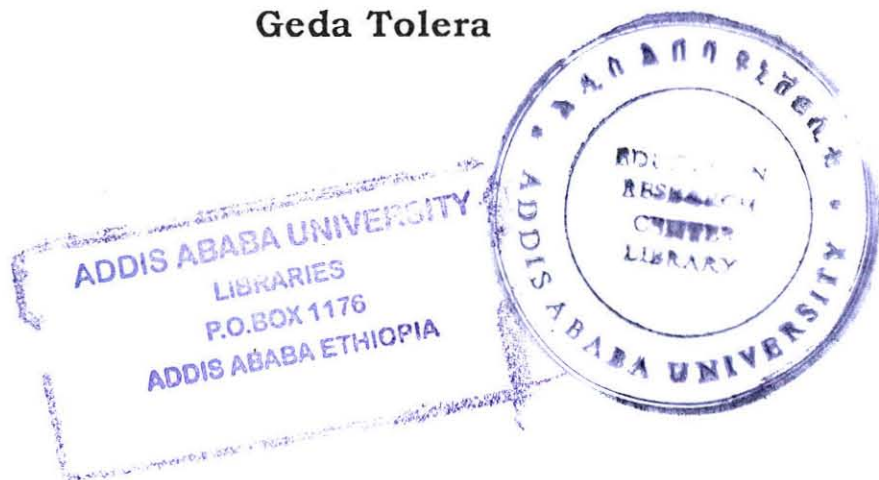


**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY**

**The Relationship between Perceived Leadership Styles and the
Choice of Conflict Resolution Strategies: The Case of Finchaa
Sugar Factory**

By
Geda Tolera



Addis Ababa University

JUNE, 2010

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*A Thesis Submitted to Institute of Psychology in Partial
Fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of
Arts in Social Psychology*

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Abstract

This study was undertaken to investigate the relationship among perceived leaders' leadership styles and the choice of conflict resolution strategies to solve different organizational conflicts. Leaders background variables (sex, age, educational status, and job levels) were also considered to see its relationship with leaders preferred conflict resolution strategies. In addition, investigating whether difference in perception of leaders' leadership styles exist between leaders and subordinates was another objective of this study.

For this study purpose data were generated from a self report questionnaire administered to 469 randomly selected samples out of 7524 Finchaa Sugar Factory workers. Of the 469 participants, 142 of them were leaders and 327 of them were subordinates. The obtained data were analyzed using both dependent and independent t-tests, bivariate correlational analysis, one way ANOVA, and Tukey/Kramer post hoc comparison.

Results obtained in this study indicated that there is significant perception difference between subordinates and leaders in their perception of leaders' leadership styles. Of the eight leadership styles considered in this study three of them were found to be significantly related to three of the five conflict resolution strategies. Among the leaders' background variables, age and educational status was found to be significantly related to avoidance and collaboration conflict resolution strategies respectively. This study also found out that leaders at different organizational levels (lower, middle, and higher) significantly differ from one another in applying domination and accommodation conflict resolution strategies.

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Conflict is one of the major organizational phenomena. It has been claimed that, no investigation of how organizations operate is complete without understanding the significance of conflict and the techniques of its management (Robbins, 2007). In organizational settings conflict is inevitable because not all persons think alike.

Organizational conflict is a disagreement between or within groups and/or individuals in an organization. The groups may be workers, workers' unions or management team. Organizational conflict is common at the workplace because people always have divergent views on various issues, interests, ideologies, goals and aspirations (Salami, 2009).

Organizational behavior and management literatures have classified organizational conflict in to four on the basis of organization at which it may originate. These are intrapersonal, interpersonal, intra-group and intergroup conflicts (Tjosvold, 1983). Intrapersonal conflict occurs when an organizational member required to perform certain tasks and roles, which do not match with his/her expertise, interest, and values. Interpersonal conflict refers to conflict between two or more organizational members of the same or different organizational units. Intra-group conflict refers to conflict among members of a group or between two or more sub-groups within a group. And inter-group conflict refers to conflict between two or more units within an organization. This study focuses on the later three organizational conflicts.

Previous researchers viewed organizational conflicts in different ways. The traditional view of conflict within organizations suggests that conflict negatively affects goal accomplishment and should be avoided at all costs. For the human relation theorists, it was assumed as the result of faulty leadership or a lack of

participative management (Edgar, 1980). Contrary to this view point, classical sociologist Simmel (1955), as cited in Rahim (1986) argued that certain amount of conflict is essential for the proper functioning of groups.

Conflicts that arise in organization sooner or later might have different effects. It can lead to such positive effects as innovation and change, a search for new ideas, dealing over long-standing problems and testing people's capacities. Likewise conflict might bring such dysfunctional outcomes as increasing distance between people, developing a climate of distrust and suspicion, resistance to teamwork and turnover (Daniel, 2001). If the organization has to benefit from the conflict, the managers or supervisor's task is not to avoid or eliminate conflict but to manage it properly so that its positive aspects can be realized (Bednar, 1986).

The person in authority should use his or her power to resolve conflict by helping the conflicting groups or persons agree on goals that transcend their own dispute by action as neutral third party to resolve tension and enable them to discuss their problems calmly. The leader influences and directs individuals and groups, and is required to have many qualities and skills in order to effectively handle conflicts (Kotter, 1986).

Conflict resolution is a relational approach to handle conflicts. It is a process in which inter personal communication is used to get the parties to a conflict to reach at an amicable and satisfactory point of agreement (Rahim, 2002).

Blake and Mouton (1964, as cited in Panagoits, 2006), were the first authors to develop a conceptual scheme for classifying how to handle intra-organizational conflict. The pivotal notion in their model was the extent to which the manager is concerned for production or for people. Their idea was further developed by Thomas (1976) who placed emphasis on the intention of the parties in conflict. That means whether conflicting parties are assertive (attempt to satisfy one's

own concern) or cooperative (attempt to satisfy the other party's concern). As figure-1 below show, high concern for self or low concern for others and vice versa results in a preference for collaborating, compromising, dominating, accommodating, and avoiding conflict management styles (Woodliti, 1987).

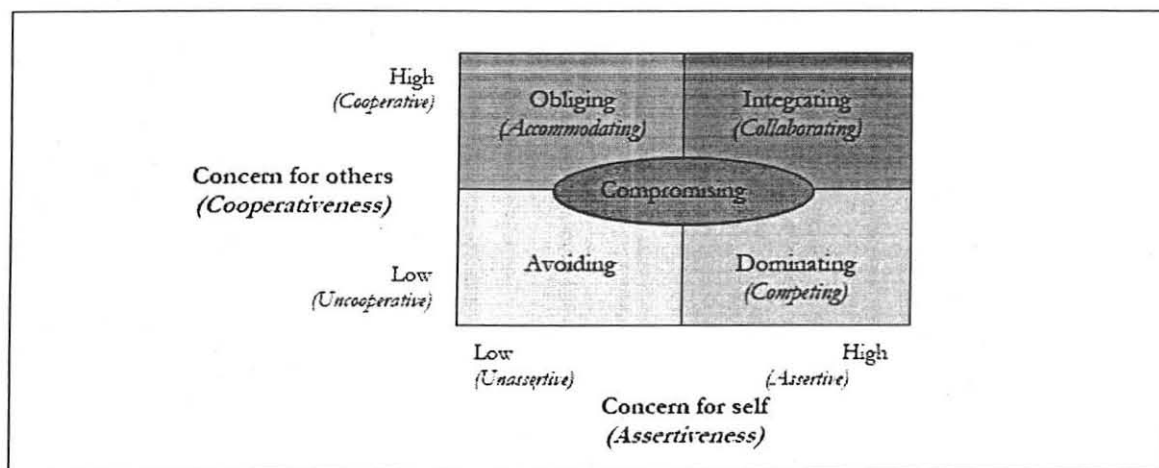


Figure 1

A Two Dimensional Model of Conflict Handling Styles

Compiled using ideas form Rahim (1983) and Thomas and Khiman (1974) both cited in Brahnam, Margavio, Hignite, Barrier and Chin (2005, 199).

The collaborating strategy is one in which one party shares information and clarifies issues on the point of conflict with the other party so as to reach at a solution acceptable to both parties. This conflict management strategy ranks high on both assertiveness and cooperativeness, supporting a win-win orientation. It engenders positive work behavior and attitudes of the parties in conflict (Moore & Rudd, 2006).

The compromising strategy is a give and take method of resolving conflict whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision. It might also mean splitting the difference, exchanging concessions, or seeking a quick middle-ground position. It is characterized by intermediate

concern for both self and others (Vokic' & Sontor, 2009). This strategy may also result in positive work behaviors and attitudes (Kotlyarl & Karakowsky, 2006).

The dominating strategy is the one in which one party adopts a competing strategy to force the other party to accept a particular position. This strategy rates very high on assertiveness and low in its cooperation and may result in negative work behavior of the group that has to lose (Panagoits, 2006).

Accommodating strategy involves avoiding conflict; it rates low on assertiveness and high on cooperativeness. This style is associated with attempting to play down the differences and emphasizing commonalities to satisfy the concern of the other party. A person or group which uses this style neglects his or her own concern to satisfy the concern of the other party (Bednar, 1986). This strategy may also result in positive work behavior and attitudes

Avoiding strategy involves the tendency of a party to a conflict to refrain from and ignore the conflict altogether rather than trying to directly resolving it. This strategy is more used by those employees who are not much concerned for themselves and others. It may take the form of postponing an issue until a better time come, or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation. This strategy has the tendency to generate counter productive work behavior (Alper, Law & Tjosvold, 2000; Meyer, 2004; Ogungbomila, 2006; Omoluabi, 2001,all cited in Salami, 2009).

Leader's perspectives on power tend to influence their strategies of conflict management and employee's spirit to work together effectively. Leaders who are concerned about organizational renewal will seek to foster organizational cultures that are hospitable and conducive to creativity, problem solving, risk taking and experimentation (Moore & Rudd, 2002).

In order to maintain organizational success, leaders need to develop the processes, cultures and behaviors capable of collaborating and resolving conflicts in ways that benefit the consumers and employees. Thus, leaders are expected to do very much in order to creatively manage internal conflict in the organization for the assurance of organizational member's job satisfaction and organizational goal attainment (Daniel, 2001).

Leadership styles are the aspect of leadership that has been extensively studied and documented in leadership literature (Grint, 2005). It refers to the characteristic manner in which an individual leads others. Early conceptualizations categorized leadership styles as either autocratic, democratic or laissez faire (White & Lippitt, 1960). Later on, Hersey and Balanchard (1977), as cited in Bednar (1986), identified four leadership styles through their work with situational approach to leadership: directing, coaching, supporting or delegating.

A new leadership paradigm has emerged shifting emphasis from the traditional or transactional approach to transformational leadership orientation. The concept of transformational leadership was first used by Burn (1978) in his descriptive research on political leaders, and it was refined by Bass (1985). Burns viewed transactional and transformational leadership as dimensional construct with the two at opposite ends of the same continuum. In contrast, Bass viewed them as complementary constructs and it is necessary for a leader to engage in both leadership behaviors.

Transformational Leadership theory is all about Leadership that creates positive change in the followers whereby they take care of each interest and act in the interests of the group as a whole (Bass,1985). Transactional leadership theory is most widespread and commonly used in many organizations. It is based on transactions or deals made between an employee and organization or between followers and leaders (Moore & Rudd, 2006).

According to Burns (1978) transactional leadership approach assumes that reward and punishment are things that motivate people, a clear chain of command works best in running an organization, once employees agree to do a job then they are entirely in the hands of a manager, and once employees cede complete authority to a manager, employees must do as they are told. These theories of transactional and transformational leadership would serve as the theoretical framework of this study.

Transformational leadership is a more human leadership theory, as compared to the militaristic transactional theory (Bass, 1985). It assumes inspiring employees to do great work through example and the force of leader's personality. This theory claims that people rise higher through positive motivation than via punishment.

Transactional leader works within the existing organizational culture of the group. They explain to their subordinates what is required of them and then negotiate the compensation they will receive if they meet the requirements, either the promise of reward for good performance or the threat of punishment for poor performance (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Bass (1985) applied the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership to business organizations. He identified a range of seven components representing transformational, transactional and non-leadership. He divided transformational and transactional leadership in to four and two components respectively. The four transformational leadership components are Charisma or idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration or attention.

Charismatic leaders are those leaders who display convictions, take stands and appeal to followers on an emotional level. Leaders with this type of leadership

style are admired and respected by followers, and serve as strong role models (Northouse, 2001).

Inspirational motivation behavior is a leader characteristics displayed when she/he inspires and motivate subordinates to demonstrate commitment to the shared vision of the organization. Leaders who engage in this behavior clearly communicate high expectation to followers and increase team spirit and enthusiasm (Northouse, 2001). They also demonstrate self-determination and commitment to attain objectives, and present an optimistic and achievable view of the future.

Intellectual stimulation is the degree to which the leader challenge assumptions, take risk, stimulate and encourage creativity in followers. Followers are encouraged to question their old ways of doing things, think on their own, address challenges and consider creative ways to develop themselves (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Subordinates under such leadership are not hesitant to offer their ideas, become critical in their problem solving and tend to have enhanced thought processes.

Individualized consideration refers to leaders character to attend to each follower's needs, and acts as a mentor or coach to the follower. The leader pays attention to the individual differences and treats individual employees in a caring and unique way (Krishnan & Srinivas, 1998).

The two transactional leadership components are contingent reward and management by exception. Contingent reward refers to the engagement of leaders and followers in an exchange process in which effort by followers result in a specific contractual reward. In this case transactional leaders clarify the roles followers must play and the task requirements followers must complete to reach their personal goals while fulfilling the mission of the organization (Krishnan & Srinivas, 1998).

Management by exception occurs when transactional leaders intervene to make some correction and generally involves corrective criticism and negative reinforcement (Panagoits, 2006). Management by exception can be active or passive. Active management by exception approach oriented transactional leaders closely monitor their followers so that they can detect mistakes and take corrective action (Rudd & Moore, 2006). Transactional leaders who engage in passive management by exception intervene with their follower's task only after standards have not been met or problems arise (Schijndel & Burchard, 2007).

The last one is the non-leadership component. Non-leadership refers to laissez-faire leaders who abdicate responsibility, delay decisions, offer no feedback, and make little or no effort in helping followers to satisfy their needs and goals (Bass & Avolio, 1995). These types of leaders tend to let things drift, since their main aim is to stay on good terms with every member of the organization.

Studies have revealed that there is a difference between subordinates and their leaders in their perception of the leadership capacity of leaders. Yukl(1989),reported that leaders strives to associate their ways of leading others with leadership styles which most people categorize as the good one. Whereas, subordinates perceived their leaders' leadership styles as either the way it is exactly displayed by the leaders or different from the way it is perceived by their leaders. Another study also showed that leaders tried to put their leadership styles in apposite light although they lag behind on some good leadership characteristics, like transformational leadership styles(Avolio & Bass, 2004).

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Leadership and conflict management are vital areas for the successful performance of organizational activities. The role of leadership in management is largely determined by the organizational culture of the company. It has been argued that leader's beliefs, values, and assumptions are of critical importance

to the overall style of leadership that they adopt which in turn influence their conflict management mechanisms (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2004).

In his study on the relationship between leadership style and group conflict, Kozan (1991) found out a correlation between the type of conflict and the leadership style displayed. However, Katz has not focused on the leaders' styles of conflict management, which is very essential concern that leaders are highly responsible for. The present study strives to fill this gap by correlating leaders preferred leadership style with their conflict management strategies.

Many people enter into certain organization seeking friendship and collegiality. They desire membership in an institution of likeminded men and women. They expect to find leaders they can relate to and identify with i.e. leaders who share their ambition, ideas, talents and skills (Diamond, 1993). The relationship between the leaders and the subordinates is largely influenced by the strategy which the leaders use to resolve work or relationships related conflict that arise in the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The present researcher is interested in investigating the extent to which today's leaders tend to use more appropriate ways of conflict handling strategies when conflict come into being in the organization, which establish a good work relationship among the employees.

Kotlary & Karakowsky (2006) studied how three leadership styles affect the emergence of group conflict: transactional, transformational and non-leadership. Transactional leadership focuses on an exchange of reward for performance. Transformational leadership focuses on motivating employee by appealing to higher order needs, and non-leadership focuses on self managed teams. The findings showed that transformational leadership was more effective in generating cognitive (productive) conflict than the other two leadership styles.

Kotlayr & Karakowsky did not address in their investigation as to how those leaders manage group conflict for the best of group performance. However, sometimes harmful conflicts consciously or unconsciously might be created in the organization as organizational activities progress. During this time the leader has no choice rather than interfering with the conflict situation in order to minimize its negative consequences. The way leaders manage the conflict might differ from one leadership style to the other. The present study investigated the difference among perceived leadership styles in choosing potential conflict management strategies. Thus, in order to enhance understandings about the relationship between perceived leadership styles and the choice of conflict management strategies leader's sex, age, educational level, work experience, and organizational job level were considered in this study. The following basic research questions were used through the course of the study to guide the research:

- What are the prominent leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies demonstrated by leaders?
- Does perception difference exist between leaders and their subordinates in perceiving the leader's leadership styles?
- Is there any relationship between leader's leadership styles and the choice of conflict resolution strategies?
- Do leaders' choices of conflict management strategies differ based on their sex, educational level, age and experience?
- Do age, experience, and educational level of leaders has any relationship with their choice of conflict resolution strategies?
- Does leader's choice of conflict management style differ across organizational job levels?

1.3. Objectives of the Study

This study was aimed to investigate the relationship among leaders' perceived leadership styles and their choice of potential organizational conflict

resolution strategies. Leaders' background variables and leadership styles were considered to see their relationship with leaders' preferred conflict resolution strategies. Specifically the objectives of this study were to:

- Assess the prominent leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies demonstrated by leaders.
- Investigate whether perception difference exist or not between leaders and the subordinates in perceiving leader's leadership styles.
- See the relationship between leaders' leadership styles and their choice of conflict resolution strategies.
- See the if leaders' choices of conflict management strategies differ based on their sex, educational level, age and experience
- Investigate if leader's age, work experience and educational level has any relationship with their choice of conflict management strategies.
- See whether difference in choosing conflict resolution strategies exist or not among leaders at different organizational levels
- Investigate whether perception difference exist or not between leaders and the subordinates in perceiving leader's leadership styles.

1.4. Significance of the Study

- Results of this study may provide leaders with important insights about their leadership styles and its correlation with their conflict resolution strategies, which would help them to improve or maintain their leading or conflict resolution styles.
- Results obtained in this study may also serve concerned bodies of organizations to prepare training programs to equip their leaders with appropriate ways of resolving conflict and leadership styles that suits to existing organizational system. Finally, findings of the study may provide information for people who are interested to make further investigation in a similar area.

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

The study is delimited to identifying the relationship among perceived leadership styles of leaders in Finchaa sugar factory and their choice of conflict management strategies by taking leader's age, sex, experience, and job level in to account. Even though organizational culture, structure, and nature of the task might also affect leader's choice of conflict management strategy, these variables were not considered in this study.

1.6. Limitations of the study

The findings of this study should be viewed with some limitations. Data were collected from only sample drawn from one organization that may limit generalizability of results obtained to other organizations. Another shortcoming is the use of only self report measures to collect data. Obviously, the result could have been more dependable, if qualitative research methods like interview and focus group discussion were also employed, but it was difficult to undertake. Because the factory operates twenty four hours and employees work in shift; if they work on day shift, they rest over night and vice versa. So, they have no time to give information sought through face to face interaction. Lastly, it should be noted that the relationships found in this study are correlational and not causal. Hence, further study is suggested to be conducted to establish a causal-effect relationship among variables considered in this study.

1.7. Operational Definitions of Some Terms

- **Leadership**- Inducing subordinates to pursue common or at least joint purposes that represent the values and motivation of both leaders and subordinates.
- **Leadership styles**- characteristic manner in which an individual leads others.
- **Conflict**- differences, disagreements or incompatibilities which occurs at work.

- **Transformational leader**- a leader who motivate subordinates to do more than what they are originally expected to do.
- **Transactional leader**-leader who influence subordinates behavior by bargaining or making exchanges with them.
- **Leader**- division heads, department heads, supervisors, foremen or headmen of certain team or group.
- **Lower level leaders** – Headmen of any division of the factory, who lead certain team or groups.
- **Middle level leaders** – Supervisors or foremen of any department of the factory, who lead certain team or groups.
- **Higher level leaders** –Division heads or department heads of any division of the factory, who lead certain team or group.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. An Overview of Organizational Conflict and Leadership

Conflict is an inevitable product of organizational life. It has been defined as the process that results when one person (or group of people) perceives that another person or group is frustrating, or about to frustrate an important concern of person, group or the organization at large (Thomas, 1992). Organizations are living systems consisting of interacting units performing a task in a mutually dependent manner within a structure of scarce resources. It seems a common place where conflicts would exist in such settings.

The groups or persons in an organization may have a conflict about the distribution of resources, change in organization, and the basic nature of their interaction. Once the parties are in a situation of goal incompatibility, their conflict develops in a dynamic fashion, initiating valuable and much-needed constructive changes or leading to distractive consequences (Rahim, 2002). Rahim further argued that conflict may be uncontrollable, it may even be a source of problems, but it is absolutely necessary if change is to occur, and if organizations are to survive and adapt. Organizational change and innovation does not just happen, it requires a stimulant, that stimulant is conflict (Deutsch, 1973).

Organizational leaders play a great role in minimizing the bad side of the conflict and maximizing the positive outcome that the conflict may lead to. They must be strong enough to influence the developmental dynamics of a conflict, so that the parties' attitudes and actions will lead to better coordination and a more appropriate employees' interdependence (Robins, 2007). Leaders must not seek eliminating organizational conflict for that it is hardly a realistic goal. As Kestner (2002) has argued, an organization devoid of conflict ". . . *may indicate autocracy, uniformity, stagnation and mental fixity. P. 12.*" Thus, leaders ought

to accept and occasionally encourage desirable conflict, because change and other desirable consequences are products of conflict.

Leaders cannot solve problems alone. In today's complex world, problems call for the combined expertise of multiple resources and assistants. For this reason, strong emphasis needs to be placed on promoting team work and strong leadership. Leaders must recognize the creativeness of all the organization members across multiple disciplines. Suggestions and ideas from the subordinates need to be considered individually by the leaders while dealing with different conflict situations. Leaders must promote collaboration and team work, respecting each other's expertise in order to facilitate change and solve complex organizational problems and challenges (Blanchard & Zircami, 1985).

Effective leadership requires leading others to think innovatively and promoting the continual discovery of new solutions. To lead subordinates in an orderly manner through the organizational process, leaders need to become process leaders rather than relying solely on their content expertise (Northouse, 2004). Blanchard and Zircami (1985) also contended that effective leaders should recognize that they cannot solve all their critical challenges alone and that solution for the problem at hand lie within the organizational members they are leading toward common goals.

The leadership factor is the most important of how conflict will be handled within a given department and/or organization. According to Kotlyarl and Karakowsky (2006), the leader of the employee is the first person to assess whether the conflict is a symptom of a big problem or merely an isolated event. The leader should be able to identify, address, and resolve conflict to enhance organizational productivity and success. Having identified the source of the conflict through assessment of the problem, the leader should strive for establishing common ground (mutual goals and interests) that conflicting

individuals and/or groups share and use that as the foundation of the resolution (Haslam, 2001).

2.2. Organizational Leadership and its Approaches

Leadership has been defined in many ways. A major concept in different definition of leadership is that it is a relationship through which one person influences the behavior or actions of other people toward accomplishment of organizational objectives (Mullins, 2007). Leadership has also been understood as a long term relationship, or partnership, between the leaders and the group members. According to Block (1993), in a partnership, the leader and group members are connected in such a way that the power between them is approximately balanced. Block's conception of leadership as a partnership is an ideal to strive towards it.

In order to understand leadership, it is important to grasp the difference between leadership and management. Although the two terms are often used interchangeably, management is more usually viewed as getting things done through other people in order to achieve stated organizational objectives. Mullins (2007) conceptualized the functions of managers as planning, organizing, directing and controlling organizational activities. On the other hand leadership deals with change, inspiration, motivation and influence.

As to Durbin (2007), Managers produce order, consistency, and predictability, whereas leaders produce change and adaptability to new products, markets, competitors, customers and work processes. Durbin also argued that leadership in contrast to management involves having a vision of what the organization can become and mobilizing people to accomplish it. According to Kotter (1990), a prominent leadership theorist, managers must know how to lead as well as manage, and the leaders have to know how to manage and lead. Without being led as well as managed properly, organizations face the threat of extinction.

Many different theories and explanation of leadership have been developed because of the interest in leadership as a practice and as a research area by different researchers at different time in the past. Several attempts have been made to integrate the large number of approaches to leadership into one comprehensive framework. Durbin (2007) expressed the concept of leadership in simple formula with a profound meaning: $L = f(l, gm, \text{ and } s)$. The formula indicates that the leadership process is a function of the leader (L), group members (gm), and other situational variables (s). However, Durbins' leadership frame work was not the only approach to leadership, but there were other approaches which were built by different organizational behavior researchers. A brief overview of various approaches to leadership is given below.

2.2.1. The Great Man Approach

The classical view to understand leadership emphasized on the great man approach. It assumes that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The great man approach has an illustrious history that goes back to Plato and classical Greece. More recently, in the nineteenth century, Francis Galton believed that good leaders were born, not made. He investigated hereditary background of 'great men' in order to discover inherited capabilities of great leaders (Stogdill, 1974). The use of term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily dominated by males (Kotter, 1990).

According to this approach the route to find effective leader is to study their lives and emulate them (Mullins, 2007). However, world's most effective leaders display widely different personal qualities and emulating great men would altogether be difficult process. This led to the evolution of the next school of leadership known as trait approach.

2.2.2. The Trait Approach

The trait Approach evolved from the "Great man" approach as a way of identifying the key characteristics of successful leaders. Like great man

approach to leadership this theory also suggests that leaders are born, not made. Hence, advocates of trait approach list a number of traits, which are believed generally to be related to effective leadership unlike the great man approach. For example, leaders tend to be above average with respect to size, health, physical attractiveness, intelligence, self confidence, sociability, talkativeness and need for dominance (Hogg, 2005).

The major problem with trait approach lies in the fact that almost as many traits as studies undertaken were identified. After several years of such research, it became apparent that no consistent traits could be identified. Although some traits were found in a considerable number of studies the results were generally inclusive. Some leaders might have possessed certain traits but the absence of them did not necessarily mean that the person was not a leader (Stogdill, 1974).

Although there was little consistency in the results of the various trait studies, however, some traits did appear more frequently than others, including: technical skill, friendliness, task motivation, application to task, group task supportiveness, social skill, emotional control, administrative skill, general charisma and intelligence (Stogdill, 1974).

Trait approach theorists did not take into account the influence of situational variables that might moderate the relationship between leaders' traits and measures of leaders' effectiveness. The trait approach to leadership does not tell us which traits are absolutely needed in which leadership situations. The right amount of trait for a given leader is also undefined. Absence of reliable findings that link individual trait to leadership effectiveness largely abandoned trait approach in the middle of the twentieth century (Yukl, 2002). These all shortcomings of trait approach led to the upcoming of another approaches to leadership having different assumptions as to how leadership should be conceptualized.

2.2.3. The Behavioral Approach

In the late 1940's organizational behavior researchers began to explore the notion that how a person acts determines that person's leadership effectiveness. Instead of searching for traits, these researchers examined leader behaviors and its impact on performance and satisfaction of subordinates (Ivancevich, 1990).

Behavioral approach to leadership suggests that leadership can be taught, and leaders can be made rather than born. Behavioral theorists look at what leaders actually do. This opened the floodgates to leadership development, as opposed to simple psychometric assessment that sorts out those with leadership potential from those who will never have the chance (Tosi, Mezo &Rizzo, 2000).

Leadership behavior research at Ohio state university sought to clarify relevant aspects of leadership behaviors and found out that subordinates perceived the behavior of their leaders in terms of two independent dimensions: Initiating structure and consideration (Durbin, 2007). Structure initiation involves behavior in which leader organizes and defines the relationship in organization through such activities as assigning specific tasks, specifying procedures to be followed, scheduling work, and clarifying expectations for team members. Consideration is the degree to which the leader creates an environment of emotional support, warmth, friendliness, and trust with the subordinates. The leader creates this environment by being friendly and approachable, looking out for the personal welfare of the group (Ivancevich, 1990).

Leadership was explored as a style in behavioral approach to leadership. Instead of focusing on the individual traits that the leader should possess, the goal of behavioral theorists was directed towards studying the nature of managerial work, and classification of different functions, practices, roles and behaviors of the leader (Beryman, 1996)

This approach was based on the assumption that behavior can be learned and altered through practice. This led to an interest in training leaders, and investigation as to whether one kind of behavior was more efficient than others (Bass, 1990). Bass further argued that there are no best leadership styles which maximize efficiency and satisfaction in all situations. Rather, successful and effective leaders are able to adapt their style to fit requirements of different situations. However, behavioral researchers did not address the role of situational factor in influencing leadership behavior and effectiveness. This limitation led to the development of another leadership theory which would substantiate the pitfalls of behavioral approach.

2.2.4. The Contingency Approach to Leadership

Contingency approach emphasizes the role of contextual factors and how they either influence leadership behavior directly or moderate the relationship between leadership and measures of leader effectiveness. Social psychologists have thoroughly investigated potential situational variables that affect leadership roles, skills, behaviors, and subordinates performance and satisfaction. Numerous contextual variables were identified, but no theory pulled it all together (Durbin, 2007). This led to the emergence of different situational based leadership models such as Fielder's contingency model, Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory, leader-member exchange theory of George, the path-goal theory of Robert House, Leader-participation model and decision making model of Vroom and Yetton (Beryman, 1996). Among these Fielders' contingency theory, path goal theory and the Vroom-Yetton model are the most prominent contingency theories (Fielder, 1967; House 1971; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; cited in Tosi, Mero & Rizzo, 2000).

Fielder's contingency theory concentrates on three situational factors (task structure, quality of leader-member relations, power inherent in the leader's position) that affect the leader's ability to influence his/her subordinates (Schermerhorn, 1985). According to Fielder, depending on these factors the

leader may adopt task or employee oriented leadership style. Leader-member relations are the amount of loyalty, dependability and support that the leader show or give to or receive from the employees. Task structure is the extent to which jobs are defined and specified. Position power is the degree of influence a leader has over power variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions and salary increment. It has been found that task motivated leaders tended to perform better in both favorable and unfavorable situations. On the other hand, relationship or people oriented leaders would function more effectively in moderate situations (Tosi, Mero, & Rizzo, 2000).

Major contribution of Fielder's work is that it has prompted others to conduct studies about the contingency nature of leadership. In addition, Fielder's theory is one of the most widely used theories in organizational psychology and it was extensively used as the basis for various leadership training programs (Ivancevich, 1990). Despite its potential advantages, the contingency theory is too complicated to have much impact on most leaders. A major problem centers on matching the situation to the leader.

Path-goal theory advocators categorized leader behaviors in to four different types (House & Mitchell, 1974), as cited in Durbin (2007). These are directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented leadership behaviors. When the task is ambiguous directive leader is recommended. With group members who are unsure of themselves supportive leadership style is preferred to the other three leadership behaviors. Participative leader is best suited for improving the morale of well-motivated employees who perform non-repetitive tasks. Achievement-orientated leader works well with achievement oriented team members and with those working on ambiguous and non-repetitive works. Despite its contribution to the understandings of organizational leadership, path-goal theory had so many nuances and complexities that have attracted little interest from experts in the area of organizational behavior research (Durbin, 2007).

Vroom and Yetton model suggests five leadership decision styles, two of them made by autocratic leader, and another two made by participative leader, and the last one made by the group. Decision by autocratic leader is made either by the leader alone using information available at the time or obtain information from subordinates and then decide on the issue alone. On the other hand participative leader share the problem either with relevant subordinates individually or with subordinates as a group, then the leader makes the decision that may or may not reflect the views of subordinates. These leader's decision styles are chosen based on decision quality, decision acceptance and the amount of time required to make decision (Mullins, 2007).

The central proposition in the Vroom and Yetton model is that the decision making method should be appropriate to the problem being solved. Thus, all decision methods are useful and important to a leader, and each should be used over time. The task is to know when and how to implement each as the situation requires (Schermerhorn, 1985). The Vroom and Yetton model has been criticized as being complex and cumbersome (Tosi, Mero & Rizzo, 2000).

2.2.5. Multifactor Leadership Approach

The multifactor approach to leadership, developed by Bass in the 1980s, encompasses a range of leader behaviors. This approach incorporates transformational, transactional, and Laissez-faire styles of leadership. These leadership styles have been described to have a direct effect on individual as well as organizational level outcomes (Bass, 1990).

Bass (1985) based his descriptions of transformational and transactional leaders on Burns's (1978) ideas. Bass classified leadership ability to ordinary (transactional) and extraordinary (transformational) leadership. He described ordinary leaders as those who influence employee compliance by expected rewards. Transformational leaders are those who motivate their subordinates to perform beyond expectations. The work of Bass and his colleague (Bass &

Avolio, 1995) expand Burns's factors of leadership to include a third factor called as Laissez-faire leadership; uninvolved leaders. Bass (1985) investigated key behaviors of leaders in public and private organization and developed a model of transformational leadership.

2.2.5.1. Transformational Leadership Style

There is a considerable variation in the way transformational leadership is conceptualized. Bennis (1959), as cited in Burns (1978), described transformational leader as someone with the ability to reach the souls of his or her followers. This description has been modified by Burns (1978), who was the first person to propose that transformational leadership represents the transcendence of leader and followers self-interest for the sake of organizational mission and vision attainment. According to him, transformational leaders are those who are able to make their subordinates to be aware of the importance of sharing organizational goals and values.

Yukl (1989) defined transformational leadership as the process of influencing major changes in attitudes and assumptions of organizational members and building commitment for the organization's mission and objectives. Transformational leaders are said to appeal to higher ideals and moral values of followers, heighten their expectation, and spur them to greater effort and performance on behalf of the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Bass and Avolio also suggest that transformational leader inspires followers with vision of what can be accomplished through extra personal effort.

Transformational leaders have the ability to motivate their subordinates to commit themselves to perform beyond expectations (Howell & Avolio, 1992). According to Bass, leaders motivate their subordinates in three main ways. One is by raising subordinates' awareness levels about how organizational objectives are to be achieved. The other is through encouraging co-workers to put organizational objectives above their own personal interests. The leaders can

also motivate subordinates by satisfying and stimulating their higher order needs. In order to influence subordinates as effectively as possible, transformational leaders must possess and display four characteristics; namely idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Idealized influence is the emotional component of leader's behavior that moves followers from their self-interest to a major purpose. Leaders demonstrating idealized influence or charisma have a good vision, a strong influence and well stated mission of their organization (Bass, 1990). They instill pride in their subordinates and command respect. Employees have a high level of trust and confidence in such leaders, tend to adopt their vision, seek to identify with them, and develop strong sense of loyalty to them. A charismatic leader does not derive his or her authority and the legitimization of his or her leadership from rules, position, or tradition, but from the follower's faith and trust in him or her (Bass & Avolio, 2000). In one study idealized influence was found to be the prominent leadership style frequently used by the leaders (Moore & Rudd, 2006).

Leaders who encourage their subordinates to be innovative and creative are known as intellectually stimulating leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Such leaders provide their subordinates with alternative ways of solving problems. In addition, intellectually stimulating leaders arouse in their subordinates a greater cognizance of problems, awareness of their own thoughts and imagination, and recognition of their beliefs and values. Intellectual stimulation can occur at the dyadic, one, group or organizational levels. It is seen in subordinates conceptualization, comprehension, and discernment of the problem they face and their solutions (Bass, 1985).

According to Mitroff (1978), intellectual contribution of a leader is particularly important when organizational members face ill-structured rather than well-

structured problems. For example, serious problems, such as inadequate equipment, inappropriate procedures, delays, excessive costs, and so on that reduce the unit's effectiveness (Yukl, 2002). Yukl also suggest that intellectually stimulating leaders are by and large needed when groups exist in a hostile environment, and its survival is endangered by competitors and external opponents who cause periodic crises.

Leader's inspirational motivation is about motivating and inspiring through providing challenges and meaning within their work environment. Unlike idealized influence, inspirational motivation can occur without the need for identification of subordinates with the leader (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Inspirational leaders articulate shared goals and mutual understanding of what is right and important for the organization in simple ways. They provide their subordinates with vision of what is possible and how to attain them.

As to Beryman (1996), inspirational motivation is an intangible leadership behavior that impresses subordinate's confidence to reach the unreachable goals. Bass (1985) also argued that inspirational leaders arouse their subordinates' confidence in their own capacities and confidence in those whom they work with. Other things being constant, leader's raising expectations about the success of the subordinate's effort would increase the likelihood of subordinate's success. Inspirational activities by the transformational leader become important particularly when organizational work is difficult and frustrating, and subordinates are likely to become discouraged by temporary setbacks and lack of progress (Yukl, 1989).

Individualized consideration is another aspect of transformational leadership. It involves understanding and sharing in others' concerns and developmental needs, and treating each individual uniquely (Avolio & Bass, 2004). It represents an attempt on the part of the leaders not only recognizing and satisfying their subordinates' current needs, but also to expand and elevate

those needs in order to maximize and develop their full potential. Individualized consideration involves mentoring, coaching, providing continuous feedback, and linking the individual's current needs to the organization's mission (Bass, 1990). Leaders with individualized consideration behavior provide training and coaching to their subordinates. Specifically, they apply long periods of learning and experience when the work is complex and highly technical (Yukl, 1989).

2.2.5.2. Transactional Leadership Style

Transactional leadership theory is embedded in the social learning and social exchange theories, which recognize the reciprocal nature of leadership (Deluga, 1990). It is based on the realization that leadership does not necessarily reside in the person or situation but resides in the social interaction between the leaders and the subordinates (Seters and Field, 1989). Bass (1985) referred to transactional leadership as an exchange relationship between leader and subordinates.

Transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authorities that give emphasis to task completion, and rewards and punishments (Trace and Hinkin, 1998). Transactional leadership occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things. In this relationship the leader and the subordinate exchange needs and services in order to accomplish organizational goals (Burns, 1978). Bass (1985), and Bass and Avolio (1990) described transactional leadership in terms of two characteristics: the use of contingent rewards and management by exception.

Contingent reward refers to the reinforcement that the leader provides subordinates when they accomplish goals that were agreed upon properly. Contingent reward is, therefore, an exchange of rewards for meeting agreed-upon objectives. Contingent rewarding transactional leaders do not only reinforce subordinates for their goal attainment, but also punish them if they are unable to do their job. For example, if subordinates do not complete the

task as agreed with the leader, the leader imposes aversive reinforcement such as correction, reproof, penalization or withdrawal of authorization to continue (Bass, 1985). Both contingent reward and contingent penalization are characteristic of transaction leadership oriented leaders. Unlike transformational leaders, such leaders are more concerned with efficient processes than with substantive ideas (Bass & Avolio, 1990). They are more interested in what will work rather than in what is true.

Transactional leaders may also rely on management by-exception, which can be active or passive. Active management by-exception occurs when the leader recommend his or her subordinates to maintain the status quo. No matter how beneficiary the new ways of doing organizational activities are, these leaders fear to deviate from existing organizational norms. Such leaders make corrective criticisms or use negative reinforcement to maintain accustomed systems of doing things. They closely monitor followers so that they can point out mistakes and errors before it happen. Leaders adopting active management by exception leadership style enforce rules or standards to avoid mistakes (Northouse, 2001). A leader with passive management by-exception behavior only intervene when goals have not been met or a problem become serious. The passive management by exception behavior adopting leader waits to take action until mistakes are brought to his or her attention (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Research indicates that leaders tend to underutilize the transactional leadership methods. Time pressure, poor appraised methods, doubts about the efficiency of positive and negative reinforcement, discomfort to leader and associate, and lack of skill or confidence are all partly responsible factors for the failure to use transactional leadership methods (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Avolio and Bass also attributed the reason why transactional leadership style underutilized to leader's lack of necessary reputation or resources to deliver the needed rewards. Those leaders who fails to deliver the appropriate rewards may

lose their reputation and therefore no longer be seen as effective transactional leaders (Tsui, 1982).

When compared to transformational leadership styles, transactional leadership styles are less used by the leaders while dealing with different organizational issues. Previous study revealed that compared to the other transactional leadership styles, contingent reward style was largely practiced by the leaders and passive management by exception was reported as the least used one (Moore & Rudd, 2006).

2.2.5.3. Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

Laissez-faire leadership style is a non-leadership behavior that implies the leader's indifference towards both subordinate's action and organizational activities. Deluga (1990) described laissez-faire leader as an extremely passive leader who is reluctant to influence subordinates to make decision or to give direction. Laissez-faire leaders avoid influencing their subordinates and escape supervisory duties. They leave too much organizational responsibility to subordinates. Subordinates who work with laissez-faire leader set their own goals with no managerial inputs and work toward them with no direction. These leaders do not attempt to motivate subordinates by recognizing and fulfilling their needs. In line with this, Study also indicated that subordinates' satisfaction and performance under laissez-faire leaders are low (Bass, 1990). According to Moore and Rudd (2006) research finding report, compared to transformational and transactional leadership styles, the non-leadership style was reported to be least used by the leaders.

2.3. Organizational Conflict and its Models

Organizations always contain sub-groups and sub-organizations, divisions, and departments which are involved in a continuous interaction through the process of organizational goals accomplishments. As to Rahim (1986), when two or more persons or groups come in contact with one another in attaining their

objectives, the relationship may become incompatible or inconsistent and would possibly lead to conflict. Similarly, it has also been claimed that “*a conflict exists whenever incompatible activities occur*” (Deutsch, 1973, P.67). In organizational area, March and Simon (1972) considered conflict as a breakdown in the standard mechanisms of decision making, which may result in individuals or groups facing of difficulty in selecting an alternative ways of solving problems.

There is no one comprehensive definition of conflict since it depends on which perspective one is looking from. Definitions have been given from various disciplines such as psychology, sociology, communication and anthropology. The common dominant theme in these definitions is that conflict results from incompatibilities in needs, goals, or interests and perceived or real influence from one party against the other party to achieve these needs, goals or interests (Rose & Suppiah, 2006). Perception plays an important role in creating as well as ignoring conflict. If conflict is not perceived by either party, then it does not exist. However, if it is perceived, conflict occurs whether the perception is real or not. When conflict, real or imaginary is perceived, it may trigger frustration, anger, fear, or anxiety. Those involved in conflict start to question how much they can trust each other, and worry about their ability to win the difficulty. This stage of conflict is critical because this is when the parties tend to define the issues and start looking for ways to resolve their differences (Tosi, Mero, & Rizzo, 2000).

The existence of conflict has been regarded as a sign that something is wrong and it requires correction. Thus, conflict should be avoided (Pondy, 1969). Contrary to this view, now a day's conflict is seen as inevitable in any organization and often necessary to ensure high performance.

Cosier and Dalton (1990) argue that some degree of conflict is healthy for an organization. Healthy benefits of conflict may include creative approaches to resolving problems and making decisions. According to Tosi, Mero and Rizzo

(2000), there is an optimal level of conflict at which organizational effectiveness maintained. They meant that too much or too little organizational conflict downplays organizational effectiveness. If it is too little, individuals may avoid each other instead of interacting to work on generating new ideas and developing creative approaches to problem solving. On the other hand, with constant disagreement over many issues, innovations may never come about, customers may be lost, and key issues may go unresolved (Tjosvold, 1983).

At the optimal level of conflict, quite different things happen (Tjosvold, 1991). There would be active attempts to improve quality and introduce changes that might make the organization more competitive and effective or efficient. Employees with different perspectives are willing to present their ideas, which contribute to performance improvement. Tension and frustration are accepted and channeled into productive, rather than destructive efforts (Rose & Suppiah, 2006). The two dimensional figure below shows the relationship between organizational effectiveness and conflict level.

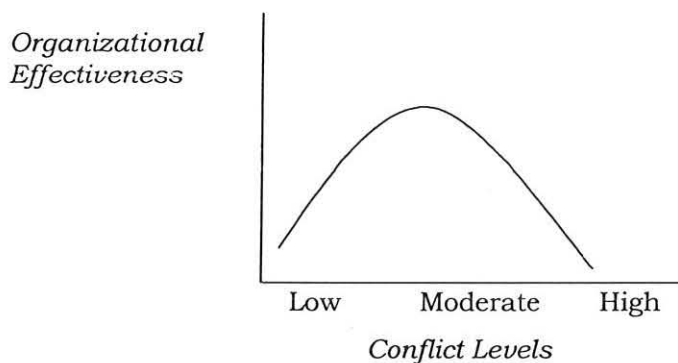


Figure two: A Two Dimensional Figure of Organizational Effectiveness and Conflict Levels.

Adapted from Tosi, Mero, and Rizzo (2000, P.280), *Managing organizational behavior*, Fourth edition.

2.3.1. The Process Model

This model assumes that conflict is a dynamic process that involves several stages. Parties engaged in conflict would go through the process in many

different ways more than once (Thomas, 1976). First, there must be antecedent conditions that cause or precede the conflict episode. Sometimes an aggressive act can start the conflict process. Secondly, the parties become aware or perceive the threat. Perceived conflict develops into manifest conflict, when people react to the perception. Behaviors that signal manifest conflict may include; arguments, aggressive acts, appeal to goodwill, or constructive problem solving. At the fourth stage, parties may agree about how to solve their difficulties and take steps to prevent it in the future. Sometimes conflict is suppressed rather than resolved. This happens when the parties avoid strong reactions or try to ignore each other when they disagree on the issue being argued up on. The last stage is conflict aftermath, feelings that remain whether conflict is resolved or suppressed. Sometimes good feelings and harmony or poorer future work relationship among employees may result (Hickson, Hinings, Lee, Schneck & Pennings, 1971).

The process model stresses on the role of people's cognition or 'conceptualization' in shaping conflict behavior. This is because of the fact that people see or perceive conflict in a fundamentally different ways, which would possibly result in using different conflict handling modes (Thomas, 1976). Pondy's (1969) finding on conflict conceptualization also revealed that conflicting parties' choice of conflict handling mode was strongly influenced by how the conflict situation is conceptualized. In addition, other researchers also asserted that due attention should be given to the underlying interest of the party in conflict rather than their reaction alone (Neale & Bazerman, 1991).

2.3.2 The Structural Model

The structural model to conflict deals with the more stable conditions of a given system which shape a conflict processes. In this model a generic set of parameters which would encourage different conflict handling modes are assessed to know why one conflict management style is preferred to the other (Thomas, 1992). These parameters include characteristics of conflicting parties

like their personality traits, and characteristics of the context within which the parties interacted.

The structural model has been built upon variables derived from several studies of interdepartmental conflict (Thomas, Walton, & Dutton, 1972; Walton, Dutton & Cafferty, 1969). The prime objective of this model is to capture the rich diversity of organizational conflict causing factors, in contrast to the simpler causal explanations commonly given by behavioral and social psychological perspectives (Thomas, 1992).

The structural model prominent advocator, Thomas (1992), identified four different classes of variables, which have a cumulative effect in shaping one's conflict management modes in any relationship. The first one is behavioral predisposition. The second is social pressure, the normative forces that influence conflicting parties in choosing conflict handling mode. Social pressure might be from the group or organization which the conflicting party is representing or from bystanders. The third is the structures of incentives. This means the parties 'stakes' in the conflict and the degree of 'conflict of interest' between the parties in conflict. The last one is rules and procedures or constraints upon the interaction process such as decision making rules, negotiating procedures, and/or procedures for mediating or arbitrating the dispute.

2.3.3. Cooperative versus Competitive Conflict Model

Deutch (1973), a pioneer in social psychology since 1940s, argued about how people believe their goals as either predominantly cooperative or competitive affect their expectations and actions. Cooperative goals help people manage their conflicts productively. It enables them to explore each other's perspectives and creatively integrate their views. Cooperation oriented people work for win-win solutions that maintain and strengthen the relationship. They are prepared

to discuss about the future conflicts that might happen in their organization (Tjosvold, 1983)

Competitive goals tend to create suspicion that people will promote their own interests at expense of others. People in competition restrict themselves from exchanging information and resources, and avoid discussion with one other. Even if they are compelled to discuss by their boss, they try to impose their positions and avoid losing (Etherington & Tjosvold, 1993). Therefore, competitive goals make conflict management very difficult and would possibly aggravate disagreement among employees.

Studies documented that people in cooperation share information, see each other's points of view, communicate and influence outcomes effectively. They also exchange resources, assist and support each other, discuss opposing ideas openly, and use higher quality reasoning (Johnson, Maruyama, Nelson & Skon, 1981). These actions, in turn help cooperators move forward to complete tasks, agree to high quality solutions, respect each other, and strengthen work relationships and confidence in future collaboration.

2.4. Organizational Conflict Resolution Strategies

Organizational conflict must not necessarily be reduced, eliminated or avoided, but it needs to be managed to reduce its dysfunctional outcomes. Organizational conflict management is all about, in general, maintenance of moderate amount of conflict and enabling organizational members to handle the conflict effectively while dealing with different organizational and personal issues (Rahim, 1986).

Organizational conflict management involves diagnosis and intervention in conflict situation. Conflict diagnosis involves measuring the magnitude of conflict and identifying its source (Deutsch, 1973). Organizational conflict has to be properly diagnosed because the underlying causes of conflict may not be

what appear on the surface. Leaders' intervention of the conflict may be needed if the parties in conflict are not handling their conflict effectively.

According to Rahim and Banoma(1979), there are two basic approaches to intervention in conflict: behavioral and structural approaches. The behavioral approach attempts to improve organizational effectiveness by changing member's attitude, values, norms and beliefs. This approach is mainly designed to manage conflict through enabling organizational members to learn ways of handling interpersonal conflict and the situations where they are appropriate or inappropriate. The structural approach deals with improving organizational effectiveness by changing organization's structural design, characteristics like differentiation and integration mechanisms, system of communication, reward system, etc. . Structural approach mainly attempts to manage conflict by reducing the amount of conflict experienced by the organizational members at various levels (Rahim, 2002).

Organizational conflict management methods are as varied as its causes and contexts. Every organization has its own mechanisms and procedures for managing conflict. Blacke and Mountain (1964), as cited in Panagoits (2006), were the first authors to develop a conceptual scheme for classifying the styles of handling intra-organizational conflict. The pivotal notion in their model was the extent to which the leader is concerned for production or for people. Their ideas was further developed by Thomas (1974) giving emphasis to the intention of the party in conflict. Thomas suggested five major strategies of conflict resolution that organizational leaders can adopt: collaborating, accommodating, forcing, withdrawal, and compromise.

2.4.1. Collaborating Conflict Resolution Strategy

The collaborating strategy involves an attempt to satisfy the concern of both conflicting parties through open discussion. It implies willingness to accept the other party's needs, while asserting one's own. Collaborative conflict resolution

2.4.2. Compromise Conflict Resolution Strategy

Compromise is known as the middle ground solution to a problem. In compromise the concern of groups or persons involved in conflict situation would be partly met, provided that all of them are willing to sacrifice or be flexible about their concerns. That means parties in conflict should receive as well as give up something to make mutually acceptable decision (Kestner, 2002).

Compromising strategy is useful when the goals of the conflicting parties are mutually exclusive or when both parties are equally powerful (Rahim, 2002). Rahim further elaborated that people use compromising conflict resolution strategy when parties in conflict are unable to agree upon their concern, and need a temporary solution to their problem. Compromise can also be useful when there are time constraints to discuss over the disagreements or problems thoroughly. It enables the parties to make temporary solution until more time can be devoted to identify and analyze the complex issues (Tosi, Mero, and Rizzo, 2000).

Compromising strategy is inappropriate for dealing with complex issues seeking problem solving approach. Some people believe that compromising is not a good way to resolve a dispute because one party may wind up giving too much to the other party in order to settle the dispute, and the conflicts remain undefined (Kestner, 2002). This strategy can be problematic if initial demands of the conflict are too great or if there is no commitment by the parties involved to honor the compromise (Friedman, Tidd, Currall, and Tsai, 2000).

2.4.3. Accommodating Conflict Resolution Strategy

Accommodating approach to conflict resolution refers to giving in to the wishes of another person. Accommodators feel better to give up their own goals rather than risk alienating or upsetting others. For these people conflict is bad, hence, rather than avoiding it they give in so as to keep or strengthen the relationship they have with others (Rahim, 1986). Kestner (2002) stated that individuals

who choose accommodating mode of conflict resolution want to please others in order to keep the peace more than striving to meet their own personal needs.

Accommodating strategy is useful when obliging party is not familiar with the issues involved in a conflict or the other party is right and the issue is much more important to the other party (Rahim, 2002). This style may also be used as an effective conflict resolution strategy when a given party is willing to give up something with a hope of getting some benefit from the other party (Kozan, 1991). There are also cases in which accommodation would be an inappropriate method of conflict resolution strategy. For example, if the issue of conflict is important to the accommodating party and the party believes that he or she is right, this strategy would be inappropriate (Friedman, Tidd, Currall, & Tsai, 2000). It is also not recommended when the party giving in believes that the other party is wrong and unethical.

2.4.4. Dominating Conflict Resolution Strategy

Dominating strategy to conflict resolution is characterized by win-lose perspective or with forcing behavior of one individual over another to win a position or resolve a conflict situation. An individual using a dominating style typically uses whatever measures necessary to win the game, and as a result, ignores or minimize the needs and expectations of the other party (Thomas, 1992). Such people may threaten the other party with present or future harm either physically or legally.

In organizational settings, study indicated that a dominating conflict resolution strategy creates behaviors that make others to solve problems less likely. When a supervisor uses a more dominating style, subordinates are less motivated to deal with their supervisor concerning the task at hand (Kozan, 1991).

Dominating conflict resolution strategy may be the best style in crises; when there is no time for disagreement and discussion. It may also be used by upper management for implementing strategies and policies, or when unpopular

In one study significant difference between men and women leaders was found in handling interpersonal conflicts. The women exceeded men in mean scores on accommodation and compromising, whereas men exceeded women in mean scores on collaborating and avoiding strategies of conflict resolution (Chaudhry, Shami, Saif & Ahmed, 2008). Contrary to this finding, Moore and Rudd (2000) found that there is no significant gender difference in both sexes' conflict management styles. Similarly, Duane (1989) reported that there is no significant difference between males and females in using compromise and collaboration conflict management modes. However, in another study on gender differentials in handling organizational conflict it was found out that significant differences exist between female and male leaders in using domination and compromising conflict resolution strategies, with male leaders more use of dominating style than female leaders and female leaders more use of compromise strategy than the male ones (Shockley & Morley, 1984).

Previous psychological research results also suggested that men and women leaders tend to endorse conflict management strategies that complement gender role expectations (Copley, 2008). That means differences in conflict resolution of men and women are determined by gender roles, which are considered to represent learned patterns of feminine (participative, accommodative, cooperative, nurturing, tolerant, etc) and masculine (autocratic, competitive, directive, courage, etc) characteristics. Similarly, another research finding indicated that female supervisors tend to use compromising, cooperative, accommodating, avoiding and pro-social methods to deal with different organizational conflict situations (Korabik, Baril, & Watson, 1993). In contrast, these researcher's findings revealed that male leaders tend to use more aggressive, competitive, confronting, assertive, pro-task and coercive conflict resolution strategies more often and faster than female leaders.

According to Jurma and Powell (1994) research report, there are leaders who possess male-like and female-like characteristics. This would make them to

adopt socially attributed conflict resolution strategies of both male and female leaders. Hence, they were found to be most effective in handling conflict more than the other leaders.

2.6. The Relationship between Levels of Managements and Leaders' Choice of Conflict Resolution Strategies

Every organization, whether it is small or large, has a range of mechanisms or procedures for resolving conflict. These mechanisms are built into the organizational structure and consciously employed by leaders to influence the course and development of a conflict. The success or effectiveness of such strategies can be determined by the extent to which it limits conflict behavior and enables organization members achieve satisfactory solutions (Mullins, 2007).

In small organizations there is only one level management. In medium or large size organizations there are various levels of management, each with varying degrees of authority and responsibility. The different levels of management found in the large organizations are sometimes classified into three groups: top level management, middle level management, and lower or first line management (Rashid & Archer, 1983).

Top management employees are responsible persons to formulate organizational policies, set objectives, develop strategic plan and design the overall organizational structure. Middle management workers are also known as executive management employees. Members of middle management are responsible for translating policies into actions, controlling and coordinating activities with their units. They also assist top management in the formulation of policies and plans, and maintaining the role of divisional unit leaders. Lower level or line management group's duty is to keep production rolling, dealing with contingencies and operational problems on a day-to-day basis, and providing leadership on the shop floor (Rashid & Archer, 1983).

Organization as a whole does not perform well unless the leaders at every level resolve conflict by proper diagnosis of the underlying causal factors. Edgar (1980) asserted that leaders at various organizational levels of small to large organizations handle conflict situations that their organizations face in different ways. He further argued that leader's conflict management strategies could be influenced by different factors like leaders' values, time factor, organizational situation, leaders' and subordinates' personality, and organizational structure. In his investigation on interpersonal conflict resolution strategies Rahim (1986) found out statistically significant difference among leaders at top, middle, and lower levels of the organization in using accommodation and avoidance conflict handling strategies.

2.7. The Relationship between Leaders' Age, Experience and Educational Level, and the choice of Conflict Resolution Strategies

Research indicated that one's choice of organizational conflict management strategy is influenced by leader's age, experience, and educational level. Mckenna and Richardson (1995) studied the relationship between age and conflict management strategies, and found out that as age increases, employees become more collaborative in handling different conflict situations.

In his work place conflict management styles study, Setegn (2007), found out that workers in different age groups tended to use collaboration and compromising more than other conflict management styles. Another study found out that there is statistically significant difference among individuals in different age groups in applying dominating and avoidance conflict handling strategy; younger individuals(36 years or less) tend to make more use of domination than older individuals(45 years and above), and the older workers were found to be less avoidant of conflict situation(Havenga,2005)

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

A cross-sectional research design was employed to undertake this study. Survey method was used to collect information about leaders' opinions regarding their leadership styles and conflict handling strategies as it is perceived by them. With the same method information pertaining to leader's leadership style preference was generated from the subordinates to see the difference between leader's perception of their leadership style and their style as it is perceived by their subordinates.

3.2. Population of the Study

The target population of this study is Finchaa Sugar Factory (FSF) workers, specifically some selected leaders and subordinates of the organization. According to February, 28, 2010 man power distribution report the factory has seven thousand five hundred twenty four workers working in different work units of the organization. Among the whole FSF employees 5133 of them are seasonal workers, 614 of them are contractual workers, 18 of them are casual workers, and 1711 of them are permanent employees. Finchaa sugar factory is chosen as the study site because of the reason that the factory contains relatively large number of workers which helped the present researcher to get many leaders, who would be a source of information regarding the issue under investigation.

3.3. Sample and Sampling Technique

The samples of the study consisted of one hundred forty four leaders and three hundred forty four subordinates of Finchaa Sugar Factory (FSF) workers. The samples were drawn from all work units of the organization by using proportional stratified sampling method, i.e., sample size proportional to the number of leaders and subordinates in each departments of the organization.

After determining the number of respondents from each work unit, the sample was selected using simple random technique. Out of 7524 workers of FSF, 221(184 males and 37 females) of them were leaders and 7303(5683 males and 1620 females) of them were subordinates. Participants of this study were 144 leaders (107 males & 37 females) and 344 subordinates (172 males & 172 female). The size of the sample was determined based on Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005) table of representative sample size determination for research activities for a given population size.

Some participant's response was not analyzed because they did not complete the instrument appropriately and some did not return the questionnaire at all. These participants were nineteen; seventeen of them were subordinates and two of them were leaders. Therefore, responses of one hundred forty two leaders and three hundred twenty seven subordinates, totally 469 participants were analyzed.

3.4. Instruments

In order to collect the data sought to undertake the study self report questionnaire was used. Two types of questionnaires were employed i.e. leadership styles assessing questionnaire, and conflict resolution strategies assessing questionnaire.

3.4.1. Leadership Styles Assessment Questionnaire

- Leader's background information like their age, sex, educational levels, work experiences, and job levels were asked since these variables were considered in this study.
- Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) which was developed by Bass and Avolio (2000) was adopted and used to gather information regarding leadership styles; both as it is perceived by the leaders and their subordinates. MLQ is available in two forms which are parallel in content: the rater form, in which a supervisee rates the leadership skill of

the supervisors, and the self-rating form, in which the supervisor rates himself or herself on the same items. Subordinates were requested to answer the questionnaire by rating how frequently their current immediate supervisors have displayed the behaviors described, using a five point scale (0 = Not at all to 4 = fairly often, if not always). Leaders also rated their leadership style against this five point likert scale how often they display specific behaviors asked as it is perceived by them.

- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has 45 items which measures leadership style (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and contingent reward, active management by exception, passive management by-exception and non-leadership) and other three outcome variables (subordinate satisfaction, subordinate extra effort and rates of effectiveness). For the purpose of this study 32 items measuring leadership styles were used. The questionnaire has 16 transformational leadership measuring items: four for idealized influence, four for intellectual stimulation, four for inspirational motivation, and four for individualized consideration. MLQ has 12 items measuring transactional leadership; four of them measuring contingent reward leadership, four of them measuring passive management-by exception, and four of them measuring active management-by-exception. Finally, MLQ also has four items measuring the non-leadership style.
- The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been extensively used in field and laboratory research to study transformational, transactional, and non-leadership styles. The instrument can appropriately be used for selection, transfer, and promotion activities. MLQ is appropriate for leaders of any group and level (team leaders to executive) and for culturally diverse population (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

3.4.2. Conflict Resolution Strategies Assessment Questionnaire

- Conflict Resolution Strategies Scale (CRSS) developed by Thomas and Kilman (1974) was used to measure the leaders typical behavior when resolving conflict in a work place on a five point scale (1 = never to 5= always). The CRSS is a twenty five item inventory with five sub-scales consisting of collaborating, avoiding, dominating, accommodating and compromising. These items measure how supervisors at different hierarchical levels handle conflicts with their subordinates when task or employee relationship related conflict happen in the organization through the course of organizational activities. Thomas and Kilman's CRSS is adopted in such a way that it fits to our country's organizational contexts in order to avoid participant's response error to the items due to cultural diversity.

3.5. Pilot Test

A pilot test was conducted to examine internal consistency of the items in each instrument type, which was used to collect data to undertake this study. Before that, the instrument was translated from English language to Amharic language by two graduate students and the researcher. Backward and forward translation of the items was made to avoid the meaning differences between the English and Amharic version of the questionnaire.

The pilot test was carried out on thirty workers (15 leaders and 15 subordinates) of the Finchaa Sugar Factory. Leaders and subordinates who participated in the pilot study were selected using simple random sampling from different departments of the factory. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of the try out test result indicated that Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which measure leader's leadership styles as it is perceived by the leaders themselves and their subordinates had internal consistency of ($\alpha= 0.807$) and ($\alpha= 0.748$) respectively. On the other hand, leader's conflict resolution strategies measuring scale had internal

consistency of ($\alpha = 0.632$). Based upon Gay's (1980) criteria for accepting a given instrument as reliable the reliability coefficient should be greater than or equal to 0.5, all items were used with some modifications for the main study data collection. In order to prevent test contamination participants who participated in the pilot study were excluded in the main study.

3.6. Procedure of Data Collection

The researcher, before duplicating the instruments of data collection discussed with the concerned bodies of Finchaa Sugar Factory workers that he is interested in carrying out study on their factory workers telling them briefly what the objectives of the study are. The officers, whom the researcher contacted, admitted him that he can carry out his study in their organization. Besides, based on the request of the researcher these officers wrote letter to other concerned bodies to give him the factory employees figure. Having data of the number of workers working in each functional units of the factory, the researcher determined the size of sample for the final data collection and those who will participate in the pilot test. The researcher carried out the try out test one week before the final data collection.

The final data collection took the researcher four days. On the first day, the researcher facilitated the smooth going of data collection process with human resource development and system improvement service officers of the factory. The officers wrote letter to all departments of the factory that the researcher is allowed to carry out a study in their organization and informed them to cooperate with the necessary information he seeks for. Thereafter with cooperation of five persons the researcher started processes of data collection. He oriented these persons which type of questionnaire is filled by whom, that respondents give information based on their consent, and that if they have no time to read and fill the questionnaire at work they are allowed to fill it at home and return to the assistants. The research assistants were provided with lists of

employee's departments and respective participant's figure from each department. Fortunately, no one refused to fill the questionnaire.

3.7. Method of Data Analysis

To analyze data collected for this study purpose Statistical Package for social Scientist (SPSS, Version 15.0) was utilized. The following statistical measures were used.

- MANOVA was used to examine the differences between leaders in choosing conflict resolution strategies based on sex, age, educational level and experiences. Dependent t-test was used to test the extent to which leaders ratings of their leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies differ from hypothesized value.
- Bivariate correlational analysis was used to see the relationship between leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies. The relationship between leaders' background variables and conflict resolution strategies was also analyzed using the same method. For this purpose the most often used type of correlation in behavioral science research activities, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used.
- One way ANOVA was employed to test whether there is variation among the leader's choice of conflict management strategies across organizational hierarchies (lower level, middle level and higher level). Since one way ANOVA involves the analysis of one independent variable with two or more levels, it is an appropriate statistical method to test with.
- Post hoc comparison, Tukey/Kramer procedure was performed to examine the pair wise differences. Tukey/Kramer was computed because it assumes unequal sample sizes across sample groups, which is applicable for this study.

- In this section of the study, the data collected pertaining to the basic research questions were analyzed and presented. The results of the analysis are presented in summarized forms using statistical methods; descriptive statistics (Percentage, frequency, Mean and standard deviation), independent sample t-test, one sample t-test, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), and zero order correlation coefficient (Pearson product moment correlation coefficient).

3.8. Background Characteristics of Respondents

Here under background information of participants is presented in two summary tables (Table 1 and Table 2)

Table1: Leader's Experiences, Sex and Work Levels Cross Tabulation

Experience in years	Sex	Organizational Levels							
		Lower level		Middle level		Higher level		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
0-2	M	10	7.042	7	4.929	6	4.225	23	16.174
	F	-	-	4	2.817	2	1.408	6	4.930
3-7	M	22	15.483	15	10.563	12	8.451	49	34.507
	F	3	2.113	11	7.746	2	1.408	16	11.269
8-11	M	9	6.338	9	6.338	7	4.929	25	17.605
	F	7	4.929	1	0.704	4	2.817	12	7.746
12&above	M	4	2.817	3	2.113	1	0.704	8	4.984
	F	3	2.113	-	-	-	-	3	2.113
Total	N	58	-	50	-	34	-	142	-
	%	-	40.845	-	35.212	-	23.94	-	100

M = Male

F = Female

Table1 above shows the respondents background information distribution respective to their work unit, their service years in the organization, and their sex.

Data in table 1 indicate that in each level of the organization the percentage of female leaders is less than that of the male leaders. This shows female workers less participation in leadership position. It might be due to lack of accessibility to be a leader, male's underestimation of female's capability to lead, or female workers lack of desired knowledge, skill and competence. It is also observed in the table that as organizational level increases the number of leaders decreases (lower level = 58, middle level = 50. and higher level = 34). This indicates that at the bottom of the organization there are more divisions and departments than at the middle level. So, there needs to be many leaders at the bottom. On the other hand, there are more divisions at middle level of the organization than at the higher level of the organization, so more leaders are found in the middle level than at the higher level.

Table 2: Leader's Age and Educational Status Information

Education al Status	Age Categories										
	18-25		26-35		36-45		46 &above		Total		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
PEC	-	-	3	2.113	-	-	1	0.704	4	2.817	
SEC	-	0.704	2	1.408	6	4.23	3	2.12	12	8.45	
CH	-	-	4	2.817	7	4.93	5	3.25	16	11.267	
DH	7	4.29	26	18.31	20	14.10	6	4.23	59	41.547	
FDA	5	3.52	25	17.61	14	9.86	7	4.93	51	35.914	
Total	N	13	-	60	-	47	-	22	-	142	-
	%	-	9.154	-	42.252	-	33.10	-	15.494	-	100

NB: PEC = primary education complete, SEC= secondary education complete,

CH=certificate holders, DH= diploma holders, FDH&A = first degree and above

The figure in table 2 above indicate that larger percentage of Finchaa Sugar Factory Leaders' age (42.253%) fall in the age category of twenty Six to thirty five and that most of the leaders (41.54%) are diploma holders in certain field of

study. The figure also shows that there is only one leader whose age is fifty six or above and the least percentage of leaders educational status (2.817%) is that of those who completed primary education.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1. Leader's Leadership Styles and Their Conflict Resolution Strategies

In the next two tables (3 and 4) to what extent leaders choose one leadership styles or conflict management strategy more than others is presented.

Table 3: One sample t-test Results of Leader's Leadership Styles Response Distribution

Leadership styles	Test value=8					
	N	Means	df	Std. Deviation	MD	t
Transformational Leadership styles						
Idealized influence	142	11.690	141	2.450	3.690	17.948*
Intellectual stimulation	142	12.056	141	2.416	4.056	20.001*
Individualized consideration	142	9.823	141	2.499	1.823	8.697*
Inspirational motivation	142	11.915	141	2.459	3.915	18.970*
Transactional Leadership styles						
Contingent reward	142	11.647	141	2.426	3.647	17.912*
Passive management by exception	142	8.993	141	3.190	.993	3.709*
Active management by exception	142	10.971	141	2.116	2.971	16.729*
Laissez-Faire Leadership style						
Non-Leadership	142	6.549	141	5.175	-1.451	-3.340*

*0.05 significance level MD=Mean Difference df= Degree of freedom

As indicated in table 3 above all the eight leadership styles mean scores were found to be significantly different from hypothesized value. The largest mean difference between sample mean and test value is observed with intellectual stimulation leadership style (MD=4.056). This shows that Finchaa sugar factory leaders feel that they largely follow intellectual stimulation style to lead their subordinates towards achievement of organizational common goals. This might be because these leaders feel that they have the characteristics of such leaders like enabling followers to question old ways of doing things, initiating creativity, challenging assumptions, etc, which are spices of organizational success. The leaders' non-leadership style mean score is found to be significantly lower than

the hypothesized value. Leadership is about influencing people toward achievement of some common goals, and non-leadership is the opposite; having no or little involvement in organizational activities. The perceived minimum use of non-leadership style by the respondents may be due to the leaders' feeling of the negligent characteristics of this style, which would possibly hamper organizational effectiveness.

Table 4: One Sample t-test Result of Leader's Conflict Resolution Strategies Response Distribution

CRS	Test Value = 12.5					
	N	Mean	Df	Std. Deviation	MD	t
Avoidance	142	14.9155	141	3.07701	2.415	9.355*
Domination	142	14.4225	141	4.14168	1.922	5.531*
Compromise	142	17.8592	141	2.89189	5.359	22.083*
Accommodation	142	17.3521	141	2.90804	4.852	19.883*
Collaboration	142	20.4366	141	3.45070	7.936	27.408*

*0.05 significance level, CRS = conflict resolution strategies MD=Mean difference

Figures in table 4 above show that means of all the five leaders' conflict resolution strategies significantly differed from hypothesized value showing that leaders are using all strategies above average. The largest mean difference between sample mean and test value is obtained with leaders' use of collaboration conflict resolution strategy (MD=7.936). This shows that when things go wrong among workers of the factory the leaders more frequently choose the peaceful ways of tackling problems through sharing information and clarifying point of conflict to reach at a solution acceptable to the conflicting parties.

It is also indicated in table 4 that next to collaboration conflict handling strategy, accommodation and compromise are the more practiced ways of managing conflict with mean differences of (MD= 4.852) and (MD= 5.359) from test value respectively. As the results in table 4 show domination strategy is the

least used method of treating conflict situation with a mean difference of 1.922 from the hypothesized value. Leader's least application of domination technique to conflict situation might be because of the reason that leaders came to realize that dominating others while solving conflict cannot solve the problem in a mutually acceptable way.

4.2. The Difference between Leader's Perception of Their own Leadership Styles and Leaders style as it is perceived by Their Subordinates

In order to distinguish whether perception difference exists between leader and the subordinates on leader's leadership style an independent t-tests of leaders and subordinates responses are computed and presented accordingly.

Table 5: T-test result for Leaders and Subordinates Perception Difference on Leader's Leadership Styles

Variables	Respondent	N	Mean	SD	df	t
Transformational Leadership styles						
Idealized influence	Leaders	142	11.690	2.450	467	9.688*
	Subordinates	327	8.367	3.778		
Intellectual stimulation	Leaders	142	12.056	2.416	467	8.030*
	Subordinates	327	8.923	4.397		
Individualized consideration	Leaders	142	9.823	2.499	467	6.591*
	Subordinates	327	7.562	3.776		
Inspirational motivation	Leaders	142	11.915	2.459	467	6.654*
	Subordinates	327	9.122	4.757		
Transactional Leadership styles						
Contingent reward	Leaders	142	11.647	2.426	467	9.644*
	Subordinates	327	8.204	3.968		
Active management by exception	Leaders	142	10.972	2.116	467	5.600*
	Subordinates	327	9.067	3.834		
Passive management by exception	Leaders	142	8.993	3.190	467	4.410*
	Subordinates	327	8.425	3.619		
Laissez-Faire Leadership style						
Non-leadership	Leaders	142	6.549	5.175	467	-5.462*
	Subordinates	327	7.434	3.407		

*0.05 significance level

The t-test results for mean difference examination between leaders and subordinates perception of leader's leadership style depicted in table 5 above indicates that there is a statistically significant perception difference in all of the eight leadership styles tested. With items measuring transformational and transactional leadership behaviors leaders rated high their leadership styles as they make more use of it, whereas on both leadership scales subordinates responded as their leaders make less use of it than the leaders rated themselves. Leader's identification of their leadership styles with transformational leadership more than the subordinates rated them may be due to leaders' aspiration to demonstrate characteristics of transformational leadership styles like individual consideration, initiating creativity, and motivating and their being a role model for others.

It is also indicated in table 5 above that there is significant perception difference between subordinates and leaders regarding the non-leadership style, showing the leaders less association of their behavior with this type of leadership style. But subordinates expressed that their leaders display the non-leadership (*laissez-faire*) characteristics more than the leaders self rating.

In short the observed leadership style perception difference between leaders and subordinates may be due to either the leaders exaggerated or underestimated their leadership styles or the subordinates erroneously perceived their leader's leadership styles. This may show the weaknesses of good work spirit relationship between individuals on a leadership position and the subordinates. But this relationship has to be strong enough for organizational success to be achieved.

4.3. The Relationship between Leader's Leadership Styles and their Conflict Resolution Strategies

To see the direction of relationship between leaders leadership styles and conflict handling tactics they adopt bivariate correlation coefficient is computed among the variables. The result is presented in table 6 below.

Table 6: Bivariate Correlation Results of Leadership Styles and Conflict Resolution Strategies

Intercorrelations					
Variables	Avoidance	Domination	Compromise	Accommodation	Collaboration
Idealized Influence	-.206*	.120	.111	.069	.230*
Intellectual Stimulation	-.127	-.165*	.072	.099	.361*
Individualized consideration	.055	.091	-.019	.060	.016
Inspirational Motivation	.049	.147	.080	.005	.087
Contingent reward	.088	.124	.042	-.055	.043
Active Management by exception	.065	.120	.118	.043	.110
Passive Management by exception	.016	.254*	.137	.116	.148
Non-Leadership	-.102	.004	-.037	.085	-.079

* Correlation is significant at 0.05 level

The intercorrelation coefficient results of leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies observed in table 6 above indicates that there is significant relationship between some leader leadership styles and some of their conflict handling strategies. Significant relationship is found between idealized influence and avoidance ($r = -0.206$, $\alpha = 0.05$), intellectual stimulation and domination ($r = -0.165$, $\alpha = 0.05$), intellectual stimulation and collaboration ($r = 0.361$, $\alpha = 0.05$), idealized influence and collaboration ($r = 0.230$, $\alpha = 0.05$), and passive management by exception and domination ($r = 0.254$, $\alpha = 0.05$).

The obtained correlation coefficient indicates that leaders who adopt idealized influence leadership style are less likely to use avoidance conflict resolution strategy. This implies that as the leader's practice of idealized influence leadership style increases, the use of avoidance conflict resolution strategy decreases and vice versa. The same is true for leaders who adopt intellectual stimulation leadership style and their use of domination conflict resolution strategy.

As it is shown in table 6 above, there is a positive correlation between scores of leaders who adopt idealized influence and intellectual stimulation leadership styles, and their scores of collaboration conflict resolution strategy. This implies that increment in leaders' practice of idealized influence and intellectual stimulation leadership style is accompanied by increase in use of collaboration conflict resolution strategy.

Results in table 6 also show that passive management by exception leadership style adopting leaders scores are positively related to the scores of domination conflict resolution strategy. This indicates that increase in practice of passive management by exception leadership style leads to increase in the use of domination and decrease in practice of this leadership style is accompanied by decrease in use of domination conflict resolution strategy.

4.4. The Effects of Leaders' Age, Sex, Work Experiences, and their Educational Levels on the Choice of Conflict Resolution Strategies

One of the objectives of this study was to determine if there are differences among leaders in choosing conflict resolution strategies based on their age, sex, work experiences, and their educational levels. The main and interaction effect of each independent variable (age, sex, work experience, and educational levels) on the five conflict resolution strategies (avoidance, domination, compromise, accommodation, and collaboration), taken simultaneously as outcome

variables, was examined using the MANOVA test. The result is presented in the following two consecutive tables; table 7, for the main effects, and table 8, for the interaction effects. The table is splitted for manageability purpose.

Table 7: Summary of MANOVA Test for the Effects of each Independent Variable on the Five Dependent Variables Taken As a Set

Effects	Test name	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Sig.
Sex	Pillai's Trace	.029	.210	10.000	.995
	Wilks' Lambda	.971	.208	10.000	.995
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	.205	10.000	.996
	Roy's Largest Root	.019	.267	5.000	.930
Educational status	Pillai's Trace	.284	1.130	20.000	.317
	Wilks' Lambda	.743	1.109	20.000	.341
	Hotelling's Trace	.312	1.084	20.000	.365
	Roy's Largest Root	.128	1.900	5.000	.105
Experience	Pillai's Trace	.230	1.213	15.000	.263
	Wilks' Lambda	.775	1.264	15.000	.228
	Hotelling's Trace	.283	1.313	15.000	.196
	Roy's Largest Root	.256	2.734	5.000	.025
Age	Pillai's Trace	.230	.901	20.000	.586
	Wilks' Lambda	.787	.884	20.000	.608
	Hotelling's Trace	.249	.867	20.000	.630
	Roy's Largest Root	.123	1.826	5.000	.118

As shown on table 7 above the overall MANOVA test of significance reveals that no any of the four independent variables had significant effect on the five conflict resolution strategies, taken simultaneously as outcome variables, for all the four types of multivariate test statistics. Thus, no further test was employed.

Similarly, all the four multivariate test results showed that there are no significant interaction effects of independent variables on the five outcome variables, taken simultaneously. The result of MANOVA test is found in the appendix D.

4.5. The Relationship between Leaders' Age, Experience and Educational Status and Their Conflict Resolution Strategies

One of the basic questions of the study was to check whether relationship exists between leader's background variables (age, experience, and educational status) and the five conflict management strategies. Table 12 below shows the inter-correlations among these variables.

Table 8: Bivariate Correlations among Leader's Backgrounds Variables and Conflict Resolution Strategies.

Intercorrelations					
Leaders Background Variables	Conflict resolution strategies				
	Avoidance	Domination	Compromise	Accommodation	Collaboration
Educational status	.060	.090	.102	.105	.239*
Experience	.003	-.130	.117	-.114	.044
Age	-.480**	.019	.095	.045	.004

**Correlation is significant at 0.01 level, * Correlation is significant at 0.05 level

As can be observed from the bivariate correlation results in table 12 above significant correlation exists among two of the leader's backgrounds variables; age and educational status, and two of the five conflict management strategies, avoidance and collaboration respectively. Surprisingly, the obtained result showed that there is no significant relationship between leader's experience and the conflict resolution strategies. Often individuals with more service years in a particular organization are expected to pass through different ups and downs and they may come across either positive work relationships or various conflict situations with their co-workers. Say for example, if they experience similar conflict types at different times, they may make themselves ready in advance either to avoid, collaborate, compromise, dominate or accommodate the points of disagreements. But the result in this study does not show this.

The negative significant relationship between leader's age and the use of avoidance strategy ($r = -0.480$, $\alpha = 0.01$) reveals that as leader's age increases, the use of avoidance conflict resolution strategy decreases and vice versa. This indicates that as people get older and older the extent to which they avoid conflict situation becomes lesser and lesser. To this effect, avoidance strategy is relatively more used by younger leaders than the older ones.

On the other hand, the positive significant relationship between leaders' educational status and collaboration conflict resolution strategy ($r = 0.239$, $\alpha = 0.05$) indicates that as the leaders' educational status increases, their use of collaboration strategy also increases and as the leaders educational status decreases, their application of collaboration strategy to different conflict situations decreases with it.

4.6. Leaders Choice of Conflict Resolution Strategies Variation across Organizational Levels at which they Work

To know whether leaders choice of conflict resolution strategies differ among leaders at different organizational levels (lower, Middle, and higher) one way ANOVA was computed. The result is presented below.

Table 9: One way ANOVA summary table for the difference among Leaders at different Organizational hierarchies/levels in using Conflict resolution strategies

Variables	Sources of variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Avoidance	Between Groups	33.69	2	16.845	1.768
	Within Groups	1324.465	139	9.529	
	Total	1358.155	141		
Domination	Between Groups	253.682	2	126.841	7.397*
	Within Groups	2383.305	139	17.146	
	Total	2636.987	141		
Compromise	Between Groups	35.082	2	17.541	2.077
	Within Groups	1173.575	139	8.443	
	Total	1208.675	141		
Accommodation	Between Groups	73.164	2	36.582	4.327*
	Within Groups	1174.935	139	8.453	
	Total	1248.099	141		
Collaboration	Between Groups	19.427	2	9.713	.804
	Within Groups	1677.880	139	12.071	
	Total	1697.307	141		

*P < 0.05 df= degree of freedom

As shown in table 13 above, the ANOVA test result shows that statistically significant difference is detected among leader's working at the three organizational hierarchies (lower, middle and higher level) in using domination and accommodation conflict handling strategies. No significant difference is found among leaders working at the three organizational hierarchies in using avoidance, compromise, and collaboration strategies. The significant difference in leader's application of domination and accommodation strategy indicates that there is variation among leaders at different organizational hierarchies of the organization in applying these conflict resolution strategies to various conflict situations.

In cases where significant difference is found, to know whether the significant F ratio is due to differences between some pairs of means or not for other pairs,

cell mean differences were tested using pair wise multiple post hoc Tukey /Kramers comparison method.

Table 10: Post hoc Group Wise Comparison on the use of Domination and Accommodation Conflict Resolution Strategy by Leaders at the Three Organizational Levels

Variables	Organizational levels	Lower	Middle	Higher	Means
Domination	Lower	-	-	-	12.587
	Middle	1.063	-	-	13.026
	Higher	6.221*	6.505*	-	17.944
Accommodation	Lower	-	-	-	16.489
	Middle	13.547*	-	-	19.510
	Higher	5.146*	1.575	-	18.872

*P< 0.05

The Tukey/Kramer comparison result indicates that there is no significant mean difference between lower and middle organizational level leaders in their use of domination strategy. Whereas significant mean differences are found between lower and higher level leaders', and middle and higher level leaders in using domination conflict resolution strategy.

As it is denoted in table 14 above domination strategy is more common with higher organizational level leaders (\bar{x} =17.944) than the others. This might be because of the fact that higher organizational level leaders hold high job position or authority in the organization which would open ways to force parties involved in conflict to accept their opinions. Besides, higher organizational level leader's nature of work may be another reason; since they are policy makers

they may impose formulated policies upon their subordinates to implement it. During this time if some sort of conflict or complaining happens by subordinates, higher level leaders may resolve the problem through dominating the views of the complaints.

Table 14 above also shows that significant mean difference in using accommodation strategy is found between lower and middle level leaders, and lower and higher level leaders, but no significant mean difference is found between middle and higher level leaders.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between perceived leadership styles and the choice of conflict resolution strategies. To examine the relationship variables like leader's sex, preferred leadership styles, conflict handling modes, age, educational status, and organizational job levels were considered in this study. In this section the results obtained are discussed in light of previous findings related to the objectives of this study.

5.1. The Relationships among Leader's Leadership Styles and Preferred Conflict Resolution Strategies

In this study the directions of relationships between leader's leadership styles and their conflict handling modes were examined using bivariate correlational analysis method. The obtained result indicated that there are significant relationships between some leadership styles and some of the conflict resolution strategies. Of the components of transformational leadership styles, significant negative correlation was found between idealized influence and avoidance, intellectual stimulation and dominance, whereas positive relationship was found between intellectual stimulus and collaboration, and between idealized influence and collaboration. Among transactional leadership components; passive management by exception was found to be positively correlated with domination conflict resolution strategy. No significant relationship was found between non-leadership style and any of the five conflict resolution strategies considered in this study. This finding shows that the leaders' frequent practice of transformational leadership style is positively associated with positive conflict handling tactics and oppositely matched with solving conflict through forcing and escaping conflict situation.

In consistent to the result obtained in this study Panagiotis (2000) found out that transformational leadership characteristics are in harmony with collaborative conflict management style. Similarly, Bass (1985) argued that intellectual stimulating transformational leadership style adopting leaders enforce their subordinates to conceptualize and comprehend the problem they face to reach at a solution. This enhances an opportunity to evaluate problems or disagreements from different angles in order to derive solution acceptable to all bodies involved in conflict on some sort of organizational issues or discussions.

Similar to the result obtained in this study, Trace and Hinkin (1998) argued that transactional way of influencing employees toward common organizational goals involves leaders' application of bureaucratic authority through punishing or rewarding them. This implies that the leaders would take some punitive measures up on the subordinates if things go wrong with them which might be made by dominating the subordinates' viewpoints. On the other hand, the subordinates could also be rewarded for what they performed in accordance with the way they are told to do. That means, they get what they want if and only if their performance warrants it. Therefore, such leaders' domination of their subordinates is inevitable so as to run organizational activities as planned.

5.2. The Relationship among Leaders' Background variables and the Choice of Conflict Resolution Strategies

One of the objectives of this study was to examine the relationship between leaders' background variables and the potential conflict resolution modes the leaders would apply when they come across different organizational task or employees' relationship related conflict situation. The result obtained in this study indicated that leaders' age is negatively related to the practice of avoidance strategy of conflict management, and leaders' educational status is positively correlated to collaboration strategy. Leaders' experience in the

respective organization had no any significant relationship with each of the five conflict holding modes.

Similar to this study's finding, Devonish and Nurse (2007) found out that workers who were exposed to more formal education tended to use collaborative conflict holding mode when they are involved in certain conflict situation. This implies that as one's knowledge boundary gets wider the possibility to solve conflict through open discussion, exchanging information and properly examining ideas from different angles would also become practical in one's life. Regarding the relationship between age and the use of avoidance conflict resolution strategy, supporting the result discovered in this study, Havenga (2005) reported that aged workers are less avoidant of the conflict they may face during their stay at a certain organization. This refers to the idea that increase in age would give rise to less withdrawal from conflict; which indicates that older people rarely remain silent or neutral when difficult situations come in to existence as organizational activities progress. Although a leader who avoids difficult issues is likely to be resented by subordinates, this strategy may be effective under certain circumstances. For example, a leader may initially stay out of disagreement among the subordinates to avoid conflict escalation.

Previous studies found out that there was a relationship between leaders' experience and their choice of conflict handling modes but this was not found to be significant in this study. According to Setegn (2007) increase in workers' experience is positively correlated to the application of accommodative and compromise conflict resolution strategies. This shows that one's experience is an input on how individuals solve conflict. As employees' service in organization increases they would face a lot of challenges that seek different styles of dealing with it. Thus, one's way of seeing things undergo through different situations which in turn influence how he or she should handle disagreements that arise within an organization that may result from unequal distribution of benefit,

position in the organization, promotion or other problems related to organizational tasks.

The absence of significant relationship between leaders' experience and any of the five conflict resolution strategies obtained in this study may be due to the less contribution of routine factory activities to ones choice of particular conflict resolution strategies. That means in a factory operation similar processes are repeated now and then, which may lead to the inference that after some time knowledge, skills, and competencies that employees of the organization get out of the experience would remain constant. Hence, whether one work in the organization more or less than the other it did not show some direction of relationship with the conflict resolution strategies considered in this study.

5.3. The Difference between Leader's Perception of Their own Leadership Styles and Leaders style as it is perceived by Their Subordinates

In order to examine the perception difference between leaders and the subordinates in perceiving leaders' leadership styles, responses of leaders and subordinates were analyzed for the three leadership domains; transformational leadership, transactional leadership and the non-leadership.

The results obtained in this study revealed that there is a significant perception difference between leaders and the subordinates in all the leadership styles considered in this study. The subordinates high rated their leaders' leadership styles on the non- leadership, whereas the leaders down rated their leadership style against this leadership measuring scale. On the other hand, leaders high rated their leadership styles against measures of transformational and transactional leadership styles. But their subordinates down rated their leaders' characteristics on both leadership domains.

In congruent to the results obtained in this study Avolio and Bass (2004) have found out that leaders try to put their styles of leading others in a positive light. They wish to identify themselves with some good leadership characteristics even though they may not be practicing them in reality. Similarly, Yukl(1989) reported that there is a perception difference between leaders and their subordinates in perceiving leaders leadership styles. Leaders were found to identify their leadership styles with the more liked one than the less liked or the unliked leadership styles. The opposite was replied by their subordinates. In this study's case the leaders identified their leading characteristics with transformational and transactional leadership more than the no-leadership one. This may be due to the reason that the two leadership domains are among the possible characteristics of leaders which are determinant for the successful accomplishment organizational objectives. Leaders association of their leadership styles with transformational and transactional leadership styles more than the subordinates rated them may either because of leaders over estimation of their styles or subordinates under estimation of leaders leadership styles.

5.4. Differences among Leader's working at Different Organizational Job Levels in choosing Conflict Resolution Strategies

In order to examine whether leader's choice of organizational conflict resolution vary based upon organizational level at which they work; test of variation was made using analysis of variance (one way ANOVA). The obtained result indicated that significant variation exist among leaders at the three organizational levels (lower, middle and higher) in applying domination and accommodation conflict resolution strategies. No significant difference is detected among those leaders in using avoidance, compromise, and collaboration strategies. Domination or imposing one's own opinion on parties in conflict is relatively more practiced by higher organizational level leaders ($\bar{x}=17.944$) than lower and middle level leaders. Accommodation or giving in to

the wishes of others is more used by middle level leaders ($\bar{x}=19.510$) than the leaders at the other two levels.

In consistent with the result obtained in this study, Rahim(1986) reported that there is significant difference among lower, middle and higher organizational level leaders in applying accommodation approach to conflict situation. He also found out statistically significant difference among leaders at the three organizational hierarchies in using avoidance style to handle conflict situations, which is not supported by the result found in this study.

CHAPTER SIX

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation

6.1 Summary

The main objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between leaders' leadership style and their choice of conflict management strategies. In addition, leaders' demographic variables (sex, age, educational status, and job levels) were considered to see their relationship with leaders' preferred organizational conflict resolution strategies. Another objective treated in this study was to investigate if difference in perception exists between leaders and subordinates regarding leaders' leadership styles.

To undertake the study, pertinent information was collected from randomly selected Finchaa Sugar factory leaders (142) and subordinates (327). Leaders were provided with two types of self-report questionnaires; multi-factor leadership questionnaire (leader form), to assess their leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies assessing questionnaires. Subordinates were given a multi-factor leadership questionnaire (rater form) to rate their leaders' leadership styles. Data collected from the participants were analyzed using descriptive statistics, t-test, bivariate correlation analysis, one-way ANOVA and Tukey/Kramer post hoc comparison method.

The results obtained are summarized accordingly. A t-test result of leaders and subordinates perception difference respective to leaders' leadership styles showed that there is statistically significant perception difference between them regarding all the eight leadership styles considered in this study. Pertaining to the relationship among leaders' leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies, three of the eight leadership styles were found to be significantly related to three of the five conflict resolution strategies; idealized influence and avoidance ($r = -0.206, 0.05$), idealized influence and collaboration ($r = 0.230, 0.05$), intellectual stimulation and domination ($r = -0.165, 0.05$), intellectual

stimulation and collaboration ($r=0.361, 0.05$) and passive management by exception and domination ($r=0.254, 0.05$). The t-test result for leaders' sex difference in applying the five conflict resolution strategies indicated male leaders use avoidance and domination strategies significantly higher than the female leaders. No significant difference was found between the two in using compromise, accommodation and collaboration strategies. The bivariate correlation analysis among the leaders' background variables and conflict resolution strategies showed significant relationship between leaders' age and avoidance ($r=-0.480, 0.01$), and educational status and collaboration ($r=0.239, 0.05$). Finally the one-way ANOVA test of conflict resolution variation across the three organizational levels (lower, middle and higher) showed leaders' application of domination and accommodation conflict resolution strategies significantly differ among the leaders working at the three organizational levels.

6.2. Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study the following conclusions were drawn.

1. The way leaders' perceive their leadership styles are different from the way their subordinates perceive. As it is evident in this study's result, the leaders rated their leadership styles significantly higher than their subordinates on items measuring transformational and transactional leadership, and rated their leading style significantly lower than their subordinates on items measuring non-leadership styles.
2. Leaders' practice of transformational leadership styles is positively associated with the use of collaborative conflict resolution strategy. This is confirmed by the obtained result; idealized influence and intellectual stimulation transformational leadership styles had significant positive relationship with collaboration strategy, and individualized consideration and inspirational motivation also had positive correlation with collaborative strategy although the relationship is not significant.

6.3. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study the following recommendations are made.

1. The leaders should analyze the conflict situation critically and apply appropriate conflict resolution strategy to the specific conflict issue they are dealing with. There is no one best conflict handling style. There are situations where any would be appropriate. All the five conflict resolution strategies (avoidance, domination, accommodation, compromise and collaboration) considered in this study are found to be used more than hypothesized value, showing that each one of them is practiced by the leaders more than average. However, one thing should be noted, leaders should not mindlessly apply any of the five conflict resolution strategy. The leaders have to bear in mind the following points while dealing with different points of conflict. One is that he or she has to separately see the people from the problem. That means acknowledging position of others, recognizing that individual differences exist, and identifying common grounds or interests of parties in conflict. The other point is that leaders need to create options for mutual gain or possibilities that satisfy both sides' interests. Lastly, for a "fair and equitable" outcome to be obtained, the leaders have to set objective criteria to resolve the conflict at the outset of conflict resolution process. For example, considering time series of conflict, availability of appropriate resources, and practicality of proposed solution.
2. There should be strong positive relationship between leaders' practice of transformational leadership characteristics and positive problem solving strategy. Transformational leadership is all about influencing employees toward common organizational goals accomplishment through individualized treatment, inspiration of well stated vision, setting high expectation, and intellectual stimulation, which all support seeing problems from different angles. Even though significant positive relationship was found between collaborative strategy and two of the

transformational leadership components in this study, the other two components were not significantly related to collaboration. This has to be improved. In order to strengthen the relationship between leaders' practice of transformational leadership styles and positive problem solving, different refresher courses such as workshops, seminars or conferences should be organized for the leaders. Because solving conflict in a win-win approach requires many professional qualities and skills, which have to be continuously updated to adapt the dynamic nature various organizational conflicts.

3. Organizational leaders are the first responsible persons to assess conflicts that happen among organizational workers and make appropriate interventions to minimize its negative consequences. Thus, studying how leaders' handle conflict has an immense contribution in enabling leaders' to re-evaluate their conflict management styles if it is not an appropriate one. So, further study has to be carried out considering variables which has not been treated in this study (like leaders' personality, leaders' task or employee orientation and others) but has some relation with leaders' choice of conflict handling modes.

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Appendix-A
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General Direction

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data regarding leaders' conflict management styles at the work place. Relational or organizational conflict may arise in workers day to day involvement in different organizational activities due to various reasons. Information you give would be very crucial for the success of the study. Therefore, you are kindly requested to be honest toward all the items provided in the questionnaire. Your response to the questions will be kept confidential.

NB: Do not write your name in the questionnaire

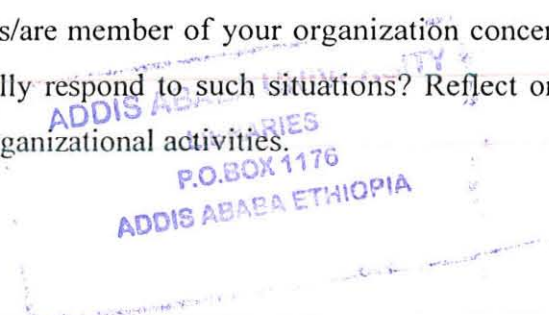
Thank you for your cooperation

Part I: Leaders' Background Information

1. Sex of the leader Male Female
2. Educational status
 Primary education Secondary education Certificate
 Diploma First Degree and above
3. Work Experience
 0-2 2-7 8-11 12 and above
4. Age
 18-25 26-35 36-45 46-55 56 and above
5. Leadership Position
 Division head Department head Supervisor
 Forman Headman

Part II: Leaders' Conflict Resolution Assessing Questionnaire

Direction: Think of different situations when you have been in conflict, disagreement, or disappointed at someone or group who is/are member of your organization concerning different organizational issues. How do you usually respond to such situations? Reflect on conflict you have had with any employee regarding organizational activities.



- Listed below are statements describing leaders' possible responses to deal with a conflict at work place. Show your choice by putting "√" below one of the words/phases:

1 = never 2 = rarely 3 = sometimes 4 = often 5 = always

No.	When I face incidents of disagreements, or conflict situations at the workplace:	1	2	3	4	5
1	I try to avoid being singled out, keeping conflict with others to myself.					
2	I can figure out what needs to be done and I am usually right.					
3	I usually try to split the difference to resolve an issue.					
4	No matter how much it costs I generally try to satisfy the others' needs.					
5	I try to investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to us.					
6	I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with the other.					
7	I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.					
8	I prefer to compromise when solving problems and just move on.					
9	I often accept the recommendations of colleagues, peers, and coworkers.					
10	I try to integrate my ideas with the other's to come up with a joint decision.					
11	I try to stay away from disagreement with the other.					
12	I use my expertise to make a decision that favors me.					
13	To break deadlocks, I would meet half way.					
14	I give in to the other's wishes in order to be at peace with them.					
15	I try to work with the other to find solutions that satisfy both our expectations.					
16	I try to keep my disagreement to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.					
17	I generally pursue my side of the issue.					
18	I try to reach compromises through negotiation with others.					
19	I am very much concerned about the other parties' goals and interests.					
20	I exchange accurate information with the other so we can solve a problem together					
21	I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with the other.					
22	I sometimes use my legitimate power to win a competitive situation.					
23	I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.					
24	I usually get satisfied with satisfying other expectations.					
25	I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that issues can be resolved.					

ክፍል ሁለት፡ የግጭት አፈታት ዘዴዎች ዳሰሳ

መመሪያ፡- የድርጅታችሁ አባል ከሆነ/ች ሰው ጋር ስለነበራችሁ/ዎት አለመግባባት ወይም ግጭት አስቦ፡፡

እንዲህ አይነት ጉዳዮች ሲገጥማችሁ ምንድነው የምታደርጉት? እባካችሁ/ዎት ስታደርጓቸው

በነበሩት ነገሮች ላይ መልስ እንደትሰጡ በትህትና ይጠየቃሉ፡፡

ከዚህ ቀጥሎ ግጭቶችን ለመፍታት የሚደረጉ ነገሮችን የሚያንፀባርቁ ዓረፍተ ነገሮች

ተዘርዘረዋል፡፡ ምርጫዎ ላይ የ “✓” ምልክት በማድረግ መልሱ፡፡

1= በጭራሽ 2= ጥቂት ጊዜ 3= አንዳንዴ 4= በአብዛኛው 5= ሁል ጊዜ

የአለመስማማት ወይም የግጭት ሁኔታዎች በምሰራበት ቦታ ሲገጥመኝ

ተቁ	ጥያቄዎች	1	2	3	4	5
1	ከሌሎች ተለይቼ ላለመታየት ስል ከሌሎች ጋር ያለኝን ግጭት በውስጤ እይዘዋለሁ እንጂ ለሌሎች አላወራም፡፡					
2	ምን መደረግ እንዳለብኝ ለይቼ አውቃለሁ እናም እኔ አብዛኛውን ጊዜ ትክክል ነኝ፡፡					
3	ችግር እንዲፈታ ሁል ጊዜ ከሁለቱም ወገን ያለውን ሀሳብ ለየብቻ አየዋለሁ፡፡					
4	ምንም ያህል መስዋዕትነት ቢጠይቅም እንኳ በጠቅላላው የሌሎችን ፍላጎት ለማሟላት አጥራለሁ፡፡					
5	ለሁላችንም ተቀባይነት ያለው መፍትሄ ለማግኘት ነገሩን እመረምራለሁ፡፡					
6	ከሌሎች ጋር ያለኝ ልዩነት ላይ ለመወያየት ፍቃድ አይደለሁም፡፡					
7	ለኔ የሚመች ውሳኔ ለመወሰን ስልጣኔን አጠቀማለሁ፡፡					
8	ችግሮችን ስፈታ ማካካሻ ሀሳቦችን መርጫ ስራውን አቀጥላለሁ፡፡					
9	የጓደኞቼንና የስራ ባልደረቦቼን አስተያየቶች አቀበላለሁ፡፡					
10	ከሌሎች ጋር የጋራ ውሳኔ ላይ ለመድረስ ሀሳቤን አጋራለሁ፡፡					
11	ከሌሎች ጋር ከሚፈጠር አለመስማማት እራሴን አገላለሁ፡፡					
12	ለኔ የሚመች ውሳኔ ለመወሰን ሙያዬን አጠቀማለሁ፡፡					
13	መሰናክሎችን ለማስወገድ ግማሽ መንገድ እሄዳለሁ፡፡					
14	ከሌሎች ጋር ሰላም ለመሆን የፈለጉትን እሰጣቸዋለሁ (እንዲያደርጉ እተውላቸዋለሁ)፡፡					
15	የሁላችንንም ፍላጎት የሚያሟላ ውሳኔ ላይ ለመድረስ ከሌሎች ጋር በጋራ እሰራለሁ፡፡					
16	መጥፎ ስሜቶች እንዳይፈጠሩ አለመግባባቶችን በግሌ ለመያዝ እሞክራለሁ፡፡					
17	እኔ የማምንበትን ሃሳብ አራምዳለሁ፡፡					
18	ከሌሎች ጋር በመደራደር አስታራቂ ሃሳብ ላይ ለመድረስ እጥራለሁ፡፡					
19	የሌሎች ፈላጎትና ግብ መሣካት በጣም ያሳስበኛል፡፡					
20	ችግሮችን በጋራ ለመፍታት ይረዳኝ ዘንድ ከሌሎች ጋር ትክክለኛ መረጃ አለዋወጣለሁ፡፡					
21	ከሌሎች ጋር የሚያስቀይም ግንኙነት እንዳይኖረኝ አጥራለሁ፡፡					
22	አንዳንድ ጊዜ ተቀናቃኝ ሃሳቦችን ለማሸነፍ የተሰጠኝን ስልጣን አጠቀማለሁ፡፡					
23	አስታራቂ ሃሳቦችን ለማግኘት “ሠጥቶ መቀበል” የሚለውን መርህ አጠቀማለሁ፡፡					
24	አብዛኛውን ጊዜ የሌሎችን ሃሳብ ማግኘት ያረካኛል፡፡					
25	ችግሮች እንዲፈቱ የሁላችንም ሃሳቦች በግልፅ እንዲነሡ አደርጋለሁ፡፡					

Appendix B

Addis Ababa University
School of Graduate Studies
Institute of Psychology

General Direction

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data on leadership style preference of leaders when they deal with different organizational activities. Information you give would be very crucial for the success of the study. Therefore, you are kindly requested to be honest toward all the items provided in the questionnaire. Your response to the questions will be kept confidential.

NB: Do not write your name in the questionnaire

Thank you for your kind cooperation

Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) - Rater Form

Subordinates' scaled Descriptions of their superiors Leadership Styles

- **Direction:** Listed below are descriptive statements about your superiors. For each statement I would like you to judge how frequently your current immediate superior (or another superior in your recent past whom you know better) has displayed the behavior described. Show your choice by putting "√" below one of the words/phases:
- Use the following rating scale
0 = not at all 1 = once in a while 2 = sometimes
3 = fairly often 4 = frequently, if not always

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Addis Ababa University
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- Use the following rating scale
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The Person I Am Rating. . .

	0	1	2	3	4
1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts					
2. Critically re-examines assumptions to question whether they are Appropriate					
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious					
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise					
6. Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs					
7. Is absent when she/he needs					
8. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems					
9. Talks optimistically about the future					
10. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets					
11. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action					
12. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
13. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose					
14. Spends time teaching and coaching					
15. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved					
16. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If you can't do, don't plan it"					
17. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group					
18. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking Action					
19. He/she concentrate on telling me what I have to know in order to resist mistakes or errors from occurring					
20. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions					
21. He/she monitor me closely to see and correct failures that block me from meeting standards					
22. Articulates a compelling vision of the future					
23. As long as things go smoothly, he/she do not try to make improvements					
24. Avoids making decisions					
25. Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others					
26. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles					
27. Helps me to develop my strengths					
28. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
29. Delays responding to urgent questions					
30. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission					
31. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations					
32. Expresses her/his confidence that goals will be achieved					

4	3	2	1	0	ቆይታ
					1 ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች።
					2 ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች።
					3 ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች።
					4 ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች።
					5 ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች።
					6 ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች።
					7 ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች።

እነዚህ የምርመራ ዓይነቶች

- 0 = ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች
- 1 = ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች
- 2 = ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች
- 3 = ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች
- 4 = ስድስት ወር ያህል ለሥራ ለማመልከት ለሚችሉት ሰዎች

የሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ።

ምልክት እና ስም፡- ለሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ። ለምሳሌ፡- ለሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ። ለምሳሌ፡- ለሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ።

ዘርፉ ስም ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ

ለሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ። ለምሳሌ፡- ለሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ። ለምሳሌ፡- ለሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ። ለምሳሌ፡- ለሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ።

ለሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ

የሥራ ስሜት ለማስተካከል የሚያስፈልጉትን ዓይነት ይጠቀሙ

8	ችግሮችን ለመፍታት የተለያዩ የመፍትሔ ሃሳቦችን ይከተላል/ትከተላለች።					
9	ስለወደፊቱ መልካም ነገር ያወራል/ታወራለች።					
10	ምን የትኛውን ስራ መስራት እንዳለበት በዝርዝር ያወያያል/ታወያያለች።					
11	ነገሮች ካልተሳሳቱ በስተቀር እርምጃ ከመውሰድ ይቆጠባል/ትቆጠባለች።					
12	ምን መሰራት እንዳለበት በተነሳሽነት ስሜት ይናገራል/ትናገራለች።					
13	ጠንካራ ዓላማ ማስቀመጥ አስፈላጊ እንደሆነ አበክሮ ይናገራል/ትናገራለች።					
14	ጊዜውን በማስተማርና በማሰልጠን ያሳልፋል/ታሳልፋለች።					
15	የስራው ዓላማ ሲሳካ ሰራተኛው ምን እንደሚያገኝ ግልፅ ያደርጋል/ታደርጋለች።					
16	“መስራት ካልቻልክ አታቅድ” የሚለው መርህ ላይ ጠንካራ እምነት እንዳለው/ላት ያሳያል/ታሳያለች።					
17	ሌሎችን የሚመለከተው/የምትመለከተው እንደግለሰብ እንጂ እንደ ቡድን አባላት አይደለም።					
18	ችግሩ ከባድ እስኪሆን ድረስ እርምጃ አይወስድም/አትወስድም።					
19	ስህተት እንዳይፈጠር ለመከላከል ሰራተኞች ማወቅ ያለባቸው ነገር ላይ ትኩረት ያደርጋል/ታደርጋለች።					
20	የውሳኔዎች ሞራላዊና ስነምግባራዊ ውጤቶች ከግምት ውስጥ ያስገባል/ታስገባለች።					
21	ሰራተኞች ከሚፈለጉት ግብ እንዳይደርሱ የሚያግዷቸውን ስህተቶች ለማየትና ለማስተካከል በቅርበት ይከታተላል/ትከታተላለች።					
22	የወደፊቱን ራዕይ ለማሳካት ሰራተኞችን ይገፋፋል/ትገፋፋለች።					
23	ነገሮች በጥሩ ሁኔታ እየሄዱ ከሆነ ማስተካከያዎችን ለማድረግ አይሞክርም/አትመክርም።					
24	ውሳኔ ከመሰጠት ይቆጠባል/ትቆጠባለች።					
25	አንድ ግለሰብ ከሌሎች የተለየ ፍላጎት፣ ችሎታና ራዕይ እንዳለው ከግንዛቤ ውስጥ ያስገባል/ታስገባለች።					
26	ችግሮችን በብዙ መንገድ እንድትመለከት ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።					
27	ጠንካራ ጎኔን ለማዳበር እገዛ ያደርግልኛል/ታደርግልኛለች።					
28	ስራዎች እንዲከናወኑ አዳዲስ መንገዶችን ይጠቁማል/ትጠቁማለች።					
29	አስቸኳይ ጥያቄዎች ላይ መልስ ለመስጠት ይዘገያል/ትዘገያለች።					
33	የጋራ ተልዕኮ ያለው ጥቅም ላይ ትኩረት ያደርጋል/ታደርጋለች።					
31	ያሰብኩትን ሳሳካ እርካታውን/ዋን ይገልጻል/ትገልጻለች።					
32	አላማዎች (ግቦች) እንዲሳኩ መተማመኑን ይገልጻል/ትገልጻለች።					

ክፍል ሁለት፡- በአመራር ላይ ያሉት ሰዎች የአስተዳደር ዘዴያቸውን

የሚገመገሙበት መጠይቅ

መመሪያ፡- ይህ መጠይቅ በእናንተ ግንዛቤ የአመራር ዘዴዎቻችሁን ምን እንደሚመስሉ ለመግለፅ የሚያገለግል ነው። እያንዳንዱ ገለጻ ምን ያህል እናንተን እንደሚገልጻችሁ ወስኑ። እባክዎ በእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ ፊት ለፊት እርስዎን የሚገልፀው ሀሳብ ላይ የ “√” ምልክት ያድርጉ። “ሌሎች” የሚለው ቃል፤ ጓደኞቻችሁን ደንበኞችን የምታዟቸው ሰዎች ሊሆን ይችላል።

የምትሰማሙባቸውን ሃሳቦች ለመግለፅ የሚከተሉትን መለኪያዎች ተክተሉ።


- 0= በጭራሽ
- 1= ከአለታት አንድ ቀን
- 2= አንድ አንዴ
- 3= በአብዛኛው
- 4= ሁል ጊዜ፤ ካልሆነ በተደጋጋሚ

ተቁ	ጥያቄዎች	0	1	2	3	4
1	ሌሎች በሚያደርጉት ጥረት ሁሉ ድጋፍ እሰጣለሁ።					
2	የሚጠየቁትን ሃሳቦች ትክክለኛነት ደጋግሜ በጥንቃቄ እገመግማለሁ።					
3	ችግሩ ከባድ እስኪሆን ድረስ ጣልቃ አልገባም።					
4	ስህተቶች፣ ለየት ያሉ ጉዳዮች፣ መመሪያዎችን ደንብ መተላለፎች ላይ ትኩረት አደርጋለሁ።					
5	አስፈላጊ ጉዳዮች ሲነሱ ጣልቃ ከመግባት እቆጠባለሁ።					
6	ስለማምንጻቸውና ዋጋ ስለምሰጣቸው እሴቶች አወራለሁ።					
7	አስፈላጊ ሲሆን ከስራ እቀራለሁ።					
8	ችግሮችን ለመፍታት የተለያዩ የመፍትሔ ሃሳቦችን እከተላለሁ።					
9	ስለ ወደፊቱ መልካም ነገር አወራለሁ።					
10	ማን የትኛውን ስራ በሃላፊነት መስራት እንዳለበት በዝርዝር እወያያለሁ።					
11	ነገሮች ካልተሰሩ በስተቀር እርምጃ ከመውሰድ እቆጠባለሁ።					
12	ምን መስራት እንዳለበት በተነሳሽነት ስሜት እናገራለሁ።					
13	ጠንካራ ዓላማ ማስቀመጥ አስፈላጊ እንደሆነ አበክራ እናገራለሁ።					
14	ጊዜዬን በማስተማርና በማሰልጠን አሳልፋለሁ።					
15	የሰራው ዓላማ ሲሳካ ሰራተኛው ምን እንደሚያገኝ ግልፅ አደርጋለሁ።					
16	“መስራት ካልቻልክ አታቅድ” የሚለውን መርህ ላይ ጠንካራ እምነት እንዳለኝ አሳያለሁ።					
17	ሌሎችን የምመለከተው እንደ ግለሰብ እንጂ እንደ ቡድን አባላት አይደለም።					
18	ችግሩ ከባድ እስኪሆን ድረስ እርምጃ አልወስድም።					
19	ስህተት እንዳይፈጠር ለመከላከል ሰራተኞች ማወቅ ያለባቸው ነገር ላይ ትኩረት አደርጋለሁ።					
20	የውሳኔዎችን ሞራላዊና ስነ ምግባራዊ ውጤቶች ከግምት ውስጥ አስገባለሁ።					
21	ሰራተኞች ከሚፈልጉት ግብ እንዳይደርሱ የሚያግዷቸውን ስህተቶችን ለማየትና ለማስተካከል በቅርበት እከታተላለሁ።					
22	የወደፊቱን ራዕይ ለማሳካት ሠራተኞችን አገፋፋለሁ።					
23	ነገሮች በጥሩ ሁኔታ እየሄዱ ከሆነ ማስተካከያዎችን ለማድረግ አልሞክርም።					
24	ውሳኔ ከመስጠት እቆጠባለሁ።					
25	አንድ ግለሰብ ከሌሎች የተለየ ፍላጎት ችሎታና ራዕይ እንዳለው ግንዛቤ ውስጥ አስገባለሁ።					
26	ሌሎች ግለሰቦች ችግሮችን በብዙ መንገድ እንዲመለከቱ አደርጋለሁ።					
27	ሌሎች የራሳቸውን ጠንካራ ጉን እንዲያዳብሩ እገዛ አደርጋለሁ።					
28	ስራዎች እንዲከናወኑ አዳዲስ መንገዶችን እጠቀማለሁ።					
29	አስቸኳይ ጥያቄዎች ላይ መልስ ለመስጠት እዘገያለሁ።					
30	የጋራ ተልዕኮ ያለው ጥቅም ላይ ትኩረት አደርጋለሁ።					
31	ሌሎች አላማዎቻቸውን ሲያሳኩ እርካታዬን እገልጻለሁ።					
32	አላማዎች (ግቦች) እንዲሳኩ መተማመኔን እገልጻለሁ።					

Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Geda Tolera

Signature 

Date 12/07/10

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as university advisor.

Advisor: Ato Abebaw Minaye

Signature _____

Date _____

