover, this study also links each specific dimension of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness) to a specific dimension of job performance (task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I and innovative behaviours) based on the definitions of these dimensions and also depending on the results of previous studies. Thus, the findings of the present study are preliminary and should be interpreted with some caution. In the present work, three moderating effects are found of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness and openness to experience) on the relationship between dimensions of leadership styles and job performance.

The following sections explain the moderating effect of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness) on the relationship of leadership styles with job performance.

5.2.3.1 Significant Moderating Effects

Three hypotheses (H9, H12 and H15) are found to have significant moderating effect. Specifically: (1) significant moderating effect of employees' characteristics (openness to experience) on the relationship between transformational style and innovative behaviour; (2) significant moderating effect of employees' characteristics (conscientiousness) on the relationship between transactional style and OCB-O; and (3) significant moderating effect of employees' characteristics (self-efficacy) on the relationship between transformational style and task performance.

Firstly, openness to experience is one of the employees' characteristics that is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between leadership styles and job performance (innovative behaviour). The results of the study reveal that: (1) transformational style \times openness to experience, has significant interactions (in innovative behaviour). It was, in this regard, hypothesised that the relationship between transformational leadership style and employees' innovative behaviour would be dependent on the level of openness to experience expressed by the individual. More specifically, transformational style would have a less pronounced effect on innovative behaviour when openness is low.

The present study's finding is consistent with other scholars who found openness to experience to have a moderating effect. For example, Baer and Oldham (2006)

conducted a study on the moderating effects of openness to experience, and found that openness to experience moderated the relationship between experienced creative time pressure and creativity. Similarly, Halbinger, (2012) conducted a study on motivation and entrepreneurship and found that openness to experience moderated the effects of entrepreneurship. On a similar note, Wu et al. (2011) conducted a study on motivation, opportunity and ability to share knowledge and found that openness to experience moderated the effects of knowledge sharing. Following are some plausible explications for the moderating influence of openness to experience.

1. Regardless of whether the leader uses high or low transformational style, employees with high openness to experience tend to participate more in innovative behaviour. Since high openness to experience individuals understand the need and importance of enhancing their intrinsic motivation towards novelty and innovation (King et al., 1996), it is not surprising that regardless of the condition they are in, they still show a high level of innovative behaviour. There is strong empirical evidence of a positive relationship between various attributes associated with innovation and those utilized to depict openness (Feist, 1998). Undoubtedly, openness may be the most critical personality dimension used to predict the propensity for innovation and creativity (Batey & Furnham, 2006; Gelade, 1997; Harrison et al., 2006; Patterson, 2002; Wolfradt & Pretz, 2001; Yesil & Sozbilir, 2013). In fact, when the leader provides a high level of empowerment and an innovation-supporting organizational climate (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003), employees with high openness to experience tend to show high innovative behaviour because their trait facilitates them to acquire and learn new things.

They are also highly motivated and seek new and diverse experiences and they engage themselves in unfamiliar situations rather than being passive (Costa & McCrae, 1992). On the other hand, people who have a low level of openness to experience are said to be more conservative and are more likely to prefer familiar and conventional ideas (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

2. Employees display creativity when they “produce novel, potentially useful ideas about organizational products, practices, services or procedures” (Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004, p. 933). The problems of managing employees’ creativity effectively are considerable, and a growing body of research has revealed that leaders can either make or break creative initiatives taken by subordinates through their power of providing or withholding resources and support (e.g., Amabile et al., 2004; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, & Strange, 2002). Hence, leaders fulfil key positions in managing bottom-up creativity as they decide whether creative input may flourish or not (Ford & Gioia, 2000; Janssen, 2005). Thus, the relationship between transformational leadership style and employees’ innovative behaviour would be dependent on the level of openness to experience expressed by the individual. More specifically, transformational style would have a less pronounced effect on innovative behaviour when openness is low.
3. Additionally, in line with the LMX theory, Scott and Bruce (1994) established that LMX quality may be associated with subordinates’ creativity. Subordinates who report having high-quality LMX relationships, which give

subordinates more latitude and less structure, tend to receive higher supervisor ratings of their innovative behaviour. Oldham and Cummings (1996) looked at the effects of a factor they termed “non-controlling” leadership on subordinates’ creativity. Results indicate subordinates who rated their supervisors as less controlling tend to be the more creative subordinates.

4. Openness to experience and supervisor's vision, encouragement and support for innovation (transformational) interact to affect innovative behaviours, such that persons with high ‘openness to experience’ will have the highest innovative behaviour when they receive positive support from their supervisors. Furthermore, the FFM dimension that is most consistently related to innovative behaviour is openness to experience (Yesil & Sozbilir, 2013). McCrae and Costa (1997) contended that “open persons are both more flexible in absorbing information and combining new and unrelated information, and also have a higher need to seek out unfamiliar situations that allow for greater access to new experiences and perspectives”. In line with the intrinsic motivation perspective, supportive leadership styles are anticipated to enhance intrinsic motivation, whereas those that are controlling in nature are expected to diminish intrinsic motivation and innovation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). When supervisors are supportive they show concern for employees’ feelings, provide non-judgmental, informational feedback about their work and encourage them to voice their own concerns (Deci, Connell & Ryan, 1989). For example, Frese et al. (1999) demonstrated that the more supervisors encourage employees, the more creative ideas they submit to the

organization's suggestion program. Shin and Zhou, (2003) found positive relationship between "transformational" leadership (i.e., providing intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and inspirational motivation) and innovation.

5. In addition, transformational leadership behaviours closely match the determinants of innovation and creativity at the workplace, some of which are vision, support for innovation, autonomy, encouragement, recognition and challenge (Elkins and Keller, 2003). These behaviours are likely to act as "creativity enhancing forces": individualized consideration "serves as a reward" for the followers by providing recognition and encouragement; intellectual stimulation "enhances exploratory thinking" by providing support for innovation, autonomy and challenge; and inspirational motivation "provides encouragement for the idea generation process" by energizing followers to work towards the organization's vision (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Sosik et al., 1998: p113). The resulting intrinsic motivation felt by the followers is key source of creativity and innovation (Tierney et al., 1999). In addition, the emotional relationships a transformational leader nurtures with followers might be another creativity-enhancing factor as emotional bonding is likely to yield higher levels of employee innovation (Hunt et al., 2004). In other words, subordinates are more likely to react to the leader's challenge and support for creativity by displaying more innovation in their tasks, in view of the strong emotional bond with their leaders.

6. To sum up, openness to experience should moderate the relationship between fairness perceptions of transformational leadership and innovative behaviours. Prior studies have demonstrated that high openness to experience interacts with feedback to influence innovation (George & Zhou, 2001; James et al., 2004). When bosses or leaders express concern for subordinates and provide helpful information about their work, there is enhanced motivation which creates opportunities for nurturing creativity (Deci et al., 1989; Shalley et al., 2004). In this way, it is probable that interactional justice, which involves factors associated with feedback, may interact with openness to experience to spur creative production.

Secondly, conscientiousness is another characteristic of employees that is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job performance (OCB-O). The findings of the study show that: (1) transactional style \times conscientiousness, has significant interactions in OCB-O. The result shows that the relationship between transactional leadership and OCB-O is strongest among the individuals who display low conscientiousness and weakest among the individuals who display high conscientiousness. In conditions of high transactional leadership, there is a reduction in OCB-O between employees who display high conscientiousness. Nonetheless, under condition of high transactional leadership, there is increase in OCB-O between employees who display low conscientiousness. To put it differently, under conditions of low transactional leadership, employees with high conscientiousness have better OCB-O than those employees with low conscientiousness.

It should be noted that conscientiousness is constituted by the following elements: dependability, achievement-orientedness, dutifulness, carefulness and self-discipline (Mount & Barrick, 1995). From a thematic angle, such predispositions are related to more “impersonal forms of citizenship” (Organ et al., 2006, p. 82), attributable to organization-directed citizenship (OCB-O). As noted by Organ and Lingl, (1995), conscientiousness is “a generalized work involvement tendency (i.e., a liking for rule-governed behaviour that probably is more characteristic of work in organizations than in other life domains)” (p. 341). For that reason, conscientiousness inspires individuals to be committed to their organization and therefore, be keen to engage in OCB-O (Barrick & Mount, 2000). Hence, Barrick and Mount, (1991) considered conscientiousness as the most consistent predictor of employees’ performance. Although conscientiousness has demonstrated the strongest prediction of OCB-O of the employees’ characteristics, it has a negatively significant effect on the relationship between transactional leadership style and OCB-O. Following are some plausible explanations for the moderating influence of conscientiousness:

1. One possible explanation could be the nature of transactional leadership style that depends mainly on exchange relationship as a key dimension reflected by this style of leadership. As already demonstrated, transactional leadership is premised on the link between the expected reward and employee effort, productivity and loyalty (Bass and Riggio, 2006). As a matter of fact, this process only assists followers to meet their basic work requirements as well as maintain the organizational status quo. Furthermore, a transactional leader also limits the followers’ effort in a number of areas, such as goal attainment,

job satisfaction and effectiveness (Bass 1985). It is further suggested that transactional leadership is basically a prescription for organizational mediocrity. Moreover, existing studies have since established that transactional leadership negatively affects OCB (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Graham, 1988). Possibly, employees' could exhibit low level of OCB-O because behaviours, such as time commitment and protecting the organization's assets, are highly discretionary and often difficult for the follower to exactly outline what needs to be done to be rewarded for it.

2. Another possible explanation is linked to the LMX theory. When employees have high quality exchange relationships with their supervisors, they reciprocate the special treatment on the basis of the norm of reciprocity (Liden & Graen, 1980; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne & Green, 1993). Thus, employees with high LMX reciprocate by going beyond specific job expectations and engaging in OCB-O. On the other hand, employees with low LMX will not go beyond specific job expectations and engage in OCB-O because this behaviour is not written in their job description. Moreover, conscientiousness should lead to better OCB-O (Barrick & Mount, 2000), because employees high in conscientiousness are motivated to work hard and do a good job. It simply means that these employees may need other incentives to motivate them for high productivity. Therefore, it is argued that a strong or high quality exchange relationship with supervisors could play an important part in enhancing OCB-O. Thus, conscientious employees may still be high in OCB-O because of their desire to reciprocate favourable treatment by their superiors. As a result, organizations can enhance OCB-O by

recruiting employees who are high in conscientiousness and by encouraging supervisors to develop close, supportive relationships with subordinates.

3. In the same vein, the LMX theory proposes that leaders have differential relationships with specific subordinates (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), and the quality of LMX relationships influences attitudes and behaviours at work. High quality LMX relationships are personal, intangible and open-ended. Low quality LMX relationships are relatively impersonal economic exchanges. According to Lapierre and Hackett (2007), OCB represents employee reciprocation for the satisfying job experiences typically stemming from higher-quality LMX; they also found that OCB may be used, particularly by more conscientious employees, as a means of nurturing higher-quality LMX and to gain access to more satisfying job experiences. Therefore, conscientious employees should be related to OCB-O when LMX is high, because it represents a general work involvement tendency and thus leads to a greater likelihood of obtaining satisfying work rewards (e.g., recognition, respect, feelings of personal accomplishment) (Organ and Lingl 1995). Taken together, the above contentions propose that conscientious workers nurture higher-quality LMX relationships than their less conscientious counterparts, which win them special treatment, bringing about higher job satisfaction, reciprocated through increasing display of OCB.

4. In line with the above, followers who show OCB-O are prone to convey to their leaders a promise to contribute beyond the call of duty for the benefit of their team or unit. In doing so, they are likely to make a great impression,

thereby cultivating high-quality LMX. In this sense, OCB is a social currency that serves to nourish the social exchange relationship between employees and their supervisors. As OCB is viewed as a discretionary part of work roles and is founded on motivational disposition (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), more conscientious followers would be more inspired to exhibit OCB as a potential means of satisfying their personal need for accomplishment and success. In particular, conscientious employees exhibit OCB as a strategy to enhance the quality of the LMX relationship with their immediate supervisors. For the foregoing reason, it is clear that employees who possess high conscientiousness personality tend to develop high social exchange relationship with their supervisors. Given that transactional leaders or supervisors rely mainly on a simple exchange process at the expense of developing social relationships with their employees. Thus, employees would not seek to put more effort to do things which are not involved in the exchange process with their supervisors, such as OCB-O.

Thirdly, self-efficacy is another employee characteristic that has been hypothesized to moderate the relationship between leadership styles and job performance (task performance) in the current study. The results of the study show that: (1) transformational style \times self-efficacy, has negatively significant interactions (in task performance). This finding shows that the relationship between transformational leadership and task performance is strongest among individuals who display low self-efficacy and weakest among the individuals who display high self-efficacy. Employees who display either high or low self-efficacy did not differ much in task performance under condition of low transformational leadership, but large

differences were noted under conditions of high transformational leadership. In other words, under those circumstances, individuals who display high self-efficacy have poor task performance than those who display low self-efficacy.

Even though there is general support for the positive impact of transformational leadership on self-efficacy (Avolio et al., 2004; Kark et al., 2003; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004), as well as on followers' confidence to successfully execute specific tasks (Bandura, 1986). As a matter of fact, there is some empirical evidence that indicates that leaders influence their employees' efficacy beliefs and that those sentiments influence the relationship between leadership and employees' job performance (see Eden, 1992; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). Similarly, Eden (1992) established that subordinates' increased confidence in performing their tasks influences the role of leaders' expressions of high expectations on employees' efforts and accomplishments. But the results of this study are in contrast to what has been mentioned previously. In this regard, the present study establishes that self-efficacy has a significantly negative effect on the relationship between transformational leadership style and task performance. Following are some plausible explications for the moderating influence of self-efficacy:

1. One possible explanation for this variance is clarified by Bandura who observed that self-efficacy can be increased by a person who considers somebody else as a role model for certain behaviour (Bandura, 1977a, 1982). This is called vicarious experience (Bandura, 1977a). In order to make the learning process successful, the role model must have certain attributes. For example, the role model should be similar to the learning person (Bandura,

1977a and b, 1982). Supervisors can serve as role models for their employees and provide possibilities for vicarious experience. They might show that a task is not really difficult to fulfil by their own example. This can increase employees' self-efficacy, especially if leader and member are similar (Schyns, 2004). Thus, since employees in Libyan Oil companies know that their leaders have been appointed as leaders or supervisors based on their tribal and political backgrounds and not on their experience and efficiency, they would not view their supervisors as role models for increasing their own self-efficacy. In a way, the foregoing may help to explain the negative effect of leadership on employees' self-efficacy in the relationship between transformational leadership style and task performance as established in the present study.

2. Moreover, idealized influence, one of the transformational leadership dimensions that refers to the ability to exert influence by serving as a role model, demonstrating both high commitment and high moral standards (Felfe & Schyns, 2002), such leaders exhibit what they expect others to do. Their legitimacy is based on personal integrity and competence. Furthermore, they earn trust and respect because they are ready to take personal risks. In this way, they display a high degree of self-efficacy. Followers develop a high degree of admiration and try to emulate such behaviours (Felfe & Schyns, 2002). Because transformational leaders in Libyan oil organizations do not serve as a good role model for high self-efficacy via idealized influence, therefore, their followers will not try to emulate them as a role model, and

hence, employees would not develop a high degree of admiration or try to emulate such leaders.

3. Another possible explanation could be because of high task demands. According to Felfe and Schyns, (2002), the relationship between leadership behaviours and self-efficacy is moderated by the task a subordinate has to perform. Bandura (1977, 1997) pointed out that a key determinant of self-efficacy is mastery experience. As a result, when sufficient or high task demands are provided (to put it differently, when the opportunity for mastery experience is offered), the influence of transformational leadership on followers' self-efficacy will be negative. In a related development, Felfe and Schyns, (2002) found that transformational leadership does not have an effect on self-efficacy for employees with high task demands. In other words, since these employees experience mastery in highly demanding tasks, their self-efficacy is gleaned from the task itself. Thus, transformational leadership becomes less important.

4. Task demands could be the reason for the negative impact of employees' self-efficacy on the association between transformational leadership and task performance. Felfe and Schyns, (2002), in their study, found that the impact of transformational leadership on self-efficacy is negative for low task demands. They further established that transformational leadership, in using vision to express goals, might be asking too much of followers in the case of low task demands. In fact, for employees with low task demands, these visions might be more of a threat than a challenge, resulting in a situation

where transformational leaders diminish employees' self-efficacy. Another explanation for this phenomenon could be found in "weak subordinates prefer high transformational leaders". Subordinates with low job demands also develop a lower level of self-efficacy. These subordinates (with low self-efficacy) may simply view their leaders as less critical and more transformational.

5. According to the Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), as articulated by Bandura (1997, 2001), employees' behaviour (in this case, task performance) is the result of a combination of personal resources (e.g., self-efficacy), and contextual resources (e.g., transformational leadership). The SCT defines self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capacities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura 1997, p. 3). Research shows that people with high self-efficacy perceive troubles as challenges, are highly committed to the activities they carry out and invest more time and effort in their daily activities (Bandura 2001). Bandura (2000a, b) argued that supportive relationships can enhance self-efficacy through role-modelling attitudes and strategies for managing problems, and providing resources for coping. Hence, supervisors are not able to increase levels of employees' self-efficacy because they are not acting as good role models so that employees do not learn from their leaders or follow their good example. The finding of this study could be because supervisors with transformational leadership did not show a good vicarious experience (role modelling) and verbal persuasion, which are two of the main sources of self-efficacy.

6. Self-efficacy represents an individual's belief in his or her abilities to effectively fulfil a particular assignment or task (Bandura, 1986). Bandura (1997) proposed that self-efficacy plays a key role in task related performance by influencing employees' choices, persistence and effort. On the other hand, there are limited studies that have investigated the impact of efficacy beliefs and leadership style on work-related attitudes across diverse national cultures (Gibson, 1999; Lam et al., 2002; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Xie, 2000). Since efficacy has been characterised as a state versus a trait, it is probable that it can be influenced by the context or culture in which the person is embedded in over time. As such, to the degree that an individual's efficacy is moderated by aspects of the cultural context and the individual's cultural background, how leadership is moderated by efficacy across national cultures is conceivably a key issue for generalizing work on efficacy across diverse cultural contexts (Walumbwa, Lawler, Avolio, Wang & Shi, 2005). In a global business setting, determining the most ideal approaches to lead a more diverse workforce must take into account how both leadership style and motivation are moderated across different cultural contexts (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). As a result of the foregoing, the tribal culture of the Libyan society may be one of the reasons that has led to the negative effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between transformational leadership style and task performance, because the staff at Libyan companies may have generated a sense of discrimination because their supervisors treat employees who belong to the same political affiliation, tribe and city differently from the rest of the employees. Consequently, employees with high self-efficacy will

perform their assigned tasks depending on their self-efficacy instead of depending on their supervisors' leadership style.

5.2.3.2 Non-Significant Moderating Effects

Five hypotheses (H10, H11, H13, H14 and H16) are found to be non-significant. Specifically, the non-significant relationships are found for the effect employees' characteristics have as a moderator in the relationship between leadership style and employees' job performance: (1) openness to experience on the relationship between transactional style and innovative behaviour; (2) moderating effect of conscientiousness between transformational leadership style and OCB-O; (3) agreeableness on the relationship between transformational leadership style and OCB-I; (4) the role of agreeableness on the relationship between transactional leadership style and OCB-I; and (5) self-efficacy as a moderator on the relationship between transactional leadership style and task performance. The results demonstrate that sampled respondents are indifferent to the role of leadership style in helping followers to perform their jobs, as well as putting their characteristics first as catalysts for eliciting job performance and eventual performance of task, OCB-I, OCB-O and innovative behaviours. Some plausible explanations for these findings are presented in the following sections.

Firstly, one possible reason may be because of employees' characteristics. Employees' characteristics have developed as a key determinant when researchers attempt to know why people think, feel and behave the way they do at work. Existing research has linked employees' characteristics to many key aspects of work, including job performance. According to a number of studies, employees' job

performance is affected by situational factors, such as the job characteristics, workmates, as well as the organisation itself (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Strümpfer et al., 1998). It is also stated that dispositional factors also affect employees' job performance. Basically, these dispositional factors refer to personality characteristics, attitudes, needs, preferences and motives that result in a tendency to respond to situations in a predetermined way (House et al., 1996). As already seen, job performance is highly influenced by employees' characteristics, such as personality trait and self-efficacy. In this sense, various studies and meta-analyses have demonstrated that the various big five personality dimensions are closely related to employees' job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997; Vinchur et al., 1998). On the other hand, it has been discovered that self-efficacy influences an individual's emotional reactions and thought patterns. Meanwhile, self-efficacy has also been described as a function of self-belief that enables individuals to fulfil a task (Bandura, 1986). Hence, it can be stated that high self-efficacy will most certainly result in enhanced job performance and productivity (Lai & Chen, 2012).

Notably, few studies have established that personality is a key determinant of employees' job performance (Barrick et al., 2001; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006). Nonetheless, since organizations have started to integrate personality testing in their recruitment processes, there has been reasonable doubt in terms of their true utility (Giles et al., 2008). Compared to the effect of employees' characteristics on job performance in this study, the effect of leadership styles is weak at times and negative at other times when employees' characteristics play the role as a moderator. When the employee has the positive characteristics needed to perform the tasks entrusted to him or her, those characteristics will help him or her to

do those tasks, regardless of the impact of the supervisor's leadership style. Although the supervisor's leadership style plays a key role in influencing the employees' job performance, this study, however, has proven that the characteristics of the staff play a more crucial role than the role of leadership style in affecting the performance of the employees. Even though leadership style has been considered as a motivator that inspires employees to increase their job performance (leaders' ability to motivate their employees to perform their jobs), some fairly recent research support prior findings as established by Dudley et al. (2006) who confirmed that personality traits are indicators of employees' behavioural outcomes at the workplace. Even though most existing studies on the current topic have been conducted in the US context, it should be noted that Salgado (1997) has produced similar results from a large-scale sample in the European context. Undoubtedly, this demonstrates that the results are universally accepted and that it is possible to generalize them across different cultural contexts.

In view of the foregoing, it is imperative for leaders to understand personality dimensions as well as accurately modify their leadership styles to the management situation. Some scholars, like Bass (1990), have observed that theorists on personality have a tendency to regard leadership as a one-way process. Although leaders possess qualities that are distinct from those of subordinates, most theorists, however, do not recognise the degree to which leaders and subordinates have interactive effects that allow the latter to determine which qualities of subordinates are ideal in a particular setting or context. As such, personality is an indicator of leadership emergence across diverse people and situations. As aptly captured by Lord (1986), "in short, personality traits are associated with leadership emergence to

a higher degree and more consistently than popular literature indicates" (p. 407). In much the same way, Barrick and Mount (1993) established a significant relationship between personality and employees' job performance.

More importantly, as it is clear in section 4.10, the impact of employees' characteristics is higher than the impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance. The results are in line with the argument of Kamdar and Van Dyne (2007) that personality would predict helping behaviours only when social exchange relationships are of poor quality. According to them, the reciprocal nature of strong exchange relationships in the workplace would be sufficient to initiate OCBs, and would therefore limit the impact of personality. They also explained that even individuals low in conscientiousness and agreeableness, who normally would not be expected to portray a great deal of helping behaviours, may be more altruistic due to strong social exchange relationships in the workplace, which would incline them to reciprocate any positive action(s) from superiors and co-workers. The study revealed that social exchange (both TMX and LMX) interacted with personality (both conscientiousness and agreeableness) influence OCB, in this case, represented by helping.

According to Bowler and Brass (2006), an individual that performs citizenship behaviour believes that even-handed or equitable reciprocation will occur at a future date. The authors introduced strong friendship ties and suggested that they lead to reciprocity and social exchange, and facilitate the allowance of short-term inequity necessary for social exchange to occur. They also alluded that friendship would involve fondness (or agreeableness) between both parties. In the lack or absence of

this fondness, or in the case of dependence or influence, where the parties are not necessarily friends but are socially dependent on each other, or there is not necessarily dependence, but one party possesses status or power and thus wields some influence, they draw upon impression management theory, proposing that an attempt at impression management may be made through ingratiation. Chen, Lin, Tung and Ko (2008) did indeed find ingratiation motives to be positively associated with OCB directed at supervisors. Therefore, when citizenship behaviours are exuded, they may not be the result of reciprocation expectation, but the hope of changing the other's opinion to obtain the desired outcomes.

Secondly, the other possible mechanism for these findings may have to do with the process of appointing leaders and supervisors in the Libyan oil companies. According to Agnia (1997), the Libyan social environment is dominated by the collective-based social relations, such as the extended family, tribe, clan and village social systems. Notably, these social systems play a key role in the Libyan community as well as the manner in which people relate to each other. Decisions in Libyan organizations on key issues, such as staffing, job selection and promotion, are shaped primarily by personal links, community attitudes, customs and beliefs. As pointed out earlier, a number of studies on Libya have found that personal relations and family ties play a more crucial role than professional or academic qualifications in the appointment of managers and supervisors. Furthermore, Libyan managers are more concerned with developing social relations rather than focusing on the job itself at the workplace (Agnia, 1997). In addition to that, Handy (1993) highlighted the significance of political reality considerations to the organizations' success. For instance, one of the negative political influences in Libyan society is that managerial

appointment may be made by political connections rather than professional competence (Agnia, 1997).

Almintisir et al., (2012 highlighted that the managers in Libyan public organizations are either not qualified or do not have the leadership skills to support their subordinates in order to achieve higher performance. Unfortunately, such a scenario has affected the optimization of economic activities and ability to perform required tasks, leading to other problems, such as indifference, absenteeism, failure to abide by appointments, lateness and signing off before the end of the shift (Agnia, 1997). Agnaia's study confirmed observations made by earlier studies that the manner of management and its operations within organizations are clearly influenced by many social and cultural factors. This reinforces the assertion that unique environmental conditions of developing countries need to be taken into account in developing appropriate strategies that enhance employees' performance. As can be seen, Libyan oil organizations need to hire people for leadership and supervisory role based on merit-based criteria if they are to be more effective and efficient. However, considering the impact of Libya's social systems on its activities means that achieving merit-based system is still a figment of imagination.

Consistent with the foregoing, Pargeter (2006) stated out that the socio-cultural structure in Libya and its integration into the political system, comprising an informal association of popular leaders, including senior leaders of all the Libyan tribes. Consequently, Libya is still suffering the real limitations of a development model based on the ideology of its current administrative system that strives to impose the rule of law in the country (Aboajela, 2015).

Thirdly, the impact of tribal influences on the Libyan societal structure should be taken into consideration given that Libyan organizations as well workers care about the reputation of their names, families, clans and tribes. As a result, social reputation is an integral component of Libyan societal relations (Twati, 2006). The Libyan purely tribal society and employees of oil companies in Libya are interested in mentioning the names of their families and tribes. In a tribal society, such as the Libyan society, the managers will treat employees who belonging to their tribes, tribal allies and political affiliation, differently from their dealing with other employees.

Lawaj (2014), in his study, supported the argument that Libyan organizations as well as Arab companies still suffer from the negative aspects of tribal ties and primary group relations. The study also revealed that most company managers have strong relationships with their tribes; thus they treat employees differently and support them when they need help from those managers, which may generate distrust in supervisors. As a result, the exchange level between the employee and the supervisor will drop to its lowest level (low level of LMX) due to the sense of discrimination by supervisors. Therefore, the employees will not provide assistance to the supervisor or other employees because of their sense of discrimination.

Furthermore, negative or unhealthy relationships in the workplace can engender bad communication amongst subordinates and co-workers alike. In such an environment, there will be poor usage of followers' skills, followed by a low level of employees' job satisfaction. In other words, the working environment will be characterized by low productivity (Baron & Paulus, 1991; Bruce et al., 2002; Lamberton & Evans,

2002; Topolosky, 2000). In addition, tribesmen look at nepotism as a duty to do something for one's tribe; otherwise he or she will be criticised. People view these ties as creating loyalty and reflecting trust among the society. In fact, such practices are contrary to Islamic values, but it has been found that most employees in many organizations do not strictly adhere to the Islamic values, even though they know and understand that these values are very important in their religion (Lawaj, 2014).

Additionally, in line with the social exchange theory, when a person does a favour for another person, there is an anticipation of some future favourable return (Blau, 1964) which is not the case in the Libyan oil organizations. It is likely that the moderating effect of employees' characteristics is not shown by the participants in the current study because of the absence of the leadership trust that they have not been receiving from their supervisors. Kim, O'Neill and Cho (2010) observed that subordinates who have a relatively poor working relationship with their managers or leaders (low quality LMX relationship) are more prone to display higher levels of envy than those who have relatively closer working relationships with the same managers (high-quality LMX relationship). In the final analysis, higher levels of envy will affect the relationship between supervisors and their employees as well as employees and their co-workers. From the above discussion, it is clear that fair treatment of employees, regardless of their tribal and political background, will contribute to improving the relationship between employees and their superiors and their performance. Importantly, it plays a key role in hindering or facilitating the efficacy of an organization. Thus, managers and supervisors in the Libyan oil companies need to work hard to raise the spirit of cooperation and teamwork among

employees, which will contribute to creating a healthy working environment, thus leading to raising the efficiency of the organization.

5.3 Implications, Limitations and Future Research Directions

This section examines the implications of the study's results to both practice and theory. This section also discusses the limitations of the study and proposes several suggestions for future research.

5.3.1 Implications of the Study

It is worth mentioning that theories are developed from within the practice and hence influence the nurturing of new practices, which in turn are utilized as the basis for the generation of new theories and new practices. To appreciate the context of Libyan job performance, the author applied path-goal theory, social exchange theory, LMX theory and social learning or cognitive theory and leadership style with particular reference to the role of employees' characteristics. The researcher found leadership style based on the LMX theory is useful for investigating job performance of employees. On the other hand, it is surprising that the impact of employees' characteristics on job performance is higher than the effect of leadership style, which proves that employees' characteristics play an important role in affecting employees' job performance. The results of the present study have several important implications for: (1) organizational management; (2) theory development; and (3) methodology of research. The implications are discussed in the following sections.

5.3.1.1 Practical Implications

Based on the research findings, several practical implications can be highlighted. The study shows that employees' job performance is affected by the leadership dimensions (i.e., transformational and transactional), and employees' characteristics dimensions (i.e., self-efficacy, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness). The first objective of the study is to determine the job performance level of the employees in the oil and gas industry in Libya. The study reveals that the job performance level is low compared to several studies in the same field. As such, the employees' job performance in the Libyan oil and gas organization needs to be increased. This needs a collaborative effort from four parties, namely policy-makers, organizations, leaders/supervisors and employees. The following explains how the four parties could benefit from the findings.

To the policy-makers, the findings will assist them to improve employees' job performance in the country as whole. It would also guide them in developing and formulating better policies that will result in better employees' job performance. Hence, it is anticipated that the findings of this study would help policy-makers to adopt clear strategy to improve employees' working conditions in Libya by formulating better policies and programs that could force organizations in Libya to provide better organizational climate for its employees.

As noted by Yousef (2001), in accordance to the Islamic work ethics, social relations at work must rely on honesty, diligence and respect for co-workers. As pointed out in the Qur'an, God created people from different nations and tribes to know one another. Hence, Muslim people know the significance of good relationships with

other people of other nationalities or religions. Therefore, policy-makers need to launch a national campaign to raise the level of citizenship among the citizens and encourage them to put national interests above the interests of the tribe, family, village and political affiliation. Thus, policy-makers need to adopt a clear strategy to raise the level of awareness and adopt the policy of the right person in the right position instead of charity begins at home, when appointing managers in the Libyan companies. Even though there are many Libyan people holding higher degrees from countries with a good educational environment, such as Malaysia, the USA and the UK, still, managers and supervisors in the most companies in Libya are appointed because of their personal and tribal relations. Thus, policy-makers need to apply the principle of irregularities and severe sanctions over Libyan companies that promote and hire staff on the basis of tribal and family relations, to reduce this phenomenon. As a result of that, companies will adopt better criteria based on the educational qualifications and efficiency in the process of selection of their employees.

Moreover, policy-makers need to encourage the organizations to establish disciplinary procedures and dissuasive sanctions and implement them. Companies need to re-evaluate the punishment procedures if those punishment procedures really exist. . For instance, how can violators be punished in the absence of clarity of those disciplinary actions, which should be known to the employees before they commit the offenses. There are challenges relating to the dissemination of legal penalties as well as the execution, because most of employees who contribute to the documented cases of negative behaviours are punished by a raft of measures that do not take into account the employees' relations or their tribes. The situation in Libya is that the implementation of law and administrative penalties are practiced along class lines

resulting in some employees being excluded from certain administrative penalties. Unsurprising, this discrimination involving employees encourages those who are exempted to commit further violations at the workplace since they are ostensibly “above the law”.

To the oil organizations, the current findings contribute in different ways. Libyan oil organizations, have to promote a culture of the right person in the right position when appointing leaders/supervisors. In addition, oil organizations need to disseminate the principles and methods of collective work between their employees based on mutual respect and work for the collective interest. Libyan oil organizations also have to adopt a better performance appraisal system to measure employees' job performance in the organization.

In addition, as pointed out by Agnia (1997), the difficulties that face Arab organizations emanate from the traits of Arab managers who prioritise seniority rather than merit. These managers also emphasise centralization rather than decentralization, and are nepotistic in nature. Given that these characteristics are prevalent in Arab societies, it is not surprising that Arab organisations continue to experience difficulties in achieving their organisational objectives. Thus, the oil organizations in Libya need to activate accurate and objective criteria for staffing and promotion in the public sector, based on efficiency, integrity and probity, experience, achievement rates and also by taking into consideration employees' characteristics in the selection process, because of its significant effect on job performance which has been found in this study.

The research findings underline the relevance of employees' characteristics to the workplace environment. In addition to being consistent and moderately strong determinants or predictors of employees' job performance, it appears that they play a role in nurturing work relationships as well as enhancing employees' job satisfaction. For that reason, the suggestion to include measures of employees' characteristics among the set of evaluations utilized to choose persons for jobs is reinforced. Thus, employees' characteristics are generally and consistently linked to a range of positive job outcomes.

Hollenbeck (2000) developed an integrated theory of person-organization fit in which organizational structure is compared to the personality traits of the organization's members. Usually, an organization creates a functional structure that allows it to successfully integrate with its external environment. Under those circumstances, the features of the functional structure develop unique internal environmental conditions that require members of the organisation to possess certain personality traits in order to achieve efficiency. Hollenbeck (2000) proposed that successful organizations should engage employees who have the necessary personality characteristics that allow them to integrate well into both the organization's internal and external environments.

In addition, as demonstrated by this study, managerial implementation as well as the use of correct methods which will lead to the fulfilment of justice and equality, may enhance prosperity, welfare and progress among all segments of society. On the contrary, the spread of administrative corruption will yield paralysis management (that empties society of its scientific and humanitarian content), which in turn affect

the functioning of the state in all sectors that connects the state and the citizen to several negative points including: the migration of the competencies and minds of scientists out of the country because of the frustration and sense of injustice.

To leaders and supervisors, Libyan social characteristics play a crucial role in the country's community life and social relations, including the working environment. Consequently, creating an enabling working environment is a prerequisite for boosting the relationship between employees and their supervisors and co-workers alike. This would in turn provide a sense of security and job satisfaction. Supervisors have to treat their employees fairly, by offering them the same opportunity of progress irrespective of tribe, social class and family affiliation, either inside or outside their organisations. Furthermore, both leaders as well as supervisors in Libyan organizations should not view advice, opinions or feedback emanating from their employees negatively. Allowing such practices will correct some anomalies, such as the central decision making processes which are prevalent in most Libyan organisations. In addition, it would be better for the leaders and supervisors to display both transformational and transactional leadership styles by applying either style in view of the prevailing situation and the personal characteristics of the employees involved. Also, the leaders and supervisors should use the findings of this study to choose employees with the right characteristics for the right job.

Burns (1978) explained that transactional leadership plays a role in satisfying the needs of both leaders and followers by activating a certain type of exchange relationship between the two parties and such leadership legitimizes consistent and stable situations. Daft (1999) emphasized that transactional leadership is necessary

for maintaining current organizational stability by focusing on a commitment to implement mutually agreed upon rules between leaders and subordinates, while a different kind of leadership (i.e., transformational leadership) is required if organizational change is pursued. Emphasizing the role of transactional leadership in relation to transformational leadership, Bass (1999) claimed, “Transactional leadership can be reasonably satisfying and effective but transformational leadership adds substantially to the impact of transactional leadership”. Therefore, transactional leadership needs to be equally considered with transformational leadership in Libyan oil organizations.

The results or findings have significant practical implications. For instance, organizations can boost employees' job performance by recruiting employees who possess positive characteristics. Similarly, organisations can enhance job performance by encouraging leaders to cultivate close and supportive relationships with their subordinates. Recent research findings show that high quality social exchange relationships can compensate for undesirable employee traits. This has serious practical implications because supervisors often inherit subordinates and do not have the opportunity to select them on the basis of their personality, characteristics or traits. In a scenario or setting in which a leader has a subordinate who is low in conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience and self-efficacy, developing a high quality LMX relationship is a significant and realistic route for boosting employees' job performance.

Finally, employees would also benefit from the findings obtained in this study, as it will provide them with the adequate knowledge about the importance of their job

performance for them and for the organization as whole. It can assist them to understand the importance of their characteristics in predicting job performance and work climate in the organization. Moreover, the findings would provide them with the level of their job performance as evaluated by their direct supervisors, which were found to be moderate. Thus the employees in Libyan oil organizations need to take serious actions to increase their performance which will lead to improving the organization's performance and the economy of the country as a whole, since the oil industry is considered as the backbone of the Libyan economy.

In addition, it will also expose them to how the good relations between the employees coupled with the good relations with the supervisors, would lead to better organizational climate, especially to those who want to stay longer in the organization. Thus, their relations with supervisors and co-workers would help them achieve this main objective. Over and above this, employees must understand that positive relations at the workplace is everyone's responsibility, and each person has to develop better relations with co-workers and supervisors in the organization based on mutual respect and appreciation. In addition, collective interest must prevail over private interests. As a result, employees need to establish a positive work environment within their organizations by developing a sense of belonging to the organization, as well as considering their organizations as mini versions of Libya.

From the above discussion, the current findings have contributed to management practice in three major ways: (1) the importance of using both transformational and transactional leadership styles depends on the situation and the employees' characteristics; (2) the importance of employees' characteristics as a significant factor

in job performance; and (3) the importance of employees' characteristics as a significant moderating variable on leader behaviours and employees' job performance.

5.3.1.2 Theoretical Implications

Results from the current study have extended interaction effects beyond those established by prior studies. In this sense, this study contributes new information to the body of knowledge in employees' job performance research. Firstly, findings from the present study contribute to the empirical research on the relationship between leadership styles and job performance, thus offering empirical validation to the theoretical justification of the social exchange theory (Gouldner, 1960) in the Libyan oil industry, which indicates that as one party acts in ways that benefit another party, an implicit obligation for future reciprocity is created.

One of the main issues or gaps addressed in this study is the lack of empirical literature on the moderating role of employees' characteristics in the relationship between leadership style and job performance in developing countries, such as Libya. Therefore, conducting this study in a developing country like Libya has contributed to the already existing knowledge and consequently to the extant literature in this domain.

In this study, employees' characteristics are found to moderate the relationship between leadership style and job performance. The role of employees' characteristics in affecting job performance is important as it enhances understanding of the diversity of individual differences in accomplishing their assigned tasks. Hence,

future researchers may consider incorporating relevant employees' characteristics in their job performance.

In summary, findings of this study, to the author's best knowledge, constitute one of the first pieces of empirical research on the moderating effect of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership styles and job performance in the Libyan oil industry. Hence, this study adds to the existing knowledge on the combined effect of leadership styles and employees' characteristics and their effects on job performance. Furthermore, this study contributes to the current body of knowledge by individually investigating the effects of employees' characteristics and linking them with leadership styles and job performance dimensions. The results partially support the interaction effect of leadership styles and employees' characteristics in relation to job performance. Nevertheless, the overall results indicate that some dimensions of leadership styles and employees' characteristics have significant interactions. Hence, the role of these organizational behaviour approaches in complementing one another should be recognized.

Notably, based on the path-goal theory, the model of the current study was developed to explain the factors that influence the relationship between leadership style and job performance. Robbins et al. (2007) opined that employees' characteristics play an important moderating role in the relationship between leadership styles and employees' outcomes. The present study expanded the original model by including more employees' characteristics dimensions, such as self-efficacy, openness to experience, conscientiousness and agreeableness. The findings generally indicate the validity of the path-goal theory in explaining employees' job performance.

Additionally, the findings of this study have extended the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) indicates that in order for relationships to thrive, parties in the relationships must have the feeling of mutual benefits for each other. Using the social exchange theory, therefore, this study has been able to establish that certain leadership styles are able to motivate their employees to accomplish their tasks and work beyond their assigned duties (i.e., innovative behaviours, OCB-I, and OCB-O), by offering them high level of social exchange. The study confirms the transformational leadership behaviours, including high level of social exchange, have strong impact on most job performance dimensions in this study such as: innovative behaviours, OCB-O and task performance.

Technically, the positive and significant relationships among transformational leaders' behaviours, employees' characteristics and job performance (innovative behaviours, task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O) are consistent with the social exchange theory. When a leader offers positive supportive service, an implied commitment for future reciprocation on the followers' side is activated. The followers then act in discretionary ways that benefit the organization by working beyond the expectation. Such reciprocation forms the basis for more genuine concern for welfare and personal development of the followers from the leader. Hence, continuous supportive exchanges between the leader and followers are created. The findings of this study have, therefore, validated and extended the social exchange theory (1964) by portraying employees' job performance through the mechanics of transformational leadership and employees' characteristics. Theoretically, this validation is significant because it has extolled the relevance of the social exchange

theory (1964) by explaining a contemporary leader-employee exchange relationship. More specifically, the findings show that enhanced fair social exchange relations, as originally described in the social exchange theory, between transformational leader and his/her followers, depends on the positive characteristics of the workers, which ultimately influence the employees' job performance.

Likewise, the findings of this study have also extended the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). As can be seen, the social learning theory indicates that human learning occurs mostly in a social context by observing others (Bandura, 1977). In addition, individuals observe role models and the consequences of role-model behaviours in order to learn about the utility and suitability of behaviours, and then act in accordance with their beliefs concerning the expected outcomes of their actions. Using the social learning theory, this study has been able to establish that transformational and transactional leaders who exhibit behaviours, particularly high social exchange, high economic exchange, fair work environment, equal treatment of employees and putting subordinates first are attractive for role-modelling by most followers. As a result of this, the followers experience fair treatment and consequently become motivated to perform their job (innovative behaviours, task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O). The findings of the current study have therefore validated the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) by portraying that transformational and transactional leaders are emulated by followers leading to better performance through the mechanism of employees' job characteristics.

5.3.2 Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

This study has provided some insights into the significance of leadership styles in job performance. However, this research has several notable limitations, both conceptual and methodological. Firstly, this study examined job performance from a management perspective. Other factors, such as organization culture and climate, may also contribute to or interfere with job performance (Awadh & Saad, 2013; Uddin, Luva, & Hossain, 2012). The exclusion of these factors is a recognized limitation on the generalizability of the present result. Secondly, this study contains several limitations that limit the interpretation of the results. A key limitation of the current study is the usage of a cross-sectional design for the survey research, which captures the views of participants at one point in time. Hence, the study cannot prove causal relationships on a longitudinal basis and so is limited in explaining factors influencing job performance more comprehensively.

Thirdly, the findings may not be generalized to a larger context across diverse industries because the data collected for this study were limited to the Libyan oil industry. Different industries and business environments have different effects of leadership styles and employees' characteristics on job performance; so other studies can explore their relationships in different contexts. Finally, generalizability is also difficult because the sample came from some of government-linked organizations (i.e., Libyan NOC, Waha Oil Company, Harouge Oil Operation Company, Zueitina Oil Company, Mellita Oil and Gas Company, Mabruk Oil Operation Company and Brega Petroleum Marketing Company) in Libya. The results may be applicable to employees in those organizations only. However, the findings of this study can be useful to oil organizations as well as other organizations working in Libya.

While there are limitations that should be recognized when interpreting the findings of this study, the present study also recognizes opportunities for further research. Future research directions derived from this study can be summed up as follows. First, further research to examine the generalizability of the results is required to enhance the effect of the factors and measurement tools on the improvement of job performance in the oil industry through other variables, such as organization culture and climate. Second, given that the survey research in this study is based on a cross-sectional design, further work needs to be conducted to establish the effect of changes over a longer period of time in the aspects of leadership styles and employees' characteristics. Therefore, future studies should consider longitudinal studies to examine how job performance is affected by leadership styles and employees' characteristics. Third, the study sample is limited to the oil industry in Libya. Future studies should consider replicating this study in other cultural environments or countries, especially in terms of the moderating effect of employees' characteristics. In addition, further work needs to be conducted in a peaceful environment, especially in Libya after the civil war is over.

Future research should also be conducted in other sectors or industries aside from oil industry, such as manufacturing, petrochemical, cement and iron and steel industries, to broaden the knowledge about the factors that contribute to the improvement of job performance in Libya. Finally, given that this study employed a quantitative approach in its design and analysis, the data gathered is limited to the questionnaire responses. Hence, the use of qualitative techniques or methods should be adopted in future research because these approaches provide insights into and understanding of the problem context. To sum up, results of this study would be more meaningful if

both quantitative and qualitative methods are adopted because these approaches complement each other.

5.4 Conclusion

This research has provided additional evidence to the growing body of knowledge concerning the moderating role of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership style and employees' job performance. Results from this study lend support to the key theoretical propositions. In particular, the current study has successfully answered all of the research questions and objectives despite some of its limitations. While there have been many studies examining the underlying causes of leadership style, the present study addresses the theoretical gap by incorporating employees' characteristics as a significant moderating variable.

The present study has identified several gaps that still exist in the current job performance literature on the relationship of leadership styles and job performance. Previous studies in this area have not addressed the following issues in their research: (1) considering innovative citizenship behaviour as a dimension of OCB (extra-role performance); (2) the level of job performance; and (3) possible moderator of employees' characteristics on the relationship of leadership styles and job performance. Meanwhile, the present study tries to link each specific dimension of employees' characteristics with specific dimensions of job performance based on their theoretical definitions with support of previous studies' results. This study has contributed to the body of knowledge by examining the effect of leadership styles on job performance, which includes employees' characteristics as a moderator. Thus,

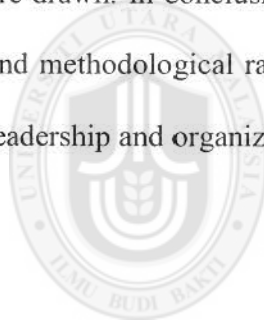
the current attempt has managed to fill the gaps that exist in the job performance literature.

This study also lends theoretical and empirical support for the moderating role of employees' characteristics on the relationship between leadership style and job performance. The study has also managed to evaluate how employees' characteristics theoretically moderate the relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables. The theoretical framework of this study has also added to the domain of the path-goal theory, LMX theory and social learning theory by examining the influence of transformational (social exchange) and transactional (economic exchange) leadership styles on the dimensions of job performance (task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O and innovative citizenship behaviours) as well as the moderating effect of employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience).

This study has generally found that the level of job performance in the Libyan oil organizations to be moderate, but low compared to that in other studies in other parts of the globe. This requires that the managers in Libyan oil organizations improve the level of job performance because the oil industry is the backbone of Libyan economy. This study also found that transformational leadership style is significantly related to job performance (task performance, innovative behaviours and OCB-O). Additionally, the current study discovered that transactional leadership is significantly related to task performance and OCB-O, but not significantly related to innovative behaviours and OCB-I. In addition, the study established partial support for the role of employees' characteristics as a moderator in the relationship between

leadership style and employees' job performance. Surprisingly, this study found that employees' characteristics (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and self-efficacy) have a stronger direct effect on job performance than leadership style. This means that employees' characteristics can play a crucial role as independent variable in the relationship with job performance, especially in the Libyan context.

In addition to the theoretical contributions, the results from this study provide some key practical implications that may be helpful to both organizations and managers. Furthermore, on limitations of the current study, several future research directions are drawn. In conclusion, the current study has added valuable theoretical, practical and methodological ramifications to the growing body of knowledge in the field of leadership and organizational behaviour, particularly human resource management.



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APPENDIXES



Appendix A Arabic and English Questionnaire

UUM
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لرحمن لرحيم

ا ليكم ورحم بركتكم ه

اختي/ اخي الهمستحيب (ة):

انا طلب بدراسات غي من جامع قاوت ارفي ملقي اربل عي جراهست اراء لموظفي نفي شركات لبط ولاغ لثولبي فلبني قمتطلبات لوصول غي درجة لثك توراه في مجال ارة.

نظرا ا هية الاضاي صرالبش خري فكل موظين و اساليب التي ادة اليتبعه امن قبل ال مدراء و لالمش في زوئتناي رها التي ا اداء ال موظين ال في نظم ال لثكل, فنظرا ا هية اذال ال في م ق ا لثكل علوم ا رى ا تني طني ال دوللان اي غليي ا, فان هذه ال و اس قتم هدف ا عطاء طسورة ووضوح و قشامل ال ق لثكل ال في راتبع لعض ه ليك عض, ا مر ال ذي في و د ا بدوره ال في غزي زف هم ال بين هذه ال في راتوئتناي رها على ال و يظف ليك موظين ال ذي ي بدوره ا و ف ا بين عكس ال ي ا دا ل في نظم ه لثكل و على و ضع ه لثكس ي ف ل ا س و ق. ا

اختي/ اخي الهمستحيب (ة) (نان ي ادر ك في م ة و ق ك م و ا ع ا ال عمل ال لخص قباكم, و ل كن م ش ا ر ك م م ت ع ي ر ا م ن ا م م ا ا ي ا ل ن ج ا ح ة ذ ل و اس ق و ا ن ا م ل ا ن ا ل م ش ا ر ك ه ي ا ذ ا ا ت ن ت ط ل ب ل ا ت ر ا م ن ا I O ا ق و ا ق. ا

ا

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توحيات بش ان ا حبة على ا ان:

من ل م ارسيتك ال هوية و ع ا ت ك م ع ال موظين ال في ن و ل ع ل و ن ت ا ح ت و ق ل ث ك ال ب ب ش ر ة ا ر ج و ا ن ك ا ا خ ي ال ه م س ت ح ي ب ا ب ن ع ل ي ا ة م ع ا م ر ع ا ل ت ل ي: ا

- قراء ة ن ف ت م ع ن ق ل ا ب ة.
- ا م ر ا ا. ا ر ج و ا ض ع ا ط ر ة ا ح و ل ا ح ل ث ك م ع ا م ر ا ة ا ل ق ة و ل ا ح ص ل ق ي ة ا ع ن د ا ب ة ا ح ي ث ا ن ا ج ع ا ل ع ل و م ا ت م ت ع م ل ف ي ا ا غ ر ا ض ع ل ي م ب ا ض ه و ا س ر ي ع ا م ل ا م ع ه ا ب ا س ر ي ق ت ا م ة و ل ن و ق ي و م ا ح د ا ع ل ي ه ا غ ي ر ا ل ع ا م ل ي ن ي ك ه ذ ا ل ح ت.

ا

م ع خ ا ل ص ت ق و ي ر ي ا
ف ي ل و ق ع ت ر ا م ي ا
الباحث: اع م ر ا م ح د

مجتمعات تبي ان لقادة

لقاسم أ: لم علومات لى موعهاىة

ففى أهذلك قررة أراج وم ل كم أ جلة أ عن ب أعض أ سولك عل وقبأ شخ ص كم الكرم إلفض لك أ أراج أ موض ع ع أ

(أ أ ام أ بة أ فلبسة. أ

أ

1 أ أ نس أ

أ أ كرا أ أ أ أ أ نثى أ أ أ

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2 أ أ مر ك أ

أ أ (30-2 أ أ (40-3 أ أ (50-4 أ أ (60-5 أ أ (

أ

أ

3. أ أ م أ و أ و أ ع ل و أ و أ ف ف ل ش ر كة

م أ ر أ أ رة) (ن س ق) (ش ر ف) (م و ظ ف)



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4. كم مرأل سنوا ت أ ضى لى عمل كفى ل ش ر كة؟

لقسم ب اء قوفاى

الرجاء لتفكر دهبوضى سم لتوى ال ملوقة ؤ عدم ال ملوقة امن ا اليل ال الالفة اعن ا اء ال وظيفى ال ملوظففىن ال فىن ال مل و ن تاحا ا
 قوادنا ال مل اشارة اذ لك بوضى اع اطرة عملى ال مل تاحا ال مل خنا ال مل فى ملبة ال مل رجو ال مل كم اءرا اع ال مل فى ال مل ملوقة ال مل من اء ا بة ا

أداء لموظف عمل ه					
تنفيذ لمهام	أفض بشدة	وفلق	لئس عىدى رأى	أوفلق	وأافق بشدة
1	1	2	3	4	5
2	1	2	3	4	5
3	1	2	3	4	5
4	1	2	3	4	5
5	1	2	3	4	5
6	1	2	3	4	5
7	1	2	3	4	5
أداء لمهام لملوقة					
1	1	2	3	4	5
2	1	2	3	4	5
3	1	2	3	4	5
4	1	2	3	4	5
5	1	2	3	4	5
6	1	2	3	4	5
7	1	2	3	4	5
8	1	2	3	4	5
9	1	2	3	4	5
10	1	2	3	4	5
11	1	2	3	4	5
12	1	2	3	4	5
13	1	2	3	4	5
14	1	2	3	4	5
15	1	2	3	4	5
16	1	2	3	4	5
17	1	2	3	4	5
18	1	2	3	4	5
19	1	2	3	4	5
20	1	2	3	4	5

مجموعه أسئلة تنبئ ان لموظفين

لقسم أ: لمعلومات لدى موجهي

في هذا تقرير عن يومكم أ. جلة عن بعرض أ. سول على وقتها شخصكم الكريم انفضس لك الرجاء وضع ع ١١

(١) الامام بةال فيلية. ١

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1 الجس ١

٣ كرا ١٠ ١ ١ أ نثي ١٠ ١

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2. اعمر ك ١

١١ (١١ 30-2) ١١ (١١ 40-3) ١١ (١١ 50-4) ١١ (١١ 60-5) ١١

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3. كم مرالسنوات حضي في عمل كفيل لشركه؟



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4. كم مرالسنوات مرت على عملك مع نفس المدير او المشرف للمباشرة؟

5	4	3	2	1	يضم و طف لجيوع	7
5	4	3	2	1	أجل ليكون قح ا مع خيون	8
5	4	3	2	1	يحب ليعاون مع ا خيون	9
5	4	3	2	1	يقوم بعلمه كذا	10
5	4	3	2	1	بالي لى حد ما	11
5	4	3	2	1	موظفي مكن تمام غيه	12
5	4	3	2	1	يحيي يكون غير منظم	13
5	4	3	2	1	يحيي يكون لسول	14
5	4	3	2	1	يصف ظلالى حين انقضاء من ل شروع	15
5	4	3	2	1	يقوم با شري لبعفا غيه	16
5	4	3	2	1	يقوم بوضع لخطوط و تبدلها	17
5	4	3	2	1	يشرد ذى ميس دوله	18
5	4	3	2	1	تفاعل ويبنى لفسكار جوده	19
5	4	3	2	1	يحب ليعرف غي شري لغيره مخففة	20
5	4	3	2	1	بارع وفيكرب عمق	21
5	4	3	2	1	لديه مخملة شريطة	22
5	4	3	2	1	هدع	23
5	4	3	2	1	يقدر ليعارب لغيره و لجليه	24
5	4	3	2	1	فضل لعامل لروينى	25
5	4	3	2	1	يحب عكس افكار و لت بها	26
5	4	3	2	1	لديه اهتمام لتفقي قسريطة	27
5	4	3	2	1	مقتنع بلمن و لمويقيى او ادب	28
لكفاءة لثنية						
5	4	3	2	1	غلبها مايحل لشنكل اذا ما حاول لتغيرا	1
5	4	3	2	1	في حال عارضه احدهم يبحث عن لوسئل و لطرقت للوصول لغيره	2
5	4	3	2	1	يسهل غيه تبدع ا هفله و سحقيه	3
5	4	3	2	1	ويتفق مرتاع لبعفا غيه مع ا حداث غير لتبقة	4
5	4	3	2	1	فضل معرفته لولبعه يستطيع ليعامل مع لغير للتبقة	5
5	4	3	2	1	يستطيع حل معظم لشاركلفي حال بذل لجدد لمطوب	6
5	4	3	2	1	يستطيع بلقاء هوانا بعد مواجهه لمصاعبه يستطيع تمام غي الملته	7
5	4	3	2	1	حين تواجهه لشاركلفي يستطيع ليعاد ليعيد من لخلول	8
5	4	3	2	1	في حال وحين فسن في شركلة يملك تفهيم لرفي لحل	9
5	4	3	2	1	يستطيع ليعامل مع أي وضوع ويواجهه	10

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أخيرا: إذا كان ثقتي بك أيًّا تتغيب فيلأفت لهن رجوع المآثر هذي ذلك ؟

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شكراتك عاونك عا

واذا كنت تتغيب فيلأفت لهن رجوع المآثر هذي ذلك ؟
فتت ردفي إتصالي بالبريد الإلكتروني أو أجيأعمل وم تاعن ه

Ph-n: 0060175561512

E-mail: omarimhmed1984@yahoo.com



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Questionnaire Survey

For leaders

Dear Ms/Miss/Mrs.

The questionnaire you are going to answer will be used for research purposes only and you are assured that your response will be treated with utmost confidentiality. There is no correct answer while some of these statements may seem repetitions, please take your time and try to be as honest as possible. Thank you for your cooperation in this matter.

SECTION A: Demographics of the respondent.

1. Gender:

1. Male

()

()

2. Female

2. Age

(1) 21 – 30

(2) 31 – 40

(3) 41-50

(4) 51-60

3. Job level

1. Manager

()

2. Coordinator

()

3. Supervisor

()

)

4. General worker

()

4. How many years have you been working in current company?

SECTION B: Employees performance.

What is your opinion on the way your employees perform their jobs? Please tick the answer that reflects your opinion in the following statements:

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3= No Opinion 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

Employee's job performance						
Task performance						
1	He/she adequately complete assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5
2	He/she fulfil responsibilities specified in job description.	1	2	3	4	5
3	He/she perform tasks that are expected of him.	1	2	3	4	5
4	He/she meet formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5
5	He/she engage in activities that will directly affect his performance evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
6	He/she neglect aspects of the job he is obliged to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
7	He/she fail to perform essential duties (reverse-scored)	1	2	3	4	5
Contextual job Performance						
1	He/she attendance at work is above the norm.	1	2	3	4	5
2	He/she give advance notice when unable to come to work.	1	2	3	4	5
3	He/she take underserved work breaks.	1	2	3	4	5
4	He/she great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations.	1	2	3	4	5
5	He/she complain about insignificant things at work.	1	2	3	4	5
6	He/she is conserve and protects organizational property.	1	2	3	4	5
7	He/she adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order.	1	2	3	4	5
8	He/she help others who have been absent.	1	2	3	4	5

9	He/she helps others who have heavy workload.	1	2	3	4	5
10	He/she assist supervisor with his or her work when not asked.	1	2	3	4	5
11	He/she always take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	1	2	3	4	5
12	He/she always go out of my way to help new employees.	1	2	3	4	5
13	He/she take personal interest in other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
14	He/she pass along information to co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
15	He/she tries to make innovative suggestions to improve the department/organization.	1	2	3	4	5
16	He/she tries to adopt improved procedures for the department/organization.	1	2	3	4	5
17	He/she tries to institute new more effective work methods for the department/organization.	1	2	3	4	5
18	He/she tries to make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate in this department/organization.	1	2	3	4	5
19	He/she makes recommendations on issues that affect the department/organization.	1	2	3	4	5
20	He/she speaks up for new changes in this department/organization.	1	2	3	4	5

Questionnaire Survey
For Employees

Dear Ms/Miss/Mrs.

The questionnaire you are going to answer will be used for research purposes only and you are assured that your response will be treated with utmost confidentiality. There is no correct answer while some of these statements may seem repetitions, please take your time and try to be as honest as possible. Thank you for your cooperation in this matter.

SECTION A: Demographics of the respondent

1. Gender:

1. Male

()

2. Female

()

2. Age

(1) 21 – 30

(2) 31 – 40

(3) 41-50

(4) 51-60

3. How many years have you worked with your present supervisor or manager?

.....

4. How many years have you been working in current company?

SECTION B: LEADERSHIP STYLE.

What is your opinion on the way your Head of Department reflects the following leadership style? Please tick the answer that reflects your opinion in the following statements:

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3= No Opinion 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

Leadership style		Strongly disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
Transformational leadership						
1	My leader Instils pride in me	1	2	3	4	5
2	My leader Spends time teaching and coaching	1	2	3	4	5
3	My leader Considers moral and ethical consequences	1	2	3	4	5
4	My leader Views me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations	1	2	3	4	5
5	My leader Listens to my concerns	1	2	3	4	5
6	My leader Encourages me to perform	1	2	3	4	5
7	My leader Increases my motivation	1	2	3	4	5
8	My leader Encourages me to think more creatively	1	2	3	4	5
9	My leader Sets challenging standards	1	2	3	4	5
10	My leader Gets me to rethink never-questioned ideas	1	2	3	4	5
Transactional Leadership style						
1	My leader Makes clear expectation	1	2	3	4	5
2	My leader Will take action before problems are chronic	1	2	3	4	5
3	My leader Tells us standards to carry out work	1	2	3	4	5
4	My leader Works out agreements with me	1	2	3	4	5
5	My leader Monitors my performance and keeps track of mistake	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: PERSONALITY AND SELF-EFFICACY.

The following questions are related to your own characteristics (personality and self-efficacy) please tries to be honest as much as you can. Please tick the answer that reflects your opinion in the following statements:

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3= No Opinion 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

Employees' Characteristics		Strongly disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
Personality						
I see Myself as Someone Who						
1	Tends to find fault with others	1	2	3	4	5
2	Is helpful and unselfish with others	1	2	3	4	5
3	Starts quarrels with others	1	2	3	4	5
4	Has a forgiving nature	1	2	3	4	5
5	Is generally trusting	1	2	3	4	5
6	Can be cold and aloof	1	2	3	4	5
7	Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	1	2	3	4	5
8	Is sometimes rude to others	1	2	3	4	5
9	Likes to cooperate with others	1	2	3	4	5
10	Does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5
11	Can be somewhat careless	1	2	3	4	5
12	Is a reliable worker	1	2	3	4	5
13	Tends to be disorganized	1	2	3	4	5
14	Tends to be lazy	1	2	3	4	5
15	Perseveres until the task is finished	1	2	3	4	5
16	Does things efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
17	Makes plans and follows through with them	1	2	3	4	5
18	Is easily distracted	1	2	3	4	5
19	Is original, comes up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
20	Is curious about many different things	1	2	3	4	5
21	Is ingenious, a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5
22	Has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5
23	Is inventive	1	2	3	4	5
24	Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	1	2	3	4	5

25	Prefers work that is routine	1	2	3	4	5
26	Likes to reflect, play with ideas	1	2	3	4	5
27	Has few artistic interests	1	2	3	4	5
28	Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	1	2	3	4	5
Self-efficacy						
1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	1	2	3	4	5
2	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	1	2	3	4	5
3	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
8	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.	1	2	3	4	5
9	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution	1	2	3	4	5
10	I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	1	2	3	4	5

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Appendix B
Missing Values
Of the measurement model items

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Missing Values Output

Result Variables

	Result Variable	N of Replaced Missing Values	Case Number of Non-Missing Values		N of Valid Cases	Creating Function
			First	Last		
			1	TFS01_1		
2	TFS02_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS02)
3	TFS03_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS03)
4	TFS04_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS04)
5	TFS05_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS05)
6	TFS06_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS06)
7	TFS07_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS07)
8	TFS08_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS08)
9	TFS09_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS09)
10	TFS10_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TFS10)
11	TCS01_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TCS01)
12	TCS02_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TCS02)
13	TCS03_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TCS03)
14	TCS04_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TCS04)
15	TCS05_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TCS05)
16	PAG01_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG01)
17	PAG02_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG02)
18	PAG03_1	6	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG03)
19	PAG04_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG04)
20	PAG05_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG05)
21	PAG06_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG06)
22	PAG07_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG07)
23	PAG08_1	8	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG08)
24	PAG09_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PAG09)
25	PCO01_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO01)
26	PCO02_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO02)
27	PCO03_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO03)
28	PCO04_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO04)
29	PCO05_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO05)
30	PCO06_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO06)
31	PCO07_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO07)
32	PCO08_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO08)
33	PCO09_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(PCO09)
34	POE01_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE01)
35	POE02_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE02)
36	POE03_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE03)
37	POE04_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE04)
38	POE05_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE05)

39	POE06_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE06)
40	POE07_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE07)
41	POE08_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE08)
42	POE09_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE09)
43	POE10_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(POE10)
44	SEF01_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF01)
45	SEF02_1	2	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF02)
46	SEF03_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF03)
47	SEF04_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF04)
48	SEF05_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF05)
49	SEF06_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF06)
50	SEF07_1	2	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF07)
51	SEF08_1	2	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF08)
52	SEF09_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF09)
53	SEF10_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(SEF10)
54	TAP01_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TAP01)
55	TAP02_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(TAP02)
56	TAP03_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TAP03)
57	TAP04_1	3	1	227	227	SMEAN(TAP04)
58	TAP05_1	1	1	227	227	SMEAN(TAP05)
59	TAP06_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TAP06)
60	TAP07_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(TAP07)
61	OCBO01_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBO01)
62	OCBO02_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBO02)
63	OCBO03_1	2	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBO03)
64	OCBO04_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBO04)
65	OCBO05_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBO05)
66	OCBO06_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBO06)
67	OCBO07_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBO07)
68	OCBI01_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBI01)
69	OCBI02_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBI02)
70	OCBI03_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBI03)
71	OCBI04_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBI04)
72	OCBI05_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBI05)
73	OCBI06_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBI06)
74	OCBI07_1	2	1	227	227	SMEAN(OCBI07)
75	INNOV01_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(INNOV01)
76	INNOV02_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(INNOV02)
77	INNOV03_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(INNOV03)
78	INNOV04_1	2	1	227	227	SMEAN(INNOV04)
79	INNOV05_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(INNOV05)
80	INNOV06_1	0	1	227	227	SMEAN(INNOV06)



Appendix C
Assessment of measurement model items

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Appendix D.1: Latent Variable Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Agreeableness	1.000									
Conscientiousness	0.406	1.000								
Innovative	0.208	0.252	1.000							
OCB-I	0.509	0.407	0.311	1.000						
OCB-O	0.196	0.462	0.304	0.408	1.000					
Openness	0.313	0.481	0.510	0.255	0.310	1.000				
S-efficacy	0.398	0.458	0.396	0.374	0.505	0.479	1.000			
Task	0.279	0.311	0.272	0.301	0.475	0.203	0.394	1.000		
Transactional	0.168	0.120	0.188	0.107	0.303	0.146	0.230	0.355	1.000	
Transformational	0.343	0.371	0.253	0.258	0.449	0.278	0.389	0.402	0.461	1.000

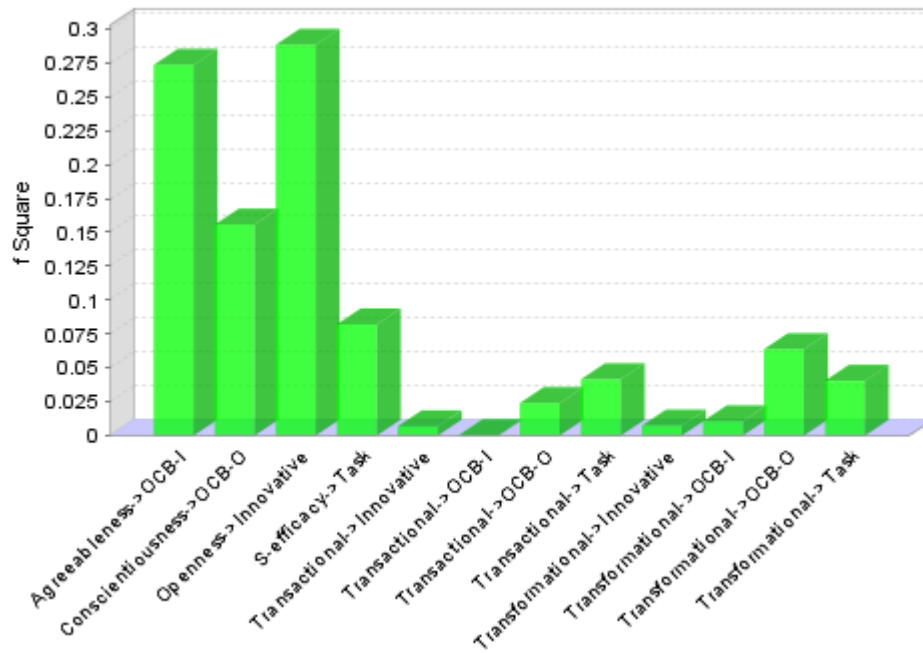
R Square

	R Square
Innovative	0.278
OCB-I	0.267
OCB-O	0.319
Task	0.259

R Square Adjusted

	R Square
Innovative	0.267
OCB-I	0.255
OCB-O	0.308
Task	0.247

f Square



Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

	AVE
Agreeableness	0.565
Conscientiousness	0.611
Innovative	0.765
OCB-I	0.700
OCB-O	0.706
Openness	0.750
S-efficacy	0.668
Task	0.765
Transactional	0.652
Transformational	0.658

Composite Reliability

	Composite Reliability
Agreeableness	0.865
Conscientiousness	0.917
Innovative	0.929
OCB-I	0.921
OCB-O	0.905
Openness	0.937
S-efficacy	0.942
Task	0.907
Transactional	0.882
Transformational	0.945

Cronbachs Alpha

	Cronbachs Alpha
Agreeableness	0.806
Conscientiousness	0.894
Innovative	0.898
OCB-I	0.892
OCB-O	0.859
Openness	0.916
S-efficacy	0.929
Task	0.846
Transactional	0.822
Transformational	0.935

Collinearity Statistic (VIF)

	Innovative	OCB-I	OCB-O	Task
Agreeableness		1.133		
Conscientiousness			1.165	
Innovative				
OCB-I				
OCB-O				
Openness	1.084			
S-efficacy				1.183
Task				
Transactional	1.271	1.271	1.276	1.275
Transformational	1.348	1.399	1.458	1.423



Appendix D
Direct and Moderating Effects
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Direct and Moderating Effects (Mean, STDEV, T-Values)

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P Values
Agreeableness -> OCB-I	0.482	0.477	0.062	7.708	0.000
Agreeableness -> Transactional -> OCB-I	-0.153	-0.053	0.214	0.714	0.238
Agreeableness -> Transformational -> OCB-I	-0.139	-0.214	0.114	1.217	0.112
Conscientiousness -> OCB-O	0.342	0.345	0.066	5.217	0.000
Conscientiousness -> Transactional -> OCB-O	-0.302	-0.319	0.148	2.041	0.021
Conscientiousness -> Transformational -> OCB-O	-0.135	-0.160	0.117	1.152	0.125
Openness -> Innovative	0.475	0.472	0.063	7.592	0.000
Openness -> Transactional -> Innovative	0.041	-0.087	0.156	0.264	0.396
Openness -> Transformational -> Innovative	0.214	0.263	0.138	1.548	0.061
S-efficacy -> Task	0.197	0.199	0.064	3.102	0.001
S-efficacy -> Transactional -> Task	-0.096	-0.145	0.132	0.722	0.235
S-efficacy -> Transformational -> Task	-0.382	-0.359	0.129	2.975	0.002
Transactional -> Innovative	0.045	0.037	0.068	0.656	0.256
Transactional -> OCB-I	-0.009	0.007	0.078	0.117	0.454
Transactional -> OCB-O	0.139	0.138	0.070	1.980	0.024
Transactional -> Task	0.209	0.216	0.075	2.794	0.003
Transformational -> Innovative	0.133	0.147	0.076	1.751	0.040
Transformational -> OCB-I	0.052	0.031	0.074	0.702	0.242
Transformational -> OCB-O	0.231	0.221	0.077	2.984	0.001

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P Values
Transformational -> Task	0.151	0.146	0.078	1.933	0.027



UUM
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Appendix E
List of Publications

UUM

Universiti Utara Malaysia

Imhmed, O. I. O. Md Said, N. P., & Sharif, M. Y. (2010). Learning motivation: a study of international students in universiti utara malaysia (UUM). 5th National Human Resource Management Conference 2010

Imhmed, O. I. O. & Sharif, M. Y. (2014). The Relationship between Leadership Style and Employee Performance in the Libyan Oil and Gas Industry: A Literature Review. PROCEEDINGS the Seventh National Human Resource Management Conference 2014 “Capitalizing On Human Capital Towards Sustainable Business In Global Economy”.

Imhmed, O. I. O. & Sharif, M. Y. (2015). Openness to experience as a moderator in the relationship between leadership style and employees performance. International Conference On Bussiness Management Proceedings, Engine of Growth for Nation Building: ISBN 978-957-0910-05-5.

Imhmed, O. I. O. & Sharif, M. Y. (2015). Conscientiousness as a moderator in the relationship between transformational leadership style and ocb-o. International Conference On Bussiness Management Proceedings, Engine of Growth for Nation Building: ISBN 978-957-0910-05-5.