Identifying the existence and impact of transformational leadership in the Australian public sector

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IDENTIFYING THE EXISTENCE AND IMPACT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE AUSTRALIAN PUBLIC SECTOR

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

I certify that the substance of this research thesis has not been previously submitted for any degree, and is not currently being submitted to any other degree.

I also certify that to the best of my knowledge that any help received in preparing this thesis, and all sources used, have been acknowledged in this thesis.

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to investigate the existence and impact of transformational leadership in the Australian Public Service (APS) noting that existing research into transformational leadership is largely based on observations and experiences from the private sector, and that little research has been undertaken in the APS context. The research commences with an examination of the classical, transactional and visionary leadership paradigms, the APS environment, and identifies the research problem to be investigated in conjunction with an outline of the research design, structure and possible limitations.

This research established social psychology as the parent discipline and its direct relationship to the immediate discipline of transformational leadership. The transformational leadership construct is extensively researched in the literature review and provides a supportive platform that endorses transformational leadership as being an ideal leadership style, for transforming organisations. The literature review conducted in this research demonstrated the gap between the current APS leadership, and the transformational leadership style, describing the problems that the APS leadership has, whilst articulating the benefits of the transformational leadership style for followers, leaders and organisations.

This research used the quantitative methodological approach through a known survey instrument originally designed by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, titled the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire Public Sector Research Version. The survey is designed to investigate whether public sector leaders display transformational leadership behaviours and what impact the behaviour, if any, had on the workplace through the following research questions:

1. do APS leaders display any transformational leadership behaviours; and
2. what leadership behaviours do APS leaders display?
The next stage of this research established the positivist approach, through deductive reasoning supportive of the quantitative methodology and provided the platform for a range of statistical tests to be conducted. This direction enabled the testing of the hypotheses, the measuring of the associations, the differences between categories within the data and the reporting of the results. The measurement of the reliability, validity, correlations and variations of the data were conducted through means, standard deviations, Principal Component Analysis, Pearson Product moment, Cronbach alpha, Analysis of Variance and Post-hoc tests to provide the results for analysis and reporting.

The key findings from this study demonstrated that transformational leadership does exist in the APS, but is not dominant, and that the leadership rhetoric espoused by the APS has not produced improvement in either leadership or the workplace outcomes. Other key findings were that there was no difference in gender experience of transformational leadership in the APS, however, there was a difference experienced in the three APS segments studied. There were differences in transformational leadership behaviour between different locations and also between the executive and the non-executive officers of the APS. This research also discovered that transformational leadership behaviour by APS leaders is related to outcomes in the workplace, and that when APS leaders exhibit increased transformational leadership behaviour, there is an increase in the outcomes in the workplace, therefore, providing new knowledge for transformational leadership in the APS context.

This research found that the APS leadership behaviour as measured by the outcomes of achievement, motivation, satisfaction with leadership, stress and commitment was very low and that this caused significant implications, in that APS followers were disenfranchised, demotivated, dissatisfied with leadership and had low levels of commitment. The APS leaders were inaccessible, unapproachable and not understanding what motivates followers, in addition to appearing to be unaware that their behaviour and demands may lead to significant physiological and psychological problems, which in turn is enacted in the workplace. Therefore, the behaviour of the APS leaders is considered to be ineffective, particularly in adapting to change, lacking behavioural integrity, credibility, and basic leadership competencies such as values, trust, emotional intelligence and effective relationship building skills.
This research also found that for APS leaders to be effective leaders they will need to demonstrate an increased awareness of the sociological and psychological dimensions of their followers, and environmental factors. In addition, APS leaders will require a better understanding of the effect that their own leadership behaviour has in the workplace. The final implication of this research is that leadership in the APS has not improved or changed in the past 12 years, despite the rhetoric. Therefore, the APS now needs to change and address the leadership problems and engage a more enlightening leadership paradigm or style such as transformational leadership, if it is to meet future challenges.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1. Introduction

Leadership is a phenomenon that continually attracts a plethora of attention through commentary and literature, and, therefore, by the extensive exposure of the subject through sheer volume, may be considered a problem in society. There has been a considerable amount of commentary and literature directed towards the transformational style of leadership. Whilst transformational leadership is not new, little is known of transformational leadership from a practice perspective, particularly in the Australian Public Sector (APS) context, therein lays the nature of the problem to be addressed by this research, the existence of, and the level of transformational leadership in the APS.

This Chapter is the introduction to the thesis and subject matter examining leadership and the genre of transformational leadership within the Australian Public Sector (APS). Section 1.1 provides the introduction to the Chapter, the background to this research, and an overview of the APS environment inclusive of leadership. Section 1.2 provides a brief overview of the research into leadership paradigms to establish the context of the research. Section 1.3 details the research problem including research objectives, questions and generated hypotheses. Section 1.4 provides the justification for the research with Section 1.5 explaining the components of the research design. Section 1.6 provides an outline and overview of the thesis with Section 1.7 highlighting the limitations to the research and the key assumptions. Section 1.8 lists the definitions and Section 1.9 the abbreviations, while Section 1.10 summarises the Chapter.

1.1.1. Background to the research

In understanding the nature of the problem, it is now appropriate that the available literature and the APS environment are reviewed, briefly in this section, and in more detail in Chapter two. This step will provide a clear picture of the whole research environment, which will be supported by methodology, structure, analysis and reporting in Chapters three to five.
The APS was established as a bureaucracy (Parkin, Summers & Woodward, 1994) based on the classical leadership paradigm, a hierarchy with a set of instructions that directed and controlled activities with typical autocratic rule by management. Since the establishment of the APS, employee roles have expanded from a mainly administrative role, into today’s requirement of strategic advice and policy implementation, enabling the Government to make timely interventions for the benefit of all Australians (State of the Service Report, 2005-2006).

The APS is now subjected to market forces, through higher stakeholder expectations, in its requirement to deliver faster, more effective and decisive administrative support to the Government of the day. Consequently, there is a requirement for the APS to continually build and develop the skills and knowledge needed to enable it to successfully engage in the ever evolving and complex arena of public administration. This was highlighted through the 2007 election year, where numerous policy initiatives were touted, often requiring implementation in a short period of time.

To achieve the degree of change required, White (2000) suggested that public sector leaders will be required to show more initiative and actively engage employees in the challenges to deliver organisational objectives and meet stakeholder’s expectations. This requires actual engagement and implementation of the virtues and competencies of leadership rather than simply utilising management skills when leading employees. Several authors (Lovell, 1995; Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 1997; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002; Wyse & Wilkins, 2004) have commented on the static leadership environment within the APS over a period of time and the need for change. Thus the continuance of this observation indicates that not much has changed in APS leadership since 1995. Therefore, what is being advocated to ensure positive change within the APS, to allow efficient functioning within the current and future environment, is a change in the leadership style of the APS management. The current leadership style within the APS and how it needs to change is what provides the platform for this research.

This research focuses only on organisations within the APS, with these organisations having a common set of regulations, standards and similar cultures. Local government
sectors will not be included in the research effort as their cultures may differ from region to region. The justification for the specific sector is that a large percentage of the APS have a common geographical and social demographical factor that facilitates a comparative basis on which to assess the proposed hypotheses.

1.1.2. Current APS environment
In order to appreciate the nature of this investigation it is important to understand the environment, hierarchical structure and the framework in which the APS is situated. The Government of Australia is responsible for the overall management of the country and implements policy and initiatives through the administrative conduit of the APS which in turn ensures that activities are facilitated as directed both by legislation and the Government represented by Ministers.

The APS is governed by legislative framework, primarily the Public Service Act (1999) and the Financial Management and Accountability Act (1997). This framework provides the APS with a rigid structure to provide administrative and legislative services to the government and community, effectively running the country. The APS interacts with the community in a variety of forms through the direct delivery of services, for example income support, taxation, health and infrastructure.

A significant percentage of APS employees are engaged in, or are responsible for, leadership activities. The hierarchical structure of the APS commences at the Secretary level, appointed by the Government and is structured downward from Departmental Secretary to, Deputy Secretaries to, Executive Levels Two and One, and down to general APS levels six to one. Twenty seven per cent of APS employees, totalling approximately 39,691 people (State of the Service Report 2007-2008) are responsible for the leadership of approximately 108,000 other employees.

In the APS, the main responsibility and accountability of leadership is to ensure that the deployment of social capital delivers outcomes and adds value to the organisation and stakeholders as a whole. Experiences from the private sector demonstrate that employees will deliver beyond expectations if they are provided with proactive leadership such as transformational leadership (Sarros & Santora, 2001). Given this
position, it appears that the transformational leadership paradigm may be suitable for implementation throughout the APS.

The APS is different to the private sector, in that it has different objectives and operates for the interests of stakeholders, as opposed to the wealth of the shareholders in the private sector. Some private entities may be able to do what is necessary to achieve the outcome, whereas the task and the parameters set by legislation and acting in the community’s best interest can significantly confine the actions that the APS can pursue. Authors such as Bass (1985a, 1985b) Cacioppe (1997) Cardona (2000) Sarros & Santora (2001) and Robbins & Judge (2007) espouse the virtues and advantages that transformational leadership has brought to the private sector. Given this, there is no evidence to suggest that the APS could not readily adopt the transformational aspect of the visionary leadership paradigm by engaging the workforce, and that this should be a priority. However, there is little literature available on the transformational leadership in the APS context, therefore, providing the basis for this research to be conducted and add to the knowledge.

1.2. Overview to leadership paradigms

The global array of literature on leadership is as challenging as it is diverse, attempting to cover all leadership contingencies. The literature on leadership is somewhat disjointed, with a number of writers reporting ideas and concepts important to those authors, noting there is no agreed definition of leadership (Greenleaf, 1970; Burns, 1978; Bass 1985a, 1985b; Bennis, 1989; Bass & Avolio, 1990a, 1990b; Rost, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Cardona, Lawrence & Bentler, 1999; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002). In an attempt to add clarity to the leadership literature, Avery (2004) has identified three main leadership paradigms as follows:

- classical leadership;
- transactional leadership; and
- visionary leadership.

It is important to understand the contexts and differences of the three leadership paradigms, which are now briefly discussed below.
1.2.1. Classical leadership paradigm

Classical leadership is the leadership paradigm where the leader is dominant and remote (Avery, 2004) from the follower, with interactions being conducted through a command and obey structure, essentially inclusive of no personal interaction between the leader and follower. Classical leadership is characterised by leadership through position, due to the position a person holds within an organisation and through either the respect people accord that position, or through the power that position commands, people follow the leader.

While this may be an accepted style, classical leadership through its autocratic nature of the command and obey position does not provide organisations and individuals with the flexibility and positive impact to effect transformation of business processes (Avery, 2004). It appears organisations and individuals require a leadership paradigm where the need is for leaders to be “more change-centred”, as suggested by Lievens, Van Geit & Coetsier (1997, p. 416) providing direction and an environment that facilitates transformation. To further support this view, Sadlier (1998) argues that leaders in the public sector must adopt a new and progressive mindset and demonstrate progressive leadership. In consideration, Sadlier’s (1998) position suggests that current leadership in the public sector may remain grounded in some form of accepted classical managerial paradigm, which may not fit the requirement of today’s business environment.

1.2.2. Transactional leadership paradigm

Transactional leadership is a leadership paradigm where leaders and followers engage in the pursuit of organisation and personal objectives through a social exchange theory of rewards for effort (Cardona, 2000). Also, transactional leadership has a distinct reward mechanism of economic exchange virtues as evidenced by Cardona (2000) and Sarros & Santora (2001). In transactional leadership, the leader creates or controls management environments, such that they are able to discuss expectations with employees, and generally within defined parameters negotiate work agreements including the reward system (Cardona, 2000).

In the transactional environment, employees undertake work because they are able to transact rewards important to them (Cardona, 2000). The transactional paradigm is in essence mechanical, in that it limits the follower to confined parameters of material
rewards, for example money and time in lieu of, in exchange for agreed work practices or outcomes (Cardona, 2000). However transactional leadership is clearly more engaging than the classical leadership paradigm, as there is a conscious effort by the follower and leader to work together for organisational achievements (Cardona, 2000).

1.2.3. Visionary leadership paradigm

Visionary leadership is the leadership paradigm where the leader engages with the follower by using a range of skills, knowledge and personal attributes to convey the vision of the organisation, whilst also providing guidance and assistance to enable followers to participate with the organisation in attaining the vision. The vision extolled by the leader provides the follower with a futurist environment in which to perform their activities through relationships, with leadership built on trust, values, competencies, inspiration, motivation, influence and consideration, the visionary paradigm is supported by Sarros & Santora (2001, 2002) and Avery (2004).

There are a number of leadership models under the banner of the visionary leadership paradigm, and the model that is to be investigated in this research is that of transformational leadership. The reason that transformational leadership is the focus of this research endeavour is that it offers both leaders and followers a higher level of benefits and outcomes. The benefits are both on an individual and organisational basis, beyond that of the classical and transactional paradigms (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Bass, 1990a; Cacioppe, 1997; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002). The transformational leadership paradigm does not rely on either leader position or transactional rewards to ensure employees are obligated to work, also it does not imply that such characteristics may not be part of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership encapsulates inspiration, motivation, influence and consideration as leadership components within the visionary leadership paradigm. In addition transformational leadership also engages the leader/follower relationship in competencies of trust, emotional intelligence, values and relationships which further enhance benefits for followers, leaders and organisations (Bass 1985a; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora 2001).
Visionary leadership as compared to classical and transactional leadership is considered to have a higher beneficial outcome for the individual and the organisation (Avery, 2004). The beneficial outcome is due to the social exchange relationship complemented by increased inspiration; motivation, influence, consideration and stimulation supporting the task based requirement of the follower. Visionary leadership as described by Cacioppe (1997) relies on the leader providing a vision for the organisation, sharing that vision with employees, extolling the virtues of that vision and encouraging employees to embrace the vision and work towards attaining it.

Within the visionary model there is considerable interaction between the leader and follower, with the follower deciding whether they wish to pursue the vision proposed by the leader. The position is supported by Cardona (2000, p. 203) who states that the followers “want to identify with a cause that is meaningful and makes a difference”. The identification of the cause is critical as it provides the follower with the commitment to succeed in increased achievement and satisfaction within the workplace environment (Sarros & Santora, 2001). The vision, if articulated properly, becomes energising and influences the followers to exceed expectations for the collective good of leaders and followers (Robbins, Millet & Waters-Marsh, 2004). This is a positive outcome as leaders, followers and organisations all benefit from improved commitment and relationships whilst pursuing organisational objectives. Given this concept of leadership, this research is positioned to investigate the existence and level of transformational leadership in the APS.

1.3. Research problem

From the literature to date and the information generally available on the APS, it is not clear whether transformational leadership is currently utilised and experienced in any form by management in the APS.

There is consistent acknowledgment corroborated by researchers, that transformational leadership provides added value to private organisations in increased output and employee satisfaction. Authors lead by Kouzes & Posner (1989) Cardona (2000) Sarros & Santora (2001) and Robbins et al. (2004) have supported this position along with
Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) and White (2000) who support the value of transformational leadership in the public sector context.

The linkage between leadership and organisational behaviour is derived from attributes including but not limited to attitude change, communication, behavioural change, group processes and group decision making. Leadership is a component of the social schema in the workplace, this position is supported by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006, p. 297) who recognise leadership as a “social influence process”. In addition, Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) support the argument indicating that leadership is a significant factor in a social construct for organisations and individuals.

The transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm is considered a good model to provide and implement leadership through, and is considerably simple to measure and understand (Bass 1985a, 1985b; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002). The transformational leadership aspect is also equally important to the standing of individuals and the leaders within the organisational context (Bass 1985a, 1985b; Kouzes & Posner, 1989, 1993; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006; Robbins & Judge, 2007). Therefore, to investigate the existence and level of the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm within the APS context is the challenge for this research which is discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

1.3.1. Research objectives

The purpose of this research is to discover whether transformational leadership exists in the management levels of the APS, and if so, to what extent? This will be accomplished by investigating the differences in gender, officer, department segments, locations and the effect that leadership behaviour has on workplace outcomes. Anecdotal evidence from Brunetto & Farr-Wharton (2002) and Jones & Kriflik (2005) provides a perception that, the development and implementation of transformational leadership by management does not appear to be prominent throughout the APS and, at best may be pocketed in particular Departments or within Departments. This perception supports Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) who commented on the static ability and lack of awareness of the APS leader in meeting the leadership challenges. Whether this is due to the past rigid controlled environment of the APS, a reluctance of employees to
engage, a lack of vision by management, or a combination of all factors is unclear. Given this perception, this research is targeted at identifying the facts, circumstances and considerations that surround the phenomena of transformational leadership within the APS.

Previous findings in this field of research from Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) have been directed at the public sector and have identified several individual characteristics of transformational leadership. However, these research findings are limited in number and depth in the examination of transformational leadership in the Australian APS context. For example, the Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) study centred on the concept of discretionary leadership, whilst briefly touching on transformational leadership, and the Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) research examined transformational leadership in the United Kingdom public sector. To facilitate the examination of transformational leadership within the APS, a number of hypotheses have been developed from the literature in Chapter two, and will be tested using an established and validated quantitative questionnaire instrument constructed and used by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006). The rationale for using this questionnaire is that it has been used to survey large United Kingdom public sector organisations and the questionnaire is an established methodology in the public sector context, which allows comparison.

1.3.2. Research questions and hypotheses

The quest for knowledge in research structurally begins with the research question, or questions and a proposition. The proposition specifies the relationship between concepts and also describes another facet of that relationship (Neuman, 2006). From this position the researcher turns the “proposition into a hypothesis, which is an empirically testable version of a proposition” (Neuman, 2006, p. 58).

Research may contain a number of research questions and hypotheses central to the research problem. This research has two questions for consideration and ten hypotheses for testing and evaluation. The hypotheses are unproven propositions or suppositions that tentatively are used to explain certain facts or events in leadership issues. The research problem and the gap in the literature are somewhat highlighted by the
observations of Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) and are briefly discussed in context to this research.

A study undertaken by Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997, p. 451) highlighted that “public sector leaders face a philosophical transformational leadership gap as they often lack the expertise, entrepreneurship and stewardship skills required for setting visions and transforming them into action”. The study also reports that comments by followers on the leadership of the APS were predominantly highly derogatory, with 67 per cent of all comments concerning management teams being negative. The small percentage of positive comments provided some collateral evidence of the existence of discretionary and possibly, transformational leadership within the APS.

The Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) study was undertaken 12 years ago and the APS environment has changed since then due to the issues outlined in Section 1.3. The following research questions are derived from the information discussed in Sections 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3, and are positioned to see if transformational leadership is practised in the APS, and whether change has occurred in the APS leadership since 1997.

1.3.3. Research questions
The research questions for this research have been deliberately maintained at a high level to ensure clarity in application and direction. The first research question is as follows:

1. Do APS leaders display any transformational leadership behaviours?
If transformational leadership behaviour is found to exist and be practiced by management within the APS, a further question is then necessary to determine the extent of transformational leadership’s existence; this question is as follows:

2. What leadership behaviours do APS leaders display?
The results from the Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) study indicate that from the employee’s perception, leadership in the APS is far from ideal. In Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse’s (1997) study, the APS demonstrated the lowest level
of communication behaviour from five participating countries, suggesting that communication skills, which are integral to transformational leadership (Sarros & Santora, 2001) may be deficient in the APS. This position is also supported by Sadlier (1998) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) who indicate that there is a distinct gap in the leadership skill sets of management within the APS and the United Kingdom public sectors respectively. From this it is then logical to discover what the current situation is in relation to APS leadership practices through the following research question:

1.3.4. Research hypotheses
Given the two research questions, hypotheses are generated to be empirically tested by analysing the relationship between a single dependent (criterion) variable and several independent (predictor) variables. The leadership and transformational leadership literature discussed in Chapter two further justifies the following hypotheses:

H₁ - APS leaders exhibit a high level of transformational leadership behaviours.
H₂ - There is a difference in transformational leadership behaviours experienced by gender.
H₃ - There is a difference in transformational leadership behaviours experienced by executive and non-executive officers.
H₄ - Transformational leadership levels vary between APS organisations.
H₅ - Transformational leadership behaviours in the APS are similar to other public sectors, regardless of location.
H₆ - Achievement in the workplace is related to the transformational leadership behaviours displayed by APS leaders.
H₇ - Motivation in the workplace is related to the transformational leadership behaviours displayed by APS leaders.
H₈ - Satisfaction with leadership in the workplace is related to the transformational leadership behaviours displayed by APS leaders.
H₉ - Stress in the workplace is related to the transformational leadership behaviours displayed by APS leaders.
H₁₀ - Commitment in the workplace is related to the transformational leadership behaviours displayed by APS leaders.
The ten hypotheses are unproven in the leadership context of the APS and by being so, provide the basis for testing by this research endeavour.

1.4. Justification for the research

In considering transformational leadership in the APS context as described in the introduction in Section 1.1 of this Chapter, and with the gap in the literature now exposed, the next step is to examine leadership paradigms, the APS environment, transformational leadership and the cause and effect of leadership as it currently is applied in the APS context.

This research is designed to be an inclusive study of transformational leadership engaging followers and leaders throughout the APS environment. Information will be gathered from employees at different levels from the commencement level of the APS, at the APS level one to the highest APS level of the Senior Executive Service (SES). This research will add value to the processes of leadership evolution within the APS in conjunction with the development of future organisational procedures, enabling public sector organisations to implement improvements (White, 2000).

1.5. Research design

The research design is a blueprint enabling the data collection process to be facilitated to address the research questions through a series of decisions. The concepts to be studied in this research are the existence and level of transformational leadership within the APS. The design of this research is ex post facto, investigating relationships and variables through an experienced survey, with no attempt by the researcher to control or manipulate dependent and independent variables (Davis, 2005). The ex post facto design (Davis 2005) allows objective data to be collected and analysed statistically, in the primary goal of an exploratory research environment providing confirmation of the data collected with a low degree of understanding.

The measurement of data is by way of a quantitative methodological approach using a survey instrument through a web-based facility for data collection that enables ease of participation. The quantitative approach is also supported by a literature review in
Chapter two that provides a base and understanding of the transformational leadership knowledge to date. The data is to be analysed through several quantitative statistical methodologies aligned to social research; these are described in full in Chapter three.

The primary survey instrument, the questionnaire has been used to research related issues in the public sector in the United Kingdom and therefore, has been validated and proven to be reliable within that context (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). The questionnaire follows the format of the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire Public Sector Research Version (TLQ-PSRV) established by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) who employed a repertory grid technique with a gender, age, workplace identification, education, organisational level and demographic level identifier in the development process. Data from the questionnaire instrument is to be analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science, Version 14 (SPSS V14).

1.6. Thesis outline and overview

This research commences with the introduction to the subject, discusses leadership aspects through to the APS environment, sets hypotheses to be tested and provides the justification for the research, which is detailed in section 1.4 of this Chapter, where the need to identify the existence and level of transformational leadership in the APS is the problem to be solved. The second component is to review the literature preceded by the alignment of the parent discipline and the APS environment in Chapter two.

The third component details the research approach, design and provides the platform to analyse data using proven quantitative statistical methodologies to establish the reliability and validity of the data. The quantitative analysis will also measure the relationships between the data and report information through, means and standard deviation measurement, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) multiple regression analysis, correlations and comparative statistics. The fourth component provides a description of data findings and analysis inclusive of the respondent’s demographic details. The final component of this research will comment on the findings, conclusions, limitations and implications of the research on the follower’s perceptions of their leaders.
The structure of this research is founded on Perry’s (1995) structured model of presenting PhD theses, comprising five chapters with supporting information including illustrative tables, figures and appendices structured as follows in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Research Model

Source: Adapted from Perry (1995) structured PhD model.

Figure 1.1 illustrates the order and the structure of this thesis divided into specific chapters to enable the distinct description of subject matter and flow of discussion.

1.7. Limitations and key assumptions

In a study of this type, there is the inevitable trade off between numbers of participants and the practical aspects of facilitating survey delivery and collection within a set timeframe. Therefore, understanding and consideration has to be given to the possibility of limitations, which may affect the extent to which generalisations and conclusions can be drawn. Some limitations include:

- Selecting Commonwealth agencies that are similar in tasks and objectives may be considered to be selective and not demographically reflective of the entire APS.
- However, the repetitive hierarchical structure of the APS is a factor that facilitates sameness.
- Some of the smaller agencies to be included in this research may have cultures that are not representative of the wider APS environment. However, given the provisions that freely facilitate mobility of APS employees, it is not considered a major risk.
- The limitation of the research results in providing snapshot views and does not represent the longitudinal view of perceptions.
A limited number of APS employees may be sampled across several agencies and therefore, the result is only relevant to those particular agencies at a particular time and not across the sector as a whole, in particular State and Territory government.

- No control over the response rate to the questionnaire.

While a number of assumptions have been made and constraints identified, these do not substantially inhibit the research topic of transformational leadership within the management level of the APS being readily accessible.

1.8. Definitions

In research and report writing definitions are essential and efficient in allowing the readers a clear and concise description of the terminology used throughout the document. The definition list for this research is not exhaustive, as many terms found throughout the thesis are self-explanatory; the definition list for this thesis is as follows:

**Behavioural integrity**
A definition of behavioural integrity is expressed as the “perceived degree of congruence between the values expressed by words and those expressed by action” as stated by Simons (1999, p. 90).

**Contingency leadership theory**
Contingency leadership theory is a behavioural theory that is contingent upon various situational factors for example, leader’s style, capabilities and behaviours of followers and other related situations (Vecchio, Hearn & Southey, 1996).

**Follower**
A follower is defined as an individual “who follows another in regard to ideas or belief” Macquarie Concise Dictionary (2006, p. 459).

**Leadership**
In search for the definition of leadership no specific definition could be found, however leadership could be described as the “marshalling, energising and unifying of people in pursuit of a vision”, as suggested by Kent, Crotts & Azziz (2001, p. 223) for the good of the individual and organisation.
Servant leadership
Servant leadership could be defined as a leader who emphasises the good of the followers over the self-interest of the leader (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2003).

Trait theory
Leadership trait theory is the idea that people are born with certain character traits that are associated with proficient leadership, it assumes that if you could identify people with the correct traits, you will be able to identify leaders (Vecchio et al. 1996).

Transactional leadership
Transactional leadership is described as where followers and leaders engage in social exchange of reward for effort and outcome (Cardona, 2000).

Transformational leadership
Transformational leadership is described by Sarros & Santora (2001, p. 385) as “leaders who raise the consciousness of followers by appealing to higher ideals and values”.

1.9. Abbreviations

The inclusions of abbreviations are designed to assist the reader by way of short description of what is being represented. The abbreviation list for this research is centred on terms that are unfamiliar to most readers and are as follows:

ACMA - Australian Communications & Media Authority.
ACT - Australian Capital Territory.
APS - Australian Public Sector/Service.
DVA - Department of Veterans’ Affairs.
LG – United Kingdom Local Government.
MLQ - Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire.
NHS – National Health Service.
PCA - Principal Components Analysis.
PM - Pearson Product-Moment.
PSC - Public Service Commissioner/Commission.
RWG - Real World Group.
SES - Senior Executive Service.
SPSS - Statistical Package for Social Science.
**TLQ-PSRV** - Transformational Leadership Questionnaire - Public Sector Research Version.

### 1.10. Summary of Chapter one

This Chapter provided the introduction by way of background detailing leadership paradigms, the APS environment, the research problem and the objective of this research. The Chapter also describes the research questions and related hypotheses that the research seeks to address in conjunction with an overview of the research design and limitations, providing the basis for this research. This Chapter also provided the basis for the literature review to be explored in Chapter two, in order to discover the literature aligned to the parent and immediate discipline, and the APS environment.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The objective of this Chapter is to establish the connection between the parent discipline of social psychology and the immediate discipline of transformational leadership, in addition to examining the APS environment in search of transformational leadership. Another objective is to introduce the current knowledge for transformational leadership, and to find the gap in the knowledge to demonstrate that there is a need to conduct such research.

This Chapter commences with an introduction in Section 2.1 inclusive of an overview of leadership paradigms. Section 2.2 provides a review of the literature defining and describing the parent discipline of social psychology in addition to behavioural integrity, credibility, organisational change and relationships. Section 2.3 describes historical developments in leadership, philosophical beginnings moving to modern leadership including the definition of leadership. Section 2.4 begins with a description of leadership theories, which flows onto leadership paradigms and styles and also evaluates two distinct leadership styles, situational and servant, and also the leadership paradigm of transactional leadership, and their alignment to transformational leadership. Section 2.5 describes transformational leadership from its conception, inclusive of the modern progress, the transformational leadership definition, and the transformational leadership aspects of the visionary leadership paradigm, relating to the diversity in literature and alignment to the APS. Section 2.6 discusses leadership competencies and their relationships to transformational leadership. Section 2.7 discusses the research environment, change, constraints and transformational leadership within the APS. Section 2.8 examines the current state of transformational leadership and its consideration, and need within the APS environment and Section 2.9 summaries the literature review.
2.1.1 Leadership paradigms

Regardless of the exact definition of leadership, if in fact, one all encompassing definition exists, leadership involves some form of interaction between a leader and their followers. The continuum of leadership paradigms and practices from classical through to transformational, involves differing degrees of interaction between the leader and the follower as displayed in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Continuum of leadership paradigms.

```
Classical          Transactional          Visionary

The Past           The future

Leader/follower interactions increase
```

Source: Developed for this research from the literature.

The two essential points that Figure 2.1 represents is that there is:

- no clear distinction between one leadership paradigm and another; and
- interactions between leaders and followers become more important and central to the role of leadership as you progress across the continuum from classical to visionary.

Leadership models are best represented on a continuum, and as such, traits and actions associated with one model may also be associated with other models (Avery, 2004). Interactions between leaders and followers, the virtues of which have been discussed in Chapter one, are briefly summarised here. Under the classical leadership paradigm, followers obey the leader due to the leader’s position or power, but within the visionary leadership paradigm the leader needs to provide a vision which followers either agree or disagree to follow (Avery, 2004). Therefore, the interaction between the leader and follower becomes more important and central to the role of leadership as you move across the continuum towards the visionary paradigm. Thus, leadership is underpinned by the social interactions, to various degrees, between people (Bass, 1985a; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora 2001, 2002). An insight into this process can be gained by a thorough understanding of an aligned parent discipline and its consequent relationship to leadership.
2.2. **Parent discipline**

A parent discipline is a phenomenon that is known and supported in the context of a research proposal, that is, the territory exists, and is supported by literature through established authors and has been tested through review. The parent discipline enables the immediate discipline of the research issue/problem, which is considered to be unknown at this stage, to be aligned and flow from the parent discipline as a foundation aspect of the literature review.

The parent discipline chosen for this research is social psychology, which is underpinned by both psychology and sociology. It is the application of these two disciplines to social, individual and organisational issues and changes, illustrated at Figure 2.2., of this Chapter, that provides a central platform for the parent discipline of this research. An understanding of social psychology is important to the study of leadership, as leadership particularly, as it is practised today, is concerned with the interactions and communications of individuals within organisations. To fully understand social psychology and its association to the immediate discipline of transformational leadership, it is important to define what social psychology is, and the context, in which it is being used, this discussion commences in the following section.

2.2.1. **Social psychology examined**

There is no definitive explanation of social psychology, rather a collection of individual definitions to establish the validity of many different researchers’ opinions. From the literature reviewed, the following definitions may be considered to be descriptive of the phenomena:

Allport (1985, p. 3) defined social psychology as:

> A discipline that employs scientific methods to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of individuals are influenced by the actual imagined or implied presence of others.

In addition, Oskamp (1984) defined social psychology as, applications of social psychological methods, theories, principles or research findings to the understanding or solution of social problems. Also, Miller (1969) described a way in which psychology may have an impact on social change. That is to apply knowledge directly to social
problems, such as utilising our knowledge of persuasion to induce people to do certain actions or employing research on perception and memory to change certain processes.

Considering these definitions, Allport’s (1995) definition could be considered as a reasonable explanation of social psychology and is supported by Robbins & Judge (2007, p. 13) who define social psychology as, “an area within psychology blending both concepts of psychology and sociology, focusing on the influence of people on one another”. The four definitions differ in description; however, they all refer to the same phenomena, which is the identification of social interactions, interdependencies and relationships between people. As a result, social psychology is accepted as the parent discipline for this research, and it is important to determine what social psychology actually is, and how it is associated to leadership and transformational leadership, a discussion on these associations now commences.

Social psychology is a rigorous scientific discipline that is constantly examined in the leadership context, and also has been explored in the transformational leadership construct by Bass (1985a) Sarros & Santora (2001, 2002) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006, 2007). These researchers have reflected on the influence of social cognition and the extension of social psychology to understand, and perhaps solve contemporary social problems emanating from organisational and individual behaviour. The context of this statement is described and supported in the research of Sarros & Santora (2001, p. 385) where “leaders raise the consciousness of followers by appealing to higher ideals and values”. From Sarros & Santora’s (2001) statement, Robbins et al. (2004) established that the areas of learning, motivation, leadership effectiveness, communication power, intergroup behaviour, organisational change and culture were sub social psychology components of behavioural change, attitude change, communication and group processes, and are part of social cognition.

The linkage between social psychology and organisational behaviour is derived from individual attributes not limited to attitude, change, communication, behavioural change, group processes and group decision making (Oskamp, 1986). In addition, Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006, p. 297) recognise leadership as a “social influence process” which is endorsed by Bass (1985a) and Yukl (1989). Therefore, it is
imperative to investigate the nature of leadership through social psychology, noting that Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) also support this argument; by acknowledging that leadership is a social construct. This is demonstrated in Figure 2.2, which illustrates that the aspects of both the individual and the group, feed into the study of organisational behaviour, indicating that social psychology and leadership are analogous with organisational behaviour (Robbins & Judge, 2007). In consideration, Robbins et al. (2004) supports this position and notes that the discipline of social psychology is an important foundation aspect, to the understanding of leadership and is interrelated as illustrated in Figure 2.2.
Figure 2.2: Psychology, social psychology and sociology components.

Source: Relationship of psychology, sociology and social psychology adapted from Robbins et al. (2004, p. 12).

Figure 2.2 provides an illustrative perspective of psychology, sociology and social psychology and demonstrates the linkages of social psychology in the study of organisational behaviour, which in context, engages leadership.

To consider all aspects of social psychology is beyond the approach of this research but by linking the parent discipline of social psychology to the research phenomena of transformational leadership, it is pertinent to examine social psychological behaviour,
where the behavioural virtues of both individuals and organisations are linked. An important aspect of this linkage is demonstrated by behavioural integrity, which is positioned as being integral and central to the parent discipline and important in the behaviour, and actions of leaders as perceived by the followers (Simons, 1999). A distinct connection between social psychology, behavioural integrity and transformational leadership, acknowledging the connection that behavioural integrity is pivotal “to the successful navigation of organisational change” (Simons, 1999, p. 90). The relationship of behavioural integrity to social psychology and transformational leadership are defined and discussed further in the following section.

2.2.1.1. Behavioural integrity

The construct of behavioural integrity is central to individual and organisational behaviour and is a contributing facet of social psychology, linking to the research of transformational leadership (Simons, 1999). An earlier observation from Kouzes & Posner (1993) and Terry (1993, p.113) “have noted an increasing pattern of divergence between words and deeds”, which means that the incongruence between the two is detrimental to the integrity of leadership overall. This position is described by Maslow (1970) as sub-consciously being implemented through unconscious incompetence, as leaders struggle to engage and connect social psychology, and the ramifications for organisational behaviour in response to managerial fads and to organisational change efforts. As the concept of behavioural integrity would appear to be central to leadership, there is a need to understand and appreciate the construct of behavioural integrity, within the social psychological context and its effect on leadership.

Behavioural integrity is defined by Simons (1999, p. 90) as the “perceived degree of congruence between the values expressed by words and those expressed through action”. In addition, Simons (1999) also notes behavioural integrity is the perceived level of match or mismatch, between the espoused and the enacted. Also, Simons (1999) observes that delivering on promises and modelling values are critical elements of behavioural integrity, from which Davis & Rothstein (2006) note that the employee’s perception and alignment of the leader’s words and deeds are important in the understanding of behavioural integrity.
The kind of influence that a follower bequeaths to a charismatic leader requires a high level of trust, requiring the follower to perceive the leader as honest or as possessing integrity, this position is supported by Bass and Avolio (1990a) Kouzes & Posner (1992) Carlson & Perrewe (1995) and Korsgaard, Schweiger & Sapienza (1995). In further consideration Kouzes & Posner (1992, p. 483) note that, “we are more willing to entrust a leader with our careers, our security, and sometimes even our lives, if that person practices what he or she preaches”. These perceptions of the leader by the follower are best built and maintained through a pattern of actions that are consistent with espoused values, or more concisely, through the maintenance of behavioural integrity (Simons, 1999). Therefore, the overall definition of behavioural integrity can be summarised as a “subjectivity perceived phenomenon” enacting the “match or mismatch between the espoused and the enacted” (Simmons, 1999, p. 90).

Behavioural integrity is a fundamentally subjective construct that can be applied to referents at various levels of abstraction; from individual managers to organisations (Simons, 1999). As a relatively complex perception it is strongly influenced by social cognition processes, and some of these processes may exacerbate behavioural integrity problems. Institutional pressures toward conformity to managerial fashions and organisational change efforts, individually and in series, appears to promote divergences between words and actions, and appears to have stimulated the emergence of the behavioural integrity concept (Simmons, 1999; Storr, 2004).

Behavioural integrity has emerged as an important element in the current environment of near-continuous organisational change as a significant component of the psychological relationship with transformational leadership (Carlson & Perrewe, 1995). Further examination of the literature on transformational leadership, and trust, being a central transformational leadership competency, indicates that the challenge of maintaining behavioural integrity is critical for the development of employee emotional intelligence, mutual trust and commitment in the context of improving organisational behaviour (Simons, 1999; Storr, 2004).

Another viewpoint observed by Kouzes & Posner (1993) and Simons (1999) is that behavioural integrity is a social phenomenon, which now is gaining prominence as a
component of the social psychological construct related to individual and organisational behaviour. Also supporting behavioural integrity as a strong social psychological component are Parry & Proctor-Thomson (2002) who through research, found there was a moderate to strong relationship between ‘perceived integrity’ representing behaviour, and transformational leadership behaviours.

Social cognition research discovered a pattern of behaviour that belies behavioural integrity where, Swann & Read (1981 in Simons 1999, p. 100) commented that “people have a preference for behaviours that are consistent with their self-image”. To the extent that few people like to think of themselves as speaking one way and acting another, they are unlikely to retrieve evidence highlighting this. A further observation made by Carver (1979) and Carver & Scheier (1981 in Simons 1999, p.100) argues that “people often choose not to attend to instances of their own less-than-ideal behaviour, especially when they feel powerless to correct the deficiency”. The practical implication of this dissociation mechanism is that managers, even with the best of intentions, might be unreliable informants about their own levels of behavioural integrity as evidenced by Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997). Continuing on from this position Simons (1999, p.101) noted that, “perceived gaps might signal a need for a manager to reconsider their espousals, to alter their behaviour, or to better manager-employee attribution” leading to antecedent factors at organisational and individual levels, needing to be considered and addressed.

The behavioural integrity perspective adds to this imperative, a reminder of the importance of accurate self-representation, in short, leaders and managers should consider the virtues of ‘walking their talk’ (Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Simons, 1999) and ensuring that their behavioural actions and signals are exhibited to individuals and the organisation. The impact in the workplace of positive leadership behaviours are well documented in the social psychological context, the impact of poor leadership behaviours in this context are known to affect followers and outcomes (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006).

Leaders also need to exhibit and demonstrate, in the workplace, a behavioural range that facilitates empathy, consideration, motivation, influence, stimulation and inspiration to
achieve the organisation's outcomes. Whilst these are leadership attributes and competencies, they are also representative of the dimensions of the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm (Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002). Another view is the direction set by Kouzes & Posner (1989) where they consider the virtues of the 'walk the talk' action, as central to just social behaviour, behavioural integrity, and is also aligned to transformational leadership. Further, Simons (1999) recognises that the difference between the actions and words of a manager, leads to the issue of the behavioural integrity construct being the label of the success or failure of these actions. This label is usually represented by the term ‘credibility’, which is discussed in the following section.

### 2.2.1.2. Credibility

Behavioural integrity provides a foundation that enables credibility to be formed from followers and leaders within the organisation. The literature on credibility (Yukl, 1989; Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Simons, 1999) suggests that leaders, by violating behavioural integrity, reduce their credibility and ability to induce change. This is often made difficult by environmental changes, and by the need to experiment with new managerial approaches.

A leader and individual’s credibility are central to the establishment of behavioural integrity, within organisational behaviour, and is a subset of behavioural change and attitude change (Robbins et al. 2004). In addition, Kouzes & Posner (1993) propose that managers earn and strengthen their credibility when they simply do what they say they will do. Despite the difficulties of achieving credibility, Kouzes & Posner (1993) argue that credibility is a necessary condition for the development of employee loyalty and commitment. If transformational leadership can be assessed by the effect it has on followers (Yukl, 1989) Kouzes & Posner’s (1993) argument suggests that the credibility aspect of behavioural integrity is a pivotal component of the social psychological construct.

A survey conducted in 1988 highlighted credibility as an issue in management practices indicating that “80 percent of the Fortune 500 companies that adopted quality circles in the early 1980s had dropped them by 1987” (Abrahamson, 1996, p. 147). From this, it is clear that management practices grew in popularity, and that the cycle time of program
acceptance and rejection was, and is, fluid. From a protective instinct, Abrahamson (1996) points out that the desire to appear to be a sophisticated manager seeking to prove worth by implementing and espousing the most current leadership techniques, saw an explosion of consultants and management books as organisations responded to new competitive threats by adopting new management technologies. Adjacent to this phenomenon are Kouzes & Posner (1993, p. 22) who note that much of the “change process that is implemented by companies focussed on superficial trappings”. It is an irony that managerial credibility has been undermined by precisely the same actions that managers have adopted in their efforts to muster credibility (Zucker, 1996).

A contributing factor affecting credibility is change-oriented jargon, which is a key generator of behavioural integrity violation. This prompted Shapiro (1995, p. 49) to note that, “changes in the jargon that is used to describe employees and managers does little to alter the well-established power dynamics in an organisation, and that it has the primary effect of obscuring the reality from the less savvy actors”. When the language and behaviour do not match reality, behavioural integrity is eroded. This notion supports Kouzes & Posner’s (1993) position of the ‘walk the talk’ ideal, creating an issue, as to the perceived credibility of the leader, which may cause doubt and instability when implementing organisational change, as followers become confused and not sure whether to follow the leader. The aspects of organisational change through leadership are discussed in the following section.

2.2.1.3. Organisational change

Social organisational issues and incongruities emerge from change efforts; however these are more likely to emerge from processes of sustained change, as different elements of the organisation change at different paces (White, 2000). Constant change provides increased opportunities for leaders and followers to misunderstand the agreement between them and to perceive issues and problems (White, 2000). Constant change also causes different elements (Potter, 2001) within the organisation’s structure to adopt new approaches at different paces, which in turn leads to different messages coming from these parts of the organisation. This adds to the confusion and this is where leadership is required to stand up and lead the change agenda, whilst engaging, enabling and comforting the follower.
Some inconsistency is inevitable during any fundamental change process. The danger is that the perception of such inconsistency will undermine the employee’s assessment of the social platform and environment of the organisation, therefore, affecting the behavioural integrity and credibility of the leader, or team that champion the change (Simons, 1999). Leaders should anticipate and acknowledge to their employees that such inconsistencies will arise and enlist their employee’s assistance in ferreting out policies, procedures and behaviour that contradict proposed changes (White, 2000). In these situations, transformational leaders can transform evidence of hypocrisy into opportunities to assist in change efforts, seizing the opportunity delivered by organisational behaviour (Kelloway & Barling, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). Where the inconsistencies are not readily correctable, frank discussions are required in aligning the attribution for the inconsistency to opportunities for the future.

It is noted, the less secure people feel in an organisation and the more anxiety they experience, the stronger the desire for leadership that can provide the solutions of psychological security. However situations can change, and “on the other hand, when the need for security is satisfied, other needs grow stronger and the expectations directed towards the leaders change accordingly” (Popper & Zakkai 1994, p. 4).

This argument can be understood more precisely through the following organisational psychological contingencies, whereas “in organisations and situations where people feel secure psychologically, they do not feel that the situation is ambiguous and threatening, and where there are clear game rules for the participants, the dominant expectation will be for transactional relations with the leader” (Popper & Zakkai 1994, p. 3). In these circumstances, the motivation and instruction should be adequate to forecast and detail the leader’s influence and the effectiveness of the ‘motivational transaction’. Hence, the more a leader is able to ascertain and understand people’s expectations, of what is important to them and what they perceive as worthwhile, the more effective his/her leadership is likely to be.

Also where the individual does not feel secure, and there is a high level of concern, the dominant expectations will be for relief of the anxiety through relating emotionally to
the leader. Therefore, “mechanisms of projection, transference and attribution will work more powerfully, and the expectation directed towards the leaders, will be mainly emotional, the followers will expect their leaders to be strong, determined and protective” (Popper & Zakkai 1994, p. 3).

In the discussion above individuals are socially interacting through cause and effect factors, in most situations, unaware of social psychological forces at work; they are continually striving, in the main, for individual and collective success whilst ensuring norms and conformity are addressed in the process. In agreement is Tansley (2007, p. 351) who supports this social interaction by stating “the importance of collaboration and the need to integrate knowledge and expertise”, this links the discipline of social psychology in its many permutations to organisational behaviour, through relationships. These observations demonstrate the enormity and diversity of the interactions of individuals and the group, within organisational behaviour linked to social psychology (Robbins et al. 2004; Robbins & Judge, 2007) through the formation of relationships which are examined in the next section.

2.2.1.4. Relationships through social psychology

As discussed above Relationships are an intrinsic component of social psychology (Lee, 1999; Simons, 1999) and there is common acceptance that the definition of relationship is where two entities are in a relationship, if they influence each other. Also a relationship exists if there is an element of interdependence between entities (Lee, 1999) this position is supported by a number of authors (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Coad & Berry, 1998; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001). An observation from Bersheid (1994) is that there is a pattern of caused interconnections between the activities of two people that constitutes the relationship, extends this view.

Many resources are available in and outside most organisations to assist with the social psychological development in behavioural, attitude, communication and decision making, yet many organisations do not effectively use or evaluate these resources (Jones & Kriflik, 2006). It is essential that organisations are aware of the social psychological currencies, interactions and dependencies in the workplace if they are to develop psychological characteristics crucial to good management and leadership, culminating in a psychologically healthy atmosphere within an organisation (Lee, 1999;
Cardona, 2000; Kelloway & Barling, 2000). It is in this capacity, that leaders, by their behaviours are the catalyst in ensuring organisational health and performance is enhanced through the delivery of visionary leadership and fulfilling the follower’s ideals through relationships (Sarros & Santora, 2002; Avery, 2004; Robbins et al. 2004).

Relationships are characterised by recognition of intrinsic interpersonal benefits accruing from the relationship itself ensuring the focus of attention is the relationship rather than just the other person, and the relationship has meaning because it is seen to exist in its own right (Simons, 1999; Leban, 2004). Therefore, it can be deduced that parties who choose to give time, commitment and emotional attachment to a relationship, may yield relational benefits for the benefit of themselves and the organisation (Avery, 2004; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). Clearly it is evident that relationships are the product of interactions and are an important component of social psychology enhancing organisational outcomes (Robbins et al. 2004).

From the theory of social exchange a broad relationship view emerged, that has generally been accepted within social psychology literature (Clark, 1984). This view suggests that there is a typology that consists of two generic types: communal relationships, which are characterised by member’s obligations and their desire to be especially responsive to each other’s needs; and exchange relationships where benefits are given with the expectation of reciprocity based on self-interest. Within this context Berry & Cartwright (2000) evolve the notion of principals and agents, demonstrating that people need to be attentive to the connection of the societal, the organisational tasks, and behaviours of leaders and individuals.

It is, and “has been argued that leaders and followers are social constructions in social worlds” (Berry & Cartwright, 2000, p. 348). If this is the position, then their formation cannot be an isolated phenomenon without the existence of social psychology as a blended component, supported by Robbins et al. (2004). In viewing social constructs Cardona (2000) aligns his thoughts by arguing that there are two components, one being an economic exchange and a social exchange. From this Cardona (2000) discusses
whether a social partnership is the result of the attractiveness of the task, or motivation of the individual, noting that the relationship and influence will be different and dependent on the nature of the social exchange.

However, Atkinson (2004) argues that communal-exchange, or indeed the expressive-instrumental typologies are problematic; because these relationships are not socially constructed in a polarised way. For example, communal or expressive relationships do not imply responsiveness, whilst exchange or instrumental relationships may also not be the sum of calculative self-interest.

From a different position, Lee (1999, p. 589) argues that “psychology can help individuals to understand themselves and their co-workers enabling the awareness of the responsibility to provide a psychologically healthy atmosphere in the workplace”. In context, psychological models can help in the understanding of human behaviour leading paradoxically to an ability to comprehend and deal with the complexity of human behaviour. Further Lee (1999) also acknowledges that the current research highlights and confirms the importance of having psychologically healthy and mature individuals in positions of authority.

Supporting Lee’s (1999) position are Robbins et al. (2004) who observes that leaders are social constructs and cannot sensibly be an isolated object of study in a positivist approach to social science research. Also Berry & Cartwright (2000, p. 347) note the formation of leaders as a social construction, but they delve deeper, purporting the leader as a kind of “organisational therapist in touch with the emotional life, organisation, and bringing the goodness of psyche into the arena”. In consideration, Berry & Cartwright (2000) also note the range of emotions that leaders and followers encompass, these being nice, love, gratitude, fear anxiety, envy, lust, greed, anger, and avarice that are in existence through the leader/follower relationship. From Berry & Cartwright’s (2000) and Robbins et al.’s (2004) observations, the alignment of relationships to the construct of social psychology as an integral enabler in the composition of leadership is supported. From this small selection of authors, the conclusion is that the variables of emotion, trust, values, and relationships are pivotal
factors/competencies affecting leadership in general and are linked through the discipline of social psychology, duly exhibited by leader and follower behaviour.

2.2.1.5. Parent discipline summary
The depth of psychology literature and the specific relationship and alignment of social psychology, to organisational behaviour, is too variant, to be covered in any specific literature review. The general outcome of the research to date has determined there are a significant number of cross relationships, dependencies, convergences and dynamics that influence social psychology in its position within an organisational and individual behavioural environment. The overwhelming evidence supporting the position of social psychology as a catalyst and major component in organisational behaviour, facilitates the structural positioning of social psychology, as the parent discipline related to leadership, and more pertinent, the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm for this research.

2.3. Historical developments in leadership research
Leadership has long been a subject of intense scrutiny by researchers and philosophers alike, and to many, the study of history is simply the study of leaders. Ancient Greek, Roman and Chinese cultures devoted considerable thought to the principles and actions emanating from leadership, in an effort to find cause and effects that could be applied to current leaders from past actions. Philosophers developed streams of leader characteristics to convey their understanding of leader behaviours in an organisational context.

Leadership studies at the turn of the twentieth century focused on the perception of traits that led to leadership and organisational success as briefly discussed and described in Chapter one, and are listed here to guide a more in depth discussion and critique of transformational leadership. According to Bryman (1972) the pervasive trends in leadership theory and research have been within four stages. These are identified as: Trait Approach (prior to the late 1940s) Style Approach (late 1940s to late 1960s) Contingency Approach (late 1960s to early 1980s) and New Leadership Approaches (since 1980s). These approaches all have a basic assumption or theme, with the Trait Approach based on the idea that leadership is innate. The Style approach addresses the
belief that leader behaviour is tied to leadership effectiveness. The contingency approach has been studied from a variety of perspectives commencing with traits by Stogdill (1948) and behavioural by Fleishman (1953). Then through the contingency theory by Fiedler (1967) and also by Hersey & Blanchard (1977) who supported the situational theory. The New Leadership approaches, such as, charismatic and transformational leadership are supported by Burns (1978) Bass (1985a & 1985b) Bass & Avolio (1990a) House (1997) Yukl (1998) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006). The observation from this, is that researchers continue to develop fresh theories and hypotheses in pursuit of determining what constitutes effective leadership.

Leadership theories developed to date have focused on the perceived tension between factors such as autocratic, as opposed to democratic, or task as opposed to relationship, or directive as opposed to participative approaches to decision making (Bass, 1997). This positioning of leadership theories has provided a framework around which to consider some of the individual elements of leadership. A recent leadership paradigm shift endorsed by many (Bass, 1985a; Berry & Cartwright, 2000; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Avery, 2004) highlights the shift from the transactional leadership model to the transformational leadership model. Extensive literature emphasising, idealised influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and motivation as primary constituents, of the transformational model, which enhances organisational outcomes, have promoted this shift.

From Burn’s (1978) original work on transformational leadership, a considerable amount of literature has emerged supporting the benefits of deploying transformational leadership, in both the individual and organisational context. Bass’s (1985) contributions have led the modern era of leadership theory in the transformational context, with his visionary model comprising of four distinct factors: charisma, inspiration, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation. This is further supported by Sarros & Santora (2001) who adopted the same conceptual model, except for charisma, for which they used idealised influence and added the word motivational to Bass’s (1985a) inspiration, as the difference between the two models.
However, another view, expressed by Mastrangelo, Eddy & Lorenzet (2004) acknowledged that leadership behaviours and actions must be concerned with both task and people related issues. This view is pertinent, in consideration that the impact of organisations is pervasive (Mastrangelo et al. 2004) in people’s lives because most of us work in organisations and belong to organisations in our recreational time to achieve social objectives. Because most people spend half of their waking hours in work settings, for a period of forty or more years of their life, the study of all related aspects of organisations and individuals is crucial for improvements to be made in management, leadership and relationships.

2.3.1. The philosophical beginnings of leadership in general

On examination of the earliest writings, it is apparent that our fixation with the notion of leadership has been with society for thousands of years. Written principles, regarding leadership and follower relationships were beginning to emerge 5,000 years ago (Bass, 1985a). In classical Chinese works, leaders such as Confucius and Asoka were philosophical in understanding factors associated with transformational leadership, and encouraged those in power to become moral forces for the good of followers and their development. In ancient Greece, the heroic deeds of Ajax demonstrated inspirational leadership where Plato spoke on the issue of effective leadership and charisma. Plato asserted that if leaders desired to be charismatic, they must learn to express important ideas by using symbols and metaphors in their managerial efforts (Takala, 1998). These philosophers may have been promoting charismatic leaders as moral agents that inspired followers by evoking symbolic images and expressing important ideas in simple, rational ways.

A later illustration of the philosophical beginnings is observed by Griffith (1991, p. 12) highlighting Sun Tzu’s translation of the “Art of War” written around 500 BC, stating that the “relationship of the sovereign to his appointed commander; the moral, emotional, and intellectual qualities of the good general; organisation, manoeuvre, control, terrain and weather”. These specific instances highlight the probability and identification of a behavioural range exemplifying the transactional-transformational leader behaviour continuum that Bass & Avolio (1994) refer to as the full range of leader behaviour. Given this, it could be considered, that these ancient philosophers had
discovered and were using a mode of transformational leadership long before modern civilisation.

2.3.2. Modern Leadership

The extensive array of literature on leadership indicates that a range of opinions, theories and beliefs exist, and to add to the ever-increasing quantum, a range of threads are constantly being examined. From a competency perspective, Cacioppe (1997) suggests that leaders must have the characteristics of good people; they are honest, have self-confidence and are fair-minded and supportive. Successful leaders need to be sensitive to the situation and their followers by being flexible and are able to adapt to the situation to ensure that the vision is achieved (Cacioppe, 1997). A challenging, worthwhile vision is also characteristic of a good leader, where the leader helps the follower transcend his or her own self-interest and participates in a vision for the greater good (Cacioppe, 1997).

As leadership research has grown and expanded, an even broader picture of leadership has emerged: that is a focus on the organisational culture (Schein, 1992). For leaders to be effective, according to Schein (1992) issues related to the culture must be clearly identified. For example, one aspect of a culture is change, and leaders must be able to adapt to change, depending on the culture, as the environment shifts and develops. In leadership studies White (2000) and Jones & Kriflik (2005) found that organisations who have tried to resist change in the external environment have experienced more difficulties than organisations that have responded positively to change. There has been an increasing requirement for leaders to demonstrate leadership skills and proficiency in leading organisations through change and increasing competitiveness (Lim, 1997; White, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Avery, 2004; Robbins & Judge, 2007).

The concept of leadership has drawn heightened attention from social scientists for many decades. Recently the focus has shifted from traditional and transactional models of leadership to a new genre of leadership theories. This change in focus brought about an emphasis on transformational leadership (Bass, 1985a) which has been termed as visionary, whereas Westley & Mintzberg (1989) and Conger (1989) have determined this shift as charismatic, however Bryman (1972) has described it as New Leadership. From this, it is pertinent to explore different forms of modern leadership in the context
of this research. The next step is to discover, and to consider the virtues and alignments of the leadership types and relationships in contrast to transformational leadership. The commencement of this discovery begins with the challenge of defining leadership.

2.3.3. Definition of leadership

In the search for the definition of leadership, Stogdill (1948) Bass (1990a) and Rost (1991) testify that there has never been clarity, nor widespread agreement, about what precisely ‘leader’ means, and what leadership looks like. Therefore, it could be reasonably argued that the lack of clarity of an agreed definition seems to bedevil leadership studies, is a good thing and generates constant debate, creating new perceptions and theories. It forces those who study leadership to grapple with some of the most complicated and richly textured questions about the nature of human affairs. In consideration Kotter (1990 in Popper & Zakkai, 1994, p. 3) claimed that leadership is “getting people to act without coercion”. Similar definitions have been offered by many prominent writers on leadership (Bass, 1985a; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1989) and have served as the basis for research and the subsequent application of leadership.

In more recent times, another description of leadership emerged from Popper & Zakkai (1994, p. 1) who state “the American general, Dwight Eisenhower, once said that the essence of leadership is to make people do what you want them to with as much will, determination and enthusiasm as if they had decided for themselves”. Leadership literature appears to be guided by this orientation and is supported by Kotter (1990) who proposes that leadership is the art of getting people to do what you require without having to induce them. Clearly leadership is imperative for organisational and individual through co-direction.

From an operational perspective Kellerman & Webster (2001, p. 486) define a leader as “one who creates or strives to create change, large or small”, considering leadership as a process with followers and leaders interacting, generating change. While a supervisory view is highlighted by Kent et al. (2001, p. 223) who defines leadership as more related to the “marshalling, energising and unifying of people toward the pursuit of a vision”. This is compared with Coad & Berry (1998, p. 165) who define leadership as the
“process of leaders and followers engaging in reciprocal influence to achieve a shared purpose”. Whereas Vecchio, Hearn & Southey (1992) suggest that leadership is defined through a process, which leaders try to get organisational members to do something, which the individuals desire to do. The definition provided by Washbush (2005, p.1080) argues that “if leadership were to mean simply the behaviour of those in charge, then leadership would be anything and everything they do”. However, the issue is more complex as Washbush (2005, p. 1080) also notes that leadership is “behaviour resulting in willing compliance”. Therefore, as people exercise leadership in a number of ways that are consistent with their personalities, and what is effective for them, the complexities are further compounded.

While researchers agree that leadership involves leaders getting followers to carry out tasks, the mechanism through which this transaction occurs is not clear. Indeed the mechanism may differ between the circumstances, situations and the individuals involved. However, what is clear is that the current literature identifies the mechanism, as including people’s behaviours, personalities and desires and, therefore, leadership involves complex interactions between leaders and followers.

2.4. Leadership theories

As noted leadership is typically demonstrated by the traits, qualities, and behaviours of a leader and has spanned across cultures, decades and theoretical beliefs. A brief and selective summary of what is known and understood about leadership is an important basis to conducting further research. Leadership theories and research have largely occurred within the last fifty years, using the Approach theory as being the premise that effective leadership is affected by the situation. In general this has been followed by the new leadership approach, of where the leader possesses charismatic, visionary, transformational beliefs and values, focusing on the proposition that leaders require vision and a range of new soft skills, knowledge and attributes to effect positive leadership (Bryman, 1972). Some researchers argue that leadership is a universal process that comes from within the individual by possession of certain personality traits or behavioural skills that make people more skilful leaders. Partially supporting this position is Ayman (1993, p. 276) who notes that a “person possessing certain qualities,
he or she will be a successful leader only in situations that call for traits and abilities that he or she possesses”. Other authors (Bass, 1985a; Cartwright & Berry, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006) ascertain that behavioural skills are central and paramount to being a skilful leader.

There are several distinct theoretical bases for leadership, Luthans (1981, p. 418) states that, “firstly leaders were felt to be born and not made”; this implies that some individuals may be born with certain traits and to emerge from situations as a leader, this is known as the Trait theory. Another dimension is the group and exchange theories of leadership which have their roots in social psychology, as do all leadership theories (Sadava & McCreary, 1997) and supported by; Hollander & Julian (1969 in Luthans 1981, p. 420) who articulated the social exchange view of leadership as follows:

> the person in the role of leader who fulfils expectations and achieves group goals provides rewards for others, which are reciprocated in the form of status, esteem, and heightened influence. Because leadership embodies a two-way influence relationship recipients of influence assertions may respond by asserting influence in return. The very sustenance of the relationship depends upon some yielding to influence on both sides.

Observing a theoretical position, Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) consider and postulate the transition of leadership from situational, contingency and transactional leadership to the modern visionary requirements of transformational leadership. This emergence has been assisted by a number of researchers (Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Robbins et al. 2004) who have identified the transformational leader, visionary and charismatic, as being critical to the success of an organisation by embracing and facilitating change in the twenty-first century.

Another theme is suggested by Mastrangelo et al. (2004, p. 436) on the “idea that, leadership behaviours and actions are important determinants of effectiveness, some of the earlier research in this area suggested that leaders must be concerned with task-related issues and people-related issues”. More recent theories of leadership explore the important aspect of leadership behaviours and actions. For example Hersey & Blanchard (1982, in Mastrangelo et al. 2004, p. 436) state the “situational theory of leadership suggests that the extent, to which leaders engage in relationship behaviours and task behaviours, depends on the maturity of the followers”.

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Considering this it seems reasonable to conclude, that to be a successful leader, a person must be concerned with both task-transactional, and the people related transformational style, to appropriately address and accommodate organisational behaviour and the workplace issues of a leader. From the theoretical leadership discussion it is logical to evaluate the virtues of some central leadership paradigms and their alignment to the immediate discipline of this research, transformational leadership, the aspects of which are discussed in the next section.

2.4.1. Leadership styles and paradigm

Three central leadership paradigms were introduced in Chapter one; they were introduced as a continuum as opposed to distinct, mutually exclusive paradigms, progressing to the visionary paradigm where the transformational leadership style is positioned and has been discussed. There are other styles and paradigms of leadership that may be closely aligned to transformational leadership and it is logical to examine these, and their relationship and alignment to transformational leadership.

The three leadership styles and paradigm that are relevant and closely related to leadership in general, and the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm of leadership, are transactional, situational, and servant leadership. These three leadership aspects have been chosen for examination due to their contribution as pillars within the transformational leadership construct, each of these are now discussed.

2.4.1.1. Situational leadership

Leaders of an organisation may need to lead the followers from a basic structure engaging in various forms of leadership, in search of providing the ultimate and desired leadership style. One of these leadership styles is situational leadership, which is also a component of the transformational leadership style and not mutually exclusive; its attributes have a place within the transformational leadership style as a sub section (Cacioppe, 1997).

Situational leadership is defined by Cacioppe (1997) as the ability to apply the right amount of direction and support, depending on the situation and the level of competency and motivation, to the follower. In consideration of leadership paradigms, Cacioppe (1997, p. 336) also notes that “situational leadership is one of the several
transactional approaches to leadership” and that the attributes of situational leadership are not dissimilar to that of transactional leadership. Therefore, Cacioppe (1997) endorses the theory that the two types of leadership, situational and transactional are not mutually exclusive, and are possibly interlinked as a stage of transformational leadership.

In reviewing situational leadership as a contingency theory (Cacioppe, 1997) suggests that the leaders’ style is selected on the readiness of the followers; this allows the followers to accept or reject the leader from the actions of the followers (Cacioppe, 1997). For example, situational leadership can be depicted as the relationship where the leader relinquishes control of authority to the follower, as the follower has demonstrated competency in the task, the leader has also gained maturity in allowing the follower to assume control.

Conceptually, Robbins et al. (2004) views situational leadership as a contingency theory, focused on the formation and positioning of the followers. Contingency theory, emanating from Fiedler’s model, is where a basic leadership style is matched to a situation and successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style, from which Hersey & Blanchard (1982) acknowledge, is contingent on the level of the follower’s readiness. Situational leadership theory views the leader-follower relationship, as highly directive compared to highly laissez-faire, where the most effective behaviour depends on the follower’s ability and motivation (Cacioppe, 1997).

Dealing with the expectations of followers is a phenomenon aligned to all forms of leadership, including situational leadership. From this perspective Jones & Kriflik (2005) established that in a cleaned up bureaucracy, the role leaders play, is in context, far from the notion of the ‘New Leadership’ hero popularised in the image as illustrated by Bryman (1972). This conclusion, however, does not go to the heart of leadership; in essence it demonstrates the classical leadership paradigm, riddled with hierarchical control, just reshaped and in most occurrences could easily be labelled as situational leadership (White, 2000). Whereas Cacioppe (1997, p. 336) takes a different stance to Hersey & Blanchard (1982) noting advancement of the situational theory to one, where recognition for different types of situations, different leadership styles, are more
effective and that “situational leadership is one of several transactional approaches to
leadership”. An example of Hersey & Blanchard (1982) and Cacioppe’s (1997) theory
is where, in an emergency, the style of leadership is likely to be directive by spelling out
the tasks and requirements, clearly removing the supportive element to meet the
situation, therefore, being situational in nature.

In conclusion, situational leadership relates to transformational leadership through
idealised influence, where the leader provides sense of mission, communicates, coaches
and advises the followers in their activities whilst engaging in directive and supportive
dimensions aligned to the appropriate situation, or development level of the group or
individual. Situational leadership is not that dissimilar in structure to servant leadership,
as both have transformational leadership dimensions. The servant leadership
composition is further discussed in the following section.

2.4.1.2. Servant leadership
In defining a servant leader, Laub (1999) observed that a servant leader is one who
emphasises the good of followers over the self-interest of the leader. Thus servant
leadership promotes development of people through the sharing of power, community
building, authenticity in leadership and the provision of leadership (Andersen, 2009).
The primary motivation for servant leadership is the desire to effectively serve followers
in order to accomplish shared goals. Servant leadership is exhibited as a valid theory of
organisational leadership (Russell & Stone, 2002; Andersen, 2009) with great promise
for theoretical and practical development, however, there is little empirical evidence
supporting servant leadership in current literature (Andersen, 2009). An explanation
from Greeneleaf (1977) further explains that the servant leader is servant first; it begins
with wanting to serve, by conscious choice and the priority to make sure other people’s
needs are being served.

Anecdotal evidence from Washington, Sutton & Field (2006) suggests that primary
servant leaders include values of empathy, the ability to visibly appreciate, consider and
care for followers, are known valuable attributes of servant leaders and are also evident
in the transformational leadership construct (Andersen, 2009). Servant leaders also
value integrity and competence in order to foster interpersonal trust, which they
perceive to be an essential ingredient in servant leadership (Russell & Stone, 2002).
A concluding observation about servant leadership is that it is a relationship between the leader and the follower, that ensures the follower is served first, to achieve the activity at the expense of the leader. The relationship could be considered to be over balanced in favour of the follower and provides a good format for productivity and relationships (Stone et al. 2004). However, this may be considered very costly to the leader, as effort and attention are all focused on the follower and not the organisation or leader. Another view, Hamilton (2008 in Marturano & Gosling; Andersen, 2009) is that idealised influence, a dimension of transformational leadership, is the same for servant-leadership as it is for transformational leadership, linking servant leadership through the ‘idealised influence’ dimension of transformational leadership. Noting that they are not mutually exclusive, and that the servant leadership style is interrelated (Stone et al. 2004) to the transformational style of leadership, and also that of the transactional style which is discussed in the next section.

2.4.1.3. Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is where followers and leaders engage in a social exchange, resulting in reward for effort and outcome (Cardona, 2000). In support of Cardona’s (2000) position are Sarros & Santora (2001) who indicate that transactional leaders engage in a cost benefit, which is a transactional exchange with their followers to achieve organisational objectives. The follower’s objective of tangible rewards for effort expended is the pivotal notion in achieving results as this promotes work commitment. Also, Sarros & Santora (2002) extol that there is a down side to having a transactional exchange as workers focus on narrow goals, and both workers and executives set their sight on performance being measured in monetary terms. Another view emanates from Cacioppe (1997) who observes transactional leadership, as being situational in nature, due to the task of leaders guiding their followers to established goals via a reward mechanism.

Transactional leadership as espoused by Robbins & Judge (2007, p. 437) suggests that “transactional leadership is a foundation stone to organisational objectives”. In addition, Robbins & Judge (2007, p. 437) also state that by “clarifying role and task requirements in the direction of established goals” this supports a link between behaviour and outcomes, initiated through a potential result for the follower if they engage in certain
behaviours. Supporting this position are Pearce, Sims, Cox, Ball, Schnell, Smith & Trevino (2003, p. 279) acknowledging that “transactional leadership is focused on clarifying the effort-reward relationships and using the reward systems to achieve maximal motivation”. In addition, Pearce et al. (2003) expands the transactional leadership definition through the exchange/equity theory into four, actions that are thought to be fundamental to the transactional relationship, these being:

1. what the followers give in an exchange;
2. what the followers receive in an exchange;
3. what others give in a similar exchange; and
4. what others receive in a similar exchange (Pearce et al. 2003, p. 279).

Also Pearce et al. (2003, p. 279) states “individuals are thought to strive to maintain an equitable ratio between what they give and receive from an exchange, in comparison to what others give and receive from a comparable exchange”. From Pearce et al.’s (2003) position it can be established that all our daily work and interactions are largely transactional. It could also be ascertained that the overall situation from a work perspective, is that we are due to the foundations and necessity of civilisation, grounded in a transactional paradigm by the sheer nature and requirement to exist. This position is further supported in Pearce et al. (2003) who also suggests that it seems likely that transactional leadership will prove to be a stable, and distinct type, of leadership behaviour and thus will reinforce the transactional-transformational relationship.

Two authors, Burns (1978) and Chakraborty (2004) both suggest that the transactional leadership process has been with us for a considerable period, arguing that transactional leadership is characterised by a ‘swapping’, or ‘trading’, or a ‘bargaining’ motive in an exchange process between a leader and follower. Also Popper & Zakkai (1994) note that the transactional leadership paradigm is prevalent in most organisations and situations, as it contains a basic exchange relationship affected by circumstances, and is responsive to dealing with present issues. From a leader’s position, Popper & Zakkai (1994, p. 6) reiterate that the “effective transactional leader is a master of the ‘give and take’, responding on the diagnosis of situational factors” this position is also supported by Cacioppe (1997).
The transactional leadership paradigm and transformational leadership style are not mutually exclusive, that is they are different types of leadership, however one cannot be in isolation to the other (Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002). Therefore, transactional and transformational leadership are interactive, with transactional leadership, ensuring a basic relationship negated through social exchange (Cardona, 2000; Avery, 2004). This is where the follower is rewarded, while the leader attains the objective as an integral component, through a natural relationship that is the first step, in providing a productive relationship between the leader and follower, and the alignment of the two, transactional and transformational leadership. Transformational leadership provides the continuum by being the next step from the transactional paradigm in the visionary paradigm (Avery, 2004). The multiple relationships of situational, servant, transactional and transformational leadership styles and paradigm are illustrated in Figure 2.3.

**Figure 2.3: Leadership styles and paradigm model.**

Source: Developed for this research from the literature.

Figure 2.3 represents the three aspects of leadership that have been examined in this section, situational, servant and transactional, and indicates that the leadership styles and paradigm are not mutually exclusive from each other, and from the transformational leadership style of the visionary paradigm.
2.4.1.4. **Summary of leadership styles and paradigm**

The three aspects of leadership, situational, servant and transactional, are active in various forms, within the transformational style and have maintained that position through the evolution of leadership into the current visionary transformational era. There is a cross relationship between situational, servant and transactional leadership styles, in that there is a component of each leadership style, where the leader influences the follower, and also how organisational contexts influence leadership styles.

The discussed leadership styles and paradigm have a participating relationship with the transformational paradigm as illustrated by Figure 2.3. With the understanding of the three leadership aspects now reached and their alignment to the transformational leadership style established and supported, the next step leads to an examination of the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm, which is considered in the next section.

2.5. **Transformational leadership**

There has been a considerable amount of recent literature centred on transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990b; Cacioppe, 1997; Coad & Berry, 2000; Cardona, 2000; Tsai, Chen & Cheng, 2009). With transformational leadership being the immediate discipline to be addressed in this research, it is now pertinent to explore the virtues of transformational leadership and its benefits within the workplace.

Transformational leadership inspires leaders to forgo their own interests, in addition to realigning follower’s interests; they must also be focused on the best outcomes for the organisation. Supporting this position are Tichy & Devanna (1990) who indicate that transformational leadership creates a distinct style of agreement, as to the direction of the organisation, resting on core value propositions and good leadership. From an individual’s perspective, Sarros & Santora (2001, p. 385) note that “transformational leaders raise the consciousness of followers by appealing to higher ideals and values”. Transformational leaders also espouse consistency, honesty, empowerment and a range of correlated skills, knowledge and attributes (Bass, 1985a, Berry & Cartwright, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2002) to provide followers with the vision, and the conduit to
achieving outcomes for the organisation. Whilst at the same time ensuring the ongoing fulfilment of the follower’s needs and career placement.

In essence, leadership is about the understanding of the behaviours and functions of individuals and circumstances that are present in the workplace. The transformational style of leadership (Dunford, 1992) builds on this concept to be the next step beyond the transactional leadership paradigm, which is one of leader-follower relationship in the context of a formal exchange seeking something more than just obedience and compliance from the followers (Lindgreen, Palmer, Wetzel’s & Anticco, 2009). Individual job performance is reported by Walumbwa, Avolio & Zhu (2008) and further supported by Tsai et al. (2009) to be related to the leader’s transformational leadership input. Therefore, supporting identification of the leader/follower relationship, and resulting in the improved work unit and individual performance of the follower.

Transformational leaders believe there is a need, as demonstrated in Tichy & Ulrich (1984) whatever the situation, to change the follower’s beliefs, attitudes and values, for the good of the organisation and individual, and in doing so achieve a superior level of performance and competitive advantage. According to Bass (1990) managers who behave like transformational leaders are more likely to be seen by their colleagues and employees as satisfying and effective leaders. In consideration, Robbins & Judge (2007, p. 437) explain transformational leadership as “leaders who inspire followers to transcend their own self interests and who are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers”. In support are Castro, Perinan, Carlos & Bueno (2008) who acknowledge that transformational leadership is positively related to leadership effectiveness and has a significant influence on the attitudes and behaviours of followers, and is a style that has a positive advantage for both the organisation and the individual.

In reality the situation is one of partnership, with both the follower and the leader identifying their positions and accountability, whilst at the same time understanding the need to participate collectively in organisational tasks to facilitate an outcome that enhances both the organisation and the individual. Whilst this concept is not new, it is the skill set of the leader (Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 1997) that becomes
most crucial to this situation, it is the leader, who must drive, and engage in the attributes of the transformational leadership style, as pioneered and espoused by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985a, 1985b).

Previous research on Bass’s (1985a) theory of transformational leadership has primarily focused on comparing the effects of transformational leadership on individual performance, satisfaction and effectiveness. In another study Avey, Hughes, Norman & Luthans (2007, p. 121) suggest that “employee empowerment is the positive psychological capital and is predicted by transformational leadership”, thus supporting the social psychological alignment of leader behaviour, through the transformational leadership style.

Transformational leadership has also been linked to outcomes such as leadership effectiveness, innovativeness, quality and improvement (Bass, 1985b; Tsai et al. 2009). In the same studies, transactional leadership was also positively correlated with these outcomes, but in general, the relationships were considerably weaker than those found for transformational leadership. These observations in the leadership literature are strong assertions regarding the beneficial effect of transformational leadership on followers. A number of studies have also suggested that transformational leadership, through its four dimensions, has a profound positive influence on follower’s efforts and satisfaction (Bass & Avolio, 1990b; Cacioppe, 1997; Coad & Berry, 2000; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Robbins et al. 2004; Robins & Judge, 2007; Tsai et al. 2009).

The dimensions that make up transformational leadership were described by Sarros & Santora (2001) and further supported by Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino (1991) as individualised consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence. These categories highlight the alignment to Bass’s (1985a) model, in that individualised consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence are integral within the Bass’s (1985) model. It is important to understand the expanded descriptions of the four dimensions of transformational leadership model are as follows:
individualised consideration as noted by Sarros & Santora (2001) deals with the fundamental transformational leadership behaviours of treating individuals as important contributors to the work place;

inspirational motivation is described by Sarros & Santora (2001) as raising the consciousness of workers about the organisation’s mission and vision, whilst encouraging others in understanding and committing to the vision;

intellectual stimulation is described by Sarros & Santora (2001) as leaders who intellectually stimulate workers, encourage creativity and accept challenges, keep their cool working out ways of dealing with problems, and rationally cultivate similar skills in their workers; and

idealised influence, from a behavioural aspect, Sarros & Santora (2001) encourages followers to use their leaders as role models, whereas Alimo-Metcalfe interprets idealised influence as concern for others (Powell, 2004) and Bass (1985) as representing charisma.

From the above model Sarros & Santora (2001) interpret charisma as idealised influence, where a leader creates values that inspires and provides meaning for the followers, and instils a sense of purpose in people. Inspirational motivation has the same characteristics of inspiration in Bass’s (1985a) model, except that Sarros & Santora (2001) espoused inspirational motivation as addressing the principle of organisational existence, rather than the leader’s personality. Referring to Bass’s (1985a) model, and the four dimensions, little has changed in the evolution of the transformational leadership dimension description and setting, therefore, supporting the literature of the past twenty four years that accepts Bass’s (1985a) model as the foundation for the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm.

Robbins et al. (2004) through evaluating the big five-factor model that supports and encompasses the most significant variations in human personality reports another view of the important dimensions of leadership. The big five are seen as predictors of primary traits in providing a unifying personality framework, from which the dimensions of organisational behaviour are derived (Robbins et al. 2004). The big five-factors aligned to transformational leadership commence with extraversion, which captures the comfort level in relationships, and is aligned to individual consideration in the transformational
leadership model through being a factor or characteristic of the individual, highlighting the relationship of the big five-factors to transformational leadership.

Another big five factor is agreeableness which consistently predicts transformational leadership, with Judge & Bono (2000) suggesting that such a strong association might be explained by transformational leadership’s emphasis on agreeable characteristics, such as compassion, empathy and trust through the individual consideration dimension of Bass’s (1985a) transformational leadership model. In addition, conscientiousness, another of the big five-factor constructs, measures reliability and is directly related to intellectual stimulation as the follower is stimulated and is responsible, focused and organised. The big five-factor of emotional stability is directly related to individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspiration, as the leader tends to be calm and self confident and able to withstand stress. The final big five factor is openness to experience, which depicts creative people, directly linked to individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspiration, as people have a high range of interests and fascination with novelty (Thurstone, 1934).

The relationship between the big five-factor model, and transformational leadership is linked through the personality traits of followers and leaders (Robbins & Judge, 2007) relating equally to followers and leaders. These are also characteristics found in servant, situational and transactional leaders (Robbins & Judge, 2007) which further support the notion that these leadership styles are components of the transformational leadership style rather than mutually exclusive to it.

In addition, Cardona (2000) argues that the transformational leader, as well as looking for results, is also concerned with aligning the follower’s interests with those of the organisation. The leader focuses on creating an attractive vision to follow by challenging parameters, in addition to improving the working conditions for the followers (Cardona, 2000). The most important competence of a transformational leader, beside the capacity to negotiate and control transactions, is their capacity to create and communicate an attractive vision that followers will adopt and follow (Sarros & Santora, 2001). Therefore, the transformational leader can be considered to be, both a visionary and charismatic (idealised influence) leader, able to persuade followers to
pursue the same vision as themselves (Bass, 1985a; Cacioppe, 2000; Berry & Cartwright, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001). Also, Cardona (2000) highlights that the transformational leader is not the opposite of the transactional leader, rather, an enriched transactional leader; thereby supporting the assertion that transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership, as noted by Bass & Avolio (1994).

The positive effects of transformational leadership in the private sector is well documented and supported by empirical evidence highlighting the benefits to both individuals and organisations (Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002). Transformational leadership of the modern era as reviewed to date, has evolved over a period of 31 years, from Burns (1978) through to the multiple studies of Bass (1985a, 1985b) and his associates, in addition to a number of other influential authors who have also researched transformational leadership. Research by three prominent authors (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalf, 2001, 2002 & 2006) and many others have provided an overwhelming body of evidence of the existence, acceptance and engagement of transformational leadership in the private sector. However, only limited research findings have been reported for the public sector in general and more specifically the APS.

2.5.1. Transformational leadership recent progress

Whilst Burns (1978) and Bass (1985a, 1985b) were the initial modern day researchers and the main instigators of the transformational leadership model, several other authors (Kouzes & Posner, 1992; Cacioppe, 1997; Berry & Cartwright, 2000; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalf, 2000, 2001 & 2006) have also supported and endorsed the Bass model. The Bass model, emanating from Burn’s (1978) initial model, has been subjected to extensive evaluation and consideration with recent developments, adding to the model espoused by Sarros & Santora (2001, 2002) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalf (2000, 2001 & 2006). This endorsement has been significant in that a stream of these and other authors have not in context, changed the model to any significant degree. Particularly Sarros & Santora (2001, 2002) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalf (2000, 2001 & 2006) noting that these authors have developed additional aspects, such as terminology changes by Sarros & Santora (2001) and a new model by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-
Metcalfe (2000, 2001 & 2006). These additions have added to recent knowledge, and further supported and endorsed the transformational leadership construct and its benefits for followers, leaders and organisations. This supports the transformational leadership style as a preferred leadership style for individuals and organisations to adopt, and which is further discussed in the next section.

2.5.2. Transformational leadership the preferred leadership style
The support of the transformational leadership construct by Sarros & Santora (2001, 2002) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2000, 2001 & 2006) provides an extensively well researched and supportive platform that endorses the facets and virtues of the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm. More recently Avery (2004, p. 34) has further supported and endorsed the transformational leadership style as being within the “ideal leadership paradigm, especially for transforming organisations”. A raft of authors that have cross-supported the benefits of transformational leadership and publicly bestowed the virtues, as a must have, for an organisation to move forward, have contributed significantly to reinforcing the base model (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Cacioppe, 1997; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001, 2006). These authors have provided the substance for the continual evolvement of the transformational leadership style and have continually cross-referenced each other, adding their particular thread of evolvement to the transformational leadership construct, therefore, increasing support. Several qualitative and quantitative studies have empirically presented the evidence to prove that transformational leadership does exist, and its application, provides benefits for individuals, leaders and organisations.

The majority of authors, who have contributed to the knowledge of transformational leadership, have done so in the positive mode and there were very few articles found, in the process of this research that derail their positions. The few negative articles researched have attempted to test leadership in general, which transformational leadership is a component thereof, mainly generate an opinion, such as Washbush (2005) who suggests that management and not leadership is the fundamental principle of running organisations. In his commentary, Washbush (2005, p. 1080) further comments that “all decisions made are through the office and that this is not
leadership”. However Washbush (2005) continues to relate managerial behaviour to leadership, whilst also noting that they are in context two separate activities. In observing Washbush’s (2005) argument, it is interesting to note that there is no provision of empirical evidence, just an unsupported opinion.

2.5.3. Additional aspects of transformational leadership

The writings range from positive side of the transformational leadership concept, to varying threads engaging social schema ideals related to transformational leadership through sociology, psychology and social psychology, detailing the interactions, dependencies and correlations of the disciplines into a cohort underpinning human behaviours in the leadership continuum. The common factor is that all are interrelated, and have cause and effect in the delivery of transformational leadership (Simons, 1999).

In consideration of the above statement, and in support of the evolution of thinking on transformational leadership transcending into various disciplines, Simmons (1999) further explored the mixture of sociology and psychology. Simmons (1999) concluded that there are other important aspects, which have been previously described by other authors such as Kouzes & Posner (1983, 1992) as leaders ‘walking the talk’. However, the concept had not been discussed or explained beforehand as belonging to the social structure of sociology and psychology blended into a combination labelled, social psychology. In illustration, Simmons (1999) combined Kouzes & Posner’s theories into aspects of behavioural integrity, credibility, change abilities and relationship management as additional components inclusive of leader’s behaviours. Combine these aspects with the sociological and psychological frameworks facilitating behavioural actions enables these attributes to be combined, structured and readily identifiable as new knowledge in the transformational leadership context. This is only one example of the positively aligned information being derived from the initial concept of transformational leadership. There are many more from a range of writers covering a number of leadership aspects, which are further, discussed in the following paragraph.

These writings, and many more, aligned to findings again centrally support the concept and benefits that transformational leadership provides. The evidence also supports the evolving thread observation, that many authors, other than the main body of Bass (1985a, 1985b) Sarros & Santora (2001, 2002) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe
continually develop fresh theories and concepts that are both central, aligned and additional to the transformational leadership concept. Furthermore, several authors (Bass & Avolio, 1990b; Cacioppe, 1997; Coad & Berry, 2000; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Atkinson, 2004; Robbins et al. 2004; Robins & Judge, 2007; Tsai et al. 2009) have constantly demonstrated in their writings the alignment and interactions of the leadership competencies to the transformational leadership dimensions. This supports the notion that all components of social psychology, leadership styles and leadership competencies are all interrelated within the transformational leadership construct.

2.5.4. The diversity in literature aligned to transformational leadership

In addition to the number of authors that supported transformational leadership as demonstrated in the previous section, there are others who have developed threads from the basis of the transformational leadership style into streams of literature. Examples of the threads are found in articles such as Storr (2004) with a journal article titled, ‘leading with integrity: a qualitative research study’ which highlights behavioural integrity and its relationship to transformational leadership. In addition, Stone et al. (2004) describes and discusses ‘Transformational versus servant leadership: a difference in leader focus’ and Sidani (2007) who discusses ‘Perceptions of leader transformational ability’, these examples demonstrate the very different threads and concepts that are being derived from the transformational leadership concept.

The list of threads, new alignments and fresh theories developed and researched is extensive. These few examples demonstrate the transition and diversity that the transformational leadership style has encountered since the original introduction of the concept by Burns (1978) followed by Bass (1985a) and that this primary concept has further been developed and supported by (Cacioppe, 1997; Cardona, 2000; Andersen, 2009). The sheer number of positive representations, supported by empirical evidence, validates the transformational leadership style, noting that transformational leadership provides both fiscal and social benefits for individuals and organisations (Sarros & Santora, 2001). This further solidifies acceptance for the concept as the progressive and modern construct of the visionary leadership paradigm, which supports both the
follower, and the leader, and a leadership paradigm that organisations should consider implementing.

Additional streams of literature have evolved through the interrelationships of other leadership styles and paradigms such as situational, servant and transactional. In this literature review a range of authors (Tichy & Devanna, 1990; Berry & Cartwright, 2000; Cardona, 2000; Russell & Stone, 2002; Pearce et al. 2003; Stone et al. 2004; Washington et al. 2006; Andersen, 2009) commented on the non-mutual exclusivity of these styles and paradigms and their relationship with the transformational leadership style. All of these authors noted the continuum of leadership, the order of the particular leadership style and the associated contribution to the transformational leadership style, noting no negative information could be found for consideration. Overall the literature reviewed has confirmed a plethora of positive alignments and continued evolvement of the central concept into fresh theories and further considerations.

2.5.5. APS considerations in relation to transformational leadership

In the quest for public sector leadership Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006, p. 294) observe “there is little shared understanding of the qualities required for effective leadership in today’s public services” noting that their findings are based on data from the United Kingdom. They also state “leaders themselves do not understand the reasons for their own effectiveness and little attention is paid to the relationship between notions of what is leadership and the importance of social interactions, influences and dependencies”. If this is so, the understanding and alignment of social psychology is supported and becomes fundamental to leadership as previously confirmed in this Chapter.

Other authors (White, 2000; Jones & Kriflik, 2006) have commented on the concept of transformational leadership in the public sector, however the number who have, are few compared to that is known for the private sector. The recent commentary on transformational leadership in the public sector is sparse, particularly in the APS context and remains a field where a significant amount of research is still to be undertaken (White, 2000). From the few authors that have commented on the APS, a constant theme emerges, that the APS leadership model is too static to facilitate the changes that are required (White, 2000) in the turbulent environment that exists in the APS today.
Whilst Bunker & Alban (1994) and White (2000) advocate the status of change models in the APS, what actually is required is the opportunity for all people, within APS organisations to play an active part in the re-positioning of the organisation to meet the environmental challenges (Banjeri & Krishnan, 2000).

The transformational leadership style offers an opportunity through the relationship of the leader and follower for both to play active and participative roles, and is supported by several authors in the APS context (White, 2000; Brunetto, 2001; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002; Wyse & Wilkins, 2004; Jones & Kriflik, 2005, 2006). In consideration, Jones & Kriflik (2005, 2006) suggest that the current APS structure is unlikely to be supportive of the transformational leadership style of the visionary paradigm. This is due to the hierarchical nature; culture and constraints that are prevalent within the APS and that people in the leadership positions have been there a long time and are possibly entrenched in the classical/transactional leadership paradigm mould. Whilst there maybe constraints within the APS to implementing transformational leadership, there is suggestion and rhetoric that transformational leadership exists, or should exist, and it is now worthy of being researched to see if it does.

To provide the workplace with competitive advantage in changing times, the APS must ensure that their leaders have leadership skills and attributes capable of strategically engaging change and leading the followers to ensure objectives are achieved. This observation is supported, noting that APS leaders will need to consider “a more strategic form of leadership”, (Sarros & Santora, 2001, p. 383) to engage the follower and ensure that their leadership behaviours and actions are consistent and reside on core values.

The APS State of the Service Reports (2005-2008) indicate that there is a significant gap of what is actually being achieved between the followers and the leaders. Also there appears to be no demonstrated plan or acknowledgment that the transformational leadership style of the visionary leadership paradigm, is a possibility, in the way forward for leadership, within the APS. In addition there is little mention of the benefits of transformational leadership, only continued reference that the public sector is
relatively unexplored in the transformational leadership aspect compared to the private sector in the literature reviewed.

This literature review has clearly demonstrated that transformational leadership appears to be the form of leadership most relevant to organisations today. The dimensions are; individual consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence, allowing transformational leadership to be focused primarily on the visionary aspect of the organisation and the development of followers. Upon evaluation and consideration of several authors views and positions of the transformational leadership style, the noticeable gap is the scarcity of empirical testing, qualitative analysis and quantitative data, related to the public sector compared to the private sector, and in particular the APS. Therefore, locating and measuring transformational leadership provides the basis for the establishment of research question number one; does transformational leadership exist in the APS, and the examination of the question.

Given the current APS classical/transactional leadership paradigm as discussed in Chapter one, and the available literature in the APS context, as discussed throughout this literature review, it is then logical to consider and determine through the conduit of the two proposed research questions in Chapter one, if transformational leadership exists in the APS, and if it does, a further question is then necessary to determine the extent of that existence. These research questions are supported by hypotheses that have been developed to discover the relationships between the various respondents and demographic segments, measuring the relationships and outcomes of the two research questions through the respondent’s perception. To further explore and evaluate the transformational leadership paradigm, some leadership competencies need to be further explored to demonstrate the importance of leadership competencies and their alignment, contributing to the dimensions of transformational leadership.

2.6. Transformational leadership and its competencies

This literature review has explored leadership factors, styles, paradigms and aspects as important parts of leadership and transformational leadership. However, leadership competencies, except for emotional intelligence in the context of social psychology, have not been discussed, and noting that leadership competencies are not isolated from
each other (Krishnan, 2005) it is logical to examine them and their alignment to transformational leadership.

There are several transformational leadership competencies that have been identified as underpinning leadership in general and the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary leadership paradigm. The leadership competencies are emotional intelligence (Higgs & Aitken, 2003) trust (Jones & Kriflik, 2005) values and relationships (Krishnan, 2005) being the foremost aligned to social psychology and transformational leadership (Robbins et al. 2004; Robbins & Judge, 2007). Several authors (Cacioppe, 1997; Walker & Walker, 1998; Cardona, 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Connell, Ferres & Travaglione, 2003; Mastrangelo et al. 2003; Pounder, 2003; Timberlake, 2005; Robbins & Judge, 2007) have also added to the knowledge through the examination of emotional intelligence, trust, values and relationships interrelated to leadership and transformational leadership. The above mentioned authors clearly established the concept that the four specific leadership competencies are not mutually exclusive from any leadership paradigm. They however, form important parts of the transformational leadership construct, in that they are readily identifiable and act in cohesion with the transformational leadership style, in conjunction with the four dimensions of transformational leadership as demonstrated in this literature review. To discover the relationships and interactions of the four leadership competencies to transformational leadership, they are examined in their psychological concept in the following sections.

2.6.1. Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership

The ability to express emotion may be considered a fundamental characteristic of interpersonal relationships in the work environment, in particular when a leadership role is involved (Cacioppe, 1997; Robbins & Judge, 2007). Consideration, support and group maintenance are all leadership functions, which are highly emotive in nature and are found in almost every leadership theory to date (Cacioppe, 1997; Robbins & Judge, 2007). Research indicates that where the emotionally oriented behaviours, of successful leaders is high, they are able to “have a clear and powerful vision, use knowledge as is needed, be sensitive and have the ability to use both their own feelings and those of others” (Cacioppe, 1997, p. 338).
Whilst one competency within the transformational leadership context, and not mutually exclusive to transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, is defined as: an array of personal, emotional, and social abilities and skills that determines how well the individual functions, in his or her given environment (Bar-On, 1997). This idea is partly agreed to by Bass (1997) who notes that the specific behaviours of leaders could vary across cultures, and that these variations could be particularly salient. Both theoretical and empirical studies (Bass 1985a; Kouzes & Posner, 1982; Cacioppe, 1997; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002) provide evidence for the relationship between leader emotional competencies, including self-awareness, emotional expressivity, self-monitoring, empathy and a range of important leadership and follower outcomes. This position is also supported by Leban (2004, p. 560) who stated “that there are a number of linkages between emotional intelligence abilities and the transformational leadership style”.

In consideration, Pounder (2003) argues that leadership authors have recently devoted considerable attention to the role of emotional intelligence as a critical interpersonal competency for today’s leaders. Also, Pounder (2003) suggests that leaders with greater emotional competencies are more likely to display visionary leadership behaviours, which demonstrate impressive effects at the organisation, group and individual levels; this position is also supported by Garner & Stough (2002) who extol a direct relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence. Pounder (2003) also argues that across all of the empirical research linking emotional intelligence competencies, and visionary leadership to date, the most robust finding is that effective visionary leaders have the ability to powerfully communicate a compelling vision, that inspires followers to adopt and follow that vision.

Also observed, by Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough (2001, p. 8) is that one of the underlying competencies of these skills may be “the ability to monitor emotion within oneself and others”; Conger & Kanungo (1998) also support this position. The ability to monitor and manage emotions is significantly aligned to the individualised consideration dimension of transformational leadership, by way of managing one’s own emotions and those of the followers.
To understand emotional intelligence, and to test the follower’s awareness Cacioppe (1997, p. 337) noted that “200 people, in groups of managers and professionals were asked to list who they considered were leaders, internationally and in Australia, and then to vote on who they considered the most successful leaders”. These leaders were prominent people such as Nelson Mandela, Winston Churchill, Gough Whitlam, Janet Holmes a Court, Martin Luther King, John. F. Kennedy and Mother Theresa. When asked what list of factors led to the rating of these successful leaders the following list of emotional intelligence competencies resulted (Cacioppe 1997, p. 337):

1. are concerned for people’s welfare;
2. are highly sensitive to social cues; and
3. is the right person, at the right time and knows the right action to take.

Given this, it is considered that most leaders in organisations need to and should display high levels of emotional intelligence (Cacioppe, 1997, Sarros & Santora, 2000; Robbins & Judge, 2007). Therefore, the linkage of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership through the idealised influence and individual consideration dimensions is supported (Avolio et al. 1991). In Bass’s (1985a) model, the transformational leadership dimensions provide vision, instil pride, trust, faith, respect, and excite, which stimulates learning experiences, provides feedback and inspires the followers. These are all attributes of the idealised influence and individual consideration dimensions of transformational leadership, as reported by Bass (1985a) and Sarros & Santora (2001) and are all associates of trust, values and relationships which are examined in detail in the following sections.

2.6.2. Trust and transformational leadership

Literature concerning trust and leadership indicates that trust is a central feature in the relationship that leaders have with their followers (Connell et al. 2003). Followers perceive trust as being the honesty, sincerity and dependability of leaders, and as a natural and essential component of relationships (Mastrangelo et al. 2003). Conversely Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990) found that transformational leadership was significantly linked to both employees trust and satisfaction, with trust as a multidimensional construct instrumental in perceived organisational support, whereas Connell et al. (2003) found that procedural justice and transformational leadership are
significant predictors of trust in managers. In support of this position are Robbins et al. (2004) who, validates Connell et al.’s (2003) theory by noting that the key dimensions underlying the concept of trust are integrity, competence, consistency, loyalty and openness.

In assessing the trust component of the follower-leader relationship, Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) conducted a multi country study and reported that the Japanese respondents emphasised trusting relationships, and the APS indicated low levels of trust. Also, Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) noted that 76% of public sector employees in Australia viewed their senior colleagues as not easy to approach, therefore, suggesting a lack of trust. The identification of trust within the context of leadership is described by Robbins et al. (2004) who, highlights the various different strands of trust in organisational relationships, which permeates into the idealised influence and individual consideration dimensions of the transformational leadership model initiated by Bass (1985a).

Another view on trust is that a high trust level among citizens, accounts for the superior performance of all institutions, public and private in a society, including firms (Fukuyama, 1995). In addition, Fukuyama (1995) asserts that the most effective groups and organisations are those with the highest level of trust or social capital which results a level of integrity being prominent. Also Fukuyama (1995) further illustrates, that success in large firms is dependent upon the cooperation of strangers, furthermore, that cooperation is a result of trust, and individuals do not build trust or social capital on their own (Connell et al. 2003). Trust is formed when individuals share common norms and values; this is aligned to the four dimensions of Bass’s (1985a) transformational leadership model through the integration, of the relationship between the follower and the leader, with trust being the pivotal aspect (Connell et al. 2003). Social capital is hard to form because it is built on ethics, trust and group virtues; however once formed, it is both difficult and easy to destroy (Fukuyama, 1995).

Trust as a major component, is highlighted by Timberlake (2005) noting that high trust within an organisation has been found to lower the cost of doing business with a greater opportunity for innovation and advancement. In a high trust organisation, it is possible
to develop a wide range of social relationships and organisational configurations (Timberlake, 2005) whereas in an organisation lacking trust, formal controls and rules are required and maintained through mechanisms of enforcement. Trust as a competency can be linked to transformational leadership through the ‘individual consideration’ dimension (Avolio et al. 1991) where the leader delegates, stimulates and treats each follower as an individual, and in the idealised influence dimension, where the alignment is delivered through respect, faith and installation of pride. It would seem that trust is an integral part of improving an organisation and therefore, an important component of transformational leadership dimensions (Bass, 1985a; Connell et al. 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2007). Noting that trust is not mutually exclusive of emotional intelligence, values and relationships as transformational leadership competencies (Robbins & Judge, 2007) it becomes relevant to examine values in the next section.

2.6.3. **Values and transformational leadership**

The importance of values aligned to organisational behaviour includes the individual’s beliefs, attitudes and influence over perceptions through social interaction, ensuring people stand for what they consider the right way of doing things and the right outcome. An observation by Robbins & Judge (2007, p. 121) notes that “values generally influence attitudes and behaviour”, which espouses to a level of commitment and achievement being achieved, according to the level of value the employee places upon the situation and relationship (Sarros & Santora, 2001).

Values are described in Robbins et al. (2004, p. 68) as representing “basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct” or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable, to an opposite or converse mode of conduct. Values contain a judgemental element in that they carry an individual’s ideas as to what is right, good or desirable. In considering values Walker & Walker (1998) concluded that leadership is driven by beliefs and guided by a consistent core value structure.

In assessing values, Robbins & Judge (2007, p. 121) also state that “values are reasonably stable and enduring” whereas the expectation is that they might be fluid and flexible in the work environment to cope with consistent change and pressures. Work values are influenced by a range of factors both within and outside the working environment such as changes in personal, political, economic and social events, or
circumstances within the individual’s life context. Values have changed in time and structure with different generations adopting specific values aligned to their times, such as follower’s loyalty to employers of the past and the ‘boomers’, largely looking out for themselves.

Relationships are now further highlighted through generation X by Robbins & Judge (2007) who note that the “new generation of X-ers moving into middle management, are more aligned to the loyalty of relationships. Therefore, are more likely to consider values and the ethical implications of their actions and the effect on others around them”, however the values tend to reflect societal values in the period that they grew up in” Robbins & Judge (2007, p. 124). In support of this position is Krishan (2005, p. 444) who states that “several studies have demonstrated empirically how values affect personal and organisational effectiveness”. A current example in the APS is that of a departmental secretary who banned smoking at work within fifteen metres of the building. The Secretary’s actions, demonstrated his values in relation to an issue, whilst also engaging Kouzes & Posner’s (1989) ‘walk the talk’ theory in correlation to transformational leadership. While some critics may deem this action to be derived from the classical autocratic leadership paradigm, others are able to correlate the value aspect of the action. Also Burns (1978 in Krishan, 2005, p. 444) “held that transformational leadership involves the uncovering of contradictions among values and between values and practices”.

Another perspective on the alignment of values and transformational leadership is from Sarros & Santora (2001, p. 245) who state, “transformational leadership styles are closely associated with the values of achievement, benevolence, self direction and stimulation”, in comparison to transactional leaders who were minimally associated with dimensions of their followers. From their study, Sarros & Santora (2001) also found that senior leaders, who displayed fundamental virtues such as honesty and consideration, were associated with transformational leadership behaviours. In addition, Sarros & Santora’s (2001, p. 248) study concluded that, “relationships between the leadership style and value orientations, show a strong positive correlation amongst transformational leadership behaviours and values that encourage personal and professional development”. This is an important correlation as the outcomes enable the
development of leadership programs on the basis of the values identified. The outcomes also provide guidance on how to develop leaders, who are passionate in creating workplaces that support and promote individual and organisational achievement, and success in tandem (Sarros & Santora, 2001, 2002).

This conclusion derived by Sarros & Santora (2001) highlights the value system congruence, between the leader and the follower, which is the extent of an agreement between the leader’s value system and the follower’s value system. This relationship is underpinned by value, which is, supporting the relationship between leader and follower’s values in the transformational context underpinning the social interaction and the correlation of the two dynamics.

Values are an important catalyst to relationships within the transformational paradigm, as well as being an integral component of trust, and that either competency, is not mutually exclusive in the consolidation of the competencies within the transformational leadership dimensions. From this perspective Krishan (2005, p. 445) formed a hypothesis that “transformational leadership would be positively related to the leader-follower terminal value system congruence, focusing on the joint purposes and the relationship. The linkage of values as a competency to the transformational leadership style is derived from the inspirational motivation dimension, where the leader acts as a model, behaves in ways that motivates and inspires followers. Values are also aligned under the idealised influence dimension as the leader provides respect, faith, instils pride which is also integrated with the individual consideration dimension of transformational leadership (Avolio et al. 1991; Sarros & Santora, 2001) treating each follower as an individual. These alignments support the theory of the value competency being aligned to the transformational leadership dimensions, and being an integral part of the transformational leadership style (Sarros & Santora, 2001) in addition to relationships which will be discussed in the following section.

2.6.4. Relationships and transformational leadership

Relationships are a competency, which develop over time in an organisation, into participative, collaborative and close partnerships (Kelley, Bersheid, Christensen, Harvey, Hutson, Levinger McClintock, Peplau & Peterson, 1983) between leaders and followers that are capable of providing competitive advantage for an organisation. From
this platform emerges the dependency of interactions, characters, equity, diversity and situational issues resulting in conflicts and highlighting the issue that relationships, whilst adding a significant maze in transition, provide the only means for a leader to collectively achieve organisational objectives on a sustainable basis.

Central to the interaction between leaders and followers are relationships, and within the leadership context these become more important in allowing organisations to achieve objectives. In support of this statement is Wheatley (1994, p.144) who comments that “leadership is dependent on the context, but the context is established by the relationships we value”. In consideration, Dimitrov (2003, p. 60) supports Wheatley’s observation by acknowledging that “relationships are central to effective leadership”. Further more, Dimitrov (2003, p. 60) also notes the way in which “we relate to each other matters, and is symbolic of our social responsibility”.

In the workplace, relationships are paramount to leaders, followers and organisations (Cardona, 1997). Supporting this statement are Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, Roth & Smith (1999, p. 140) by stating “relationship is everything, when you see the world as a social system”, where existence is maintained within the social groups of our organisations and the interactions of leaders and followers. Whereas, Dimitrov (2003, p. 54) supports and adds that “leadership is a relational process of people together, attempting to accomplish change or make a difference to benefit the common good”. Dimitrov and Wheatley’s observations are linked in social alignment and support Robbin’s et al. (2004) where change, communication, group dynamics and personality to mention a few, are foremost to positive organisational behaviour through relationships and fortify the social psychological connection.

In the post-modern organisational era, relationships are interconnected and are enablers that facilitate key facets of managerial activities, Atkinson (2004) also indicates there is little known about the intensity of relationships but drives a connection to trust as a construct emanating into organisational effectiveness. Also, Atkinson (2004) argues that individual relationships are the sources of relational goods such as trust from which collective goods such as social capital are derived. On further observation, Atkinson (2004) notes that individual relationships are of a network context, however are separate
by the nature of the specific relationship and intensity, and that they reside in the social context of life and the workplace.

In support of her argument, Atkinson (2004, p. 573) highlights that from the “social exchange theory emerges a broad relationship based on the process of a transaction within the relationship that has been generally accepted by the social psychology literature”. These findings fit neatly into the follower and leader relationships characterised by mutual obligations and exchange relationships where benefits are exchanged on the basis of self-interest. This understanding highlights the transactional style of leadership interwoven into social exchange theory, being a sub-component of transformational leadership and supported by the discipline of social psychology, and facilitated by relationships (Cardona, 2000).

The number of relationships and the level of interaction required between leaders and followers ensures that the social relationships are a central competency of transformational leadership and are directly aligned to all four dimensions of the transformational leadership model. These being individual consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence supported by Avolio et al. (1991) through the leader providing faith, instilling pride, coaching, teaching, delegating, motivating, reasoning, inspiring and challenging the follower to think in new ways. The intrinsic relationships of leadership, competencies and leadership style are illustrated in Figure 2.4.
Figure 2.4: Leadership competencies, leadership styles and their relationships to transformational leadership dimensions.

Source: Developed for this research from the literature.

Figure 2.4 above represents the relationships between the competencies and the four styles of leadership discussed in this research. The salient point is that all competencies, leadership styles and transformational leadership dimensions are not mutually exclusive. What is obvious is the continued interrelationship between each competency, transformational leadership dimensions, leadership paradigms and styles.

2.6.5. Summary of leadership competencies

The examination of emotional intelligence, trust, values and relationships facilitates some of the competencies that are essential to enable transformational leadership to be implemented. The alignment of these four competencies to transformational leadership’s structural four dimensions of individual consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence highlights the integration of
the social psychological phenomena, and its standing as a catalyst to organisational behaviour and transformational leadership.

The next step of this research is to examine the research environment in search of the transformational leadership dimensions, inclusive of competencies, within the APS leadership continuum. The search commences through the examination of the research environment that the APS resides in.

2.7. Research environment

It is important in social research to describe and understand the environment in which the research is situated in to enable the reader to comprehend the nuances and complexities that are relevant to the research. A description of the research environment is examined in the following sections.

2.7.1. Australian public sector

The Government interacts with the community in a variety of forms through the delivery of advice and services, implementing policy and initiatives through the administrative conduit of the APS, for the benefit of all Australians.

The public sector is not shielded from the continuous changes as experienced in the private sector (White, 2000; Brunetto, 2001; ER Consulting, 2007). This change is inclusive of resources that are shrinking, with higher demands for accountability, particularly executive accountability, increasing the competition for funding, skilled staff and community attention that is fierce along with the rapid development of technology that brings with it the expectation of instantaneous and up to date information. Leaders everywhere are facing challenges that they did not anticipate, and are expected to respond quickly, decisively and honourably, under the pressure of increasing public cynicism and stakeholder’s expectations. Novel problems emerge regularly and need to be dealt with swiftly, the cost of mistakes is high, and no amount of planning or foresight can completely predict the next wave of inevitable change (White, 2000).
The dynamic nature of today’s APS environment and the recent dramatic increase in public scrutiny has increased the public sector’s urgent need for leaders who can incorporate vast amounts of information, synthesise it in new ways, and develop innovative approaches. More than ever before, public sector leaders are required to be active and skilled learners in addition to being innovative leaders of the present and visionaries of the future (Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 1997; White 2000; Brunetto, 2001).

The APS undertakes its direction, in the main, from the legislative framework of the Public Service Act (1999) and the Financial Management and Accountability Act (1997). This legalistic format provides the APS with a rigid framework to provide administrative and legislative services to the government enabling the government to run the country effectively. This framework is driven from the constitution via Parliament and is dispensed under a statutory legislative framework. The APS is responsible at large to the Parliament and is entrusted with a series of cascading delegations emanating from the Prime Minister. These delegations take the format of determinations and are required to be documented to ensure the supported model is effective, but also held accountable by the Government’s appointed audit and assurance facilitator, the Australian National Audit Office.

The Privacy Act (1988) and the Australian Public Service Commission’s code of conduct dominates ethical considerations supporting the APS administration. This legislative base forms the ethical and moral platform for the employees to ensure diversity, equity and a collegiate approach to overall APS management. The State of the Service Report (2006-07, p. 227) supports this statement with findings “that 94% of employees agreed that confidentiality of information is taken seriously in the workplace and 86% agreed that employees behave ethically, professionally and fairly when making decisions that affect their clients”.

The hierarchical structure of the APS commences at the Prime Minister and Cabinet level and is delivered in a downward structure. This structure is illustrated in Figure 2.5.
Even though there have been internal and external changes, the leadership style within the APS has only moved towards becoming transactional in nature (Jones & Kriflik, 2006). It is possible that the structure may favour a command and obey, classical leadership structure as demonstrated in Chapter one, and may have an impact on the leadership style that can be conducted within this structure. Whereas at the same time, the private sector has changed considerably, adapting transformational leadership ideas as far back as the early 1980s. There now appears to be a gap between how the public and private sector organisations view leadership and how that leadership operates, therefore, raising the first research question, does transformational leadership exist within the APS.

An understanding of research issues requires an appreciation of the broad field of knowledge as Sadlier (2006) acknowledged. Investigation of the central problems and issues that relate to the application of transformational leadership in the APS are not unique, the private sector faces the same dilemmas and concerns. The APS has undergone several rebirths in size, structure, alignment and demographic intake, along with changes in policy, direction and outcomes of globalisation and previous world shifts in policy and outcomes. These are some of the many cause and effect issues shaping leadership within the public sector (Hales, 2002) and drive the need for flexible and better leadership practices, requiring a shift from the classical leadership paradigm towards a more engaging leadership style such as transformational leadership (White, 2000; Hales, 2002).

2.7.2. Change in the Australian public sector

In consideration of the amount of change that has taken place in the public sector Hales (2002, p. 52) has argued that “many types of bureaucratic reforms often entail changes within the basic bureaucratic model rather than involving paradigmatic shifts to radically new organisational forms”. The end result is not a de-bureaucratised organisation but a cleaned up bureaucracy” from which Hales (2002, p. 62) maintains that many bureaucracies retain “the defining features of bureaucracy, hierarchical control, centrally imposed rules, and individual managerial responsibility and accountability”. The result is not an alternative to, but an attenuated and more efficient version of, bureaucracy, called ‘bureaucracy lite’, which possesses all the strength of bureaucratic control but with only half the hierarchical structure (Hales, 2002). Bureaucracy-lite seeks to retain tight control over follower’s behaviour through the combination of rules and vertical reporting relationships, while reducing the size and cost of the hierarchy (Hales, 2002).

The project of cleaning up a bureaucracy, entails removing the managerial slack and the inconsistent and indulgent application of the rules that often developed in the original bureaucracy, further codifying and invigilating work, while simultaneously fostering a political centralisation of the organisation. From this process, employees lose a degree of professional autonomy and security of employment conditions. Professional discretion on the job becomes curtailed and survival depends on fitting in with the
demands and requirements of the senior leadership (Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 1997). Control through rules in the APS is enforced through the discipline of achieving tight performance criteria, to which middle and lower managers, respond by more stringent micro management of their units and followers. Therefore, lower level participants in reformed bureaucracies frequently experience greater powerlessness than higher placed leaders in the hierarchical system of bureaucracies (White, 2000; Hales, 2002).

Post-bureaucratic initiatives, such as quality assurance and purchaser-provider splits, are seen as forms of organisational restructuring where management attempts to control, regulate and disempower employees, Taylor (1911) suggests that with these supposed initiatives, additional controls are enforced to enable leadership to maintain its position. Surveillance, monitoring and panoptic gaze as described by Sewell & Wilkinson (1992) together with strict target and output measurement, result in increases in the volume, speed and intensity of programmed work. From this, followers often find themselves, performing contracted, prescriptive, deskilled and tightly controlled and measured tasks in a bland atmosphere of compliance, uniformity and standardisation (Sewell & Wilkinson, 1992). Within this environment transformational leadership is particularly difficult however, on the introduction of the new Public Service Act in 1999, the public sector in Australia has faced significant reform aimed at changing the way public organisations operate and increasing the delivery of outcomes to stakeholders. In consideration, Brunetto & Farr-Wharton (2002, p. 469) state that “most Australian public bureaucracies have been subject to significant changes within the workplace in an attempt to improve efficiency and effectiveness of public resources”. As a result organisational process and practices have been improved with an objective of ensuring greater accountability for the expenditure of public monies. The ER Consulting Survey (2007) highlights that specialist skills are required to deliver efficiency gains through transformational change, including an ability to analyse an organisation’s business from new perspectives. This allows old methodologies to be challenged and innovative ideas evaluated as replacements, whilst also engaging in benefit realisation to ensure that targeted efficiencies can be tracked. This has brought new pressures to bear, resulting in a need to implement strategic succession planning to retain and develop the necessary leadership talent for the present and the future. The PSC (Burgess, 2007, p. 1)
acknowledges that “strategic succession planning is another area that needs improvement in many departments and agencies”. This highlights the lack of foresight, planning and positioning by previous APS leadership, and identifies what the APS will have to address in the war for talent and leadership.

The ER Consulting Survey (2007) also noted that not a single Commonwealth Agency dissented from the suggestion that financial efficiency has become more important over the past five years. This supports the theory that organisational change in the APS is required to be driven by a financial efficiency requirement, and not from a leadership perspective. The ER Consulting Survey (2007, p. 3) argues that “experience in the private sector has shown that to go beyond expenditure prioritisation and incremental efficiency gains, requires a willingness to engage in transformation change, but the survey found that this was not a common strategy with Commonwealth government agencies”. In a study of leadership styles measuring change, Herold Feeder, Calwell & Liu (2008, p. 353) found that “transformational leadership and individuals commitment to change, were significantly positively related. Private sector experience has shown that managing the risks of transformational change and maximising the efficiency benefits, requires specialised leadership skills, which may explain its low adoption across the public sector.

Considering the impact of change, Brunetto & Farr-Wharton (2002) note that the APS to date has focused on the cost efficiency and process surrounding effectiveness, and has not been measured on the impact of the changes to work conditions, relationships and employee satisfaction. Noting that the APS in the past three State of the Service Reports (2005-2008) have highlighted continued employee dissatisfaction. However, it appears that little has been done to address the findings, with the same gaps in leadership being identified year after year, clearly action is required. Employee satisfaction is the leading element (Robbins & Judge, 2007) for all organisations to aspire to, which is made up of several constructs such as, satisfaction with supervision, work itself, pay conditions, appraisal, promotion processes and practices, learning accessibility, knowledge transfer and outcome achievement. These are idealistic requirements, and in their own capacity can act, as restraints in the search for
transformation and transformational leaders to facilitate the change required within the APS sector.

The case for a change to transformational leadership exists within the APS, which is currently underdeveloped in leadership skills, knowledge and attributes (Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 1997). The literature reviewed to date highlights the advantages of transformational leadership and that transformational leaders are required to guide the organisations of the future (Sarros & Santora, 2001). From the literature reviewed it is not clear that the APS has transformational leaders, or in fact a program designed to support and cultivate transformational leaders. Supporting this position are Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) White (2000) and Jones & Kriflik (2005) who all indicate that significant changes in the culture, structure and leadership methodologies are required for public sectors and the APS to shift to a transformational leadership paradigm.

2.7.3. Australian public sector constraints
The constraints in the public sector are not dissimilar to those of the private sector, however Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) discovered that senior APS executives would need development in order to perform effectively in leadership roles that are increasing in complexity and demanding greater integration. The following constraints are considered uniform to the APS but not mutually exclusive:

- bureaucratic type of leadership operates in a classical/transactional environment;
- the leader is subject to strict and systematic discipline and control in the conduct of the office;
- claims to obedience based on rational values and rules and established by agreement (or imposition);
- there is a clearly defined hierarchy of positions;
- persons exercise the authority of their office and are subject to an impersonal order; officials, not persons exercise authority;
- fixed salaries, in money and in pensions remunerate people, salary scales are graded according to rank in the hierarchy;
- there is a system of promotion based upon seniority or achievement (dependent on judgment of superiors);
there is a right to appeal and to state grievances from the lower to the higher;
the hierarchy is dominated by the principle of appointment;
there is a complete separation of property belonging to the personal and to the organisati
organisation; and
the impact of institutional legitimacy (Greenwood, 2008).

From this adversarial and non-competing position of constraints, the impediment to
effect a transition to transformational leadership is supported (White, 2000; Jones &
Kriflik, 2005). The introduction of transformational leadership within the APS could be
the catalyst to assist the APS into gaining efficiency, improved usage of resources and a
more skilled leadership group (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006) which in turn
will provide the government with a higher level of quality outcomes benefiting
stakeholders. The implementation of the transformational leadership style will enable a
closer and more efficient working existence between leaders and followers, therefore,
resulting in higher levels of sustainable output providing competitive advantage within
the sector (Bass, 1985a; Sarros & Santora, 2001). The evidence provided earlier in this
Chapter and through the above listed constraints, identifies a number of obstacles that
have to be addressed and overcome, in transition from the current leadership practice of
classical/transactional to the transformational leadership style. The above position is
& Kriflik (2005) who also list a number of constraints and cultural impediments.

2.8. Transformational leadership within the Australian public sector

From the selected literature reviewed to date there is, from the Australian Government,
a distinct absence of a statement or acknowledgment that the transformational
leadership style is recognised as a leadership or preferred leadership style, or even
exists. The only reference found to date is in the State of the Service Report (2006-07)
which talks of transforming government in general, but no specific mention of a
leadership style.

There is not sufficient evidence presently available to indicate if transformational
leadership is practiced within the APS. Research conducted by Lim (1997) Oshagbemi
& Gill (2004) and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) in the United Kingdom, indicates that transformational leadership is practised in the public sector in that jurisdiction. There is substantial evidence that transformational leadership is practised in the private sector (Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Humphreys & Einstein, 2003) and has been shown to be effective in addressing organisational issues where change is required.

A finding from Wyse & Vilkinas (2004) is that public sector executive leadership roles, have not been explored independently of private sector roles, providing emphasis for this research. Also, Wyse & Vilkinas (2004) indicated that previous APS leadership studies were more focused on particular characteristics of male and female managers and that “female and male APS senior executives had similar perceptions of current and future executive leadership role demands” (Wyse & Vilkinas, 2004, p. 210). Other research (Rosener 1995, 1996; Bass et al. 1996; Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998) indicated that there are gender leadership differences between females and males and that females demonstrated more innovation, team building and were considered better at completing the tasks associated with management and leadership. However, Wyse & Vilkinas (2004, p. 207) note that “none of the earlier research focussed on senior executives; and there have only been limited recent studies that found minimal differences”. Another finding from Wyse & Vilkinas (2004) discovered that senior APS executives would need development in order to perform effectively in leadership roles that are increasing in complexity, and demanding greater integration of roles in an individual manager. Herein is the gap in the literature, that transformational leadership within the APS has not been examined recently for its contribution, cause and effect in the leadership role of public sector employees, this gap is where this research endeavour will concentrate.

2.8.1. The need for transformational leadership in the Australian public sector
Stakeholder management is the pivotal action that implements processes and actions within the public sector. One of the principal catalysts is the leader, at all levels, who provides the leadership skills, knowledge and attributes to administer and deliver the outcomes. The importance of transformational leadership is paramount in achieving objectives, supported by Schien (1992) who believes that the main responsibility of leadership is to create the most appropriate culture for an organisation. Also Schien
(1992) notes, there is a highly significant correlation of the relationship between the leadership style of the top leader and the culture of the organisation.

The public sector leader, in inspiring, committing and communicating a vision and faced with public sector operational restrictions and accountabilities, will need special characteristics to take their organisation to, and beyond, the new visionary paradigm (Avery, 2004). These skills will include the ability to create and inspire autonomous behaviour in a hierarchically developed operating environment. They also include the ability to find and release proactive individuals, to develop empathetic capacities including emotional intelligence, trust, values, relationships, intuition and feeling, and to foster and applaud innovation and creativity (Berry & Cartwright, 2000; Avery, 2004). The new leader has to be politically skilled, both in the traditional sense and the new leadership paradigm requirements, by managing the politics and requirements of collaborative individualistic relationships and networked alliances (Mastrangelo et al. 2004). The new leader must have a vision to foster and embrace networking, to achieve respect based on actions and outcomes, and not through the current classical/transactional leadership paradigm that currently exists (White, 2000; Brunetto, 2001; Avery, 2004).

The State of the Service Report (2006-07, p. 204) resonates that effective leadership is critical and that “senior managers can set the tone for effective governance within their organisations by modelling good governance behaviours and demonstrating a strong commitment to accountability”. However, there is no mention or description of a structure or plan to assist senior managers in lifting the performance and engagement of employees. Ultimately, the word leadership is mentioned in the section’s heading but is not referred to again throughout the text of the section. In the improvement of the cultural and communication issues covered by the survey, the APS overall, may have failed to recognise leadership as the catalyst to providing better outcomes and excluded the more modern visionary transformational leadership aspect. The exclusion of the transformational leadership style, may be accidental or may be caused through a lack of understanding of the benefits plus a combination of other factors that inhibit the implementation of this leadership style.
The APS State of the Service survey for 2006-2007 illustrated in Table 2.1, appendix A, highlights agency culture factor items and illustrates the significant percentage of APS employees who have neither agreed, nor disagreed, to the survey statements, along with those that have agreed and disagreed. The results range from a minimum of 26% disagreeing, to a maximum of 68% in the last survey question, noting that the survey population numbered 5,497 respondents from 88 separate agencies. The very large non-committal, second and negative third column results indicate that there is a clear gap in follower perceptions as to the state of achievement, suggesting there is room for considerable improvement. The report discusses the effectiveness of governance but at no stage considers the possibility that the serious deficiencies are leadership related. The report indicates the following:

- agency cultures vary considerably with higher level employees recording a higher level of satisfaction, with satisfaction diminishing correlated with the length of service of an individual; and
- that harassment or bullying has held steady in the past 12 months at 15% (State of the Service Report, 2006-07).

The conclusion from the evidence illustrated in Table 2.1, appendix A, and the above statements indicate the probability that some resemblance of structured leadership may exist, however the results also indicate a distinct deficiency in leadership as perceived by the followers, related to the survey questions and the report’s statements. For example, ‘my agency involves employees in decisions about their work’, 56% are undecided and disagree, this is a very large percentage of employees and may indicate a deficiency in leadership, as the leaders are not, according to the respondents engaging in communication with the employees.

This outcome is also reflected in the ‘Employment Satisfaction with Employee Engagement Factors’ APS State of the Service Report (2006-07, p. 39) where the categories learning and development, senior leaders and opportunities, all have a “50 percent dissatisfaction outcome”, again possibly indicating a leadership deficiency. This outcome is correlated to the results graphically displayed in Figure 2.6, appendix A, which highlights the skills gap of the APS. Also the APS (State of the Service Report 2006-07, p. 159) notes that “there has been a strong focus on leadership development
within APS agencies”, indicating that the APS may be aware of the leadership issue. However Figure 2.6, appendix A, also illustrates the significant skill gaps as perceived by the surveyed employees, with 50% of the SES feeder group and 25% of the SES, equalling a combination of 75% of the senior audience surveyed, stating there is a skill gap in people management skills. In all the other capacities listed in Figure 2.6, appendix A, there is a perception of a significant leadership skill shortage, noting that all of the leadership capability categories, are inclusive of the four transformational leadership dimensions, as espoused in Bass’s (1985a) and Sarros & Santora’s (2001) transformational leadership model. This outcome supports the APS’s need to improve and possibly change the leadership paradigm from the original, classical and current transactional style (Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 1997) to the newer transformational aspect of the visionary paradigm.

The APS State of the Service Report (2006-07) also notes that agencies are developing their own leadership development programs aligned to specific cultural requirements. However on the evidence to date, the overall current leadership paradigm is perceived to be inadequate by the followers and not aligned to the requirements of the APS, therefore, on the evidence presented, there is possibly a need to develop and implement an appropriate leadership style such as transformational.

The leadership competencies, required by the APS to move ahead to align with the transformational leadership dimensions are illustrated in Figure 2.6 at appendix A, are supported by Bass (1985a) Cacioppe (1997) Cardona (2000) and Santos & Santora (2001, 2002). The results contained within Figure 2.6, appendix A, clearly indicate deficiencies in the APS leadership, which has enabled the research questions and hypotheses to be structured to address the research problem within the APS environment. Given the strong case for the use of transformational leadership and the large amount of literature espousing its benefits, but with no substantiative evidence of its existence in the APS, the following research questions are derived through the gaps in the literature reviewed within this Chapter and are as follows:
1. do APS leaders display any transformational leadership behaviours; and
2. what leadership behaviours do APS leaders display?
2.9. Summary of Chapter two

This Chapter has demonstrated the journey from the social psychological construct accepted as the parent discipline in this research, examining behavioural integrity as a major component. This research then moves through the beginning and history of leadership establishing that there are different styles of leadership, and that not one style of leadership is mutually exclusive of transformational leadership, and that social psychology is likely to be relevant to all types of leadership. From there the discussion centred on transformational leadership through definition and examination, whilst viewing three subsets of leadership in the form of situational, servant and transactional leadership, with a view to understanding the relationships and the competencies that are found in these leadership segments, related to transformational leadership.

This Chapter has demonstrated the gap in the literature and supporting information and therefore, forms the natural platform to instigate an analysis of the problem; does transformational leadership exist within the management levels of the APS? And if it does, to what level? The progression from these questions designates the need to undertake research supported by a research structure and proven analytical methodologies to be discussed in the following Chapter.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The previous Chapter reviewed the parent discipline of social psychology, the immediate discipline of transformational leadership, and leadership studies within the APS environment and another public sector, highlighting the linkages between them. As a result, some gaps were identified and the need for further research was established, resulting in two research questions being posed to investigate the identified gaps.

The purpose of this Chapter is to provide a detailed description of the research methodology to be used and the rationale behind that choice. This Chapter is divided into fifteen sections commencing with Section 3.1 being the introduction section and moving through to the summary Section 3.15. From the introduction, the ontological and epistemological positions related to the research are discussed and established in Section 3.2. Section 3.3 outlines the framework of the research design while Section 3.4 discusses the most suitable research methodology, being quantitative, to address the research questions. Section 3.5 describes the details of procedures undertaken and Section 3.6 addresses the questionnaire, structure, history and acceptance, while Section 3.7 describes the pilot questionnaire. Section 3.8 describes the pre-test administration, sample methodology, sample size, statistical software, and data coding with Section 3.9 exploring the validity of the questionnaire. Section 3.10 deals with the measurement of reliability, and Section 3.11 details the procedures from data cleansing, data transformation and sources of error. Section 3.12 describes the research questions and hypotheses while Section 3.13 explains the techniques that will be used for data testing and analysis. Section 3.14 describes the ethical considerations of this research and Section 3.15 is a summary of the Chapter.
3.2. Ontology and epistemology

There are three different approaches to establishing the ontological and epistemological positions for research, these being the positivist, interpretivist and critical approaches. The three approaches were developed in the 1960s and represent core ideas with fundamental differences and outlooks (Neuman, 2006).

To facilitate a design framework, a structured approach must be selected, beginning with the research questions to be answered, and determining what is the nature of reality, and therefore, considering which of the three approaches is to be included in the design. This is then supported by the methodological question of how the research should gain knowledge through the selected approach (Neuman, 2006). The ontological and epistemological positions force the research to a particular approach establishing a set of beliefs, which in turn set the direction, and guide the action and activities to be undertaken in the search for knowledge.

Within each of these three approaches there are differences in social theories and research techniques (Neuman, 2006) requiring research questions to be addressed through an approach that best represents the outlook of the research in measuring, observing and understanding social reality. The three methodological approaches are summarised in Table 3.1 below:
Table 3.1: A summary of the three methodological approaches to research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Positivism</th>
<th>Interpretive</th>
<th>Critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reason for research</strong></td>
<td>To discover natural laws in order to predict and control events</td>
<td>To understand and describe meaningful social action</td>
<td>To smash myths and empower people to change society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nature of social reality</strong></td>
<td>Stable pre-existing patterns or order that can be discovered</td>
<td>Fluid definitions of a situation created by human interactions</td>
<td>Multiple layers of reality governed by hidden underlying structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human nature</strong></td>
<td>Self interested/rational individuals shaped by external forces</td>
<td>Social beings who create meaning and make sense of their worlds for themselves</td>
<td>Creative, adaptive people with unrealised potential, trapped by illusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human agency</strong></td>
<td>Powerful external social pressures shape people’s actions; free will is largely illusion</td>
<td>People have significant volition; they develop meanings and have freedom to make choices</td>
<td>Bounded autonomy and free choice structurally limited, but limits can be removed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Role of common sense</strong></td>
<td>Clearly distinct from and less valid than science</td>
<td>Powerful everyday theories used by ordinary people</td>
<td>False beliefs that hide power and objective conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theory looks like</strong></td>
<td>Logical, deductive system of interconnected definitions, axioms and laws</td>
<td>A description of how a group’s meaning system is generated and sustained</td>
<td>A critique that reveals true conditions and helps people take action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>An explanation that is true</strong></td>
<td>Logically connected to laws and based on facts</td>
<td>Resonates or feels right to those who are being studied</td>
<td>Supplies people with tools needed to change the world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Good evidence</strong></td>
<td>Is based on precise observations that others can repeat</td>
<td>Is embedded in the context of fluid social interactions</td>
<td>Is informed by a theory that penetrates the surface level of the issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relevance of knowledge</strong></td>
<td>An instrumental orientation is used; knowledge enables people to master and control events</td>
<td>A practical orientation is used; knowledge helps us embrace/share empathically others’ life worlds and experiences</td>
<td>A dialectical orientation is used; knowledge lets people see and alter deeper structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place for values</strong></td>
<td>Science is value free and values have no place except when choosing a topic</td>
<td>Values are an integral part of social life: no groups values are wrong, only different</td>
<td>All science must begin with a value position; some positions are right, some are wrong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Neuman (2006, p.105)

From Table 3.1 above, a critical paradigm is where belief in reality is subjective and based on values that can be changed through an assessment of dominant values. Critical research as indicated by Neuman (2006, p. 106) “challenges wisdom and values through analysis and critique of the values and vested interests” in the search of human freedom and empowerment. An example is where the leader provides a style of leadership that is value driven and some of the leader’s values are stronger than others, the follower is
able to assess and change their beliefs on evaluation of the leader’s dominant values. The critical approach is not suited to this research as it subjective to the leader’s values which may or may not be objective, and, therefore, does not provide non bias outcome.

In comparison, the interpretive approach sees that reality is born from social interaction. That is, from the actions of interacting social beings, with the world being what people perceive it to be with a vast range of realities being accepted, and is likely to result from experience, reflected by human nature and agency. It seeks to establish that experiences of a particular group are reality, however it is not fixed by a natural law (Neuman, 2006). Therefore, this approach is not suited for this research as there are a range of participants with a range of variable perspectives, not all accepting one dimension.

Given the problem at hand, the interpretivist approach is not suited in the ontological context, as its format requires it to be constantly making sense of words, developing meanings. In addition to having the freedom to make choices, which is somewhat distant from the need to be objective, when compared to the positivist approach. From the interpretivist approach the researcher admits beliefs which can be seen as a distinct advantage capitalising on insider perspective (Neuman, 2006).

The critical approach is also not aligned to this research as it is structured to dispel myths and supply tools designed to change the world. The critical approach is also where the researcher deliberately attempts to enable subjects to make sense of issues and conditions that were previously unchallenged, with a view to changing the world. Supporting this position is Neuman (2006, p. 95) who states that “transforming social relations, by revealing the underlying sources and empowering people, especially less powerful people is the purpose of critical approach researchers”. The critical approach facilitates empowerment, explaining the social order, whilst becoming the beginning and the conduit for change to the social order (Davis, 2005). Therefore, the critical approach is not conducive, as it does not provide an objective free and a non-influenced environment, in which to facilitate the research.

Considering the business nature of this research and the search for objective truth, the positivist position enables a pragmatic and objective view to be facilitated. The positivist approach reflects that reality exists, without influence from the observer, and
is highlighted by natural laws aligned to cause and effect (Davis, 2005). An example is where the belief of training and development is an act that is part of a leader’s requirement to be able to lead; therefore, leadership training is considered a fact that a leader has to endure to be able to be a leader. The outcome is that leadership training and development is fixed in a natural view of reality correlated to leaders and cannot be changed; it is established reality, which supports the positivist position (Neuman, 2006) and is reflected through the nature of social reality in Table 3.1.

The positivist’s purpose is to discover laws, while the interpretivist paradigm accepts that reality is socially created, and the critical paradigm concludes that social reality and its study contain dimensions, which are unequal in advancing human freedom (Neuman, 2006). Many business studies take a positivist approach that provides a deterministic stance, supporting ontological and epistemological positions, as reality is viewed as accepted, and the discovery of natural laws in order to predict and control events, is the way of advancement (Neuman, 2006). The positivist approach is adopted in this research as it has the structure to explore and substantiate the relationships, interactions and dependencies of the core constituents, in addition to social psychology, transformational leadership and the research environment of the APS, where reality is established and social interactions have cause and effect.

With the ontological position identified, it is important to define the epistemological position of this research. Epistemology refers to the alignment and relationship of the research to the researcher, and where the relationship of this research is understood in relation to the subject. Therefore, the epistemological assumption in relation to the three social science research approaches of positivist, interpretivist and critical, needs to be understood (Davis, 2005). The above three approaches are now considered in the epistemological context as follows:

- from the positivist approach, the researcher is considered detached, neutral and objective without having influence on the research or results (Neuman, 2006). As the ontological perspective is positivist, so is the epistemological perspective, as they are symbolic to the researcher’s view of reality.
In this research, the positivist approach, which Neuman (2006) identifies as an enabling clear and bias free mechanism, will be used for the epistemological position, as the researcher is detached from the research process and has no direct influence on the research data. This positioning allows the objective truth to be determined by the large sample size of separate individuals, thus enabling the measurement of leader’s behaviours through evidence collected.

3.3. Overview of research design

There are two forms of research, one scientific and the other social, from which Ticehurst & Veal (2000) observe the difference being that, scientific research is bound by the rules of science and based on logic after investigation of the evidence from a systematic process. In context, Davis (2005, p. 8) supports this by acknowledging that “scientific research is systematic, controlled, empirical and a critical investigation of hypothetical propositions”.

Social science research is, however, different to scientific research (Neuman, 2006) as it deals with people as social beings, seen as less predictable and with an extensive array of competencies, interactions and dependencies that are subject to change and continue to evolve with society’s advancement. Therefore, because the research disciplines of social psychology and transformational leadership, in addition to the APS environment, are not controlled constituents, scientific research does not fit the research design. This research problem has chosen to utilise the social science platform as the appropriate form of research exploring human behaviour, this position is supported by Neuman (2006) as it engages the social interactions of humans who are not bound entirely by scientific parameters or measurement.

3.3.1. Deductive reasoning approach

There are two basic approaches used by researchers when undertaking research, based on either inductive reasoning or deductive reasoning. Both of these approaches are aimed at achieving a similar goal, which is to describe and comprehend reality with the assistance of analytical theories. The two approaches differ in starting point as shown in Figure 3.1.
Figure 3.1: Reasoning approach, inductive and deductive.

Research based on deductive reasoning, implies that the researcher generates a hypothesis from a particular theoretical framework and then tests the hypothesis by observation (Zikmund, 2000). The objective is to either reject or confirm the hypothesis or establish sub-hypotheses for further consideration. In contrast, the inductive reasoning approach draws conclusions from particular facts and the evidence that is presented. When facilitating an inductive reasoning approach (Zikmund, 2000) the researcher establishes a general proposition, based on observation of facts resulting in empirical evidence to support the hypotheses.

The research approach for this study is based on deductive reasoning and utilises a quantitative questionnaire to collect the observations of a large number of participants to test the hypotheses. This format allows for existing knowledge to be expanded and new knowledge to be generated from the evidence that is collected, also enabling generalisation.

3.3.2. Exploratory descriptive research design
The research design is exploratory/descriptive and is designed to investigate a phenomenon, which may be under utilised in the APS context. The exploratory aspect in the context of this research is to investigate a phenomenon that is not widely
understood. In addition to possessing a primary objective to “increase the nature of their understanding of the problem” (Davis, 2005, p. 146) this research is also exploratory, in that it is intent on discovering variables and their relationships in a particular situation, which may lead to additional study at a later date.

From the descriptive view, this research presents a view of humans and the associated social activity by detailing situations and highlighting the relationships. Therefore, the research design incorporating both the exploratory and the descriptive dimensions of research provides a clear structure to test the hypotheses. Noting that the design must be chosen to suit the problem, with Davis (2005, p. 159) conceding “there is no single correct design for a research problem”; the exploratory/descriptive combination best suits the requirements for this research as discussed above. The research structure in Figure 3.2 below is the design for this research providing the overall direction inclusive of the descriptive segments of Chapter three, highlighted in black, being the choice made within the research design.
Figure 3.2: Research design and details of the research methodology of this research.

Chapter 1 and 2
Introduction, research problem and literature review inclusive of the identified groups to be explored

Chapter 3
Research design and methodology

- **Research design**
  - Exploration
  - Descriptive
  - Hypothesis Testing

- **Types of Investigation**
  - Descriptive
  - Casual
  - Experimental

- **Extent of Researcher interference**
  - Minimal: studying events as they normally occur
  - Manipulation

- **Quantitative data collection**
  - Questionnaire

- **Data Measurement**
  - Data analysis
    - Quantitative
    - Qualitative

- **Unit of analysis** (population to be studied)
  - Individuals
  - Organisations
  - Groups
  - Segments

- **Administration**
  - Pre-test
  - Coding
  - Reliability of Questionnaire
  - Data cleansing

- **Time Horizon**
  - Data collection, once, six week period, 6 February to March 2008

- **Sampling design**
  - Non probability
  - Probability
  - Sample size (n)

- **Statistical Tests**
  - Mean & SD
  - Cronbach
  - PCA
  - Multiple Reg Correlations

Chapter 4
Data analysis and findings

Chapter 5
Conclusions

Source: Adapted from Cavana, Delahaye and Sekaran (2001, p. 107).

Figure 3.2 provides the design for the research, which is divided into five chapters with a number of prominent activities that are to be implemented. The design also highlights the steps, flow and connection of the activities that make up the structure of this research design and are discussed in this Chapter.
3.4. Qualitative versus quantitative

The two research methodologies that are used in research are qualitative and quantitative, both of these methodologies differ in a number of ways, however, as stated by Neuman (2006, p. 151) the main difference is determined “by the nature of the data” collected. The quantitative method uses hard data in the form of numbers whereas the qualitative methodology largely gathers data in the form of impressions, words and information. Both methodologies have their own strengths and weaknesses and the objective of this section is to identify the most appropriate methodology for this research. The differences between the qualitative and quantitative methods are illustrated in Table 3.2 as follows:

Table 3.2: Qualitative versus quantitative research approaches.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualitative Approach</th>
<th>Quantitative Approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Construct social reality, cultural meaning</td>
<td>Measure objective facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on interactive processes, events</td>
<td>Focus on variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity is the key</td>
<td>Reliability is the key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values are present and explicit</td>
<td>Value free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory and data are fused</td>
<td>Theory and data are separate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational constrained</td>
<td>Independent of context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few cases subjects</td>
<td>Many cases, subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thematic analysis</td>
<td>Statistical analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher is involved</td>
<td>Researcher is detached</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3.2 above compares the alignment of the qualitative method against the quantitative methodology.

The qualitative methodology allows the researcher to submit only the data and findings they feel justified in doing so. Within the qualitative methodology, subjectivity may arise with the possibility of “adopting a perspective” as stated by Neuman (2006, p.15) to portray the virtues of the researcher’s thoughts and detail. Therefore, interlocking readers into a spectrum of possibility based on the researcher’s actual first hand
experience and knowledge of the events. The significant variable in the qualitative process is to ensure that the research is in context and is a real understanding of the social environment being observed and measured. The surety of the qualitative methodology is subjective and the interpretation is without statistical support, and is primarily based on discussion and formulated in words (Davis, 2005) whereas the quantitative outcome is demonstrated by numbers that are numerically descriptive. The qualitative methodology is less definitive, as it focuses on interactive processes where theory and data are fused and fewer cases are investigated. Therefore, the qualitative methodology does not suit the nature of this research, considering the population to be studied, and the amount of data to be collected; therefore, this research is practically aligned to the quantitative methodology.

The quantitative methodology measures facts using reliability as a major consideration by separating the data from the theory, and provides a statistical analysis that can be questioned from a factual basis, with the relationship between the research and the researcher being detached. The quantitative methodology also aligns with the ontological and epistemological positivist positions, with separate data, no influence on the results and a collaborative view of reality.

The possibility of bias, dishonesty and unethical considerations may exist in either qualitative or quantitative research (Davis, 2005). However, the initial disposition of research is to be fair, considerate, ethical and practical in all considerations, culminating in a position that the research is not contaminated by the viewpoint of the researcher. This position is supported by Moser & Kalton (1971) Davis (2005) and Neuman (2006) however the position is more susceptible within the qualitative methodology to contamination, as the researcher controls the data. Whereas the quantitative methodology (Moser & Kalton, 1971; Davis, 2005) is driven by statistical data that is interpreted as it falls. However, with the qualitative methodology, the data, generally facilitated by case study or interview techniques, is subjective to the interpretation of the researcher who is espoused with trust (Neuman, 2006) as the balancing component in search of objectivity.
From the outset, the requirement of a quantitative study is for the researcher to select a topic, whereas in the qualitative process the commencement point is often vague with a topic that may emerge incrementally throughout the study (Davis, 2005; Neuman, 2006). The quantitative methodology commences with a topic that is a focused question, leading to a single or multiple hypotheses guiding the study from the initial outset. Therefore, the researcher has to determine which methodology best addresses the research problem.

The advantage of using the quantitative methodology in this research capacity is that by using an established questionnaire instrument, the construct validity and reliability have been established (Moser & Kalton, 1983; Davis, 2005; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006; Neuman, 2006). The selection of the questionnaire format complements the qualitative approach, whilst also providing the following advantages over the qualitative method of interview such as:

- the questionnaire is time efficient for participants to respond to;
- answers can easily be coded and sorted for analysis;
- the process is private and participants cannot easily be identified;
- data collection is streamlined; and
- in most cases questionnaire formats already exist which can be modified to suit the context of the study (Neuman, 2006).

This research has a topic selected through two definitive questions that are not vague, and by nature fit the quantitative methodology. The quantitative methodology enables the study of populations by using statistical methods to analyse data concluding in impersonal, objective reports of research findings. The quantitative methodology also best fits the requirements of this study by supporting the ontological and epistemological positions through the positivist approach (Neuman, 2006). This is where reality is evident and the researcher is detached in conjunction with deductive reasoning, which commences, from a theory to a result, facilitated by hard data derived through analytical processes. In addition, the quantitative methodology is chosen for this research from a theoretical perspective, as it assumes an objective of social reality in viewing casual relationships among social phenomena from a mechanistic perspective (Davis, 2005).
3.5. **Detail of procedures undertaken**

The survey questionnaire to be used in this research is a known instrument and, therefore, conveys a number of advantages. Given the information covered in the literature review the survey instrument facilitates the needs of this research and provides a solid platform from which to commence the study. The TLQ-PSRV questionnaire was chosen as it had been used by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) to investigate transformational leadership in the United Kingdom public sector.

The procedures for this research commenced with a negotiation through the Real World Group (RWG) for the use of the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire Public Sector Research Version (TLQ-PSRV) as the primary data collection instrument. This action, and the acceptance of some conditions (see appendix B) enabled an established questionnaire, with reported reliability and validity, to be used in this research. The TLQ-PSRV has been used in similar contexts allowing for results to be compared with known data.

The Secretary of the Department of Veterans’ Affairs (DVA) and the Chief Executive Officer of the Australian Communications & Media Authority (ACMA) were approached, allowing their organisations to participate in the survey (see appendix C). Their participation for data exchange was agreed to as the principle for allowing employees to participate. An informed consent letter specifically formatted for each agency was provided for signature and duly considered and accepted, but not executed by the Secretary of the DVA and the Chief Executive Officer of the ACMA (see appendix D).

Participants were contacted over a six-week period, commencing from the 15th of February to the 30th of March 2008. The data was collected using the TLQ-PSRV and a categorical questionnaire, combined as the survey questionnaire (see Appendix F and G) with an informed consent letter and two-page instruction letter accompanying the survey questionnaire. In an effort to encourage participation from APS employees, the Secretary of the DVA and the CEO of the ACMA respectively endorsed the questionnaire.
The ACMA/DVA employees could access the questionnaire via a URL domiciled at http://www.scu.edu.au/websurvey/public/survey.php?name=Derek_Ambrose_copy with the questionnaire taking 15 minutes on average to complete. The questionnaire instrument was self administered and required no intervention during the data collection process. Completed questionnaires were returned, collected and stored on an electronic file storage facility.

3.5.1. Survey instrument

This research is designed to be a study of a sector, that is, of APS transformational leadership. The perceptions of APS officers of their immediate leaders were sought via a questionnaire. There are a number of advantages for selecting a questionnaire format, some of these are, the data collection methodology may be better aligned to the subject matter, administration can be lesser, and a larger volume of data can be attained. Considering these aspects the selection of a questionnaire in the format of the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire - Public Sector Research Version (TLQ-PSRV) was the most practical selection for this research from RWG. Further advantages of using a questionnaire have been previously discussed in this Chapter.

The engagement of the TLQ-PSRV instrument enabled the researcher to elicit responses from a wide geographical area and allowed respondents to reply at their convenience and remain anonymous (Neuman, 2006). The survey instrument, as indicated by Neuman (2006) avoids researcher bias, is effective, and can lead to higher response rates where there is a strong interest in the subject, the TLQ-PSRV facilitated these requirements.

3.5.2. Survey question structure

The TLQ-PSRV questionnaire is the principal data collection instrument for this research and is preceded by a smaller range of categorical items, numbering 11 questions in the primary construct of ordinal; that is, each number represents membership of a category. The ordinal scale deals with categorical responses numerically coded, enabling analysis of the information into categories affording clear measurement. The categorical section of the questionnaire is structured to capture vital information allowing for segmented analysis of specific demographic sub areas and departments. In this research, the demographic categories are: age, employment level,
gender, education achievements, length of employment and employer which segmented the data into groups for comparative analysis through agency and sub cultural phenomena (Davis, 2005; Neuman, 2006).

The secondary construct is Likert type responses treated as interval data, the Likert scale is used to measure attitudes, treated as interval data, enabling comparisons to be made between the answers (Manning & Munro, 2006). The TLQ-PSRV represents the secondary construct and has 42 items, collecting information across six transformational leadership scales, comprising of 32 items, and five outcome variables, which are made up of 10 items. Each transformational leadership scale has between 4-6 items using an eight-point Likert scale response. The TLQ-PSRV measures the six transformational leadership scales and ten composite variable items through closed questions using the Likert scale numbered 1 = Strongly disagree to, 6 = Strongly Agree, plus D= Don’t know and N = Not relevant. From this, comparisons such as the difference between ‘strongly disagree and agree’ being three scale points apart, can be determined and assessed by Likert scale as illustrated in Figure 3.3.

**Figure 3.3**: TLQ-PSRV Likert scale.

![Likert scale](image)

Source: Likert scale (Manning & Munro, 2006).

An example of an item used in this research is item number 18 which asks the respondent to provide an answer to ‘Leads in a manner which I find very satisfying’ by selecting a category on the Likert scale as illustrated in Figure 3.3 above.

The following segments describe the structure of the TLQ-PSRV questionnaire that is being used in this research:
• Transformational leadership scale number one is designed to measure that leaders- ‘show genuine concern’, by reflecting a variety of individual focused behaviours, attitudes and values. Items, 12, 20, 29, 37, 44 and 50 relate to this scale.

• Transformational leadership scale number two is designed to measure- ‘networking and achieving’, which is essentially measuring communication and vision, in engaging internal and external stakeholders. Item numbers 13, 22, 30, 38, 45 and 52 relate to this scale.

• Transformational leadership scale number three measures- ‘enabling others to lead themselves, through empowerment, delegation and developing the individual’s potential’, for example the provision of opportunities for followers. Items 14, 23, 31, 39, 47 and 53 relate to this scale.

• Transformational leadership scale number four highlights the leader’s capacity of- ‘being honest and consistent’, relating to integrity and transparency in behaviour. Items 16, 24, 32 and 40 relate to this scale.

• Transformational leadership scale number five measures that the followers perceive that the leaders are ‘being accessible, approachable and in touch’, placing emphasis on face to face contact. Items 17, 26, 34, 42 and 48 relate to this scale.

• Transformational leadership scale number six measures the leader’s capability of ‘being decisive’; measuring decision-making and risk taking. Items 19, 27, 35, 43 and 49 relate to this scale.

• The composite variables of achievement, motivation, satisfaction with leadership, stress and commitment, being outcomes of the leader’s behaviour are measured as follows:
  - Achievement measured by items 28 and 51;
  - Motivation measured by items 15 and 25;
  - Satisfaction with leadership measured by items 18, 36 and 46;
  - Stress measured by item 33; and
3.6. *Pilot questionnaire*

To ensure that the items in the questionnaire are unambiguous and that the format is easy to understand, prior testing is ideal (Neuman, 2006). The pre-testing process as defined by Zikmund (2000) in questionnaire administration is to allow any design fault or bias in the questions to be addressed, Davis (2005, p. 219) supports this position noting that “pre-testing should be considered essential”. To ensure the structure and content of the questionnaire is aligned, purposeful and constructive, the pre-testing process enables the following:

- rectification of any inadequacies reducing bias before the questionnaire is distributed;
- identification of problems in wording, format and instrument design;
- an opportunity for respondents to understand the questions;
- consideration of the validity and reliability of the questionnaire;
- familiarisation of the administration process surrounding the questionnaire;
- the efficiency of instructions can be tested and evaluated;
- the opportunity to implement new and streamline existing processes for the actual survey;
- a view of the probable cost in resources, time and monetary outlay; and
- an indication of the non-response rate to be expected (Davis, 2005; Neuman, 2006).

The questionnaire to be used in this study has been used in the United Kingdom, in the public sector context; however, it does not eliminate pre-testing as the Australian context may have differences. These differences may in the form of subtle cultural differences along with the political, economic and social considerations of both countries that may have an effect on the meaning of the questionnaire items. As a result a pilot group was selected and a test sample conducted to facilitate pre-testing.

The questionnaire was made available via a web based URL and data was entered to test the process. Several combinations of data were entered in all the categorical questions, testing every available data collection space for input, acceptance and data registration. The same process was conducted for the TLQ-PSRV component of the questionnaire to
ensure that every established data collection point, worked and the recipient data was collected.

The collected data was then up-loaded into SPSSV14, a database, to enable a statistical analysis to be conducted. Several statistical analyses using the statistical methodologies identified in this Chapter, in Sections 3.11 to 3.11.6 inclusive, were conducted to certify that the data collection and analytical processes for this research were suitable, consistent and would be effective for the actual survey process. The completion of these administrative processes ensured that the facilities were effective and would deliver the required functionality for this research.

3.6.1. Pre test sample
A pre-test was conducted on a small selected sample of fifteen participants from the APS, through direct contact by the researcher. The selected pre test participants are similar in APS status to those who would ultimately be sampled. The pilot questionnaire was tested using a pre-testing sample of fifteen, with the pre-test being undertaken in early November 2007 observing the participants and following up each individual for feedback on the questionnaire procedure and administration as recommended by Moser & Kalton (1983). Nine pilot participants communicated there were no problems with the questionnaire in its current format. Six offered advice on minor changes, mainly question terminology, in the categorical section of the questionnaire relating to specific APS characteristics.

As a result of the feedback, an independent researcher was engaged to review the questions as a measure to ensure that the questions were structured and easy to understand. The reviewed questionnaire was then again tested with a further ten participants, no negative feedback was received; therefore, further adjustment to the questionnaire was not required. The 25 pre-test respondents participated in the actual survey conducted between February and March 2008.

3.7. Sample methodologies
This research used non probability sampling due to the possibility that not every element known would be selected and measured, whereas in probability sampling Davis (2005, p. 236) states “each element in the population has a known chance of being
selected for inclusion in the study sample”. In consideration of the two sample methodologies Davis (2005) suggests that either is acceptable and that the non-probability design of snowballing is an accepted sampling design to use in practice. The snowballing design is where respondents are connected through a direct or indirect linkage, for example John participates and invites Mary to participate and then George, who is not known to John, participates from Mary’s invitation, Mary is a direct linkage and George is an indirect linkage. Snowball sampling is often referred to network or chain referral as it relies on a network of associations (Neuman, 2006).

The sample methodology of non-probability and the design of snowballing are simple mechanisms that are often used by quantitative researchers (Neuman, 2006) providing a survey sample, which is descriptive of total populations and therefore, allows for generalisations. This research by its quantitative position accommodates the non-probability sampling and snowball design as realistic methodologies in the pursuit of data collection.

3.7.1. Sample size

An important factor in quantitative research is the size of the sample; that is, to ensure that the sample size has relevance and is representative of the population. From previous research and studies, the minimum likelihood for estimation has found to provide valid results with a sample size totalling 100 respondents. However, 100 respondents measured against the total population of approximately 148,000 in the APS is considered too small to be an adequate reflection and have relevance for findings (Neuman, 2006).

To facilitate a good analysis it is important that the sample size be significant, similar to what Tabachnick & Fidell (1996) describe, that is samples of 300 are considered to be good and 500 to be very good, with 1,000 to be excellent. In consideration of sample size, Tabachnick & Fidell (1996) note samples of 100 to be poor, with sample sizes becoming too large at 2,000 from a practical resourcing aspect. A minimum sample size was set at 500 respondents, representing a response rate of 17%, which is considered a representative sample by Moser & Kalton (1983) Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black (1998) Davis (2005) and Neuman (2006). This research achieved a sample size of 792, which is considered to be very good by Tabachnick & Fidell (1996).
3.7.2. Statistical software
Data from the questionnaire instrument was analysed using SPSS V14, a proven research software package accepted and tested in quantitative research. The SPSS V14 software was preferred over alternative programs, such as COSAM, SQL, due to its flexibility, ease of use and width of functions such as validity and reliability checking of composite variables, assumption testing, inferential statistics, longitudinal studies and graphic inclusions. Another supportive aspect is the University’s expertise, endorsement and support in using SPSS V14.

3.7.3. Coding data
There are two types of questions that require coding these are pre-coded questions where the numeric value is predetermined and assigned as pre-coded in the questionnaire, or where the questions are open ended and the categorisation of answers is not pre-planned. The advantages of pre-coded questions is that they are efficient, answers recorded in one operation which simplifies the procedure, the computer can assign the number and in most situations only one result is available. In this research, the questions are all closed-ended and are pre-coded assigned to a numerical score (Neuman, 2006) as the Likert scale usage makes coding simple.

A different perspective is promoted by Moser & Kalton (1983, p. 344) who state there is “a risk with pre-coded questions in that answers may be forced into a category to which they do not properly belong”. The pre-coding forces the respondent to make a decision one way or the other, invoking a decision making process. The TLQ-PSRV being used for this research, has a range of eight responses, and, therefore, provides the respondents with a range of choice for decision making and negates some of Moser & Kalton’s (1983) concerns. The respondents are then in the position of having only one answer being available for entry. The data is then coded, checked visually for clerical errors and transferred to a storage medium for future analysis. The coding of data for this research used pre-coded questions, was checked for clerical errors, the data was then saved and transferred to a database for future analysis.
3.8. Validation of questionnaire

For the questionnaire to provide a true measure of the subject matter it must measure what is intended to be measured. In support is Neuman (2006, p.193) who states, “the better the fit, the greater the measurement of validity through the accumulation of evidence”. Thus it is vital that the questionnaire be validated to ensure that true measures are recorded.

Validity suggests truthfulness ensuring that an idea fits with actual reality and is a fundamental research requirement as it determines the confidence and trust that researchers have in the outcome. The type of validity relevant to this research is “measurement validity as an empirical indicator” as stated by Neuman (2006, p. 191). In consideration Neuman (2006) describes this as joining of the operational and conceptual design and definitions that interact with each other. This observation is also supported by Davis (2005, p. 185) who states “a measurement scale is valid if it measures what it is supposed to, and if a scale is not valid then there little use for the information”. In addition, Ticehurst & Veal (2000) also point to validity as being information that represents the phenomenon being researched.

A validity test is implemented to determine if what was supposed to be measured, actually is, both Davis (2005) and Neuman (2006) note there are three main types of measurement of validity these being, content validity, criterion validity and concurrent validity. However Neuman (2006) also includes face validity as a fourth measurement and Zikmund (2000) a fifth dimension of construct validity. The descriptions of various validity aspects are as follows:

- **Face validity** as described by Neuman (2006, p. 192) depicts face validity as a “judgement by the scientific community that the indicator really measures the construct”.
- **Content validity** as a measure addressing the question of “is the full content of the definition represented in the measure”, Neuman (2006, p. 193).
- **Criterion validity** illustrated by Davis (2005, p. 187) and defined as “the degree to which the scale is able to predict a variable that is designated a criterion”.

• **Concurrent validity** described as an indicator of a construct that relies on a pre-existing measure that has already been accepted (Davis, 2005).

• **Construct validity** determined by Zikmund (2000) as the measurement confirming a network of related hypotheses sourced from theoretical concepts.

The measure that this research will report is construct validity, which is representative of the domain of the concept of transformational leadership to establish the validity of the questionnaire items as measuring the constructs on which the questionnaire was constructed. Construct validity, in this research context, is supported by Zikmund (2000) as there are multiple measures, using multiple indicators, that are convergent, that is measuring the same concept through different measurements resulting in a high degree of association or being discriminant, that is, opposing the construct with a different result. The technique used to establish construct validity is factor analysis, which is represented in this research by a Principal Components Analysis (PCA) detailed later in this Chapter.

This research is using an existing questionnaire, which has established and reported the validity of the instrument in various public sector contexts. This is supported through Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) who systematically constructed the TLQ-PSRV, and built previous versions that have proven validity in the United Kingdom Public Sector context.

### 3.9. Reliability of the questionnaire

Reliability is considered by most researchers as a key component and central to all issues. Davis (2005) and Neuman (2006) support this alignment so as to ensure that constructs that may contain ambiguity within an area of research can be measured with reliability and consistency. That is to ensure that on repetitive measurements, of the same item, the results are consistent and reliable.

The concept of reliability has two underpinning pillars in reputability and internal consistency, where the instrument measures the concept assessing the relevance of the measure. In determining reliability, Davis (2005, p. 188) notes “reliability to be the consistency and stability of the score from a measurement scale” Neuman (2006) also
supports this position by indicating that reliability is another term for dependability and or consistency. In conclusion, measurement reliability as indicated by Neuman (2006, p. 189) emanates from the “numerical results produced by an indicator that do not vary because of the characteristics of the measurement process or the measurement instrument itself”.

The reliability of the TLQ-PSRV has been demonstrated by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) through pilot studies and in research environments. The results of the survey conducted by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) on the United Kingdom Civil Service, Local Government, School Leaders, National Health Service and private sector resulted in similar results demonstrating that the survey is reliable and consistent when facilitated in different workplace environments. The results reported by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) demonstrate that the measurements taken from a wide range of content, indicate that there is little or no systematic issue, and that the multiple of indicators are stable within these defined measured areas.

3.10. Analytical techniques

After the data was collected it was processed through editing and coding processes and then entered in data storage.

3.10.1. Data Cleansing

The data file was checked for accuracy using SPSS V14 to examine for univariate descriptive statistics which are outliers that have an extreme score, which could possibly influence statistical calculations of each variable, and for numerical consistency in that numbers look to be within the scale parameters. Also SPSS V14 frequency checks were carried out to check the accuracy of the data files with the related measures of means, standard deviation, median and the interquartile range to seek out inappropriate coding. In addition, the survey collection form numbers were tallied against the input into SPSS V14 as a cross check on the validity of the data, this action is supported by Neuman (2006, p. 374) as “guarding against possible errors and obstacles representing a good preventive strategy that enhances data analysis”.
3.10.2. Data transformation

Data transformation is the process of enabling data to be transferred “into a useable format that can facilitate decision making in an organisation” (Davis 2005, p. 24). The transformation process enables data to be extracted from its current value of raw data and transferred into wisdom as illustrated in Figure 3.4:

**Figure 3.4: Data transformation process.**

Source: Adapted from Davis (2005, p. 25).

In Figure 3.4, Davis (2005, p. 25) suggests that “data is converted into information when it becomes useful”, that is, when it is used in decision making processes and becomes meaningful to the organisation or individual. From this stage, the information then transfers into analytical information and Davis (2005) infers that the information changes due to the examination of it by statistical manipulation and creative thinking. The knowledge is then assembled and converted into wisdom which Davis (2005, p. 25) notes as “the accumulated ability and willingness to apply knowledge with good judgement”.

In this research, the conceptual model illustrated in Davis (2005) has been followed. The result highlights the direct and flowing effect of research that creates a larger degree of wisdom for application in general, and for this research particular to the APS.
3.10.3. **Sources of error**

Errors can be made when coding and entering data, resulting in corrupt data being assessed for outcomes. The data collected in this research needs to be quality assessed through sampling a portion of the population. In consideration, sampling fifteen percent of the data collection represents a sampling interval of six through systematic sampling and is supported by Leung, Coram, Cooper, Cosserat & Gill (2004) as a recommended quantity, enabling a reasonable cross section of data to be examined.

This research employed two methodologies to check the correctness of the data by “code cleaning” as illustrated by Neuman (2006, p. 346) examining the categories of all variables for impossible codes, and by contingency cleaning, involving the evaluation of two variables and looking for logically impossible combinations. In addition to the above process, an experienced administrator was employed to eliminate the sources of error as a superior quality assurance measure. The reasoning of this approach was to ensure that the effort, resource deployment, in addition to the significant amount of time and cost, that this research encountered, was not forgone due to corrupt data and that the results of the research were rigorously supported by accurate data. The most significant aspect of why these data control tests were implemented is to ensure that usage of the data for statistical analysis and business decisions is an accurate reflection of the results.

3.11. **Research questions and hypotheses**

The three research questions and the ten hypotheses investigated by this research are as follows:

**Question one: do APS leaders display any transformational leadership behaviours?**

Previous research (Bass, 1985a; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001) provided an overwhelming body of evidence of the existence, acceptance and engagement of transformational leadership in the private sector and the associated benefits to an organisation's bottom line. However, only limited research findings to date have been reported for the Australian public sector.
Question two: what leadership behaviours do APS leaders display?

If transformational leadership is found within the APS, this research question is designed to determine the extent of that transformational leadership. In conjunction with question one, both these questions have been deliberately developed and maintained at a high level to avoid segmentation and the dilution of research into specific threads. From measuring and identifying transformational leadership practices it is logical to determine what the current leadership practices are in the APS, to enable comparison and provide a platform for improvement. It is anticipated that the conclusions to these questions will add value to the APS, in considering the implementation of future strategic training and leadership induction programs for employees.

The high level development of the research questions has enabled a number of research hypotheses to be developed; these are described and detailed in Chapter One, Section 1.3.4, and page 11. The ten hypotheses are unproven in the leadership context of the APS, and by being so, provide the basis for testing by this research endeavour.

3.12. Statistical tests

The requirement to use statistical tests is aligned to the quantitative research methodology being employed and forms the basis for analysis in the context of this research. Statistical tests enable the testing of the hypotheses that measures the associations and differences of the categories and the populations within the data source (Manning & Munro, 2006). The measurement of the reliability, validity, correlations, variations, means and standard deviations of data will be conducted through the following methodologies.

3.12.1. Means and standard deviation analysis

Researchers are often required to summarise information into single numbers to help identify trends and usually use one of three measures of central tendency, namely mean, median and mode. The measurement chosen for this research is the mean as it is consistent with other research reported on this theme (Neuman, 2006). The mean is a statistical indication used to measure the central tendency of the population being examined.
To assist in determining the extent of the population surveyed, this research will use the standard deviation as a variation measurement to compute the dispersion. The standard deviation technique is widely and comprehensively used in research being based on the mean, and highlights the average spread between the mean and all scores; the mean is equally distant from all scores. Both the mean and the standard deviation provide the researcher with a statistical analysis of what the average is, along with the dispersion range and provides for comparative analysis (Neuman, 2006).

3.12.2. **Principal components analysis with varimax rotation**

Principal Components Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation will then be used to summarise relationships between variables displayed in a correlation matrix. The validity of the measure of a composite variable is the degree of homogeneity, which it measures, and what it claims to measure. The ability to estimate the validity of a composite variable is limited on a single presentation of a single questionnaire (Manning & Munro, 2006). Therefore, the rationale is that if each item is measuring the same thing as the total then the scale is homogenous.

It is important that the sample be large enough, for example, N = 300, in alignment with a sample size that is significant as described by Tabachnick & Fidell (1996) in Section 3.7.3 and page 101, to enable the correlations to be reliably estimated. If variables are found that are highly correlated then it can be concluded they are measuring the same thing. If no correlations existed, then there is nothing to explain, if disparate correlations are found then a determination would be made as to whether it was worthwhile continuing with further analysis, by using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy or Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity as illustrated by Manning & Munro (2006). This research found two major components that appeared to be conceptually similar and loaded measuring the same thing; therefore, the above mentioned tests were not required.

3.12.3. **Pearson product moment correlation coefficient**

This research used the Pearson Product-Moment (PM) correlation co-efficient as this method possesses important features, highlighted by Davis (2005) that makes it most useful in research. When data is collected that has the properties of interval measurement, an appropriate indicator of the association between the two variables is
the PM. Not only can it be used to establish the strength of a relationship, but it can also assist this research in determining the direction, positive or negative, of the relationship and the variation explained by the relationship. This is displayed between -1, +1 for determining strength and direction of relationship. Simple correlation coefficients between variables give an indication of the strength of association between those variables. For example, if the coefficient of correlation between two variables A and B is 0.7, it indicates that the two variables are positively associated; therefore, a change in one will produce a change in the other in the same direction. If the correlation coefficient was -0.7, a change in one of the variables will produce a reciprocal change in the other variable.

3.12.4. Cronbach alpha
Cronbach alpha is a commonly used method supported by Hair et al. (1998) to examine the reliability coefficient within the questionnaire set by the performance correlation of items, and or a scale of overall performance tests across the data. The TLQ-PSRV has previously been tested for reliability using Cronbach alpha in the United Kingdom, resulting in all measurements showing a high internal consistency of reliability.

This research utilised Cronbach Alpha to measure high reliability as Manning & Munro (2006) note that co-efficient alpha is an index of the internal consistency of the items, that is, their tendency to correlate with one another. As a test or scale with high internal consistency, Cronbach Alpha will also tend to show stability of scores in a test-retest approach. The coefficient alpha is a useful estimate of reliability of the composite variable. Supporting this statement, Gregory (2000) notes that Cronbach alpha is a test or scale with high internal consistency tending to show stability of scores in a test-retest approach, and therefore, Cronbach alpha is considered to be a useful estimate of reliability. In addition, Hair et al. (1998) confirms this approach stating that a lower acceptable limit of .60 is acceptable (that is a = .60) in exploratory research. For the purpose of this research, a result of Cronbach alpha in excess of .60 was considered acceptable in line with Hair et al. (1998) suggestions. The reliability outcomes were measured by software package SPSS V14 and the results are illustrated in Chapter four, Section 4.10.
3.12.5. Analysis of variance and independent-samples $t$ test

To statistically compare groups such as gender, officer level differences and departmental level differences a statistical measurement of variance, such as an analysis of variance (ANOVA) is an appropriate methodology to use along with independent-samples $t$ test measuring the multiple and variable relationships.

Using an ANOVA enables a researcher to discover whether groups of items differ in relation to a specific dependent outcome variable or an independent variable. The ANOVA assumes normality (Manning & Munro, 2006) allowing for means testing to determine the difference by choosing a significance level and degrees of freedom, and, therefore, allows an estimation of the probability of two or more sample means reflecting a true difference related to populations means. The differences are highlighted by the magnitude of the difference between the two items and the variability of the results, the closer, the more likely the difference actually exists.

An alternative to use, for situations where there are only two categories, is the independent-samples $t$ test which tests for mean differences used on interval-scales. The test assumes that the samples are independent and that there is a statistical difference between the groups in relationships of degrees of freedom that represent a statistical outcome of significance in relation to the significance level set. The standard convention demonstrated by Southern Cross University Quantitative Methods (2006, p. 70) is to set a criterion that “there should be less than a five per cent chance that the difference between two groups is due to error, however sometimes a stricter level is set at one per cent”. This research set the difference for error at, $p < 0.001$.

3.12.6. Post-hoc tests

Post-hoc tests are used for multiple comparisons to provide a greater depth of analysis demonstrating mean differences, standard error, significance levels and the lower and upper bounds of the confidence interval. This analysis allows a more penetrative examination of the relationships between the subjects. This research used the Games-Howell Post-hoc test to establish the differences between three APS segments, which are demonstrated in Chapter four.
3.12.7. Summary of analytical methodologies
The analytical methodologies demonstrated in Sections 3.12.1 to 3.12.6, are the planned methodologies to test, analyse and report on the data extracted from the research. Within this process there is the possibility of a new dimensional theory emerging from within this specific sector, being established and supported.

3.12.8. Ethical considerations
The ethical obligations for the purpose of this research include and not limited to the following:

- ensuring all participants have the right to choose to participate;
- participants have a right to safety and a right to be informed;
- ensure participants confidentiality;
- maintain high standards to ensure accuracy and objectivity throughout the research; and
- ensure there is no misrepresentation of data in accuracy and reporting accurate findings (Davis, 2005).

Research ethics are paramount to the creditability and trustworthiness of a research project and the researcher’s own standing. Research ethics play an important part in the design of the research and are enforced through the conduct of a research program. The most critical components, those of individual rights and privacy, are respected as individual cooperation; Zikmund (2000) supports trust as a necessary component for the collection of data. From a continuing point, ethical treatment of participants is crucial in ensuring the subjects will respond actively to future requests for information. However, the most important aspect of ethical consideration, is the right of the individual to be informed of all aspects of the research so as to enable them to determine their willing participation, and be safeguarded in the process, this position is supported by Davis (2005).

Ethical considerations were addressed in this research by adhering to the Southern Cross University’s code of research ethics. An application that included the questionnaire used in this research was made to Southern Cross University Human Research Ethics Committee for approval according to the University’s code of research
ethics, the application was approved on 31 October 2007, approval number ECN-07-161. In addition to this, the research has ethical requirements under the Public Service Act (1999) Code of Conduct principles, Privacy Act (1988) and statute law.

The rights and responsibilities of research administrators and individual participants are predominantly set in law to provide guidance and protect the rights of the individuals. In providing ethical consideration, the research sets a framework for ethical relationships allowing transparent disclosure of the processes and procedures and a systematic conduit for communication between the parties. The result is a degree of conformity to statute law and a moral undertaking to the participants, thereby demonstrating mutual respect and the right of confidentiality, choice, safety, privacy and the right to be informed (Neuman, 2006).

This research supports the adherence to ethics to ensure the safety of the individual participant’s information and identity. This action affords a degree of confidence to the individual and will be returned in the style and quality of the information provided. The more comfortable the participant feels with the process and procedures, then the more likely the information provided will be reflective of the participant’s viewpoint resulting in quality data collected for analysis.

The conduct of business and social research requires the participation of the general public who in many cases, without reservation, supply private details, both demographic and opinion related. It is the provision of this information into trusted hands that drives the requirements for ethical evaluation and treatment of the participants; Tichehurst & Veal (2000) acknowledge the importance of ethical consideration within research. In this research the participants were provided with a format setting up informed consent, as indicated through the letter at Appendix D, noting the participants were free to discontinue at anytime along with not being identified.

3.13. **Summary of Chapter three**

This Chapter has detailed the theoretical rationale and logic underpinning the research design, survey framework, questionnaire structure, data collection along with sample selection and the measurement process. The Chapter also discussed and analysed the
quantitative method approach in addition to describing the analytical methods to be used in the analysis stage of the research. The analytical methods used ranged from means analysis and standard deviations, PCA, Pearson’s correlation coefficient, Cronbach alpha, multiple regression, ANOVA and Post-hoc tests. From the implementation of these quantitative methodologies applied to the data, a range of results will be presented in Chapter four.
CHAPTER 4
DATA FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

The previous Chapter reviewed the research approach, design and methodology, along with the statistical measurement techniques to be used in this research. The purpose of this Chapter is to provide a detailed description and analysis of the data collected in response to the survey, seeking to address the research questions listed in Chapter one.

This Chapter is divided into fifteen sections commencing with this introduction section of 4.1 moving through to a summary of the Chapter in Section 4.14. Section 4.2 details the research questions with Section 4.3 providing a profile of the data collected. Section 4.4 describes the demographic profile of the data leading through to Section 4.5 which provides an analysis of the descriptive and comparative statistics derived from this research, concluding with a summary of comparative statistics in Section 4.6. Section 4.7 commences with an introduction to the quantitative social science research methods used in this research. Section 4.8 details the means analysis related to scale values and standard deviations of the data. Section 4.9 proceeds to report the data from the Principal Component Analysis perspective and Section 4.10 seeks to determine reliability using Cronbach alpha as the measurement tool. Sections 4.11 and 4.12 discuss correlations, moving from single through to multiple correlations between the scales and the outcome variables. Section 4.13 provides a summary of the correlations and the multiple regression analysis with Section 4.14 being the summary of the Chapter.

4.2. Research questions

As a result of the background in Chapter one and the literature reviewed in Chapter two, the research questions to be investigated in this research are:

1. do APS leaders display any transformational leadership behaviours?; and
2. what leadership behaviours do APS leaders display?

These research questions represent the research problem and are the drivers for this research, supported by the TLQ-PSRV enabling the capture of data. The data collected is represented by the APS Departments and respondents profiles, which are examined in the following section, 4.3.

4.3. Profile of data

Responses were received from 792 public service employees in total, 246 from the Department of Veterans’ Affairs (DVA) representing 10.7% of the DVA population, 122 from the Australian Communications & Media Authority (ACMA) representing 20.4% of the ACMA population. In addition to a further 424 from the general APS population, representing the balance of this research’s respondents. Table 4.1 displays the configuration of Departments and participants.

Table 4.1: Number of surveyed departments and returned survey questionnaires.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department size</th>
<th>No. of Departments surveyed</th>
<th>No. of Returned Surveys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Medium: 500-2000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large: 2001-5000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other APS Departments</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>792</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.1 illustrates the two specific Commonwealth Departments where the research was conducted and a number of other Commonwealth Departments that were represented by other respondents. The overall size of the APS is 147,608 as detailed at Figure 2.5, employed throughout 200 plus Commonwealth agencies. A total of 424 other APS respondents, participated and are represented in this research through Departments such as Defence, Taxation, Centrelink and Immigration, these respondents are represented within the other eighteen APS Departments, illustrated in Table 4.1. The medium Department is the ACMA and the large Department is the DVA. The response rate of this research measured against the total APS population results in, one half of one per cent of APS employees being represented in this research. The number of
respondents is considered representative of the larger APS population as determined by Tabachnick & Fidell (1996) in Chapter three.

4.4. Demographic profile of the data

The collection of demographic information from questionnaire respondents is an important aspect of the data collection process as it enables specific segmentation of the data for analysis and comparison. From this, trends inclusive of social, political and geographical differences may be highlighted and evaluated. Table 4.2 illustrates the sample population who responded to the TLQ-PSRV.
Table 4.2: Questionnaire demographics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Sample Number</th>
<th>Survey %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 to 29</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 to 39</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 to 49</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 to 59</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 and over</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 10 to 12</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma/Certificate</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate Degree</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate Degree</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years employed in the public sector:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 and over</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public sector level:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APS Level 1 to 6</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>62.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Level 1 &amp; 2</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Executive Service</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data collected for this research.

Table 4.2 demonstrates that the gender split of respondents is 55.2% female and 44.8% male of the research population. This compares favourably when measured against the total APS statistics of “58% female, and 42% male” in the State of the Service Report (2007-2008, p. 19) thus confirming that the survey sample is gender representative of the total APS population.

The age of this research’s participants is predominantly in the 40 to 59 age group who comprise 65%, of the total surveyed population, indicating that a significant number of the participants are mature aged. The State of the Service Report (2007-2008) also indicates a similar result in this age group, again confirming the representativeness of the APS by the survey respondents of this research.
A high level of education exists within the surveyed population with just over half, 52% of respondents, possessing a tertiary education ranging from an undergraduate degree through to a PhD. The State of the Service Report (2007-2008, p. 26) states that “52.5% of employees have graduate qualifications”, therefore, supporting the findings of this research that the surveyed population in this aspect is representative of the wider APS. This statistic also demonstrates that a significant level of the researched population should be in a position to evaluate and thoughtfully consider their leader’s behaviour.

APS levels 1 to 6 comprise 62% of the total surveyed population, indicating that the majority of respondents occupy the lower level worker positions. The State of the Service Report (2007-2008) indicates that 73% of the APS population are employed at, and between the APS levels of 1 to 6, in positions that are largely administrative in nature with specialised skills sets, being predominantly represented by the Executive levels. The difference in the APS level 1 to 6 segmentation, compared to this research is 11%. This result indicates that there is a higher level of executive level participation in this research, that being 38% measured against 27% for the State of the Service Report (2007-08).

The survey population in this research is very similar to the State of the Service Report for 2007-2008, in gender, age, qualifications and APS level segmentation. This section has briefly described the demographic highlights of the data and provides an insight into the hierarchical structure of the APS and Departments.

4.5. Descriptive and comparative statistics and analysis

This section describes the results between three specific APS populations, the ACMA, the DVA and the other APS, supported by an analysis of the statistics. The detailed data for descriptive and comparative statistics is found within tables 4.3 to 4.14, located at appendix G and H

4.5.1. Descriptive statistics, TLQ-PSRV scale one, showing genuine concern
In research projects, an enormous amount of data is collected and not all can be displayed. This research has chosen to present the descriptive statistics that are inclusive
of the showing genuine concern scale, which itself, represents 60% of the TLQ-PSRV (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). The data is displayed through tables 4.3 to 4.8 and is located at appendix G.

4.5.1.1. Comparative statistics between APS departments
A comparative analysis was conducted on two APS Departments and another 424 APS respondents; therefore, enabling specific measurement to be conducted between the three main research, segments of the ACMA, DVA and the other APS.

4.5.1.2. Comparison of questionnaire population segments
This section highlights the results from the questionnaire combining the outcomes into two categories, for the ACMA, DVA and other APS. The two categories are defined as, one being the agreement, and the other the disagreement category. The agreement category consists of the results ranging from strongly agree, agree to slightly agree whereas the disagreement category ranges from strongly disagree; disagree to slightly disagree for the six TLQ-PSRV leadership scales as follows:

• showing genuine concern;
• networking and achieving;
• enabling;
• being honest and consistent;
• being accessible; and
• being decisive.


The results from the TLQ-PSRV as demonstrated in Tables 4.9 to 4.14 located at appendix H for the ACMA, DVA and the other APS, in both the agreement and disagreement categories are displayed in Table 4.15 and Table 4.16.
Table 4.15: The ACMA, DVA and other APS agreement categories of the transformational leadership scales in percentages of population.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Showing genuine concern</th>
<th>Networking &amp; achieving</th>
<th>Enabling</th>
<th>Honest &amp; consistent</th>
<th>Being accessible</th>
<th>Being decisive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACMA</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DVA</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other APS</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.16: The ACMA, DVA and other APS disagreement categories of the transformational leadership scales in percentages of population.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Showing genuine concern</th>
<th>Networking &amp; achieving</th>
<th>Enabling</th>
<th>Honest &amp; consistent</th>
<th>Being accessible</th>
<th>Being decisive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACMA</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DVA</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other APS</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Legend:
N = 122 for the ACMA
N = 246 for the DVA
N = 494 for the other APS

The segmented results demonstrated that the ACMA had the highest level of agreement, indicating that transformational leadership behaviours are practised within the ACMA, and less so in the DVA, and being somewhat distant in the combined other APS. The results also demonstrated the same trend in the disagreement categories where the ACMA followers were less in disagreement than the DVA and the combined other APS.

Other interesting observations were that 15% of respondents (117) answered don’t know and not relevant to the networking and achieving scale, indicating that a number of followers may have no visibility or understanding of what their leaders activities are in this capacity, also that five percent of the respondents (37) did not know if their leader was being honest or consistent. In addition, six per cent of respondents (49) did not know, or thought the question was not relevant that their leaders were being
accessible, and that five per cent of employees (40) respondents, did not know, or thought the question was not relevant that their leaders were being decisive.

4.6. Summary of comparative statistics

The results clearly indicate large variances between the different segments and are significant, in that transformational leadership is at best practiced in some areas, however, is lesser practised in others. The overall analysis of the six transformational leadership scales demonstrates that the range of disagreement ranges from 14% to 55% with the agreement ranging from 44% to 81%, reflective of the surveyed population over the six scales. The most concerning result is that 46% of APS employees perceive that their leaders do not, show genuine concern, this result is significant, as Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) state, that the showing genuine concern scale represents 60% of the total TLQ-PSRV. The most positive result is that 67% of APS employees perceive that their leaders are decisive. Having discussed the comparative statistics, it is now pertinent to examine the data through a range of analytical research methodologies detailed in the following section.

4.7. Quantitative social science research methods of analysis employed in this research

Considering that the research population has been comparatively described, it is important to establish the differences underpinning transformational leadership within the various segments of the APS. Mean and standard deviation measurement, simple correlations, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Independent-Samples t Test and Post-hoc testing are used to determine the differences, if any, between the three segments of the survey population, these being the ACMA, DVA and other APS. In addition PCA, Cronbach alpha and multiple regression analysis are used respectively to determine the existence of the transformational leadership scales, reliability of the data, and the predictor relationships of the transformational leadership scales to the outcome variables. The quantitative research analysis now commences with an examination of the mean values, and standard deviation measurement, for the transformational leadership scales and the outcome variables in the following section.
4.8. Mean scale values for all questionnaire scales

The mean scale values for the transformational leadership and the outcome variable scales are measured by a Likert scale as follows:

6 = strongly agree;
5 = agree;
4 = slightly agree;
3 = slightly disagree;
2 = disagree; and
1 = strongly disagree.

The mean scale values and the standard deviations for the responses to the five transformational leadership scales and the five outcome variables are presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Mean values of scales for all respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Networking &amp; Achieving</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Enabling</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Being Honest &amp; Consistent</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Being accessible</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Achievement</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Motivation</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Satisfaction with Leadership</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Stress</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Commitment</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 792

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.17 above illustrates the overall mean scale values that were derived from the scale means for both the transformational leadership scales, numbered one to five and the outcome variable scales numbered, six to ten respectively. All of the scales, both the transformational leadership scales and the outcome variable scales have scores of between 3.22 and 4.15 representing the slightly disagree to slightly agree range. The transformational leadership scale of being honest and consistent is the only scale to have scored above four (4.15).
Scale one, has a mean value marginally below the neutral point (3.48) indicating that the respondents feel that showing genuine concern for their well being and development is not practised or displayed by their leaders and, therefore, is not considered to be a usual part of leadership. Three other transformational leadership scales, networking and achieving (3.8) enabling (3.9) and being honest and consistent (4.15) are perceived more positively, around the slightly agree level. This indicates that these scales are more evident in leader behaviour, but may not be practised on a regular basis, at least, not across the population surveyed. Being honest and consistent is perceived (4.15) as the most favourable of all transformational leadership scales, but is only marginally above the slightly agree ranking level. Being accessible has the lowest mean (3.26) which, indicates that accessibility is not a characteristic demonstrated by leaders in this study.

The standard deviations for networking and achieving, enabling and being accessible are similar to that for showing genuine concern for others (1.65) and indicate a reasonable spread of perceptions. The standard deviation of being accessible (1.71) is the highest of all the transformational leadership constructs, indicating a larger variance in response. All outcome variables apart from commitment (3.92) exhibited low mean values around the slightly disagree level and neutral point of 3.5, and all had reasonably large standard deviations, with stress (1.85) being the largest.

Collectively, the mean values for the transformational leadership scales tend to indicate that this form of leadership is not particularly prevalent in the sample of leaders being studied. The reasonably large standard deviations (1.5 to 1.85) tend to suggest that there are at least some leaders who demonstrate aspects of transformational leadership in the workplace. A graphical representation of the results is illustrated in Figure 4.1.
Figure 4.1: Graph of mean scale values for all respondents.

Mean Scale values

Scale numbers one to ten, represent transformational leadership and outcome variable scales in Table 4.17
Source: Developed for this research from the data.

4.8.1. Officer level differences

The mean value of all transformational leadership and outcomes scales were determined for two officer levels; non-executive officers, APS level 1 to 6 and the management level, Executive level 1 and above. The mean values for the responses to the five transformational leadership scales and five outcome variables are presented in Table 4.18 along with the $F$ values that were generated using an ANOVA and independent sample $t$-test, to test the independent variables represented by the two officer levels.
Table 4.18: Mean values of scales for two officer levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational leadership scales</th>
<th>Non-exec (NE)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>18.35*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Networking &amp; Achieving</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>16.32*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Enabling</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>6.95***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Being Honest &amp; Consistent</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>14.22*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Being accessible</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>5.79**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Outcome variable scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome variable scales</th>
<th>Non-exec (NE)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Achievement</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Motivation</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>9.22***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Satisfaction with Leadership</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>5.90**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Stress</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>3.81**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Commitment</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>18.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NE = 490 E, 302
*p < 0.001, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01.
Source: Developed for this research from the data.

From Table 4.18 above, the results indicate that all the leadership scales and outcome variables are significant, that is, they are greater than p= <0.001, except for achievement where the outcome of both the executive officers (E= 302) and the non-executive officers (NE= 490) and (F= 2.57) are relatively the same, that is there is not a significant degree of difference between the two. Figure 4.2 is a graphical representation of the results:
Scale numbers one to ten; represent transformational leadership and outcome variable scales in Table 4.18. Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Figure 4.2 graphically displays the two main trends in officer level differences noting that the mean values of executive officers for all scales in both transformational leadership scales and variable outcomes are consistently higher, than those of non-executive officers by approximately 0.50, of a mean unit. There are statistically significant differences, between the two groups in all scales, with the mean values of all scales for executive officers in the positive, for example, above the neutral point (3.5) with achievement being marginally positive. In contrast, six scales for non-executive officers were in the negative, for example, below the neutral point (3.5) with only two scale means being the honest and consistent and the commitment scale, approaching a mean value of four and representing the slightly agree answer. This demonstrates that the perceptions of executive officers are more positive than those of the non-executive officers, ranging from the neutral point (3.5) for achievement to the highest (4.5) for the being honest and consistent scale.

While the mean values reported for executive officers consistently exceeded those of non-executive officers, the mean values are not high. Showing genuine concern, has a mean value (3.76) for executive officers, which equates to a ranking just above neutral and below the slightly agree answer. In other words, even though this scale rating exceeds that of non-executive officers, it is not an endorsement that the attributes
associated with this scale are practised on a consistent basis in the day to day workplace. It is this scale which has been reported to account for the majority of the variance in the constructs representing transformational leadership by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006). If this mean value is not high, then there is not much expectation that transformational leadership is the dominant form of leadership exhibited by leaders in the sample used in this survey. Additionally, it should be noted, the mean value for non-executive officers, for the showing genuine concern scale (3.30) is marginally above the slightly disagree answer. Then it could be proposed that the non-executive group of employees do not perceive this attribute, which is an important aspect of transformational leadership to be inherent in the workplace.

The standard deviations for both groups show that there was a spread of perceptions, with the spread for non-executive (1.54 to 1.86) being similar to that of the executive officers (1.36 to 1.67). The standard deviations for individual scales suggest that there was a small cohort in both groups that responded more positively, and negatively than the larger number of respondents did.

4.8.2. Department level differences

Participants in the survey were from a range of APS departments, the configuration is as follows, the Australian Communications & Media Authority (N = 122) the Department of Veterans’ Affairs (N = 246) and other APS (N = 424). Thus, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was undertaken to determine if differences existed between the three groups of participants in the survey. The results from the one way ANOVA are shown in Table 4.19 below.
Table 4.19: Mean values of scales for different departments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean (Standard deviation)</th>
<th>F value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACMA</td>
<td>DVA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>4.27 (1.45)</td>
<td>3.60 (1.58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Networking &amp; Achieving</td>
<td>4.46 (1.26)</td>
<td>3.96 (1.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Enabling</td>
<td>4.62 (1.26)</td>
<td>4.15 (1.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Being Honest &amp; Consistent</td>
<td>4.80 (1.17)</td>
<td>4.24 (1.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Being accessible</td>
<td>3.50 (1.77)</td>
<td>3.28 (1.76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Achievement</td>
<td>3.88 (1.62)</td>
<td>3.34 (1.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Motivation</td>
<td>4.31 (1.32)</td>
<td>3.73 (1.71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Satisfaction with Leadership</td>
<td>4.09 (1.66)</td>
<td>3.47 (1.69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Stress</td>
<td>3.96 (1.82)</td>
<td>3.48 (1.79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Commitment</td>
<td>4.54 (1.39)</td>
<td>4.01 (1.50)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 122 N = 246 N = 424

*p < 0.001, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.
Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.19 above illustrates that the ACMA means for the transformational leadership scales (No. 1-5) and outcome variables (No. 6-10) were consistently at the slightly agreed level (4) with enabling, being honest and consistent nearly reaching the agreed level (5). The standard deviations were also significantly different with the ACMA having a closer spread than the DVA and the other APS. The results in table 4.19 represent a range of differences between the three segments, with the ACMA constantly ahead in all the leadership and outcome variable scales, and consistently demonstrating a lower standard deviation range, except in the being accessible scale and the outcome variable of stress. Of note, is the range of standard deviation measured in the scale of being accessible (1.66 to 1.77) noting that all segments are very close, and a possible explanation for this could be the hierarchical structure of the APS, which may preclude accessibility.
Figure 4.3: Graphical presentation of group mean values.

Department Level Differences

Scale numbers one to ten; represent transformational leadership and outcome variable scales in Table 4.19.
Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Figure 4.3 graphically illustrates that the groups are all clearly separated for all scale means with the ACMA consistently having higher mean scale values than both the DVA and the other APS. All graphs show the same trend consistent with previous analysis for other sub-groupings of the data. Based on these results, it is apparent that the elements of transformational leadership being surveyed are evident in the workplace at the ACMA. However, less so at the DVA and very doubtful that they exist in the other APS, the same trend is apparent for the outcome variables, numbered 6 to 10.

4.8.3. Post-hoc tests
Post-hoc tests distinguish variances or patterns within subgroups of the sample; they are designed to look at the data for differences that were not specified a priori. The Games-Howell Post-hoc test used in this research illustrates in Table 4.20, the significant differences between the three APS segments.
The results from the Table 4.20 above, demonstrate that apart from scale five (Being accessible) all mean values for ACMA are statistically different (greater) than the other two groups and also that the DVA is statistically different (greater) than the other APS. The level of significance is different for a number of the comparisons, but generally the significance level is highest for the comparison of ACMA with the other two groups.

A point that has been consistent throughout the study is the low mean value reported for the being accessible scale. The mean for the being accessible scale for all three departments, is either at ACMA level of 3.5, or below the neutral perception level (3.5) noting from Table 4.20 that there is no statistical difference between the three department groupings using the Games-Howell Post-hoc test. Therefore, it appears that leaders being accessible to staff is of a similar concern across all departments.

These results tend to suggest that within the many departments that make up the APS there are ‘pockets’ where staff perceive that the constructs identified in this study
relating to transformational leadership are evident and practiced, the results also show
that these perceptions vary widely.

4.8.4. Different location means analysis
Transformational leadership in the United Kingdom public sector of recent times has
been investigated by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) through a series of
studies in segmented public sector streams. The extensive research has allowed this
research’s results to be compared with that of the United Kingdom as illustrated in the
Table 4.21.

Table 4.21: Comparative means analysis of transformational leadership scales for
the APS, two Departments within the APS and the United Kingdom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>United Kingdom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APS</td>
<td>DVA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Networking &amp; Achieving</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Enabling</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Being Honest &amp; Consistent</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Being accessible</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *Information from Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) and from the data
collected for this research.

Legend to table 4.21:
APS - Australian Public Service/Sector
DVA - Department of Veterans’ Affairs
ACMA - Australian Communications and Media Authority
LG - United Kingdom local government
NHS - National Health Service
Other - Other UK Public Service

In Table 4.21 the APS mean scale values for all five transformational leadership scales
are low and are below (4.0) slightly agree, except for being honest and consistent, albeit
marginal. In addition, the mean values vary between the groups studied within the APS,
with one group, the ACMA, having four scales exceeding the slightly agree ranking.

The being accessible scale is either at, or below the neutral point for the ACMA, DVA
and the other APS. In comparison, the mean values per scale for all three United
Kingdom public service sectors exceed the slightly agree ranking for all five
transformational leadership scales, with some closer to agree (5) and being reasonably
consistent across all five scales.
The comparison results in Table 4.21, clearly indicates that there is a much higher level of transformational leadership as perceived by the followers in the United Kingdom than in the APS overall. The only APS segment that is generally at the same level as the United Kingdom is the ACMA, except for the being accessible mean value.

4.8.5. Gender level differences

The mean value of all the transformational leadership and outcome variable scales, were determined for females and males to understand if there were any gender differences. The mean values for the responses to the five transformational leadership scales and five outcome variables are presented in Table 4.22 below; F values were generated using an independent sample t-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Female (F)</th>
<th>Male (M)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Networking &amp; Achieving</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Enabling</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Being Honest &amp; Consistent</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Being accessible</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Achievement</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Motivation</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>8.68**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Satisfaction with Leadership</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>5.26**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Stress</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>10.68**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Commitment</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 437 F, 355 M

* p < 0.001, ** p < 0.05.
Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.22 above illustrates the mean and standard deviation gender differences, in addition to F values, which showed that all the transformational leadership scales, and variable outcomes were statistically different except for the networking and achieving scale and being honest and consistent scales. As in the previous analyses, the mean values of all the outcomes, apart from commitment, are below the neutral point (3.5)
suggesting a rather negative perception of transformational leadership behaviour as measured by the outcomes. The low outcome values have been a consistent feature of this survey, and when the survey sample has been subdivided, it has still remained evident. The statistically significant differences in all but one of the five outcome variables, scales with the lower mean values, suggests that females and males may be responding differently to the leadership being shown in the workplace. There are some statistically significant differences being reported for the first four outcome scales, but not for commitment. The means and standard deviations are also consistently lower for males, although marginal, throughout the transformational leadership scales and the outcomes.

**Figure 4.4: Graphical presentation of gender mean values.**

![Graphical presentation of gender mean values.](image)

Scale numbers one to ten; represent transformational leadership and outcome variable scales in Table 4.22.

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Figure 4.4 shows that the perceptions of both females and males track the same for all 10 scales and that there is very little difference in the mean values reported by females and males for all the transformational leadership scales. There are no statistically significant gender differences in the mean values of the transformational leadership scales suggesting that both females and males have the same perception of leadership. This implies that leadership experience is the same for both males and females and no one group is being singled out. The mean standard deviations for all scales for both
females and males are similar which suggests that the spread of responses for both groups were similar. This further supports the inference that both males and females, who participated in this survey, perceive leadership as being the same thing.

4.9. Principal component analysis

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is used to determine whether measures that appear to be conceptually similar or different actually load onto the same or different components (De Vellis, 1991). The 42-item version of the TLQ-PSRV questionnaire employed for this research had an, *a priori* structure of six scales comprising of 32 items, plus ten outcome variables. The 32 items relating to the six *a priori* scales were subjected to a PCA to extract unique factors, followed by a varimax rotation for better interpretability of the factor loading. As is the convention, noted by Nunally (1967) the component loading for each item should exceed 0.3 for its *a priori* scale, and less than 0.3 for every other scale.

The initial component analysis (N = 792 responses) yielded a three component solution with 11 items clearly loading onto component one, four items onto component two, one item onto component three, and with 16 items displaying varying degrees of cross-loadings across two or three of the components. This solution accounted for 67 per cent of the total variance. All 32 items loaded onto the three components, indicating that they all measure some aspect of transformational leadership. Ten items numbers (2, 16, 24, 26, 29, 32, 37, 38, 39, and 41) with the highest cross-loadings were removed and the analysis was re-run resulting in two components with minimal cross-loadings represented in Table 4.23 below, accounting for 68 per cent of the total variance.
Table 4.23: Component factor analysis loadings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Component loading</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
<th>Component 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Variance</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cumulative variance</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.23 illustrates that 22 items loaded onto the two components and may indicate that they measure some aspect of transformational leadership, noting that there are a number of cross loadings between values of, 0.32 and 0.43 and that only two scales have been determined.

4.9.1. Component one - showing genuine concern

Questionnaire items (1, 3, 5, 6, 12, 13, 15, 20, 21 and 31) all loaded onto component one-showing genuine concern, while items (8, 9, 18, 23, 28, 33, 36 and 42) also loaded onto showing genuine concern, however, have some cross-loadings onto component two-networking and achieving. The cross-loadings show that these items measure some degree of another construct, in this case networking and achieving. The cross-loadings, although slightly high in the case of items 18, 33, 36 and 42 are acceptable (Manning & Munro, 2006).
Table 4.24 represents the single and multiple loading factors, noting that the multiple loadings on component two are of a lower value, indicating that the items are more aligned to component one.

**Table 4.24: Questionnaire items that load onto component one.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items with a single loading</th>
<th>Items with multiple loadings (0.32 – 0.43)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1, 3, 5, 6, 12, 13, 15, 20, 21, 31</td>
<td>8 (0.37), 9 (0.33), 18 (0.43), 23 (0.32), 28 (0.35), 33 (0.36), 36 (0.37), 42 (0.36)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.24 shows the items that loaded on the single component one (*showing genuine concern*) and those items that had multiple loadings. For example item eight loaded onto component one (*showing genuine concern*) at 0.77 and multiple loaded onto component two at 0.37. The next evaluation was to investigate the relationship between components one and two and their relative *a priori* scale. The outcome is illustrated in the following Table 4.25.

**Table 4.25: Questionnaire items loading onto the a priori scale.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Single loading</th>
<th>Multiple loading (0.34 to 0.39)</th>
<th><em>a priori scale</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9, 18, 33</td>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3, 12, 20</td>
<td>28, 36, 42</td>
<td>Enabling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5, 13, 21</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Being honest &amp; consistent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6, 15, 31</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Being accessible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Being decisive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.25 illustrates the loading spread of *showing genuine concern*, measuring multiple items for four of the *a priori* scales. Item number eight, is decisive when required to be so, belongs to the *a priori* scale of *being decisive*. This was the only item from this scale to load as a single item onto any scale, it is possible that respondents considered this action to be important, more so than other items in the *being decisive a priori* scale.
4.9.2. Component two - networking and achieving

Four items, 11, 19, 27 and 34 loaded onto networking and achieving, with two of the items, 19 and 34, having low but acceptable cross-loadings (> 0.33) all items belong to the a priori scale of networking and achieving. Networking and achieving is one of the five sub-scales in Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe’s (2000) over-arching leadership area identified as ‘Leading the Organisation’. It was the only scale from the ‘Leading the Organisation’ area included in this questionnaire, and all the items from the a priori scale loaded onto this component.

An analysis shows that in distribution, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.977, indicating that the data was appropriate for this analysis (Kaiser, 1974). Application of the Kaiser criterion, in which only components with eigen values exceeding one were retained, indicated a two component structure supporting the PCA analysis of showing genuine concern and networking and achieving.

4.9.3. Items removed from analysis

Of the ten items removed from the final component analysis, four belonged to the a priori scale, being decisive, two for the showing genuine concern scale, two to the networking and achieving scale, and one each to the being honest and consistent and being accessible scales. Three of the four being decisive items loaded onto all of the three initial components which could well indicate that this construct is in fact not a separate construct but implicit in all constructs. The one item, number 8, from the a priori scale being decisive, ‘is decisive when required to be so’ loaded onto networking and achieving, and had a lower loading than most other items on showing genuine concern, however the cross-loading is acceptable for networking and achieving.

In order to determine if some sub-structure could be identified as a basis to group items in component one into the a priori sub-scales, item to total and inter-item correlations were investigated. Items were grouped according to Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe’s (2006) a priori scales and item to total correlation and inter-item correlations were determined. Table 4.26 lists the item to total correlations (range and mean values) for the a priori scales used in this research.
Table 4.26: Item to total and inter-item correlations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Within scale</th>
<th>Item to total correlations</th>
<th>Item to total correlations</th>
<th>Item to total correlations</th>
<th>Item to total correlations</th>
<th>Item to total correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>Being honest &amp; consistent</td>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>Networking and achieving</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>0.88 – 0.93</td>
<td>0.70 – 0.80</td>
<td>0.68 – 0.79</td>
<td>0.70 – 0.74</td>
<td>0.44 – 0.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean: 0.90</td>
<td>Mean: 0.75</td>
<td>Mean: 0.75</td>
<td>Mean: 0.71</td>
<td>Mean: 0.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking and achieving</td>
<td>0.78 – 0.85</td>
<td>0.50 – 0.61</td>
<td>0.51 – 0.57</td>
<td>0.44 – 0.52</td>
<td>0.46 – 0.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean: 0.83</td>
<td>Mean: 0.57</td>
<td>Mean: 0.54</td>
<td>Mean: 0.48</td>
<td>Mean: 0.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>0.84 – 0.88</td>
<td>0.78 – 0.85</td>
<td>0.67 – 0.79</td>
<td>0.68 – 0.74</td>
<td>0.45 – 0.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean: 0.86</td>
<td>Mean: 0.80</td>
<td>Mean: 0.74</td>
<td>Mean: 0.71</td>
<td>Mean: 0.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest &amp; consistent</td>
<td>0.87 – 0.91</td>
<td>0.72 – 0.81</td>
<td>0.66 – 0.74</td>
<td>0.66 – 0.80</td>
<td>0.38 – 0.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean: 0.89</td>
<td>Mean: 0.76</td>
<td>Mean: 0.71</td>
<td>Mean: 0.73</td>
<td>Mean: 0.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>0.83 – 0.87</td>
<td>0.72 – 0.81</td>
<td>0.68 – 0.75</td>
<td>0.73 – 0.80</td>
<td>0.44 – 0.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean: 0.85</td>
<td>Mean: 0.76</td>
<td>Mean: 0.71</td>
<td>Mean: 0.76</td>
<td>Mean: 0.49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.26 is to be read horizontally and shows how the items in all scales correlate to the total construct listed in the first column. For example, the ‘within scale’ and the four items in the enabling scale exhibit correlations, while the correlations between items within the showing genuine concern scale are between 0.70 and 0.80 with a mean item correlation of 0.75, the significance level for all correlations is p<0.001.

The point to note is that in all instances, the magnitude of the item to total correlations between items in any one scale is less than those between the construct and items in another scale. For example, with the scale being honest and consistent, the mean within scale item correlation is 0.89, while correlations for items in other scales with this construct are of a considerable lower magnitude approximately 0.73 for three of the scales and 0.45 for the fourth scale. This difference may be consistent with component one from the PCA actually having a finer substructure. There is a large difference in the magnitude of the item to total correlations between the scale networking and achieving.
and the other four scales; this was clearly evident in the PCA, which identified networking and achieving as a separate construct in the questionnaire.

Inter-item correlations also provide some evidence to support a substructure within the items of component one, with the correlations between the items in each a priori scale generally being consistently larger than the correlations between any expanded group of items. For example, the inter item correlations for the items in the scale showing genuine concern, were between 0.44 and 0.93 with a mean correlation of 0.76, if the items from the scale being accessible were added to these items the mean correlation was 0.64. The mean inter item correlation decreased for the scale showing genuine concern, whenever any items other than the four indicated previously in Table 4.26 were included. Similar behaviour was observed for other scales when items other than a priori items were added, and the mean inter item correlations were determined, although the differences were not always large.

Considering the history of the various forms of the TLQ and the reduced number of TLQ- PSRV items used in this study, and on the evidence provided from the data analysis, the questionnaire consists of items belonging to the showing genuine concern scale as identified in the PCA, which appears to be composed of a number of highly correlated sub-scales. The sub-scales of the questionnaire identified here and which will be used in further analysis of the data in this study are: showing genuine concern, enabling, being honest and consistent, being accessible and networking and achieving.

Whilst the PCA could not identify the finer structure of the questionnaire, it is noted that other researchers (Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997) have reported similar problems with other, similar questionnaire instruments. This research has noted the abovementioned issue and is not concerned that there is any effect on the results, but notes the implication for further research in Chapter five, Section 5.5.

4.10. Cronbach alpha

The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient was selected as the prominent methodology to establish reliability. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is an index of internal consistency of the items, expressed as their tendency to correlate with one another. The
Coefficient alpha ranges in value from 0, representing no reliability through to 1, which represents perfect reliability. Coefficients exceeding an alpha value of 0.7 represent reasonable reliability whereas coefficients above 0.9 represent excellent reliability (Gregory, 2000). The inter-item correlations measure the correlations between all items of an instrument that are designed to measure the same construct. The numbers of items per scale, Cronbach alpha and inter-item correlation coefficients for the scales from this study are presented in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27: Cronbach alpha inter-item correlation coefficients.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>No. items</th>
<th>TLQ - PSRV (This study)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cronbach Alpha</td>
<td>Inter-item range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.70 - 0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking &amp; achieving</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.52 – 0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.62 - 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest &amp; consistent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.66 – 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.58 - 0.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

In Table 4.27 the Cronbach alpha values reported in this study are all above the (0.70) acceptability rate that Hair et al. (1998) accepts as being a test for reliability. The Cronbach alpha values are also closely aligned to a similar survey conducted on the United Kingdom local government by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2001) where they found lower values related to the lower number of questionnaire items per scale.

4.11. Correlations

In transformational leadership, the emphasis is on what the leader does for the individual including; values, supports and develops potential in the individual. Thus, one of the aims of this research was to investigate the associations between scales of the TLQ-PSRV and outcome variables. Outcome variables, also called criterion variables by many researchers, refer to those activities in the workplace that are impacted upon or modified by leadership behaviour. This section examines leader behaviour that can be
used to predict follower outcomes. The ten items, spanning five outcome variables were included in the questionnaire and are listed in Table 4.28

Table 4.28: Outcome variables with supporting statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome variable</th>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement - Outcome variable 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Behaves in a manner which raises my sense of fulfilment in my job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Acts in a manner that enables me to achieve beyond expectation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation – Outcome variable 2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Behaves in ways that raise my motivation to achieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Behaves in a way that has a positive effect on my self confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with leadership – Outcome variable 3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Leads in a manner which has a positive effect on my commitment to my job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Leads in such a way as to increase my job satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Has a leadership style that increases my commitment to the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress – Outcome variable 4</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Reduces my job related stress by their approach to leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment – Outcome variable 5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Behaves in a manner which has a positive effect on my commitment to my job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Shows determination to make things happen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Items from the TLQ-PSRV, 2001, RWG, used in this research.

Table 4.28 illustrates the outcome variables, the item number and the related statements within the TLQ-PSRV questionnaire. The relationship between the outcome variable and the statements can be determined in the intent of the statement.

4.11.1. Simple correlations and multiple regression analysis between scales and outcome variables

The relationship between the leadership scales and the outcome variables are now explored using simple correlations and multiple regression analysis. Simple Pearson correlation coefficients ($r$) were calculated between each of the TLQ-PSRV scales and each outcome variable; these are shown in table 4.29.
Table 4.29: Transformational leadership scale and outcome variable correlations, N = 792.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome variables</th>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Satisfaction with leadership</th>
<th>Stress</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking &amp; Achieving</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest &amp; consistent</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

Table 4.29 demonstrates that the simple correlations between scales representing transformational leadership and those representing the outcome variables, derived from this research are in the range of strong to moderate. The strongest correlation is from the leadership scale of showing genuine concern to the outcome variable of satisfaction with leadership (0.91) all the other outcome variables are strongly correlated to the showing genuine concern scale. Enabling, being accessible and being honest and consistent are all strong to moderate in correlations with the outcome variables, that being over 0.60 as stated by Hair et al. (1998). The networking and achieving scale, which on face value may have little to do with the relationship between the leader and the follower, is only moderately correlated. The statements domiciled under the networking and achieving scale, in the questionnaire were all related to the leader’s networking skills and outcomes; however, by the level of the correlation there does appear to be a lower level of relationship between the networking and achieving scale and the outcome variables.

4.12. Transformational leadership scale relationship to the outcome variables

The relationship between each leadership scale and each outcome variable will now be considered commencing with the outcome variable of achievement, followed by motivation, satisfaction with leadership, stress and commitment. The relationships will be described through simple correlations of the leadership scales and using multiple regression analysis to measure the relationship between the leadership scales and the outcome variable.
4.12.1. Transformational leadership scales relationship with the outcome variable of achievement

Achievement is a business and relationship outcome that both the leader and the follower desire to implement. However the final achievement or outcome is dependent upon how a leader and follower interact, the achievement level in the follower may be affected by the actions and behaviour of the leader (Cacioppe, 1997). Table 4.30 presents the simple correlations and multiple regression statistics that exist between the TLQ-PSRV scales and the achievement outcome variable.

**Table 4.30: Significant Associations between the TLQ-PSRV Scales and Achievement in Terms of Simple Correlations (r) and Standardised Regression Coefficients (β).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TLQ-PSRV Scale</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>0.88*</td>
<td>0.51***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking and achieving</td>
<td>0.64*</td>
<td>0.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>0.85*</td>
<td>0.24*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest and consistent</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
<td>0.17*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>0.78*</td>
<td>-0.72***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multiple Correlation, $R$ 0.90*
Coefficient of Determination, $R^2$ 0.81*

*p<0.001, ***p<0.05, **** p<0.1,
Source: Developed for this research from the data.

The multiple correlation coefficient (0.90) shows that there is a significant, positive and high degree of correlation between the combined TLQ-PSRV scales and the achievement outcome variable. Thus, it would appear that any collective change in these scales would affect achievement in a similar way, for example, a decrease in one is correlated with a decrease in the other. The adjusted coefficient of determination ($R^2$) indicates that the regression model accounts for 81 per cent of the variance in achievement. All but one standardised regression coefficients (β) are positive with showing genuine concern (0.51) being considerably stronger than the others and statistically significant ($p< 0.001$). The other scales, of enabling (0.24) being honest and consistent (0.17) and networking and achieving (0.12) show modest to low
alignment of being predictors. *Being accessible* at (-0.72) indicates that *being accessible* provides no positive benefit to achievement, and therefore, is not a predictor of achievement.

Three predictors, *enabling, being honest and consistent* and *being accessible* show reasonably high simple Pearson correlations with each other, while *networking and achieving* (0.64) has a lesser correlation. The results from the associations between the scales of the TLQ-PSRV and the achievement outcome variable are illustrated in Figure 4.5.

**Figure 4.5:** Associations as represented by the Standardised Regression Coefficients ($\beta$) and Simple Pearson Correlations ($r$) between the TLQ-PSRV Scales and the Achievement Outcome Variable.

Source: Developed for this research from the data.
4.12.2. Transformational leadership scales relationship with the outcome variable of motivation

Motivation between the leader and follower relies on the dependency and relationship of how a leader and follower interact, and from the level of this interaction the motivation level in the follower may be affected. Table 4.31 presents the simple correlations and multiple regression statistics that exist between the TLQ-PSRV scales and the motivation outcome variable.

**Table 4.31: Significant Associations between the TLQ-PSRV Scales and Motivation in Terms of Simple Correlations ($r$) and Standardised Regression Coefficients ($\beta$).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>0.89*</td>
<td>0.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking and achieving</td>
<td>0.59*</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>0.87*</td>
<td>0.24*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest and consistent</td>
<td>0.86*</td>
<td>0.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>0.83*</td>
<td>0.06*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Correlation, $R$</td>
<td>0.92*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient of Determination, $R^2$</td>
<td>0.84*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.001, **p<0.01.

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

The multiple correlation coefficient (0.92) shows that there is a significant, positive and high degree of correlation between the combined scales and the motivation outcome variable. Thus, it would appear that any collective change in these scales would affect motivation in a similar way, for example, a decrease in one is correlated with a decrease in the other. The adjusted coefficient of determination ($R^2$) indicates that the regression model accounts for 84 per cent of the variance in motivation. All standardised regression coefficients ($\beta$) are positive with three being considerably larger than being accessible and networking and achieving. These three scales, showing genuine concern (0.39) enabling (0.24) and being honest and consistent (0.27) are strong to modest predictors, of motivation whereas being accessible at (0.06) and networking and achieving at (0.01) whilst positive are too low to be considered predictors of motivation.
All the TLQ-PSRV scales show high simple Pearson correlations with each other, except for, *networking and achieving* (0.59) which demonstrates a lesser correlation. The results from the associations between the scales of the TLQ-PSRV and the motivation outcome variable are illustrated in Figure 4.6.

**Figure 4.6: Associations as represented by the Standardised Regression Coefficients ($\beta$) and Simple Pearson Correlations ($r$) between the TLQ-PSRV Scales and the Motivation Outcome Variable.**

Source: Developed for this research from the data.
4.12.3. Transformational leadership scales relationship with the outcome variable of satisfaction with leadership

The actions and behaviours of a leader are reflected in correlations between the scales and the outcome variables. The outcomes of this relationship are dependent upon how a leader and follower may interact, which leads to the way in which the measurement of the satisfaction with leadership, in the follower may be affected. Table 4.32 presents the simple correlations and multiple regression statistics that exist between the TLQ-PSRV scales and the satisfaction with leadership outcome variable.

Table 4.32: Significant Associations between TLQ-PSRV Scales and Satisfaction with Leadership in Terms of Simple Correlations ($r$) and Standardised Regression Coefficients ($\beta$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TLQ-PSRV Scale</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>0.91*</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking and achieving</td>
<td>0.65*</td>
<td>0.10*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>0.86*</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest and consistent</td>
<td>0.85*</td>
<td>0.23*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>0.83*</td>
<td>0.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Correlation, $R$</td>
<td>0.93*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient of Determination, $R^2$</td>
<td>0.86*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.001, **p<0.01, ***p<0.05, **** p<0.1
Source: Developed for this research from the data.

The multiple correlation coefficient (0.93) shows that there is a significant, positive and high degree of correlation between the combined scales and the satisfaction with leadership outcome variable. Thus, it would appear that any collective change in these scales would affect satisfaction with leadership in a similar way, for example, a decrease in one is correlated with a decrease in the other. The adjusted coefficient of determination ($R^2$) indicates that the regression model accounts for 86% of the variance in satisfaction with leadership. All standardised regression coefficients ($\beta$) are positive with *showing genuine concern* being the strongest at (0.52) and *being honest and consistent* at (0.23) a modest predictor of satisfaction with leadership. These two transformational leadership scales, *showing genuine concern* and *being honest and consistent*...
consistent are statistically significant \((p < 0.001)\). The scales showing enabling, being accessible and networking and achieving, whilst positive are too low to say that they are predictors for satisfaction with leadership.

All the TLQ-PSRV scales show high simple Pearson correlations with each other, except for, networking and achieving \((0.65)\) which demonstrates a lesser correlation. The results from the associations between the scales of the TLQ-PSRV and the satisfaction with leadership outcome variable are illustrated in Figure 4.7.

**Figure 4.7:** Associations as represented by the Standardised Regression Coefficients \(( \beta )\) and Simple Pearson Correlations \((r)\) between the TLQ-PSRV Scales and the Satisfaction with Leadership Outcome Variable.

Source: Developed for this research from the data.
4.12.4. Transformational leadership scales relationship with the outcome variable of stress

The dynamics between the leader and follower can be related to the amount of stress that arises from the interactions of a leader and follower. The stress level in the follower may be affected by the actions and behaviour of the leader. Table 4.33 presents the simple correlations and multiple regression statistics that exist between the TLQ-PSRV scales and the stress outcome variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TLQ-PSRV Scale</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
<td>0.31*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking and achieving</td>
<td>0.56*</td>
<td>0.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>0.79*</td>
<td>0.18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest and consistent</td>
<td>0.79*</td>
<td>0.29*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>0.76*</td>
<td>0.08*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Correlation, $R$</td>
<td>0.84*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient of Determination, $R^2$</td>
<td>0.70*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.001, **p<0.01.

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

The multiple correlation coefficient (0.84) shows that there is a significant, positive and high degree of correlation between the combined scales and the stress outcome variable. Thus, it would appear that any collective change in these scales would affect stress in a similar way, for example a decrease in one is correlated with a decrease in the other. The adjusted coefficient of determination ($R^2$) indicates that the regression model accounts for 70 per cent of the variance in stress. All the standardised regression coefficients ($\beta$) are positive with two being larger than the other three, those being showing genuine concern (0.31) and being honest and consistent (0.29) which are statistically significant ($p< 0.001$). Showing genuine concern along with being honest and consistent are the strongest predictors of stress whilst enabling, is a lesser predictor,
whereas *being accessible* and *networking achieving*, whilst positive, are not predictors of stress.

All the TLQ-PSRV scales show high simple Pearson correlations with each other, except for, *networking and achieving* (0.56) which demonstrates a moderate correlation. The results from the associations between the scales of the TLQ-PSRV and the stress outcome variable are illustrated in Figure 4.8.

**Figure 4.8: Associations as represented by the Standardised Regression Coefficients (β) and Simple Pearson Correlations (r) between the TLQ-PSRV Scales and the Stress Outcome Variable.**

Source: Developed for this research from the data.
4.12.5. Transformational leadership scales relationship with the outcome variable of commitment

The measurement of the relationship between commitment as the outcome variable, which is commitment of the leader to the follower indicates how the leader interacts with the follower and the level of commitment that the follower may have, and that can be influenced by the leader’s actions and behaviours. Table 4.34 presents the simple correlations and multiple regression statistics that exist between the TLQ-PSRV scales and the commitment outcome variable.

**Table 4.34: Significant Associations between TLQ-PSRV Scales and Commitment in Terms of Simple Correlations (r) and Standardised Regression Coefficients (β).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>TLQ-PSRV Scale</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Showing genuine concern</td>
<td>0.85*</td>
<td>0.39*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking and achieving</td>
<td>0.63*</td>
<td>0.12*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>0.82*</td>
<td>0.18*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest and consistent</td>
<td>0.79*</td>
<td>0.14*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accessible</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
<td>0.14*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Correlation, R</td>
<td>0.87*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient of Determination, R²</td>
<td>0.77*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.001, **p<0.01.

Source: Developed for this research from the data.

The multiple correlation coefficient, (0.87) shows that there is a significant, positive and high degree of correlation between the combined scales and the commitment outcome variable. Thus, it would appear that any collective change these scales would affect commitment in a similar way, for example a decrease in one is correlated with a decrease in the other. The adjusted coefficient of determination ($R^2$) indicates that the regression model accounts for 0.77 of the variance in commitment. All standardised regression coefficients (β) are positive with showing genuine concern being considerably larger (0.39) than networking and achieving, enabling, being honest and consistent and being accessible scales. The (β) value of showing genuine concern is statistically significant ($p<0.001$) therefore, being the strongest predictor of commitment, the other scales are also predictors but of a lesser magnitude.
The TLQ-PSRV scales show high simple Pearson correlations with each other, except for, *networking and achieving* (0.63) which demonstrates a lesser correlation. The results from the associations between the scales of the TLQ-PSRV and the commitment outcome variable are illustrated in Figure 4.9.

**Figure 4.9:** Associations as represented by the Standardised Regression Coefficients ($\beta$) and Simple Pearson Correlations ($r$) between the TLQ-PSRV Scales and the Commitment Outcome Variable.

Source: Developed for this research from the data.
4.13. Summary of multiple regression analysis

The multiple regression analysis illustrates that a significant number of the multiple regression measurements have a positive correlation with the outcome variables of achievement, motivation, satisfaction with leadership, stress and commitment. However, the *networking and achievement* transformational leadership scale, being a predictor of the five outcome variables is significantly lower than the other transformational leadership scales numbered one to five. This could suggest that APS employees perceive that networking and achieving is not an activity directly related to transformational leadership, rather a task lesser related to the outcome variables than the other categories.

The coefficient (β) measurements range from strong to non-predictors of the outcome variables, however, most were predictors of the outcome variables except for the *being accessible* scale. Which when related to the outcome variable of achievement produced a significant negative value and demonstrated that the leaders were considered not to be accessible. The conclusion of the multiple regression analysis is that there is a high degree of scale correlation, that is, the transformational leadership behaviour scales are predictors of the outcome variables and that the relationships are statistically related and supported.

4.14. Summary of Chapter four

This Chapter reported the results from the survey including an overall picture of the demographics of the respondents surveyed. From this, descriptive data was analysed and interpreted on a comparative basis between selected APS departments highlighting a range of results. In particular, the relationships between the transformational leadership scales representing leader behaviour and the outcome variables were tested and illustrated. These results are further discussed in Chapter five along with implications and recommendations for the APS.
CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND
IMPLIEDATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

5.1. Introduction

This Chapter presents the findings in relation to the research questions posed in Chapter one and presents conclusions about the survey respondents. The Chapter commences with Section 5.1 the introduction, and moves to the study review in Section 5.2 which, describes the context of the research. Section 5.3 outlines the hypotheses and findings relevant to the literature whilst Section 5.4 details the conclusions of the hypotheses, general conclusions and the recommended changes for the Australian Public Service (APS). Section 5.5 details the implications for the theory emanating from this research and Section 5.6 discusses the implications of this research for policy and practice. Section 5.7 considers the limitations of this research while Section 5.8 provides a list of recommendations for further research and Section 5.9 is the conclusion on how the research’s findings collectively/specifically fit within the APS environment.

5.2. Study review

This research began in Chapter one by determining the nature of the problem to be investigated through the brief overview of the literature available on leadership, the APS environment and the need for transformational leadership within the APS. This research seeks to determine the existence of transformational leadership, and if so, measure its levels within the APS, through three research questions, which have been proposed as follows:

1. do APS leaders display any transformational leadership behaviours; and
2. what leadership behaviours do APS leaders display?

The above research questions have evolved as a result of the APS expressly committing itself to the improvement of leadership through several initiatives highlighted in the 2007-
2008 State of the Service Report. The 2007-2008 State of the Service Report indicates that the APS is aware that improvement in leadership is required, if the APS is to provide benefits to individuals within the APS, and the many organisations and individuals that the APS interacts with.

In Chapter one, the main leadership constructs of classical, transactional and transformational leadership paradigms and style were briefly outlined along with the background and the current APS environment. This enabled a research platform to be established. From the objective and research questions, a number of hypotheses were developed to test unproven propositions in the APS context through a structured research design.

In order to achieve the general objective, the literature available on transformational leadership was reviewed in Chapter two and showed that transformational leadership and its application is well known and widespread in the private sector, however not so in the public sector (White, 2000). It should be noted that there is a growing interest in transformational leadership in both the private and public sectors. The literature review undertaken for this research (Bass, 1985a; Berry & Cartwright, 2000; Cardona, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Avery, 2004) has shown transformational leadership to be associated with improved business and organisational outcomes. Studies conducted by Bass (1985a) Coad & Berry (1998) Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2000, 2001 & 2006) and Charbonneau (2004) have measured and reported the positive effects of transformational leadership in the workplace.

The literature demonstrated the placement of a parent discipline and that leadership, and transformational leadership, are both not mutually exclusive from psychology, sociology, social psychology and organisational behaviour (Simmons, 1999; Robbins et al. 2004; Robbins & Judge, 2006). The literature reviewed, continually highlighted the benefits of transformational leadership and constantly reported that it is a valuable style of leadership providing a range of benefits to individuals, leaders and organisations (Bass, 1985a, 1997; Coad & Berry, 1998; Charbonneau, 2004; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, 2001 & 2006). In other public sectors, such as the United Kingdom, research and literature on
transformational leadership is more readily available (Coad & Berry, 1998; Berry & Cartwright, 2000; White, 2000; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000, 2001 & 2006).

However, there is very little information or literature available on what is happening in relation to transformational leadership in the APS context (Atkinson, 2004). Of the transformational literature reviewed, there were gaps in the understanding and application of transformational leadership within the APS from what has been espoused, and what is actually practiced. Yet, it is unclear as to what the APS may be doing to address the difference. The identified gaps in the literature reviewed in this research form the basis to test the developed hypotheses through research methodology and procedures.

Chapter three provided the setting to select the research approach, determine the most appropriate research methodology, and put in place the required administrative parameters and processes. Given the environment a quantitative methodology was chosen and utilised in this research, as it had been established before in the United Kingdom context, in a similar environment using a survey questionnaire titled the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire Public Sector Research Version (TLQ-PSRV) developed by the Real World Group (RWG). This questionnaire, plus a number of variants of it, has previously been tested for reliability and validity within the United Kingdom public sector (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). The application of the TLQ-PSRV to this research allows for comparisons to be considered in the analysis of the data and also represents the first time that the questionnaire has been used in the APS context.

In Chapter four, this research validated the use of the TLQ-PSRV in the APS context and reported the results. Chapter four confirmed that the transformational leadership scales identified within the TLQ-PSRV by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006) in the United Kingdom study, were constructs in the Australian study, except for the being decisive scale, which could not be identified. The transformational leadership scales identified in this research are as follows:

- showing genuine concern;
- networking and achieving;
- enabling;
- being honest and consistent; and
• being accessible.

Further, the relationships between the above mentioned transformational leadership scales and the five outcome variables representing the common work behaviours of achievement, motivation, satisfaction with leadership, stress and commitment were investigated and the subsequent results reported.

This research concludes with Chapter five discussing the results in relation to the literature and demonstrating how the research’s findings both confirm what is known and extends the knowledge of transformational leadership in the APS context. The findings of this research are illustrated in tabular format at Table 5.1 in the following section.

5.3. Research hypotheses and results

The research questions and hypotheses described and reviewed in Chapters one and two, are now discussed in this section in relation to the results reported in Chapter four. In particular, the results are compared to the available literature and indication is provided as to the contribution of this research, showing where previous research is confirmed and new contributions to knowledge are made.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Findings</th>
<th>Previous knowledge</th>
<th>Contribution to knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>H&lt;sub&gt;1&lt;/sub&gt;</strong> - APS leaders exhibit a high level of transformational leadership behaviours. <strong>This hypothesis is REJECTED</strong></td>
<td>APS does not recognise TL. TL scales low mean values, outcome variable low mean values. TL scales highly correlated, except for networking and achieving. TL and outcome variable scales exhibit high correlations. Limited TL behaviour being exhibited in APS. Limited benefits from TL being experienced in the APS workplace.</td>
<td>Research of Korac-Kakabadse &amp; Korac-Kakabadse (1997) in the APS context. Very little specific APS (TL) literature available. Extensive general TL literature available (Burns, 1978: Bass, 1985a). Extensive number of TL articles from Burns (1978) and Bass (1985a) models and concepts.</td>
<td>Supports the establishment and existence of the level of TL in the APS context by extending current knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt;</strong> - There is a difference in TL behaviours experienced by gender. <strong>This hypothesis is REJECTED</strong></td>
<td>No difference in TL behaviour experienced by gender. Low mean values in TL and outcome variable scales.</td>
<td>Literature comments on differences of leadership related to gender not specific to TL (Wyse &amp; Vilkinas, 2004). Literature perceives gender differences, tested and finds supporting evidence. (Rosener, 1995, 1996)</td>
<td>Refutes previous knowledge in gender differences. Established no gender differences in APS TL context and therefore creates new knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H&lt;sub&gt;3&lt;/sub&gt;</strong> - There is a difference in TL behaviours experienced by executive and non-executive officers. <strong>This hypothesis is SUPPORTED</strong></td>
<td>Difference in TL behaviours experienced. Low mean values of TL scales and outcome variables. Followers perceive that TL is not being practised at the higher levels in APS workplace.</td>
<td>Difference exists in other leadership studies Korac-Kakabadse &amp; Korac-Kakabadse (1997). APS literature identifies differences, State of the Service Reports (2005-2008). Literature identifies generic differences in both private and public sectors, State of the Service Reports (2005-2008) and Sarros &amp; Santora (2001).</td>
<td>This research supports what is known and extends current knowledge in the APS TL context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
<td>Findings</td>
<td>Previous knowledge</td>
<td>Contribution to knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| H₄ - TL levels vary between APS organisations. | • Low overall TL and outcome variable scale mean values for APS.  
• ACMA higher TL than DVA and other APS.  
• ACMA higher level of outcomes variables than DVA and other APS. | • No previous study in APS TL context. | This research establishes TL differences between APS organisations. Creates new knowledge in APS TL context. |
| This hypothesis is SUPPORTED | | | |
| H₅ - TL behaviours in the APS are similar to other public sectors, regardless of location. | • Low APS mean values.  
• Overall APS significantly lower mean values than United Kingdom. | • 1997 research results of Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) in other countries and the APS.  
• Research findings for United Kingdom public sector (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). | This research establishes TL differences between APS and other locations. Creates new knowledge in the APS TL context. |
| This hypothesis is SUPPORTED | | | |
| H₆ - Achievement in the workplace is related to TL leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders. | • All TL scales positively correlated to outcome variable scale of achievement.  
• TL scales supported as predictors of the achievement outcome variable in APS context.  
• Showing genuine concern and enabling are the highest two TL scale predictors of achievement.  
• Being honest and consistent and networking and achieving scales secondary positive predictors.  
• Being accessible scale a negative predictor of achievement. | • TL scales positively correlated to each other, networking and achieving being of a lower correlation (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001).  
• TL scale predictor of achievement supported in UK public sector results (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006).  
• Previous research in public and private sectors establishes correlation of TL scales to be predictors of outcome variables in TLQ-PSRV and other versions of this questionnaire (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe 2006; Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2007). | Supports UK findings. Not tested in APS context before and creates new knowledge in the APS TL context. |
Table 5.1: Research questions hypotheses and outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Findings</th>
<th>Previous knowledge</th>
<th>Contribution to knowledge</th>
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</table>
| $H_7$: Motivation in the workplace is related to TL leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders. | • All TL scales positively correlated to outcome variable scale of motivation.  
• TL scales supported as predictors of the motivation outcome variable in APS context.  
• Showing genuine concern and enabling are the highest two TL scale predictors of motivation in the workplace.  
• Being honest and consistent, being accessible and networking and achieving scales secondary positive predictors. | • TL scales positively correlated to each other, networking and achieving being of a lower correlation (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001).  
• TL scale predictor of motivation supported in UK public sector results (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006).  
• Previous research in public and private sectors establishes correlation of TL scales to be predictors of outcome variables in TLQ-PSRV and other versions of this questionnaire (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe 2006; Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2007). | Supports UK findings. Not tested in APS context before and creates new knowledge in the APS, TL context.                                                                 |
| $H_8$: Satisfaction with leadership in the workplace is related to TL leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders. | • All TL scales positively correlated to outcome variable scale of satisfaction with leadership.  
• TL scales supported as predictors of the satisfaction with leadership outcome variable in APS context.  
• Showing genuine concern and being honest and consistent, are the highest two TL scale predictors of satisfaction with leadership.  
• Enabling, being accessible and networking and achieving scales secondary positive predictors. | • TL scales positively correlated to each other, networking and achieving being of a correlation lower (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001).  
• TL scale predictor of satisfaction with leadership supported in UK public sector results (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006).  
• Previous research in public and private sectors establishes correlation of TL scales to be predictors of outcome variables in TLQ-PSRV and other versions of this questionnaire (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe 2006; Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2007). | Supports UK findings. Not tested in APS context before and creates new knowledge in the APS, TL context.                                                                 |
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Findings</th>
<th>Previous knowledge</th>
<th>Contribution to knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$H_{9^*}$ Stress in the workplace is related to TL leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders.</td>
<td>All TL scales positively correlated to outcome variable scale of stress.</td>
<td>TL scales positively correlated to each other, <em>networking and achieving</em> being of a lower correlation (Alimo-Metcalfe &amp; Alban-Metcalfe, 2001).</td>
<td>Supports UK findings. Not tested in APS context before and creates new knowledge in the APS, TL context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hypothesis is SUPPORTED</td>
<td>TL scales supported as predictors of the stress outcome variable in APS context.</td>
<td>TL scale predictor of stress supported in UK public sector results (Alimo-Metcalfe &amp; Alban-Metcalfe, 2006).</td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>Showing genuine concern</em> and being <em>honest and consistent</em> are the highest two TL scale predictors of the effect of stress.</td>
<td>Previous research in public and private sectors establishes correlation of TL scales to be predictors of outcome variables in TLQ-PSRV and other versions of this questionnaire (Alimo-Metcalfe &amp; Alban-Metcalfe 2006; Alban-Metcalfe &amp; Alimo-Metcalfe, 2007).</td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>Enabling, being accessible and networking and achieving</em> scales secondary positive predictors.</td>
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<tr>
<td>$H_{10^*}$ Commitment in the workplace is related to TL leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders.</td>
<td>All TL scales positively correlated to outcome variable scale of commitment.</td>
<td>TL scales positively correlated to each other, <em>networking and achieving</em> being of a lower correlation (Alimo-Metcalfe &amp; Alban-Metcalfe, 2001).</td>
<td>Supports UK findings. Not tested in APS context before and adds to new knowledge in the APS, TL context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hypothesis is SUPPORTED</td>
<td>TL scales supported as predictors of the commitment outcome variable in APS context.</td>
<td>TL scale predictor of commitment supported in UK public sector results (Alimo-Metcalfe &amp; Alban-Metcalfe, 2006).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Showing genuine concern</em> is the highest TL scale predictor of commitment in the workplace. <em>Being honest and consistent, enabling, being accessible and networking and achieving</em> scales secondary positive predictors.</td>
<td>Previous research in public and private sectors establishes correlation of TL scales to be predictors of outcome variables in TLQ-PSRV and other versions of this questionnaire (Alimo-Metcalfe &amp; Alban-Metcalfe 2006; Alban-Metcalfe &amp; Alimo-Metcalfe, 2007).</td>
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Source: Developed from the data collected for this research.

The above hypotheses and findings in Table 5.1 are discussed in relation to the implications and literature in Section 5.4.
5.4. Conclusion about the hypotheses

This section reports each of the ten hypotheses and indicates how the results may be affecting those in the APS. Further, it looks to provide understanding as to the implications and the resolutions appropriate to those findings.

**H$_1$ - APS leaders exhibit a high level of transformational leadership behaviours**

The results indicate that transformational leadership behaviours are sporadic, and at a low level in the APS. As a result, and in consideration of, the near to mid point rating of the transformational leadership behaviours, it is clear that there is no high level of transformational leadership being exhibited in the APS and this hypothesis is rejected. This finding extends the current knowledge (Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse’s, 1997) through an updated outcome.

For the APS, this result can be considered problematic for several reasons. The research conducted in 1997 (Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse) indicated the absence of appropriate leadership within the APS. Further, the State of the Service Reports (2005–2008) have said there is a need for leadership which inspires people and provides direction as an imperative in these changing times. With very few proactive transformational leadership behaviours being demonstrated, it is time the APS considers what would be required to make the changes to leadership, and how those changes could be implemented to improve the current situation.

The concern for the APS is that with leaders not exhibiting transformational leadership behaviour, the leadership cadre is not equipped to address the challenges (White, 2000). The impact of this is a negative effect in the workplace as measured by the outcome variables. The problems are continual, and clearly the followers are dissatisfied with the leadership behaviours displayed by the leaders. This dissatisfaction is impacting negatively on everyday work behaviours and outcomes. The failure of the APS to change leadership direction has resulted in constraints being enshrined into practice (Hales, 2002). This is not surprising as White (2000) and Hales (2002) highlighted that the control and rules in public sectors, herds followers to be micro managed causing inefficiencies, frustration and greater powerlessness. Another concern is that the
required development of senior leaders as noted by Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) and Wyse & Vilkinas (2004) proceeds unfulfilled, causing the APS to fall behind the changes required in leadership to meet the turbulent future (Atkinson, 2004).

The APS must now acknowledge that leadership development is not working in relationship to recruitment, and that it could be inadequate, or misaligned to the environment. Further, the possibility that the recruitment process is ineffective in finding leaders who are equipped to address the challenges and environment must be considered. Given this, unless something changes the APS will continue to be lead in the same manner as before, and, therefore, will be producing less than optimal results from leadership practices.

The APS problem with leadership may be caused by the APS leadership vision not being clearly articulated and defined. For example, there is no mention of which leadership paradigm the APS seeks as its target in any of the literature reviewed, and there is little distinction between management and leadership (State of the Service Report, 2005-2006). Also in light of the results, it is clear there are few or no role models on which to base the desired leadership style. Once the APS has articulated the vision, set the leadership style, facilitated a focused training program, rewritten policy and procedures and introduced a role model/s, then perhaps leadership effectiveness will increase, resulting in improved outcomes and leader acceptance by the large contingent of followers. This should, in turn, provide the improvement in leadership capabilities and outcomes in the workplace.

The APS must now address the notable gap between the desired and achieved leadership behaviours by its leaders. Otherwise it has to admit that change will not occur and spend its energies harnessing the human resources in the absence of what may be considered effective leadership. It also can also be concluded that the human resources used in achieving APS outcomes are not being utilised to capacity, resulting in a less than adequate return on investment for the stakeholder, the Australian public.
H₂ - There is a difference in transformational leadership behaviours experienced by gender.

As there were no statistically significant differences in transformational leadership behaviours experienced by females and males, H₂ is rejected, which indicates that both females and males have the same perception of leadership. Other research (Rosener, 1995, 1996; Bass et al. 1996; Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998) established that female and male leaders do display different managerial and leadership behaviour, whereas female managers believed that they are more innovative and better at getting the tasks completed than their male counterparts. However, Wyse & Vilkinas (2004) supports the finding of this hypothesis, where it was found that female and male, APS executives, had similar perceptions of leadership roles. This is important because it demonstrates that leadership in the APS is experienced without discourse to gender. Therefore, it would appear that neither sex has an advantage over the other in leadership and outcomes in the workplace that may skew results. It is also interesting to note there are more APS male executives than females, which perhaps means that the male specific traits are being practiced more widely.

There are further implications for this result as it suggests that equal opportunity and equality of experiences in the APS is occurring. However, in consideration of the previous hypothesis, where low levels of transformational leadership are experienced if at all, it clearly indicates that men and women are behaving similarly. This is a downside, because it suggests that women have adopted the same approach to leadership as men, rather than the more positive aspects of leadership such as displaying more intuitive, empathetic and interactive behaviours (Van der Boon, 2003). This finding has now lead to a problem in that, gender neutrality in the APS, has lead to less desirable traits of leadership behaviour being displayed in the APS.

H₃ - There is a difference in transformational leadership behaviours experienced by executive and non-executive officers.

The results indicate that in comparison to executive officers, non-executive officers have a higher level of dissatisfaction with the leadership behaviours displayed by APS leaders, and that this dissatisfaction is impacting negatively on the everyday work behaviours and outcomes of the non-executive staff, therefore, H₃ is supported. This is a
problem for the APS as the low levels of perceived leadership behaviour are now producing low outcomes in the workplace.

From this finding, it appears that these leaders may have been victims of the hierarchal structure, or the constraints imposed by regulation and the workplace environment (Hales, 2002) as discussed in Chapters one and two. Another consideration is that they may have been victims of the classical and transactional leadership paradigms inflicted by APS leaders, who have themselves failed to move with the times to more appropriate and innovative leadership styles. Through this action the APS leaders have ensured that the non-executive officers’ perception of leadership remains embedded in the old leadership paradigms that have now been demonstrated as ineffective in today’s business environment (Bass, 1985a; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Robbins et al. 2004; Tsai et al. 2009).

A possible explanation for the result is that executive officers work closer to their leaders and, may, by that situation, perceive leadership to be better than it actually is. Another possible explanation is that executive officers situated by the hierarchal structure of the APS are afforded more information, confidentiality and are frequently exposed to senior leaders. Given these factors, and the executive officer’s position of influence within the workplace, it is likely that the executive officers feel that the leadership they experience is more effective. The executive officers may also accept the leadership style and the outcomes that go with it. This could be the result of them knowing little different, or being trapped by the hierarchal structure where expectations and leadership delivery may be experienced differently throughout the APS levels. In opposite, the non-executive officers feel disenfranchised by the leader’s distance to themselves (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006).

From the observations above, it appears that the more senior the APS officer is, the more accepting of the environment and the associated leadership style they are. There is also the possibility that APS leaders who have reached the higher levels may think that they do not have to use their interpersonal skills to be an effective leader. If this is the case, then the APS leaders have not changed leadership styles in line with more recent research and thinking (Avery, 2004) and may be still entrenched in the classical
paradigm completely unaware of the possibilities of a newer style of leadership. The effect of this, and worse still, is the view that their leadership style fits all situations.

The concern for the APS is that a high number of non-executive employees indicate that their leaders do not exhibit transformational leadership. While this position is supported by Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) who found the same situation existed some 12 years ago, the concern is the lack of change during this time. Therefore, nothing has changed in the relationship distance between the executive and non-executive officers since then. This outcome clearly indicates that the leadership direction, recruitment and training of leaders has not changed, and now needs to change as nothing advantageous has happen for the APS, leaders and followers from the current framework. The finding also indicates a continuance of the ineffective leadership that was discovered in 1997, or that if any change has been implemented, then they, the leaders, have failed to make a difference, or possibly that the APS has ignored the advice and continued with more of the same.

However, what is more disturbing for the APS is that Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse’s (1997) study was based on the senior leaders of the APS. Whereas this research has collected the perception of APS respondents from all levels, what this means is that ineffective and under performing leadership in the APS is widespread. This is a significant failing by the APS to bridge the gap, between the executive and non-executive officers and has assisted the non-executive officers in maintaining a negative view of leadership. The non-executive officers have been trapped into a negative cycle of their needs being neglected and in turn have transferred the negativity to the level of outcome within the workplace. This is further discussed in relation to H_6 through to H_{10} later in this Chapter.

In consideration, the APS now needs to critically evaluate its hierarchal structure and workplace in relation to leadership to determine if the hierarchal structure or leadership are preventing the APS from delivering effective leadership. The APS needs to do this now to arrest the decline in the relationship and workplace outcomes between the executive and non-executive officers. The APS also needs to implement an appropriate structure to facilitate the delivery of a new leadership paradigm and style such as
transformational leadership, which will provide the non-executive officers what they are looking for, through increased inspiration, motivation and intellectual stimulation.

**H₄ - Transformational leadership levels vary between APS organisations.**

The results of this research found that there were significant statistical differences between three APS organisations, therefore, H₄ is supported. This study divided the participants into three groups, those from the Australian Communications & Media Authority (ACMA) the Department of Veterans Affairs (DVA) and other APS departments. The reason for the selection of the ACMA, DVA and a collection of other APS was to enable comparative analysis between two departments and general groups, thus, making it possible to determine if differences existed in the transformational leadership perspective. The analysis of any difference is important, as it indicates that a range of transformational leadership behaviour has been found, with some segments being lower or higher than others.

This research found that transformational leadership is practised in the ACMA, while the DVA and the other APS were more neutral. Given this difference, the question is raised as to whether the difference is based upon an understanding of what was being measured or an actual difference in experience. The reasons for the differences are not apparent, and may be due to the ACMA’s leaders engaging in transformational leadership, or it may stem from a higher level of respect that the followers have for the ACMA’s leaders. The difference may have arisen from the ACMA having a more collegiate workforce, collaborative environment, fewer constraints, a more exciting work environment or better people management, which are all factors that are found in and around the transformational leadership dimensions (Sarros & Santora, 2001). Unfortunately it is not clear what specific, or group of causes produced the ACMA’s higher results. It is clear that the ACMA can still improve its leadership behaviour to drive a higher level of outcome, and that the DVA and the other APS face a significant amount of change to improve their leadership behaviours. The DVA and the other APS need to undertake aggressive changes in the direction and implementation of leadership, and make those changes now, if they don’t, they will fail to attract and retain the right people, leaving their organisations floundering in ineffective leadership and lower outcome delivery.
A significant factor of this research is that all three segments; the ACMA, DVA and other APS scored a low mean value for the transformational leadership scale of *being accessible*, which has been a common theme in all the results of this research to date. The discovery of the accessibility problem now suggests that there may be an underlying issue, possibly structural due, to the consistency of the results. This is further highlighted by the ACMA’s results, where the ACMA is practising transformational leadership to a degree, but the *being accessible* scale results are significantly lower than the other transformational leadership scales measured, and while these are similar to the DVA and the other APS, the result suggests that the *being accessible* scale continues to be viewed as a major concern in the ACMA, contrary to the level of transformational leadership being practiced.

A possible explanation is that the followers perceive that the hierarchal structure of the APS limits or prohibits communication and engagement through the position levels within the APS. This perception may render the executive levels inaccessible and unapproachable in the view of the non-executive officers, and may be a contributor to the difference in perception in H₃. It is not clear that the hierarchal structure is an inhibitor in leadership behaviour, however, it is worthy of consideration for future study, noting that this problem has existed for sometime and the APS inclusive of the ACMA, DVA and the other APS have done little if anything to address the situation. Therefore, leadership continues in the same perpetual downward spiral of a lower level of leadership being experienced, driving down outcomes caused by its own ineffectiveness. The DVA and the other APS in particular need to change this, and change it now to become an employer of choice and lift the delivery of outcomes.

The current APS leadership in the ACMA, DVA and other APS as determined by this research will not be able to attract talent to their organisations by remaining inaccessible and not approachable. The employees of today are demanding attention, loyalty, challenging and stimulating occupations, where the interactions, dependencies and social relationships between followers and leaders are more explicit, open and transparent, these dependencies and actions are described in Chapter two as being inclusive within the transformational leadership dimensions. Whereas the DVA and
other APS, and to a much lesser degree the ACMA, appear to be offering a classical leadership paradigm laced with leader remoteness, and therefore, more of the ineffective leadership. This is clearly an opposite to the expectations of what the talent in the form of generations X and Y demand from leaders in *being accessible* and approachable (Robbins & Judge, 2007). The ACMA, DVA and the other APS in addition to the whole of the APS must now change this aspect, firstly by determining the cause of its leaders not *being accessible*, and then correct the cause, whether it is through recruitment or structural change.

**H₅ - Transformational leadership behaviours in the APS are similar to other public sectors, regardless of location.**

The results indicate that the existence of transformational leadership within the APS is, on the whole, lower than the United Kingdom public sector (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006) thus demonstrating a significantly statistical difference between the two jurisdictions and therefore, H₅ is rejected.

However, the ACMA’s mean scale results, apart from the *being accessible* scale, are equivalent to those as reported for the United Kingdom public sector by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2006). This means that different locations can experience similar transformational leadership behaviours, noting that the Australian and the United Kingdom composition of business and workplace structures are not too dissimilar.

Researchers and knowledge seekers need to be aware that the differences between locations, such as culture, history, political, economic and social situations and influences could affect the comparativeness of their research findings and understandings. In consideration Hofstede (1980, in Robbins & Judge, 2007, p. 126) created a cultural dimension scale which indicates that the Australian society seeks to avoid uncertainty and ambiguity more so than the United Kingdom. Therefore, the United Kingdom results may be affected by that culture being more tolerant of circumstances, this may be an explanation for the difference, however it is unclear as to the precise difference, or it could be, from the way that people behaved.
Given there is a difference between the two societies and the way both societies work through business and culture, there is the possibility there will be a difference in results caused by other location factors. For example the United Kingdom works through a class system (Meacher, 2008) and Australia does not, also the United Kingdom public sector is classed as a civil service and the APS as a public service. The difference between civil and public service is that civil servants are protected from being used as political advantage. The civil service in the United Kingdom is also inclusive of the devolved administrations of Wales and Scotland, and also that the United Kingdom Civil Service does not include a range of government officials, such as the defence segment.

The United Kingdom Civil Service is also split into three distinct categories such as the Civil Service, the Northern Ireland Civil Service and Her Majesty’s Diplomatic Service (Her Majesty’s Civil Service, 2009) all having separate histories and cultures, whereas the APS is, in the main one collective public service. Therefore, it is possible that the results, by measuring two different cultures and environments may be skewed as the macro/micro considerations may not be equal in some capacities. The literature reviewed by Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) highlights that the communication and leadership behaviour of the APS leaders, from an employee perspective was the lowest recorded from five participating countries. The finding for this hypothesis supports the above observation, that different cultures and environments may have an effect on the results and it is very difficult to have exact comparisons for these very reasons.

To understand why the differences in transformational leadership behaviour between the United Kingdom and Australia exist, the APS should evaluate the causes, inclusive of cultural and environmental considerations. There may be a range of leadership activities being conducted in the United Kingdom that could be of benefit and consideration for implementation in the APS.
**H₆ - Achievement in the workplace is related to transformational leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders.**

Achievement is related to all the transformational leadership scales, therefore, H₆ is supported. Particularly important within this result is the variance of the behaviours exhibited, which leads employees to feeling that they could achieve more, or that, because of the leader’s behaviour, they are unlikely to achieve.

In understanding the outcome of achievement, it is important to understand the relationship of the stated behaviours to achievement. The transformational leadership scale of *showing genuine concern* is a strong predictor of achievement, while the *being accessible* scale is negatively related. Therefore, it is important to consider the leader’s effort in, and how these behaviours are reducing effectiveness as a result. The results show that APS leaders have demonstrated that they are both ineffective and unaware of the effect that their leadership is having on achievement in the workplace.

The literature review highlights leader behaviours which are encompassed by the transformational leadership dimensions of individualised consideration, treating the individuals as contributors and inspirational motivation, raising the follower’s consciousness, which Avery (2004) endorses as the ideal leadership style for transforming an organisation. Therefore, if the APS leaders increase their leadership behaviours, the sense of achievement in the workplace will rise, thus benefiting the leader, follower and the organisation (Avery, 2004). Followers also require leaders to coach, mentor and reward them, to be respected and provide the social interaction through interdependencies, relationships and jointly share the workplace in pursuit of objectives (Simmons, 1999). These results indicate the APS leaders are failing to do this.

The result for the *being accessible* scale in relation to achievement is an alarming and a significant issue for the APS to deal with. The leaders, by not *being accessible*, are not engaging or communicating with the followers and, by default, are not selling the vision (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). This is a basic concept of what leaders should be doing, and is non-existent in the APS in the context of the follower’s perception of achievement within the workplace as determined by this research, this outcome has serious and major implications for the APS. With the APS leaders not
**being accessible**, it means that people may not be able to gain information freely, nor have appropriate sounding boards. More importantly, the lack of access to one’s leader or leadership in general may result in the ‘army’ not understanding or delivering on the leader’s intent.

This problem may be resolved in a number of ways such as recruitment, or training or even performance management techniques such as goal setting or Key Performance Indicators, but it is clear that previous attempts to address the leadership problem have failed. Considering the results and the impact upon achievement, this provides further evidence of the drastic need for something to be changed.

**H7 - Motivation in the workplace is related to transformational leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders.**

Motivation is related to all the transformational leadership scales, therefore, H7 is supported. The result demonstrates some positive scales, whilst others are not so positive, for example the transformational leadership scales of **showing genuine concern, enabling and being honest and consistent** are predictors of motivation, while the networking and achieving and the being accessible scales are not predictors of motivation in this research. It is therefore, a key factor that the leader’s effort in leadership is considered in the context of motivation.

While the lack of accessibility is already noted to be affecting the achievement of outcomes, it is important to consider that its impact upon motivation increases the need for the leaders to change. If leaders do not change it is likely that the followers will become less motivated, disenchanted, lose interest in their work and lower the outcomes of the organisation. This situation then manifests itself into under performance, resulting in a lower than an acceptable outcome, and eventually results in a significant amount of time and unproductive resource to rectify the situation. Therefore, it is far simpler for the leader to invest in the follower to achieve motivation through partnering, the outcomes inclusive of social dependencies and psychological preferences (Simmons, 1999).

However, this is the APS’s dilemma, in that the leaders appear not to be aware of their obligation to increase motivation within the workplace by stimulating the followers.
Which indicates the leaders may not have the capacity, or may not understand the intricacies of what motivates the follower to achieve increased motivation and a higher level of outcome. The APS leaders need to increase all their transformational leadership behaviours, more particularly, networking and achieving and being accessible to improve motivation within the workplace and become more effective leaders.

A serious implication of reduced motivation in the APS workplace, is that the APS will fail to attract the best individuals in the ‘war for talent’ that is the global phenomena of today. Generations X, Y and nexters are looking to be inspired, influenced, stimulated and motivated by their leaders and work (Robbins & Judge, 2007). The new generations demands are dimensions of the transformational leadership style as described and detailed in Chapter two, therefore, it is critical to address this as discussed in H₆.

The current situation in the APS is considerably less accommodating for the x, y and nexters as demonstrated by this finding, and results in the APS recruiting more of the same, producing more of the same leaders, and again ensuring that nothing will change in APS leadership. The APS now needs to break this cycle, seize opportunities and reach out, secure the talent through intellectual stimulation, another dimension of the transformational leadership style (Avery, 2004).

**H₈ - Satisfaction with leadership in the workplace is related to transformational leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders.**

The transformational leadership scale of showing genuine concern is a strong predictor of satisfaction with leadership and the being honest and consistent scale, to a lesser extent, is also a predictor. The other scales of enabling, networking and achieving and being accessible are not predictors of satisfaction with leadership, however, that does not mean that these scales cannot be predictors, just that in this research, through the perspective of the followers they were determined not to be predictors. Therefore, satisfaction with leadership is related to the transformational leadership scales and H₈ is supported.

From this finding it is clear that APS leaders, to increase satisfaction with leadership, have to increase communication of the vision, provide their followers with more trust and development, and be accessible. The accessibility issue is again raised in the
context of this hypothesis and is of a major concern for the APS. The continual failing by the APS leaders to be accessible highlights that this is the major issue facing the APS, and that this is having a detrimental effect on the followers and the whole of the APS through outcomes in the workplace. In H3 the discussion on accessibility centred around the possibility that accessibility to leaders could be a structural issue caused by the hierarchal structure of the APS in the number of levels and disparate leadership connotations. What is clear is that the problem is evident in every aspect of this research, and is either structural or possibly the culmination of poor leadership over a very long period, whatever the cause is the APS needs to address it and do that now. The APS through the Secretary of the Prime Minister and Cabinet Department has recently announced a ‘One APS’ (Burgess, 2009) vision. It will be interesting to see how the issue of leadership is approached through this new direction, and that it may be a catalyst for the much required change in APS leadership.

The APS leaders need to be aware that their failure to elicit satisfaction with leadership reflects solely upon their own inactiveness, unawareness and capacity to actually lead, and is not caused by the followers. This hypothesis shows that APS leadership has failed to provide satisfaction to the followers, and that these leaders, and their leaders, appear to blissfully unaware that this is a tragedy of leader unconscious incompetence, as highlighted by the literature review (Maslow, 1970) and continues to be in progress. Given the results of H6 and H7 it is clear that the followers are not only lacking in their feelings of achievement and motivation, but also that their general satisfaction is low. This may lead to people seeking employment elsewhere which in turn increases overheads and reduces productivity as noted by Forster (2005).

H9 - Stress in the workplace is related to transformational leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders.

It is important to understand the relationship that the leadership behaviours have to stress. The transformational leadership scales of showing genuine concern, enabling and being honest and consistent are predictors of stress, whilst the scales of networking and achieving and being accessible are lesser positive predictors of stress. Stress is related to all the transformational leadership scales, and, therefore, H9 is supported.
These results clearly indicate that the level of transformational leadership behaviour displayed by the APS leaders is not reducing stress in the workplace. The APS leaders need to be aware of and understand that their behaviour or inability to provide effective leadership frustrates followers and may lead to increased stress in the workplace (Simmons, 1999). Another factor for consideration, are interpersonal demands that leaders impose on followers, these demands by themselves are a potential source for increased stress in the workplace. This may cause physiological consequences such as high blood pressure, psychological symptoms such as anxiety or depression and behavioural symptoms such as productivity, absenteeism, procrastination and turnover of staff (Robbins & Judge, 2007). All these factors and consequences are part of the organisational environment of which the leader is an important centrepiece and are affected by leadership behaviour (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

The implication of additional stress in the workplace and its ability to impact through worker’s compensation claims and on general staff well being, and overall mental health is a significant impost. The evidence indicates that the opposite can be found in transformational leadership, as active and effective leaders engage followers in positive conditions and emotional contagion to enhance task performance (Tsai et al. 2009) and at the same time reduce frustration and stress.

H10 - Commitment with leadership in the workplace is related to transformational leadership behaviour displayed by APS leaders.

The transformational leadership scale of showing genuine concern is a predictor of commitment. Whilst the other four scales are positive, they are of a secondary influence in the workplace, showing that APS leaders have demonstrated that they exhibit lower than adequate leadership behaviour, to support and enhance commitment in the workplace. Commitment is related to all the transformational leadership scales, therefore, H10 is supported.

The implication for this hypothesis is that the followers have a low level of commitment to the leader and the organisation. This is likely to cause a lower level of loyalty, dedication and desire for the job, tasks and objectives of their leaders and organisation. For any organisation to have a low level of commitment is disastrous as the literature in
Chapter two details through Cardona (2000) that followers want to identify and commit, Robbins et al. (2004) also articulates that selling the vision energises and influences followers to improve commitment. In addition, the literature review through Simmons (1999) and Storr (2004) conclude that behavioural integrity, as a foundation construct of transformational leadership is pivotal to ensuring commitment within the workplace is achieved between the leaders and the followers. Without these factors being present, commitment from the followers will be low, and remain low until the leaders and their behaviour do something about it.

Given this, the APS leaders have a significant challenge ahead of them to improve commitment in the workplace by demonstrating improved leadership behaviour (Avery, 2004). The APS leader also needs to be aware of the social psychological interactions, the constraints of the environment, the capabilities and capacity of both the followers and the leader to engage, drive and deliver increased commitment from the follower (Simmons, 1999).

5.4.1. General conclusions about the research
Now that the hypotheses, one to ten, have been discussed based on the findings of this research from the survey results, a summary of the main findings and implications are highlighted as follows;

- mean values for the transformational leadership scales are generally low which suggests that based on the cohorts investigated in this study, transformational leadership is generally not practised in the APS, but may exist in individual departments. However, some APS leaders do exhibit transformational leadership behaviours, although these are not widely spread and transformational leadership is not the primary leadership focus;
- that there was no difference in gender perception of leader’s behaviours, however that there was a difference in transformational leadership behaviours as perceived by non-executive and executive officers which could be caused by position and level;
- that there is a difference in APS leadership behaviour across the three segments of the ACMA, DVA and the other APS departments, albeit at low levels and maybe dependent on the culture in individual departments;
the mean values for the transformational leadership scales are lower than those of the United Kingdom, and that may be the Australian participants have responded differently to the survey because of the Australian culture; however there is no evidence that supports this view;

- the transformational leadership scales are all related, moderately to strongly correlated, therefore, it is not possible to be a transformational leader by displaying the leadership behaviour of a few scales, but being accessible is not practiced anywhere. The transformational leadership scales are also highly correlated to the outcome variables and are predictors of workplace behaviours; and

- that from the literature, transformational leadership is a leadership style that can be learnt and deployed in the workplace by leaders and can be implemented in the APS.

As a result of the findings and conclusions the current training or recruitment framework, or both, are clearly not facilitating a visionary leadership style conducive to improved outcomes. Therefore, the APS needs to change, and change its processes and practices now; to implement an effective leadership style to meet the challenges articulated by the literature review (Jones & Kriflik, 2005).

Prior to this research, the existence of transformational leadership in the APS hinged on dated research by Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997). The Australian Public Service Commission as detailed on the Commission’s website, has since discontinued their research, which may indicate that the APS has dismissed or considered the research no longer relevant, the reason for this action is not known. Therefore, this research provides a new perspective as to the non-existence and level of transformational leadership within the APS, adding to the body of knowledge by linking the relationship, of transformational leadership behaviour to workplace outcomes.

5.4.2. Recommendations for the APS

From the literature reviewed in Chapter two, Chapter four results and the conclusions derived in this Chapter, transformational leadership is not occurring in the APS and the literature and policy documents suggest it should be (White, 2000; Kriflik & Jones, 2006). Therefore, the APS needs to undertake a more radical approach to leadership to
enable its delivery of outcomes, and the action needs to be taken now. This will require an extensive evaluation and re-training program for the current leadership in the transformational leadership concept. However, to fail to act upon these findings will leave the APS struggling to provide exciting careers for generations X, Y and nexters and in turn struggling to find appropriate employees within the ‘war for talent’. Whilst a steady job for the baby boomers and echoes (Forster, 2005) was appealing, the new generations demand a much more motivating, participative and showing genuine concern style of leadership than the current leaders of the APS deliver (Tsai et al. 2009). If the APS does not address this situation in the ‘war for talent’, this will render the APS recruiting the second and third tier leaders of the future, and delivering more of the same old ineffective leadership.

For the APS to facilitate transition to the transformational leadership style of the visionary paradigm, a range of changes need to be considered, some of these are as follows:

- actively select leaders that are capable of being transformational leaders through new recruitment processes;
- implement an appropriate leadership training program;
- incorporate transformational leadership measurements assessment and performance management processes;
- provide a real reward and incentive mechanism for active, improved and effective leadership; and
- seek out non-performing leaders, reassign them to their specific strengths or retrain them, or cease the relationship.

Whilst the above listed actions may seem revolutionary, the APS leadership situation is known to be somewhat ineffective (Atkinson, 2004) and this research has further confirmed it requires strong action to transition from the classical/transactional paradigm to a new paradigm that allows leaders to meet the vast array of challenges. To date, the APS has faced its environmental challenges from an efficiency basis and now will have to reconsider this approach if improvement in leadership is to be supported (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002; ER Consultancy, 2007). The current
leadership situation in the APS indicates that the APS has not acknowledged that there is a need to change to an alternative leadership style such as transformational leadership, inclusive of benefits to followers, leaders and organisations both in the public and private sectors (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 1997; White, 2000; Herold et al. 2008). The immediate decision for the APS is to acknowledge that to be able to deliver effective outcomes and address future challenges, the APS can no longer afford to maintain the current leadership paradigm, and that significant changes to leadership structure, style and behaviour are required to be made now.

The challenge for the APS is to actively redesign the recruitment, selection and promotion processes to complement a leadership paradigm and style that concentrates on individual leadership skills, knowledge and attributes enhancing the social psychological aspects of leadership in the workplace. Therefore, contributing to increased participation and outcome as demonstrated in this research (Bass, 1985a; White, 2000; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002). The significant challenge for the APS is to present a reward mechanism that actively incorporates improved and sustainable leadership.

The above suggestions represent some of the possible changes that the APS should address. However, the acknowledgment of the requirement to change will be a significant step forward for the APS, when in consideration of Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse’s (1997) study, and the results of this research, demonstrate that not much has changed in APS leadership in the past 12 years. Therefore, the APS rhetoric on leadership, and the level of leadership change that has been applied within the workplace to date, has not been effective.

5.5. Implications for theory

One possible implication for theory that emanated from this research is that only two transformational leadership constructs of the TLQ-PSRV, those being, showing genuine concern and networking and achieving were identified by the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) methodology, whereas Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe
(2006) reported six. The PCA was implemented, followed by a varimax rotation to identify factor loadings applicable to the constructs of the TLQ-PSRV as described in Chapter four.

This research then investigated inter-item correlations, to determine if a higher level scale structure existed, and found that the missing constructs of enabling, being honest and consistent, and being accessible were related sub-scales. This result may have implications for other research programs using the TLQ-PSRV, noting that the showing genuine concern transformational leadership scale “explains around 60 per cent of the total variance of the TLQ-PSRV” (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006, p. 300) and, therefore, is the dominant construct. Other researchers need to be aware of this discovery and take into consideration the implications.

Another implication is that the usage of any existing questionnaire may well produce different results, and, therefore, could be more negative or positive in context. If another questionnaire was used to measure this survey population, the comparison of results may then be skewed by the nature and phrasing of the questions within that questionnaire. Therefore, with different results being achieved the comparison could provide a high level of doubt as to which outcome is reflective of the population. A further implication is the risk of ambiguity of the transformational leadership behaviour scales over generations. In this context different generations may construe different meanings, for example the showing genuine concern scale for a twenty year old may mean something totally distinct from that of a fifty year old person, and, therefore, the results may be skewed by generation perspectives (Forster, 2005). This consideration may have implications for policy and practice within the APS, which is discussed, in the following section.

5.6. Implications for policy and practice

This study provides information about the follower’s perceptions of their leaders, the individual acceptance of their leader’s behaviours and their attitudes to their leaders’ ability to engage in and demonstrate transformational leadership. The results of this study should be of interest at both the philosophical and practical levels for employees,
leaders, departments, senior government officials and human resource practitioners within the APS.

The major outcomes for employees and leaders are that follower perceptions of the five transformational leadership scales are on the low side of what would be considered reasonable to demonstrate that transformational leadership is being practised. Given that the scale results are low, and that transformational leadership is not being practised, the followers are now possibly partly or fully disengaged, and that this situation will require a significant change in leadership behaviour to reverse it. Considering that transformational leadership is not happening, and that the leaders are failing to inspire and motivate the followers, this requires immediate attention and correction if policies and practices are to enable the APS to deliver outcomes.

The results from hypotheses H$_6$ to H$_{10}$ established that transformational leadership behaviour is linked, through cause and effect to the five specific outcome variables of achievement, motivation, satisfaction with leadership, stress and commitment in the workplace. From the results, APS leaders do not consistently exhibit a range of acceptable leadership behaviour and practices. That is, their measured performance in this research contends there is vast room for improvement.

The low results also clearly indicate, it is now time for the APS to consider transformational leadership, and its implementation, which will provide the sector with ongoing morale and fiscal benefits, as has been experienced in the private sector (Sarros & Santora, 2001). Current leaders need to be prepared to listen to their follower’s perceptions and modify their style of leadership if they want leadership to improve. If they continue to lead as they currently do, their inability to effect change will result in the APS experiencing leadership as it currently is, at a low level.

The hypotheses H$_6$ to H$_{10}$ measuring the five outcome variables mentioned above have identified several areas where the shortfalls in leadership practices affecting the outcomes in the workplace have effect. The low level of achievement, motivation and satisfaction with leadership, stress and motivation is of significant concern to the integrity and management creditability of the APS, as leaders are performing badly in a
capacity that is their sole reason for existence. This under achievement in leadership practices needs to be addressed through the solutions proposed in this Chapter.

The implications are that follower achievement, motivation and satisfaction with leadership continues to decline through being unable to communicate and access their leaders (Bass, 1985a; Sarros & Santora, 2001) from which followers will develop a sense of not belonging or being considered a valuable attribute (Cardona, 2000). Further implications could arise where the proliferation and continuation of the perceived leadership skill gap hinders service delivery, efficiency and effective usage of resources and the followers have limited capacity to participate in the leadership partnership and become further isolated.

From this, the followers will be less motivated and committed, which will produce higher levels of de-motivation, under achievement and lower levels of commitment, less satisfaction with leadership and more stress in the workplace, all because of poor leadership. The simple solution is to measure leaders through their interactions such as accessibility and showing genuine concern as part of a broader change program.

Leaders need to be very aware that to transition the leadership framework to meet the new challenges, will require higher levels of skills and knowledge to enable leadership practices to be more effective and progressive. This recognition will require significant fortitude and resilience to redesign the workplace to solicit and engage transformational leaders, in addition to providing potential transformational leaders with a modern, flexible employment structure, affording the leaders a model from which they are able to engage followers.

The findings of this research indicate that the APS follower perceptions of their leader’s transformational leadership behaviours are at best, low. This result confirms a view expressed by Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse (1997) who found a similar trend in their study of APS leadership. It appears that APS decision-makers are unaware of the benefits of transformational leadership, and that the engagement of transformational leadership provides a more enlightened workplace environment for all participants (Sarros & Santora, 2000). On the other hand, if they are aware, then there has been a lack of public acknowledgment, and it does not appear that programs have
been initiated to make department leaders aware of actions that are required to embed transformational leadership in the workplace.

A significant aspect of this research, was that of the executive level officers (302) who participated in this research, only two, representing less than half of one percent of the total survey population, requested and encouraged their employees to participate in the survey. The two executive officers were intent on having their leadership behaviour examined by their followers to ascertain where they were perceived to be in transformational leadership aspects. This result clearly indicates that, overall, APS leaders are not forward thinking in seizing and facilitating opportunities, even for their own knowledge and standing, and, therefore, suggesting that they may have a view of ignorance or arrogance as a defence. The results however indicate that ignorance is not ‘bliss’.

The final implication is that the knowledge generated by this research has determined that something has to be done with leadership in the APS now. If its not now, its when, and what will it take for the APS to change leadership direction, for instance to benchmark leadership with other public sectors, study what other organisations do, and introduce a leadership model that is sustainable and delivers higher outcomes than those found in this research. If the APS fails to undertake this significant step in leadership advancement and practice, then there will be more of the same. The APS has not taken advantage of the opportunity it had some 12 years ago when some similar findings were unveiled, and, therefore, should stop the rhetoric now, and take action to stem the tide, and address the problem now.

5.7. Study limitations

In any research endeavour there will be limitation to the research, this research undertaking is no different and the following limitations were observed.

A limitation in this study, was that it was restricted to samples within two government departments and a cross sample of employees from a wide spectrum of other APS departments. Additional insights may have been possible if there had been a larger number of departments engaged, allowing greater comparative analysis to be
conducted and further differences to be assessed. A further limitation to this research and research in general is that surveys usually attract those who are either passionate and with an interest in the subject, or those that may have an ‘axe to grind’. Therefore, the survey may be restricted to these particular segments within the population and that this may not be ideal.

The survey was advertised in ACMA and supported in the DVA, however, neither the Secretary of the Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet, nor the Public Service Commissioner were willing to publicly endorse the survey. This would have made the process of gaining endorsement from other departments easier and quicker, and may have encouraged a larger number of respondent groups.

There is little existing substantiative data addressing the existence of transformational leadership within the APS, and this research has little, if any Australian comparative data to assess differences. Therefore, there may have been a large number of possible respondents who had no knowledge or little understanding of transformational leadership, and this may have prevented them from having an interest in the survey. It is not considered that these limitations impacted substantially on this research.

5.8. Recommendations for further research

Overall this research has responded to some questions; left others partially answered and identified a number of additional areas of research, which would be useful to address. Recommendations for additional research include:

- extending the concept of this study to a larger and more segmented population of APS employees and departments in order to confirm the trends identified in this research;
- further investigate the transformational leadership scales identified in this study as drivers for change in leadership behaviours;
- consider investigating the APS’s internal structure and its capacity to facilitate transformational change;
• consider conducting a longitudinal study to enable repeated observations of the same phenomenon over longer periods of time to encapsulate trends, generations and events that may affect results enabling comparative analysis;
• implement research before leadership training and after to gauge the effectiveness of leadership training and changes in leadership perceptions; and
• investigate a real and effective training program that not only meets today’s leadership needs but also encompasses the future visionary requirements.

There are other trails for further research, but the ones identified above would appear to be a good follow-on and addition to the study completed in this research.

5.9. Conclusion

This study set out to determine whether transformational leadership existed in the APS, and if so, to what extent. The APS, employee’s perceptions of their leaders were surveyed via a quantitative research methodology utilising the TLQ-PSRV as the survey instrument, which resulted in a sample of 792 APS employees participating across a range of positions from APS one to the SES level. The survey population consisted of 368 APS employees from two specific departments and 424 from other departments. The findings painted a rather dismal picture of employee’s perceptions of their leaders in the transformational leadership construct. The perceptions of leaders’ behaviour were uniformly low across most of the transformational leadership scales and associated outcome variables.

The mean scores of the five transformational leadership scales compared to those of the United Kingdom illustrate a distinct difference in the perceptions of the two leadership populations (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). The Australian APS results are statistically significantly lower than that of the United Kingdom surveyed public sector. Therefore, collectively these findings do not support the impressive picture of an integrated leadership structure that is working effectively. Instead, they suggest that the general leadership environment within the APS is static and does not facilitate or espouse the benefits of transformational leadership. However, there are pockets within
the APS that do appear to engage in transformational leadership, but in the main it appears that the APS espouses leadership, but does not readily facilitate the practice.

The senior APS leaders may need to assess this research and consider the significant benefits that transformational leadership has to offer. The benefits of the transformational leadership style are described throughout the literature review in relationship to the torrent of change that APS leaders face. Therefore, APS leaders should consider adopting the transformational leadership aspect of the visionary paradigm, as a solution to leadership issues and use the approach to deliver a higher level of outcomes in conjunction with the followers, to meet stakeholder’s requirements. At present the APS is missing out on the benefits of the transformational leadership style, through increased follower engagement, by not adopting, or at least considering the benefits of transformational leadership. Failure to adopt the transformational leadership paradigm may result in a deterioration of APS human resource management and, therefore, affect outcomes and not deliver on stakeholder’s expectations.

The challenge now for the APS, and now is the time to make the change, is to consider these findings and understand why transformational leadership as a style of the visionary leadership paradigm, is not practised within the APS. The final implication from this study, is that transformational leadership, which has been identified as being a preferred leadership style of the visionary leadership paradigm, is not widely practised in the APS. The APS needs to change its leadership practices and style now if it is to meet the current and future challenges, failure of the APS to do so continues to render the leadership cadre as ineffective and inefficient in meeting stakeholder requirements.
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York.


APPENDIX A

Agency Culture factor items.
The following Table 2.1 is extracted to highlight the disconnect between the follower and collective leaders from the APS State of the Service Report (2006-07, p. 205):

**Table 2.1: Agency culture factor items.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee survey question</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree or disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My agency is a good place to work</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency operates with a high level of integrity</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, employees in my agency effectively manage conflicts of interest</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency has achieved its stated objectives</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency has improved its performance</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency encourages employees to examine what they do and find ways to do it better</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My input is adequately sought and considered decisions that directly affect me</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency encourages the public to participate in shaping and administering policy</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency has earned a high level of public trust</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My work group receives the support and assistance it needs from other areas</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have confidence in the processes that my organisation uses to resolve employee grievances</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel change is managed well</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency involves employees in decisions about their work</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees contribution is valued</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency deals with under performance</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.6: APS Agencies' reported skills gaps for SES and SES feeder group employees, 2006-07.

APPENDIX B

Letters of request and acceptance of the terms and conditions for the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire - Public Sector Research Version survey.
Ms Juliette Alban-Metcalfe  
Director of Research  
Real World Group Limited  
Stewart House  
St Andrew’s Court  
LEEDS LS3 1JY  
UNITED KINGDOM

Dear Juliette  

RE: TLQ Usage

As previously advised I hereby attach a copy of the original terms of agreement for TLQ usage and a copy of the letter of introduction from the University (Southern Cross University require me to keep the original for lodgment with the thesis), on Southern Cross University letterhead signed by the University, my supervisor for the research and myself. In addition I attached a cheque for 50 pounds in consideration of the data exchange deposit.

This research is a first for the Australian Public Sector and in my belief is a catalyst for an exciting range of additional research to follow in this segment of the workplace environment.

I am very grateful for being granted access to the TLQ and will ensure the terms and conditions of the usage are strictly adhered to.

Once I have gained ethics approval from the University I will be able to furnish you with a timetable to allow you to observe the activities, in addition I will furnish you with the data as soon as it becomes available.

Yours faithfully

[Signature]

Derek Ambrose, FCIS, FTIA, FAIM, FPNA, CPA  
42 Woollum Crescent  
RIVETT ACT 2611  
9 October 2007
2 October 2007

To Whom it May Concern

Letter of Introduction – Mr Derek Ambrose - Student ID: 21189281

This letter confirms that Mr Ambrose is currently enrolled on a part-time basis in the Doctor of Business Administration Program at Southern Cross University, Tweed Gold Coast Campus. The proposed topic of Mr Ambrose’s research is

**Does transformational leadership exist in the Australian Public Sector?**

Dr Lynn Gribble has been appointed by Southern Cross University, Graduate College of Management, as the Supervisor for Mr Ambrose for the duration of his thesis.

It is jointly understood by SCU, Dr Lynn Gribble and Mr Ambrose that:

- that the **TLQ** will be used exclusively for research purposes in connection with the award referred to above and not for any other purpose(s);
- that the Intellectual Property of the **TLQ** as resting with Real World Group, and integrity of the **TLQ** will be protected at all times;
- that the **TLQ** items will not be published in full, and that the dissertation will only give a maximum of two examples to illustrate each of the scales;
- that any publication of the research findings in an academic or professional journal or conference presentation will only include (as a maximum) the **same two examples as** in the dissertation;
- that Real World Group (which can be abbreviated to RWG) will be fully acknowledged as the source of the **TLQ**;
- that the results will be communicated to RWG as soon as is practicable.
- That a copy of the data relating to the **TLQ** will be forwarded to RWG on completion of the research project to enable RWG to maintain its data base, and update its norms

Your faithfully,

A/Professor Peter Miller
Director
Doctoral Programs
Southern Cross University

Dr Lynn Gribble
Derek Ambrose
CONDITIONS FOR USE OF SHORTENED VERSION OF THE
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (TLQ™) FOR
RESEARCH PURPOSES ONLY

Dear Colleague

Thank you for your request to use the Shortened Version of the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ™) in connection with your research.

We are pleased to learn of your interest in the TLQ and are happy, in principle, to agree to its use, subject to the following conditions:

1. that you let us know in writing the name of the qualification for which you are studying, along with the proposed title and/or a brief outline of the investigation, the name of the university or college, and the name of your supervising tutor;
2. that you send a letter on university headed paper, jointly signed by you and your supervisor, stating:
   • that the TLQ will be used exclusively for research purposes in connection with the award referred to above and not for any other purpose(s);
   • that the Intellectual Property of the TLQ as resting with Real World Group, and integrity of the TLQ will be protected at all times;
   • that the TLQ items will not be published in full, and that the dissertation will only give a maximum of two examples to illustrate each of the scales;
   • that any publication of the research findings in an academic or professional journal or conference presentation will only include (as a maximum) the same two examples as in the dissertation;
   • that Real World Group (which can be abbreviated to RWG) will be fully acknowledged as the source of the TLQ;
   • that the results will be communicated to RWG as soon as is practicable.
   • That a copy of the data relating to the TLQ will be forwarded to RWG on completion of the research project to enable RWG to maintain its data base, and up-date its norms
   • That you send a £50 cheque made payable to Real World Group as a deposit for the data; this will be returned to you on receipt of RWG receiving the data.

I look forward to hearing from you, and good luck with your research.

Yours sincerely

Margaret Bradley
Research Psychologist
APPENDIX C

Letter to the Secretary of the Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet
Letter to the Public Service Commissioner
Letter to the Secretary of the Department of Veterans Affairs
Letter to the Chairman of the Australian Communications and Media Authority
Letter to the Secretary of the Prime Ministers and Cabinet Department

Mr Peter Shergold
Secretary
Prime Minister and Cabinet Department
Kings Avenue
BARTON ACT 2604

Dear Mr Shergold

My name is Derek Ambrose, SES Band 1, Executive Manager and Chief Finance Officer at the Australian Communications and Media Authority (ACMA).

I have embarked on a Doctoral Thesis designed to uncover the existence and the level of transformational leadership within the APS. I intend to survey the ACMA and the Department of Veterans’ Affairs should the Secretary and the Chief Executive Officer provide consent to do so. I believe that the results of this study may be of assistance to these organisations and have wider application throughout the Australian Public Sector (APS).

I advise you of my intent to engage APS employees in voluntary completion of a questionnaire designed to quantify the level of transformational leadership that exists in the abovementioned APS agencies. On completion I expect to be able to provide the participants with the results in a comparative format which may be of use to you and these organisations, I am embarking on the identical process within the ACMA.

The questionnaire replies, data storage and release are bound by the Southern Cross University’s ethical requirements of which I have had to meet in rigorous content. Attached for your information is:
1. A letter from Southern Cross University approving of my research
2. A copy of the questionnaire.

It is appropriate to note that the questionnaire has been developed by Professor Beverley Alimo-Metcalfe and has been tested on 2,000 British civil servants. Professor Alimo-Metcalfe is a world leader in transformational leadership research.

The questionnaire is not expected to take more than 20 minutes and will be furnished electronically along with the appropriate security and privacy requirements. The questionnaire data will then be the intellectual property of the University and myself. I will be in a position to provide comparative data measured against the United Kingdom survey results of civil servants and health workers completed by Professor Metcalfe.

This is the first study of its kind in Australian within the APS sector related solely to transformational leadership, the results will be exciting and provide an additional insight to organisational behaviour aligned to leadership within the APS.
I would appreciate access to any information that you may already have and publications aligned to leadership to assist me in my research.

I look forward to your assistance and support in the challenge of this exciting research and thank you for your consideration.

Yours Sincerely

Derek Ambrose FTIA, FCIA, FAIM, FPNA, CPA
42 Woollum Crescent
RIVETT ACT 2611
5 December 2007
Dear Ms Briggs

My name is Derek Ambrose, SES Band 1, Executive Manager and Chief Finance Officer at the Australian Communications and Media Authority (ACMA).

I have embarked on a Doctoral Thesis designed to uncover the existence and the level of transformational leadership within the APS. I intend to survey the ACMA and the Department of Veterans’ Affairs along with a random sample of other Australian Public Sector (APS) employees. I believe that the results of this study may be of assistance to these organisations and have wider application throughout the APS.

I advise you of my intention to engage APS employees in voluntary completion of a questionnaire designed to quantify the level of transformational leadership that exists in the abovementioned APS agencies. On completion I expect to be able to provide information to the APS in general and participating organisations, I am embarking on the identical process within the ACMA.

The questionnaire replies, data storage and release are bound by the Southern Cross University’s ethical requirements of which I have had to meet in rigorous content. Attached at attachment A is a letter from Southern Cross University approving of my research and at attachment B a copy of the questionnaire. It is appropriate to note that the questionnaire has been developed by Professor Beverley Alimo-Metcalfe and has been tested on 2,000 British civil servants. Professor Alimo-Metcalfe is a world leader in transformational leadership research.

The questionnaire is not expected to take more than 20 minutes and will be furnished electronically along with the appropriate security and privacy requirements. The questionnaire data will then be the intellectual property of myself and I propose to accommodate requests for data analysis and interpretation in addition to providing comparative data. I will also be in a position to provide comparative data measured against the United Kingdom survey results completed by Professor Alimo-Metcalfe.

This is the first study of its kind in Australian within the APS sector related solely to transformational leadership, the results will be exciting and provide an additional insight to organisational behaviour aligned to leadership within the APS.

I would appreciate access to any information that you may already have and publications aligned to leadership to assist me in my research.

I look forward to your favourable response and thank you for your consideration.
Yours Sincerely

Derek Ambrose FTIA, FCIA, FAIM, CPA, PNA
42 Woollum Crescent
RIVETT ACT 2611
5 December 2007
Letter to the Secretary of the Department of Veterans Affairs

Mr Mark Sullivan  
Secretary  
Department of Veterans’ Affairs  
Lovett Tower  
WODEN ACT 2606

Dear Mr Sullivan

My name is Derek Ambrose, SES Band 1, Executive Manager and Chief Finance Officer at the Australian Communications and Media Authority (ACMA).

I have embarked on a Doctoral Thesis designed to uncover the existence and the level of transformational leadership within the APS. I have informed both Doctor Peter Shergold of the Prime Minister and Cabinet Department and Ms Lynelle Briggs of the Australian Public Service Commission of the nature of my research. I believe that the results of this study may be of assistance to your organisation having discussed the possibility indirectly through some of your employees.

I seek you permission to engage your employees in voluntary completion of a questionnaire designed to quantify the level of transformational leadership that exists in your organisation and other Australian Public Sector (APS) agencies. The other agency that is being approached is the ACMA and a random sample of other APS employees. On completion I expect to be able to provide you with the results in a comparative format which may be of use to you and your organisation.

The questionnaire replies, data storage and release are bound by the Southern Cross University’s ethical requirements of which I have had to meet in rigorous content. Attached for your perusal is the following documentation:

1. Approval from Southern Cross University number ECN-07-161.
2. Informed consent for you to sign on behalf of your agency employees.
3. Copy of the questionnaire.
4. Copy of the participants information sheet delivered with the survey
5. Copy of the some of the research completed by Professor Alimo-Metcalfe.

It is appropriate to note that the questionnaire has been developed by Professor Beverley Alimo-Metcalfe and has been tested on 2,000 British civil servants. Professor Alimo-Metcalfe is a world leader in transformational leadership research.

The questionnaire is not expected to take more than 20 minutes and will be furnished electronically along with the appropriate security and privacy requirements. The questionnaire data will then be the intellectual property of University and myself. I propose to allow you through participation to have full access to your Department’s data and the comparative data of other agencies that participate in consultation with yourself or nominated representative. In addition I will be in a position to provide comparative data measured against the United Kingdom civil servant survey results.
I suggest that if we could attain a 25% response rate from the employees then we will have some useful data to analyse and contribute to the Department’s knowledge bank. This is the first study of its kind in Australian within the APS sector related solely to transformational leadership, the results will be exciting and provide an additional insight to the organisational behaviour aligned to leadership.

I look forward to your favourable response and upon receiving such authorisation will contact your nominated officer to implement the data collection process.

I thank you for your consideration.

Yours Sincerely

Derek Ambrose FTIA, FCIA, FAIM, FPNA, CPA
42 Woollum Crescent
RIVETT ACT 2611
5 December 2007
Letter to the Chairman of the Australian Communications and Media Authority

Mr Chris Chapman
Chairman
Australian Communications and Media Authority
Sussex Street
SYDNEY NSW 2001

Dear Chris

I have embarked on a Doctoral Thesis designed to uncover the existence and the level of transformational leadership within the APS. I have informed Doctor Peter Shergold, Secretary of the Prime Minister’s and Cabinet Department and also Ms Lynelle Briggs the Public Service Commissioner of the Australian Public Service Commission of the nature of my research and they are fully supportive. I believe that the results of this study may be of assistance to your organisation.

I seek you permission to engage your employees in voluntary completion of a questionnaire designed to quantify the level of transformational leadership that exists in our organisation and other Australian Public Sector (APS) agencies. The other agencies that are being approached are the Department of Veterans’ Affairs and the Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources. On completion I expect to be able to provide you with the results in a comparative format which may be of use to you and your organisation.

The questionnaire replies, data storage and release are bound by the Southern Cross University’s ethical requirements of which I have had to meet in rigorous content. Attached at attachment A is a letter from Southern Cross University approving of my research and at attachment B a copy of the questionnaire. It is appropriate to note that the questionnaire has been developed by Professor Beverley Alimo-Metcalfe and has been tested on 2,000 British civil servants. Professor Alimo-Metcalfe is a world leader in transformational leadership research.

The questionnaire is not expected to take more than 30 minutes and will be furnished electronically along with the appropriate security and privacy requirements. The questionnaire data will then become the intellectual property of myself. I propose to allow you through participation to have full access to ACMA’s data and the comparative data of other agencies that participate. In addition I will be in a position to provide comparative data measured against the United Kingdom survey results.

I suggest that if we could attain a 25% response rate from the employees then we will have some useful data to analyse and contribute to the Department’s knowledge bank. This is the first study of its kind in Australian within the APS sector related solely to transformational leadership, the results will be exciting and provide an additional insight to the organisational behaviour aligned to leadership.

I look forward to your favourable response and upon receiving such authorisation will contact your nominated officer to implement the data collection.
I thank you for your consideration.

Yours Sincerely

Derek Ambrose FTIA, FCIA, FAIM, CPA, PNA
42 Woollum Crescent
RIVETT ACT 2611
07 August 2007
APPENDIX D

Sample of the letter of informed consent sent to the Department of Veterans Affairs and the Australian Communication and Media Authority
Mr M. Sullivan  
Secretary  
Department of Veterans’ Affairs  
Lovett Tower  
Woden, Canberra ACT 2601

Dear Sir

Informed Consent to allow the Department’s participation in a research project

**Name of Project:** Does transformational leadership exist in the senior management levels of the Australian Public Sector?

**Researchers:** The Supervisor for this research is Doctor Lynn Gribble Ph. 02 9281 4266, Fax 02 9770 4786 and email: lynn@talkingtrends.com.au. The student/researcher is Derek Ambrose Ph. 02 6288 6469, email: derek.ambrose@webone.com.au.

This consent form is based on Guidelines from the National Statement on Ethical Conduct Involving Human Participants as issued by the NHMRC.

I have been provided with information at my level of comprehension about the purpose, methods, demands, risks, inconveniences, and possible outcomes of this research (including any likelihood and form of publication of results).

I agree for my Department to participate in the above research project. I have read and understand the details contained in the Information Sheet. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study and I am satisfied with the answers received.

I understand that any personal information which may identify me will be de-identified at the time of analysis of any data. Therefore, I, or information I have provided, cannot be linked to my person/or company. (Privacy Act 1988 (Cth)). I understand that neither my name nor any identifying information of my person will be disclosed or published, except with my permission. I understand all employees of this Department will be also provided with an informed consent information sheet.

I understand that all information gathered in this research is confidential. It is kept securely and confidentially for 5 years, at the University.

I understand that I am free to discontinue participation at any time. I have been informed that prior to data analysis, any data that has been gathered before withdrawal of this consent will be destroyed.

I am aware that I can contact the Supervisor or other researchers at any time with further inquiries, if necessary.

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Southern Cross University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC). The Approval Number is ECN-07-161.

*If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Ethics Complaints Officer:*

Ms Sue Kelly  
Ethics Complaints Officer and Secretary  
HREC  
Southern Cross University
All complaints, in the first instance, should be in writing to the above address. All complaints are investigated fully and according to due process under the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans and this University. Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and you will be informed of the outcome.

I understand that I will be given a copy of this consent form for my records. The researcher will also keep a copy in safe storage at the University.

*I have read the information above and agree to participate in this study. I am over the age of 18 years.*

Name of Participant: ..........................................................................................................................

Signature of Participant: ..................................................................................................................

Date: ..........................................................................................................................................

I certify that the terms of the Consent Form have been verbally explained to the participant and that the participant appears to understand the terms prior to signing the form.

Name & Contact Detail of Witness: ..................................................................................................

..................................................................................................................................................

Signature of Witness: ....................................................................................................................

Date: ..........................................

**NOTE:**
The witness should be independent of the research, where possible. If this is not possible at the place of consent, please inform the researcher and state a reason below.

Reason: ..........................................................................................................................................

..................................................................................................................................................

..................................................................................................................................................

Name and signature of the researcher: .........................................................................................

..................................................................................................................................................

Date: ........................................
APPENDIX E

The Transformational Leadership Questionnaire - Public Sector Research Version
Participants letter of information
Dear Survey Participant,

You are invited to participate in a study being conducted that seeks to investigate the phenomena of transformational leadership within the Australian Public Sector (APS). This study is designed to determine the level and quality of this leadership style. This research forms part of a research thesis being conducted by Derek Ambrose who has an interest in, and practices leadership and is supervised by Doctor Lynn Gribble an expert in organisational behaviour.

Leadership is a vibrant and essential action required by organisations to maintain and improve competitive advantage within the workplace environment. Leading edge leadership styles and actions are paramount to providing the vision and strategies that enable organisations to reach the pinnacle of success within their particular sector. There are many organisational and employee benefits that are derived from successful leadership such as esteem, fiscal reward, career progression, learning, personal and organisational development.

This research seeks to ascertain the level of which transformational leadership exists within the public sector and the interactions of variables within the transformational leadership context. You are encouraged to participate, as this study is the first of its kind in Australia and will provide a snapshot of the transformational leadership paradigm within the APS. From the results you will be able to measure your Division and Agency against comparative data of other APS organisations and those of some Civil Service organisations in the United Kingdom.

The research is an exciting development and your participation is thoroughly welcomed.

Procedures to be followed

The time required to answer the questionnaire procedure should take 20 minutes in total to complete. Important demographic information will be collected. This will consist of your age, gender, employment level, Division and organisation, as it is necessary to provide group related statistics; no other personal information will be collected by the researcher. The computer program will present you with a stimulus connected by an URL to the survey and data repository.

Participation is purely voluntary and no financial remuneration or incentive will be offered for taking part in this research. There are no travel expenses, nor are there any
costs associated with participation in this research, there is no cost to you apart from your time.

**Possible Discomforts and Risks**

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts above those associated with general computer usage. There is minimal discomfort within this low risk questionnaire procedure. You will be required to sit and concentrate on a computer screen, so if you have eyesight problems you will be required to provide your own glasses for the task and any associated injury or illness resulting from this task are considered to be at your risk.

**Responsibilities of the Researcher**

It is our duty to make sure that any information given by you is protected. Your name and other identifying information will not be attached to data collected. Any identifying information that can be traced to you will be destroyed after your participation in the study.

By completing the attached survey you provide informed consent to participate in this research. Due to this necessity, a procedure has been set in place to ensure that your personal details can at no time be matched, identified or tracked back to the data collected on your performance in this project.

The information will be presented as overall data and the research findings may be submitted for publication.

**Responsibilities of the participants**

If there is anything that might impact upon you such as medications/drugs, health or problems with eyesight, you are asked not to participate. You may leave the experiment voluntarily without explanation of such factors. If you feel there are any safety concerns please let us know.

**Freedom of Consent**

If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time. However, we would appreciate you letting us know your decision and reasons, therefore, enabling us to ascertain the issues and seek to avoid a like occurrence in the future.

**Inquiries**

This form is yours to keep for future reference. If you have any questions, we expect you to ask us. If you have any additional questions at any time please ask:

**Derek Ambrose**  
Graduate College of Management

**Doctor Lynn Gribble**  
Graduate College of Management
The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Southern Cross University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Approval Number is ECN-07-161. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Ethics Complaints Officer, Ms S. Kelly, (telephone (02) 6620 9139, fax (02) 6626 9145), Email: sue.kelly@scu.edu.au

Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and you will be informed of the outcome.

A summary of the findings of this research may be obtained by filling out the form below and placing it in a separate envelope to the survey and forwarding it to me at the above address.

Yes, I would like a summary of the findings of the research forwarded to me at the address below:-

NAME:........................................................................................................

ADDRESS ............................................................................................

POST CODE: ..........................................................

EMAIL ADDRESS:.................................................
APPENDIX F

Transformational Leadership Questionnaire Demographic Section
Transformational Leadership Questionnaire Demographic Section

Q1. Which section of the APS do you belong to?
   A. Federal Government
   B. State Government
   C. Local Government
   D. Statutory Authority/Body

Q2. What is the approximate size of the Department/Agency you work for?
   A. Less than 500 employees
   B. 501-2000 employees
   C. Greater than 2001 employees

Q3. What is the Name of your Department or Agency?
   ………………..

Q4. What Division of this Department do you reside in?
   ………………..

Q5. What is your gender?
   Male/Female

Q6. What is your position description?
   Eg. team member, administrator, team leaders, Executive Officer, Section Manager, Branch Manager, Divisional Head, Deputy Secretary, Secretary.
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Q7. Which age group applies to you?
   A. 18-29
   B. 30-39
   C. 40-49
   D. 50-59
   E. 60 and over

Q8. How long have you been employed in the public sector?
   A. 0-5 years
   B. 6-10 years
   C. 11-20 years
   D. 21-30 years
   E. 31 years and more

Q9. What is your current APS level?
   A. APS 3-6
   B. Executive Level 1
   C. Executive Level 2
D. Senior Executive Service

Q10. What is your highest education level?
   A. Year 11  
   B. Year 12  
   C. Certificate  
   D. Diploma  
   E. Undergraduate Degree  
   F. Post Graduate Degree  
   G. Doctorate/PhD  
   H. Other

Q11. Which of the following explains transformational leadership to you?
   A. Showing genuine concern for others, their well being and development
   B. Leadership that demonstrates, inspiration, communication and achievement
   C. Leaders who delegates, empowers and develops potential
   D. The leader displays transparency, honesty and consistency within your environment.
   E. That your leaders is approachable, accessible and in touch within the workplace
   F. Your leader demonstrates being decisive and is considered to be a risk taker

The next series of questions centres on your perceptions and thoughts of how you see leadership with your workplace environment.

Please tick how you assess your leader’s abilities and capacity against the following questions. Noting that they range from Strongly disagree through to Strongly Agree, Don’t Know and Not Relevant.

Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2006) Transformational Leadership Questionnaire attached as separate electronic file to conclude the questionnaire totalling 53 questions.
APPENDIX G

Transformational leadership scale of showing genuine concern questions and results from the TLQ-PSRV
Transformational scale of showing genuine concern questions 12, 20, 29, 37, 44 and 50.

Table 4.3: Demonstrates the results of the TLQ-PSRV question number 12, which states ‘Is sensitive to my needs and aspirations’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 12</th>
<th>18-29 years old</th>
<th>30-39 years old</th>
<th>40-49 years old</th>
<th>50-59 years old</th>
<th>60 and over</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>792</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.

Table 4.4: Demonstrates the results of the TLQ-PSRV question number 20, which states ‘takes time to find out how I feel about being and working in the organisation’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 20</th>
<th>18-29 years old</th>
<th>30-39 years old</th>
<th>40-49 years old</th>
<th>50-59 years old</th>
<th>60 and over</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>792</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.
Table 4.5: Demonstrates the results of the TLQ-PSRV, question number 29, which states ‘Is active in supporting my development through coaching and mentoring’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 29</th>
<th>18-29 years old</th>
<th>30-39 years old</th>
<th>40-49 years old</th>
<th>50-59 years old</th>
<th>60 and over</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>82</strong></td>
<td><strong>160</strong></td>
<td><strong>286</strong></td>
<td><strong>227</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>792</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.

Table 4.6: Demonstrates the results of the TLQ-PSRV, question number 37, which states ‘is active in developing my strengths’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 37</th>
<th>18-29 years old</th>
<th>30-39 years old</th>
<th>40-49 years old</th>
<th>50-59 years old</th>
<th>60 and over</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>82</strong></td>
<td><strong>160</strong></td>
<td><strong>286</strong></td>
<td><strong>227</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>792</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.
Table 4.7: Demonstrates the results to the TLQ-PSRV, question number 44, which states ‘sustains my efforts by demonstrating a genuine interest in me and what I do’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 44</th>
<th>18-29 years old</th>
<th>30-39 years old</th>
<th>40-49 years old</th>
<th>50-59 years old</th>
<th>60 and over</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>82</strong></td>
<td><strong>160</strong></td>
<td><strong>286</strong></td>
<td><strong>227</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>792</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.

Table 4.8: Demonstrates the results to the TLQ-PSRV, question number 50, which states ‘uses knowledge and understanding of what motivates me to achieve goals’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 50</th>
<th>18-29 years old</th>
<th>30-39 years old</th>
<th>40-49 years old</th>
<th>50-59 years old</th>
<th>60 and over</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>115</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>82</strong></td>
<td><strong>160</strong></td>
<td><strong>286</strong></td>
<td><strong>227</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>792</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.
APPENDIX H

Transformational leadership scales comparison of the Australian Communications and Media Authority, the Department of Veterans Affairs and the other combined Australian Public Service.
Transformational leadership scale of showing genuine concern comparative analysis between DVA, ACMA, Other APS

Table 4.9: Transformational leadership scale one ‘showing genuine concern’ results from the TLQ-PSRV supplied by RWG.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Results</th>
<th>DVA %</th>
<th>ACMA %</th>
<th>Other APS %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Relevant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.

Transformational scale of networking and achieving

Table 4.10: Transformational leadership scale two ‘networking and achieving’ results from using the TLQ-PSRV supplied by RWG.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Results</th>
<th>DVA %</th>
<th>ACMA %</th>
<th>Other APS %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Relevant</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.
Transformational leadership scale of enabling

Table 4.11: Transformational leadership ‘enabling’ results from the TLQ-PSRV supplied by RWG.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Results</th>
<th>DVA %</th>
<th>ACMA %</th>
<th>Other APS %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Relevant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
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Source: Information collected from data for this research.

Transformational leadership scale of being honest and consistent

Table 4.12: Transformational leadership ‘being honest and consistent’ results from using the TLQ-PSRV supplied by RWG.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Results</th>
<th>DVA %</th>
<th>ACMA %</th>
<th>Other APS %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Relevant</td>
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<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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</table>

Source: Information collected from data for this research.
Transformational leadership scale of being accessible

Table 4.13: Transformational leadership ‘being accessible’ results from using the TLQ-PSRV supplied by RWG.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Questionnaire Results</th>
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<th>Other APS %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Relevant</td>
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<tr>
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Source: Information collected from data for this research.

Transformational scale of being decisive

Table 4.14: Transformational leadership ‘being decisive’ results from using the TLQ-PSRV supplied by RWG.

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<th>Other APS %</th>
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<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>16</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<tr>
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Source: Information collected from data for this research.