

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES: THE CASE OF SELECTED INTERNATIONAL NGOs



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CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES: THE CASE OF SELECTED
INTERNATIONAL NGOs**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that the thesis is a result of my own investigation, except where otherwise stated. I have undertaken the study independently with the guidance and support of my research advisor. Other sources are acknowledged by citations giving explicit references. A list of references is appended.

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to investigate the relationship between leaders' preferred leadership styles and their preferred choice of conflict resolution strategies to handle the different organizational conflicts which prevail at work places. Leaders' background variables (sex, age, educational qualification stream, educational status, work experience and organizational job levels) were considered to see their relationship with leaders' preferred conflict resolution strategies. For the purpose of this study, relevant data were generated from a self-report questionnaire, which has two types; leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies assessing questionnaires. Both were administered to 181 systematically selected samples out of 263 World Vision & FH Ethiopia, Head office staffs, that is 60 & 203 respectively. Out of this figure, 39 of them were leaders at different organizational levels and 142 of them were subordinates. The obtained data were analyzed using one sample and two sample t-tests, bivariate correlational analysis and multiple linear regressions. The study findings indicated that there is significant difference in the way leaders see their leadership styles and in the way their subordinates feel about their leaders' leadership styles. There was no significant difference observed in both sexes in making use of all of the conflict resolution strategies. Among the different background variables considered with conflict resolution strategies, work experience is found to have inverse correlation with avoiding conflict resolution strategy; age is found to have significant inverse correlation with avoiding and accommodating conflict resolution strategies. Although significant relationship was found between transformational leadership and collaborative conflict resolution strategy, there need to be strong positive relationship between leaders' practice of all such leadership characteristics and other conflict resolution strategies to be adopted.

KEY WORDS: *leadership style, conflict resolution strategies*

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter explains about research background, research problem, and research objective, and research significance, delimitation of the study and definition of key terms. This chapter provides an idea generally on the leaders' leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies.

1.1 Background of the study

Conflicts are part of human consciousness in all aspects of life. One cannot avoid conflict, whether at home, at office, or when watching television news. The consequences of organizational conflict reach further today than ever before as the interface between work and home blurs and organizations experiment with flatter and more decentralized structures. In addition, the complexity of conflict increases as organizations become more open and diverse (Aula & Siira, 2012). Conflict is inevitable and even sometimes desirable in organizations.

Different scholars have tried to define conflict differently, some with common terms demanding attention. The term "conflict" has no single clear meaning (Rahim, 2001). Workplace conflict is defined as, disagreements between two or more parties interdependent in the workplace, be it a common physical site or another medium through which work is performed (Masters & Albright, 2002). In other instances, conflict is defined as an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e., individual, group, organization, etc.) (Rahim, 2001).

Over the years, three distinct views have evolved about conflict in organizations. These are the *traditional views*, *behavioral views* and the *interactionist views*. The traditional view of conflict assumes that conflict is bad, always has negative impact and its consequences are always failure in performance. Therefore, it needs to be avoided all the time. For the behavioral or contemporary scholars, who emerged in the late 1940s, it is natural and inevitable in all organizations and its consequences are either negative or positive depending on how it is handled. However, for the newest

perspective (interactionist view) it is necessary to increase performance (Verma, 1998).

Conflicts have two dimensions, one consisting of disagreements relating to task issues and the other, consisting of emotional and interpersonal issues which lead to disagreements. Recently, studies have empirically investigated these two dimensions of conflict and concluded that these types of conflict have different effects in the workplace (Spaho, 2013).

Workplace conflicts may have devastating effects on the persons involved, the professions and the organization in which the conflicts have happened and the effects at one level reverberates to others. The organizational level effects are driving up the cost of doing business such as delays, litigation, waste and reworks; affecting productivity as it encourages avoidance, procrastination and hesitation and exposing the organization to potential risks (Masters and Albright, 2002). On the other hand, it can lead to positive outcome such as stimulating innovation, creativity and growth, improving decision making, providing alternative solution to problems, synergizing solutions to common problems, enhancing performance, forcing staffs to look for new approaches of doing business and articulating and clarifying their positions (Rahim, 2001). It is obvious that we could use conflicts as opportunities constructively and also how we handle conflicts matters.

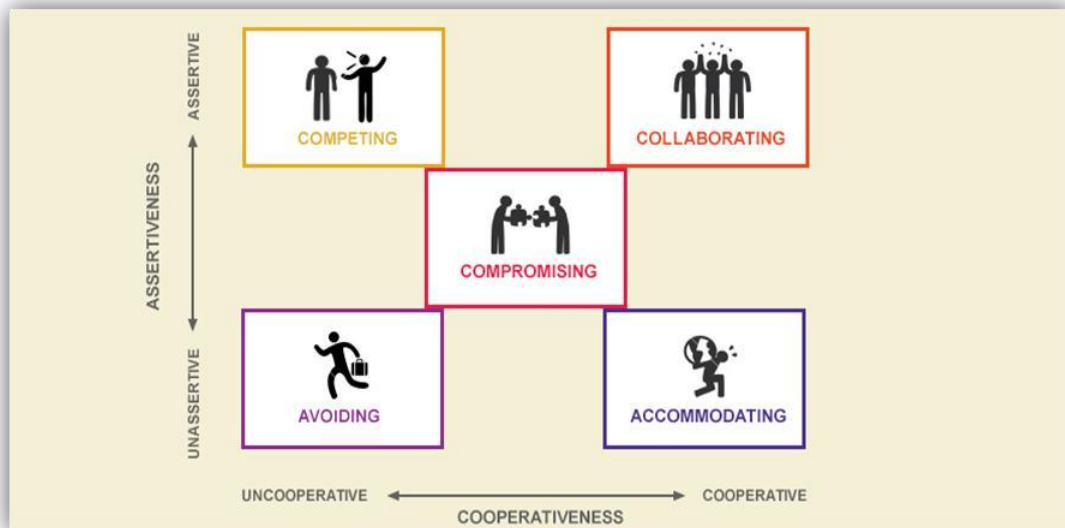
Conflicts at work are more diversified in terms of who may get involved in the conflict situation. Conflicts may arise between line managers and staff with no direct lines of supervision, between managers and staff of contractual term in the organization or firm, between line managers and staffs and also between staff and staff (Masters and Albright, 2002).

To deal with conflict, personally and organizationally, you need to know what causes it. The sources of conflict have a lot to do with whether it is ongoing to have beneficial or catastrophic effects. They also have a decisive bearing on how the conflict should be handled or what methodologies should be used to resolve it (Masters and Albright, 2002). The leaders then have to use their legitimate authority to resolve the conflict the sooner possible before it brings devastative effects on the persons involved and the organization itself. It is very much imperative to be neutral third party while dealing

with it and also take maximum caution against issues that may exacerbate the individual or group conflicts. Conflict resolution by itself is not an overnight experience but the leaders ought to have skills and qualities that help address the issues for the better of the organization and the individuals/groups involved.

As early as 1964 Blake and Mouton (as cited in Rahim, 2002) developed a conceptual scheme for classifying how to handle intra-organizational conflict. The theme of their model was explicating the extent to which a manager is concerned for production or the workers. This idea was further developed by Thomas (1976) by placing major emphasis on the people in conflict. The idea is that the people in conflict could either be assertive (need to gratify own concern) or cooperative (need to gratify other's concern). In figure

1 below, the first dimension explains the degree (high or low) to which a person attempts to satisfy his or her own concern. The second dimension explains the degree (high or low) to which a person wants to satisfy the concern of others. It should be pointed out that these dimensions portray the motivational orientations of a given individual during conflict (Rahim, 2002).



Source: Rahim
2002

Fig 1. The Dual Concern Model of the Styles of Handling Interpersonal Conflict

1. *Obliging (Accommodating)* – This is when you cooperate to a high-degree, and it may be at your own expense, and actually work against your own goals, objectives, and desired outcomes. This approach is effective when the other party is the expert or has a better solution. It can also be effective for preserving future relations with the other party (Salami, 2009).

2. *Avoiding* - This is when you simply avoid the issue. You aren't helping the other party reach their goals, and you aren't assertively pursuing your own. This works when the issue is trivial or when you have no chance of winning. It can be effective when the issue would be very costly. It's also very effective when the atmosphere is emotionally charged and you need to create some space. Sometimes issues will resolve themselves, but "hope is not a strategy", and, in general, avoiding is not a good long term strategy (Spaho, 2013).

3. *Integrating (Collaborating)* – This is where you partner or pair up with the other party to achieve both of your goals. This is how you break free of the "win-lose" paradigm and seek the "win-win." This can be effective for complex scenarios where you need to find a novel solution. This can also mean re-framing the challenge to create a bigger space and room for everybody's ideas. The downside is that it requires a high-degree of trust, and reaching a consensus can require a lot of time and effort to get everybody on board and to synthesize all the ideas (Spaho, 2013).

4. *Dominating (Competing)* – This is the "win-lose" approach. You act in a very assertive way to achieve your goals, without seeking to cooperate with the other party, and it may be at the expense of the other party. This approach may be appropriate for emergencies when time is of the essence, or when you need quick, decisive action, and people are aware of and support the approach (Salami, 2009).

5. *Compromising* – This is the "lose-lose" scenario where neither party really achieves what they want. This requires a moderate level of assertiveness and cooperation. It may be appropriate for scenarios where you need a temporary solution, or where both

sides have equally important goals. The trap is to fall into compromising as an easy way out, when collaborating would produce a better solution (Masters & Albright, 2002)

The choice to be made among the five strategies mentioned in figure 1 is left to the leader. The leader should think of which strategy to choose and also can switch depending on the issue to be dealt with and as circumstances dictate. In addition, the leader could choose to act mildly or strongly one way or the other. He may not take purely competitive or compromising approach. Also none of these approaches requires one to be adversarial, disrespectful, hostile, or inciting, although competition is often associated with these behaviors (Masters & Albright, 2002).

A few scholars have acknowledged that organizational structure variables such as position or structure in the organizational hierarchy, leaders' age and experience, qualification stream and educational level of leaders may be important contributors to conflict management styles (Brewer, Mitchell and Weber, 2002).

The research on the relationship between preferred conflict resolution strategies and gender is less clear cut. Some studies report that males are more likely to use the forcing response, whereas females tends to select the compromising approach. In contrast, other studies found gender to have little influence on an individual's preferred responses to conflict (Whetten and Cameron, 2011). From a review of the growing literature on conflict styles and gender, Keashy (1994) cited in Whetten and Cameron (2011) drew the following conclusions: 1) There is little evidence of gender differences in abilities and skills related to conflict management 2) Evidence suggests that sex-role expectations appear to influence behavior and perceptions of behavior in particular conflict situations 3) Influences and norms other than sex role expectations may affect and influence conflict and behavior 4) The experience and meaning of conflict may differ for men and women 5) There is a persistence of beliefs in gender linked behavior even when these behaviors are not found in research. From this, one can infer that, there is a widely shared belief that gender differences are correlated with conflict

management style preferences, but this perception is only modestly supported by the results of recent research (Whetten and Cameron, 2011).

According to Rahim and Bonoma (as cited in Rahim, 2002) there are two basic approaches to intervention in conflict: process and structural. The process intervention attempts to improve organizational effectiveness by changing members' styles of handling interpersonal conflict. This approach is mainly designed to manage conflict by helping the organizational participants learn how to match the uses of the styles of handling interpersonal conflict with different situations. In other words, this intervention enables the organizational members to make effective use of the five styles of handling interpersonal conflict, depending on the nature of the situation (ibid). Structural conflict resolution techniques focus on the structural aspects of the project organization (such as procedures, personnel, resources, and reporting relationships) that may be causing the conflict (Verma, 1998).

Conflicts should be solved by first line managers, or, if the conflict is significant, on the middle level of management. It is not appropriate to leave conflict solving to top management, as it shows that managers at lower levels are not capable to deal with conflicts and employees in general. Experience has also shown that solving conflicts on higher levels negatively influences organizational effectiveness since top managers have other important business tasks (Spaho, 2013).

Theorists of the past time such as Gorden (as cited in Gebrehardt, Heinrici and Pavan, 2003) have tried to see leadership styles as *autocratic*, *participative*, *democratic* and *Laissez Faire*. Mullins (2005), on the other hand categorizes leadership styles into authoritarian, democratic and Laissez-Faire.

Burn's publication of 1978 on Political Leadership marked the transition from the traditional approach to leadership to the modern transformational leadership concept. Burn was the first to conceptualize leadership as a social process that involves both leaders and followers interacting and working together to achieve common interests and mutually defined goals. Burn's theory clearly elevated the significance of followers and the leader-follower relationship in the leadership equation (Goertzen, 2010).

These days, leadership is delineated as *transactional*, *transformational* and *Laissez-Faire*. Burns explains that transactional leadership takes place when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things. Clearly, transactional leadership can exist between leaders of two or more organizations or between leaders and members within the same organization. He also contrasts this type of leadership with *transforming* leadership, which occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. He viewed both leadership styles as dimensional paradigms at opposite ends of same continuum. On the other hand, Bass viewed them as corresponding constructs which demands the involvement of the leader in both behaviors (Ireland and Hitt, 2005).

Transformational leaders demonstrate the restoration of human understanding. If applied with integrity, transformational leadership can reform organizations in dreamlike ways. Leaders using this style create an environment where every person is empowered to fulfill his or her highest needs and becomes a member of a productive learning community. Transformational leaders are servants to others and guide them in creating and embracing a vision for the organization that inspires and brings forth top performance and creates a belief system of integrity, a cause beyond oneself, diversity of thought, and inclusiveness for all races and gender. Subsumed in this style is moral leadership, leading with love, and spiritual leadership (Hoyle, 2012). Transactional leadership style starts with the idea that team members agree to obey their leader when they accept a job. The "transaction" usually involves the organization paying team members in return for their effort and compliance. The leader has a right to "punish" team members if their work doesn't meet an appropriate standard.

According to Burns (cited in Hoyle 2012), transactional leaders motivate workers by offering rewards for what the leaders need done. This means, once the employees submit themselves to the person in charge, they must do as per the words of the manager/leader. The researcher uses the transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership styles as basis and framework for this particular study.

Bernard Bass, a disciple of Burns, defined transformational leadership in terms of how the leader affects followers, who are intended to trust, admire and respect the transformational leader. Transformational leaders raise the bar by appealing to higher ideals and values of followers. Transformational leaders influence subordinates by motivating and inspiring them to achieve organizational goals, Bass & Avolio, (1995) as cited in Givens, 2008.

Transactional leadership is focused on maintaining the status quo, so this type of leadership presents traditional approach to leadership. Transactional leadership involves motivating and directing followers, appealing to their own interests. The power of the leader comes from formal authority and responsibility in the organization (Nikezić, Purić and Purić 2012).

In Bass's theory of leadership, transformational and transactional leadership are two different dimensions of leadership, that leaders can simultaneously be both

transactional and transformational, which is caused by leadership behavior. Today, most researchers agree with Bass's theory of leadership. In the last two decades transactional and transformational leadership have been the subject of research, and many papers were written. This issue is still present, both in academic and in business arena in the world (Nikezić, Purić and Purić, 2012).

Bass and Avolio later developed “the full range of leadership” model which comprises three styles: (a) transformational (b) transactional (c) Laissez-Faire (non-leadership). According to Bass (1985) transformational leadership has four components: *idealized influence (Charisma)*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *individualized consideration (attention)*, which involves motivating people, establishing a foundation for leadership authority and integrity, and inspiring a shared vision of the future. Bass also identifies two components that are characteristics of transactional leadership and also the non-leadership component: (1) contingent reward (2) management by exception (3) laissez-faire (Xiaoxia and Jing, 2006).

The transactional leadership component is categorized into contingent reward and

management by exception. Contingent reward refers to those aspects of the relationship in which the leaders clarify goals, talk about expected behaviors and accomplishments, and reward subordinates for expected level of performance. These leaders see their relationship with followers as an exchange process in which their role is to assign and get agreements from followers by clarifying the rewards that will likely be obtained in exchange for satisfactory performance. Management by exception refers to the behaviors of leaders who often engage in corrective transactions with followers. These leaders arrange to monitor subordinates performance and look out for errors to correct them. This process of searching for mistakes can be passive, waiting for errors to occur, or active, when leaders closely examine work processes so that mistakes can be prevented and corrected (Pastor and Mayo, 2006).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In order for an organization to be successful in executing planned actions and perform well, leadership and conflict resolution need to be given due attention. It has been argued that, leader's belief, attitude, values and assumptions and organizational culture may affect the style of leadership one is exercising.

In their study on conflict resolution in the work place, Masters and Albright (2002), describe the various types of conflict resolution strategies. However, they did not focus on the relationship between leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies, which is so crucial as one of the major routines of leaders is handling workplace conflicts. In the present research, the researcher strives to fill this gap by analyzing the relationship between leadership styles adopted and the preferred conflict resolution strategies.

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, he has not focused on the leaders' preferred way of conflict management though it is so essential and leaders are responsible for it. The present study therefore works towards addressing this gap by correlating leaders' preferred leadership style and their conflict handling strategies.

Kotlayr and Karakowsky (2006) studied how three leadership styles affect the

emergence of group conflict. : Transactional, transformational and non-leadership. The findings showed that transformational leadership was more effective in generating cognitive (productive) conflict than the other two leadership styles. However, Kotlary & 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 impacts. The way leaders manage the conflict might differ from one leadership style to the other. The present study investigates the relationship between leaders preferred leadership styles with their preferred conflict resolution strategies. Thus, in order to enhance understandings about the relationship between leadership styles and the choice of conflict management strategies, leader's age, sex, educational level, work experience and qualification, and organizational job level were considered in this study.

The strategy the leader uses to resolve work or work related conflicts is the determinant factor for the leader-subordinate smooth relationship at work place. In this research paper, the researcher attempts to investigate the type of leadership the leaders experience and its relationship with the type of conflict resolution strategies they use and also the extent to which leaders of the present organizations (World Vision & FH) use appropriate ways of resolving conflicts when they occur and also how they try to in place good relationship among the different employees.

One of the reasons which initiated the researcher to make the study in the head office of the organizations is, there were no previous researches undertaken in the organization in this area so the researcher wants to make his own contribution.

The other rationale for choosing World Vision Ethiopia, Head Office is the researcher is staff of the same organization; he has encountered many conflict situations at different divisions and departments of the organizations. For instance, there was a conflict between former senior leadership and staffs of the head office which demanded even some foreigners to intervene. There were also conflicts between managers of departments and senior leaders of the organization, which was escalated to the head

quarter level.

In the course of the study, the following basic research questions were used to guide the study:

- What are the basic leadership styles followed by leaders?
- What are the basic conflict resolution strategies followed by leaders?
- Do age, sex, qualification experience, and educational level of leaders and organizational job level have any relationship with preferred leadership style?
- Do age, sex, qualification experience, and educational level of leaders and organizational job level have any relationship with choice of conflict resolution strategies?
- Is there a significant relationship between leader's leadership styles and the choice of conflict resolution strategies?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objectives

This study aims to investigate the relationship between leaders' leadership styles and leaders' preferred conflict resolution strategies in organizational settings. Leaders' background variables and leadership styles were taken into account to see their relationship with their preferred ways of conflict resolution.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

- To make an assessment of the prominent leadership styles followed by leaders.
- To make an assessment of conflict resolution strategies used by leaders.
- To investigate the relationship between leaders leadership styles and their choice of conflict resolution strategies of organizational conflicts.
- To check age, sex, educational qualification, experience, educational level of leaders and organizational job level have any relationship with preferred leadership style.
- To find out age, sex, educational qualification, experience, educational level of leaders and organizational job level have any relationship with choice of

conflict resolution strategies.

1.4 Significance of the Study

For Rahim (2001), conflict is inevitable among humans. When two or more social entities (i.e. Individuals, groups, organizations, and nations) come in contact with one another in attaining their objectives, their relationships may become incompatible or inconsistent. An American Management Association study of middle- and top-level executives revealed that the average manager spends approximately 20 percent of his or her time dealing with conflict (Verma, 1998). This figure is elevated to 42 percent of their time according to Aula and Siira (2010). The issue is not only the amount of time they may spend in resolving the conflict; but also to what extent they resolve it effectively. Due to this, it is very much imperative to know the relationship between leaders' leadership styles and their preferred conflict resolution strategies that leader may follow in dealing with the issues. Therefore, the finding of this research may provide leaders insights about their own leadership styles and its relationship with conflict resolution strategies which would help them to ponder their own way in dealing with conflict and improve where there are potential faults or else maintain in case they are on the right track of resolving conflicts.

The results to be obtained from this research may also help top executives of the organization under study to prepare different capacity building programs for the leaders on leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies appropriate to their organizational culture and environment. The study may also provide pertinent information for other researchers who would like undertake further study or similar study under the topic of discussion.

1.5 Delimitations of the study

The study is delimited to identifying the relationship between World Vision Ethiopia and FH, national office leaders' preferred leadership styles and their choice of conflict resolution strategies by taking into account leader's age, sex, experience, educational level, educational qualification and job level in to account. Even though organizational culture, structure, leader's personality and nature of the task might also affect leader's choice of conflict resolution strategies, these variables were not considered in this study. Future researchers are suggested to focus and examine these variables in their

study.

1.6 Operational Definition of Terms

- **Conflict-** differences, disagreements or incompatibilities which occur at work.
- **Leader-** office heads, department heads, section heads, supervisors, headpersons of certain team, group, section or office.
- **Organization-**Office, interdependent offices running business of common goal.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter examines the literature about leaders' leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies. Issues on leadership styles and conflict management have been critically reviewed focusing on the strategies of conflict management and leaders leadership styles.

2.1 Organizational Conflict and Leadership: An Overview

Conflict is an essential, ubiquitous part of organizational life (Whetten & Cameron, 2011). It is known to be inseparable in all human interactions. It has been defined as an *interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e., individual, group, organization, etc.)* (Rahim, 2001). Calling conflict an interactive state does not preclude the possibilities of intra-individual conflict, for it is known that a person often interacts with himself or herself. Obviously, one also interacts with others. 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 sources of conflict in organizations could be, personal differences in perception and expectations, informational deficiencies (misinformation and misrepresentation), incompatibility of goals and responsibilities and environmental stresses such as resource scarcity and uncertainty (Whetten & Cameron, 2011). The lack of communication among the groups or parties could also be an important source of conflict.

For conflict to say it is useful or bad, the effects are determinant. Conflicts that bolster group productivity and performance are viewed as useful and conflicts that hinder group performance and innovation are bad or counterproductive (Hughes, Ginnet and Curphy, 2006). Organizations in which there is little disagreement regarding important

matters generally fail in competitive environments. Members are either so homogenous that they are ill-equipped to adapt to changing environmental conditions or so complacent that they see no need to improve the status quo. Conflict is the lifeblood of vibrant, progressive, stimulating organizations. It sparks creativity, stimulates innovation, and encourages personal improvement (Blackard & Gibson, 2002) cited in (Hughes, Ginnet and Curphy, 2006).

Leaders can enhance creativity by forming diverse problem-solving groups. Group members with similar experiences, values and preferences will be less likely to create a wide variety of solutions and more apt to agree on a solution prematurely than more diverse groups. Thus, selecting people for a group or committee with a variety of experiences, values, and preferences should increase the creativity of the group (Hughes, Ginnet and Curphy, 2006). By so doing, they will place strong emphasis on team work and collaboration. Suggestions and ideas from subordinates need to be viewed individually by the leaders while dealing with conflict.

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). Blanckard and Zirgami (1985) contend that, leaders should not always think to solve their critical challenges alone but, need to recognize the solutions to some of the head -aches lie within the hands of other subordinates they are leading for the common organizational goal.

When dealing with conflict in an organization/department, the leadership factor is very decisive of how one can manage it. Leaders should first attempt to determine the source of the conflict (Moorehead & Griffen, 2001). 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.

2.2 Approaches to Organizational Leadership

Scholars have tried to define leadership in various ways. Hence, there are numerous definitions of the concept and it is difficult to generalize it. However, the commonest definition for most is, it is a relationship through which one person influences the behavior or actions of other people. This means that the process of leadership cannot be separated from the activities of groups and with effective teambuilding (Mullins, 2005). Leadership has also been defined in terms of the process and property. As a process, it is the use of non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the group members to meet a goal. As a property, leadership is the set of characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to use such influence successfully (Moorhead & Griffin, 2001). For Daft (2005), it is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes.

To better understand leadership, it is of vital importance to see the difference between leadership and management. It should be very clear that leadership and management are related but not the same. A person can be a manager, leader, both or neither. To many, the word management suggests words like *efficiency, planning, paperwork, procedures, regulations, control* and *consistency*. Leadership is often more associated with words like *risk taking, dynamic, creativity, change, and vision* (Hughes, Ginnet and Curphy, 2006). For Mullins (2005), Management may arguably be viewed more in terms of planning, organizing, directing and controlling the activities of subordinate staff. Leadership, however, is concerned more with attention to *communicating with, motivating, encouraging* and *involving* people.

Management produces order, consistency, and predictability, whereas leaders produce change and adaptability to new products, markets, competitors, customers and work processes. He also argued that leadership in contrast to management involves having a vision of what the organization can become and mobilizing people to accomplish it (Durbin, 2013). In formal organizations, managers typically have formal authority-

powers that reside in the position that they occupy within an organization. Leadership does not come from a position in an organization; rather, it is earned and given to someone by other organizational members. It is possible to be a good manager and not a good leader, a poor manager and a good leader, or both or neither. Effective organizations require effective management and leadership (Patterson, 2010).

Many different theories and explanations 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 (2013) 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, Durbin's 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 Theory

This approach is the granddaddy of leadership concepts. The earliest studies of leadership adopted the belief that leaders (who were always thought of as male) were born with certain heroic leadership traits and natural abilities of power and influence. In organizations, social movements, religions, governments, and the military, leadership was conceptualized as a single "Great Man" who put everything together and influences others to follow along based on the strength of inherited traits, qualities and abilities (Daft, 2005). According to Stippler, Moore, Rosenthal and Dorffer (2011), leaders of this type were not like other people. This theory held that, such gifted leaders were singlehandedly able to shape history and society and they would have been leaders no matter circumstance happen. The use of the term 'man' here is intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the next school of Trait Theories (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, and Dennison, 2003).

2.2.2 The Trait Theory

Studies of these “larger than life” leaders spurred research into the various traits that defined a leader. Beginning in the 1920s, researchers looked to see if leaders had particular traits or characteristics such as *intelligence, height, or energy* that distinguished them from non-leaders and contributed to success. It was thought that if traits could be identified, leaders could be predicted, or even trained. Although research failed to produce a list of traits that would always guarantee leadership success, the interest in leadership characteristics has continued to the present day (Daft, 2005). Moorehead and Griffin (2001) puts the trait approach to leadership as an attempt to identify stable and enduring character traits that differentiated effective leaders from non-leaders. According to Bolden and others, (2003) the lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life. From the above explanations, leaders tend to be above average with respect to *size, health, physical attractiveness, intelligence, self-confidence, sociability, talkativeness* and *need for dominance*. Gordon Allport was an early advocate for trait theory and the study of traits. Allport and scholars after him identify *physiological, demographic, intellectual, task-related* and *social characteristics* with leader effectiveness. Professionals have moved on from this way of thinking and focus more on what they can do as individuals to develop leadership qualities within themselves and others (Russell, 2011). For Kouzes, (2009), further research found that not all leaders possess the same traits. No leadership traits have been found to relate consistently to group performance. Nowadays, people no longer believe that a person is born to be a leader. Many of the traits possessed by leaders can be learned or developed.

Possessing leadership traits is not enough to make a person a successful leader. She/he must take action. The following are qualities a good leader has to have: *Active, alertness, kindness, patience, positive criticism, observance nature* and *good follower*. The problem with the 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 including: technical skill, friendliness, task motivation, application to task, group task supportiveness, social skill, emotional

control, administrative skill, general charisma, and intelligence. Of these, the most widely explored has tended to be “charisma”, (Bolden and others. 2003). Although these traits were found in a considerable number of studies, the results were generally inconclusive. Some leaders might have possessed certain traits but the absence of them did not necessarily mean that the person was not a leader.

Many early researchers found no differences between leaders and followers with respect to their leadership characteristics—some even found that individuals who possessed these traits were less likely to become leaders. Researchers also found very small relationships between these traits and leadership effectiveness. Because so few of the traits clearly differentiated between effective and ineffective leaders, their efficacy in selecting individuals for leadership positions was severely limited. There were too many leadership variables with low reliabilities, and no rationale for selecting specific variables to include in a study. This approach has been called “dustbowl empiricism” at its worst. If leadership is indeed an individual difference variable, then very little is known about the origin of these differences, (Fleener, 2006).

2.2.3 The Behavioral Theory

The failure to identify a universal set of leadership traits led researchers in the early 1950s to begin looking at what a leader does, rather than who he or she is. One line of research focused on what leaders actually do on the job, which relates to the content of managerial activities, roles and responsibilities. These studies were soon expanded to try to determine how effective leaders differ in their behavior from ineffective ones. Researchers looked at how a leader behaved toward followers such as whether they were autocratic or democratic in their approach, for example and how this is correlated with leadership effectiveness or ineffectiveness (Daft, 2005).

Ohio state university leadership behavior research found out that subordinates perceived the behavior of their leaders in terms of two independent dimensions: *Initiating structure* and *consideration* (Daft, 2005). Consideration behavior involves being concerned with subordinates’ feelings and respecting subordinates’ ideas. Initiating structure behavior involves clearly defining the leader- subordinate roles so that subordinates know what is expected of them. The researchers also found out that a given individual’s leadership pattern appeared to change little as long as the situation

remained fairly constant. Another topic they looked at was the combination of leader behaviors that were related to effectiveness. At first they believed that leaders who exhibit high levels of both behaviors would be most effective (Moorehead & Griffin, 2001).

The Michigan studies of leadership defined *job-centered* and *employee-centered* leadership as opposite ends of a single leadership continuum. The leader who exhibits job-centered leader behavior pays close attention to the work of subordinates, explains the work procedures and is mainly interested in performance. The leader's primary concern is efficient completion of the task. The leader who engages in employee-centered leader behavior attempts to build effective work groups with high performance goals. The leader main concern is with high performance but that goal is to be accomplished by paying attention to the human aspects of the group. These two styles of leader behavior were presumed to be at opposite ends of a single continuum (Moorehead & Griffin, 2001).

Attention to leadership as a behavioral category has drawn attention to the importance of leadership style. In the work situation it has become increasingly clear that managers can no longer rely solely on the use of their position in the hierarchical structure as a means of exercising the functions of leadership. In order to get the best results from subordinates the manager must also have regard for the need to encourage high morale, a spirit of involvement and co-operation, and a willingness to work. This gives rise to consideration of the style of leadership and provides another heading under which to analyze leadership behavior (Mullins, 2005).

The development of behavioral science has drawn attention to the processes of interpersonal behavior in the work situation and to the effects of leadership on those being led. The attention given to leadership style is based on the assumption that subordinates are more likely to work effectively for managers who adopt a certain style of leadership than they will for managers who adopt alternative styles (Mullins, 2005).

The assumption of the leader behavior approach was that there were certain behaviors that would be universally effective for leaders. Unfortunately, empirical research has not demonstrated consistent relationships between task-oriented or person-oriented leader behaviors and leader effectiveness. Like trait research, leader behavior research did not consider situational influences that might moderate the relationship between leader behaviors and leader effectiveness (Russell, 2011).

2.2.4. The Contingency Theory of Leadership

Researchers next began to consider the contextual and situational variables that influence what leadership behaviors will be effective. The idea behind contingency theories is that leaders can analyze their situation and tailor their behavior to improve leadership effectiveness. Major situational variables are the characteristics of followers, characteristics of the work environment and follower tasks and the external environment. Contingency theories sometimes called situational theories emphasize that leadership cannot be understood in a vacuum separate from various elements of the group or organizational situation (Daft, 2005).

Managers were rated as to whether they were relationship oriented or task oriented. Task oriented managers tend to do better in situations that have good leader-member relationships, structured tasks, and either weak or strong position power. They do well when the task is unstructured but position power is strong. Also, they did well at the other end of the spectrum when the leader member relations were moderate to poor and the task was unstructured. Relationship oriented managers do better in all other situations. Thus, a given situation might call for a manager with a different style or a manager who could take on a different style for a different situation (Bolden and others, 2003).

Contingency means that one thing depends on the other things and for a leader to be effective, there must be an appropriate fit between the leader's behavior and style and conditions in the situation. A leadership style that works in one situation might not work in other situation. There is no one best way of leadership. Contingency means "it depends". The contingencies most important to leadership are the situation and followers. Research implies that situational variables like task, structure, context and

environment are important to leadership style. This led to the emergence of different situational based leadership models such as *Fiedler'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*. The nature of followers has also been identified as a key contingency. Thus, the needs, maturity, and cohesiveness of followers make a significant difference to the best style of leadership, (Daft, 2005). Among these Fiedler's contingency theory, path goal theory and the Vroom-Yetton model are the most prominent contingency theories (Bolden, 2004).

Fiedler suggests that leadership behavior is dependent upon the favorability of the leadership situation. There are three major variables which determine the favorability of the situation and which affect the leader's role and influence. Leader-member relations are the degree to which the leader is trusted and liked by group members, and their willingness to follow the leader's guidance. The task structure refers to the degree to which the task is clearly defined for the group and the extent to which it can be carried out by detailed instructions or standard procedures. Position power indicates the power of the leader by virtue of position in the organization, and the degree to which the leader can exercise authority to influence (for example) rewards and punishments, or promotions and demotions. Fiedler is suggesting, therefore, that leadership style will vary as the favorability of the leadership situation varies (Mullins, 2005).

Fiedler's work has been subject to much criticism but it does provide a further dimension to the study of leadership. It brings into consideration the organizational variables which affect leadership effectiveness and suggests that in given situations a task-oriented, or structured, style of leadership is most appropriate. The 'best' styles of leadership will be dependent upon the variable factors in the leadership situation (ibid).

According to the Path-Goal Theory, developed in 1971, an effective leader guides his Employees to help them attain shared goals: he or she supports employees in order to ensure those employees' goals and collective goals coincide. The Path-Goal Theory model is rather complex and House has modified it on several occasions. House and Mitchell 1975 identified four leadership styles: *directive*, *supportive*, *participative* and

results oriented. The choice of style depends upon a combination of subordinates' personal goals, subordinates' personal characteristics, and the work situation. According to the situation (e.g. hazy work instructions with an unmotivated subordinate), the leader will choose which leadership style to favour (e.g. directive, supportive, participative, or results oriented) (Hilaire, 2008).

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, 2005).

The main 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. The model has been criticized for complexity and cumbersomeness (Russell, 2011).

2.2.5. Multifactor Leadership Theory

The Multifactor approach to leadership 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).

Burn's (1978) idea was the base for Bass's (1985) classification of transformational and transactional leaders. 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' 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

Different scholars have conceptualized transformational leadership in various ways. 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.

For Yukl (1989) transformational leadership is defined 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).

Those 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.

For Bednar (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).

The other aspect transformational leadership Individualized consideration. 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 period of learning and experience when the work is complex and highly technical (Yukl, 1989).

2.2.5.2. Transactional Leadership Style

According to Deluga (1990), 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.

This type of 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.

The perspective from which we try to define conflict is determinant. Due to this there is no one comprehensive definition of conflict. 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.

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 is 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.

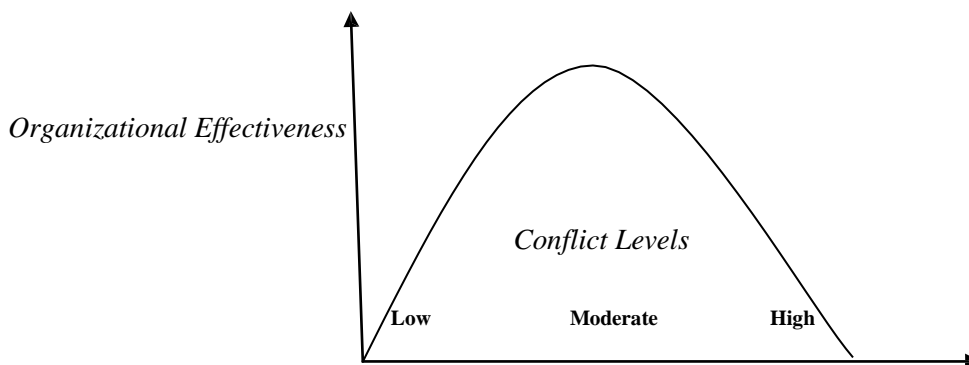


Figure 2: A Two Dimensional Figure of Organizational Effectiveness and Conflict Levels (**Source:** Adapted from Tosi, Mero, and Rizzo (2000, P.280), *Managing organizational behavior, Fourth edition.*)

2.3.1. The Process Model of Conflict

The process model of conflict 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).

This 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 of Conflict

This 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

Deustch (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).

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. Conflict Resolution Strategies in Organizations

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 in the conflict may be needed if the parties in conflict are not handling their conflict effectively.

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 strategy

This 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 strategy is characterized by openness, exchange of information, and examination of differences to reach at a solution acceptable to both parties. It is associated with problem solving, which may lead to creative solutions. This strategy has been found to be useful in utilizing the skills and ideas of different individuals to generate solutions. It may also be appropriate

for dealing with strategic issues relating to organizational objectives, policies and long range planning (Copley, 2008).

Collaboration is useful when each party is strongly committed to different goals and when compromise is potentially very costly. It is also advisable strategy of conflict resolution to deal with complex problems effectively. That means when synthesis of ideas is needed to come up with better solution to a problem collaborative approach is recommended. In addition, when employees agree on goals, but disagree on means to achieve them, collaboration is an appropriate style to narrow the difference and work for the common goals (Tosi, Mero, & Rizo, 2000).

According to Panagiotis (2006), collaboration was positively associated with transformational leadership styles. He reported that as the leader's practice of transformational leadership style increases, their application of collaborating conflict resolution strategy to different organizational conflict also increase as well.

2.4.2. Compromising Strategy

This strategy 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 Strategy

This 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 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 course of action must be implemented (Rahim, 2002). When one party has a tendency to take advantage of the other party, domination is the potential conflict management strategy to be used in order to hold one's own concern (Tosi, Mero, & Rizzo, 2000).

2.4.5. Avoiding Strategy

The avoiding strategy refers to deliberately ignoring or withdrawing from a conflict situation rather than facing it. Conflict avoiding individuals fail to satisfy both their own concerns as well as concerns of the other party. These individuals are ill-equipped to deal with disputes that need some attention (Kestner, 2002). Kestner further argued that people who avoid conflict hope that conflict will go away or resolve itself with their absence in the conflict situation.

Avoiding conflict can be wise when issues are insignificant or when the costs of challenging someone outweigh the benefits to be earned out of it. It may also be useful when there is little chance of success (Tosi, Mezo, & Rizzo, 2000). People may sometimes prefer to avoid conflict not to be responsible for the negative consequence that would result from the conflict situation. Avoiding strategy has often been found to be used when individuals deal with perceived tactical or minor issues (Copley, 2008).

2.5. Determinants of conflict resolution strategy

2.5.1 Sex

As the numbers of women moving into decision making positions in organizations alongside men, the focus of the possible existence on gender difference in the ability to resolve conflict also increased (Powell, 1990). Scholars have disagreed about what differences exist and to what degree the difference exist between men and women leaders concerning preferred conflict resolution strategies.

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).

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.

2.5.2 Level of management (*Organizational job level*)

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, 2005).

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).

2.5.3 Age

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).

2.5.4 Qualification, Experience and Education

The impacts of workers' educational level and experience in influencing their choice of conflict resolution strategies have also been investigated. Workers who were exposed to more formal education tended to use collaborative strategy of conflict handling modes. In contrast, Younger and less educated workers were inclined to be challenging and competitive in resolving organizational conflicts (Devonish & Nurse, 2007). Similarly, Setegn(2007) found out that as the workers' experience increases they are more likely to use compromising and accommodative style to manage conflict situations.

2.6 The Relationship between Leadership Styles and Conflict Resolution Strategies

Leader has got a dominant role to play in the group of his subordinates, the leadership processes can be regarded as distinguishing features in having preferences for certain kinds of conflict handling strategies. Sayeed (1990) cited in Bhat, A., Rangnekar, Dr. S. and Barua, Dr. Mukesh (2012), in his paper has studied the relationship of leadership with conflict management styles. In an interpersonal context, managing conflict with subordinate is regarded as one of the managerial functions and therefore, researchers studied this phenomenon in a broader managerial and leadership framework. The data was collected from 79 middle levels managers undergoing training programmes. The aim of the study was to find out the conflict handling strategies, leadership style in a common framework. The author had concluded that managers' age and education had some relationship with leadership behavior, but not with the conflict management strategies.

On the other hand, Zafar (2011), in his research on assessing the relationship between leadership styles and conflict handling strategies in the banking sector of Pakistan found out the following: the team management supervisor prefers a collaborating resolution strategy; middle of the road supervisor adopts a compromising strategy. The task oriented supervisor adopts a dominating strategy.

Hendel, Fish and Galon (2005) also found out within the five conflict management modes, transformational leadership was found to have significant influence mainly on the Competing mode ($P= 0.001$). Transactional leadership was found to have significant influence on the Collaborating mode ($P =0.020$) and on the Accommodating mode ($P=$

0.045).

In summary, conflict is an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e., individual, group, organization, etc.), (Rahim, 2001). Leadership has been defined as a relationship through which one person influences the behavior or actions of other people (Mullins, 2005). There are various approaches to organizational leadership: The great man theory which assumes that a leader is a person who puts everything under his control due to different abilities and qualities in him (Daft, 2005). The trait theory looks into different traits which identifies leaders from non-leaders (Moorehead and Griffin, 2001). The failure to trace consistent traits that distinguishes leaders was the reason for the emerging of the behavioral theory which hypothesizes that leaders are made not born (Russell, 2011). The contingency theory also called the situational theory assumes, there are differing situations that help the leaders tailor what leadership behavior to exhibit (Bolden, 2004).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHOD

The chapter presents the research design and methodology of the study. It entails the way the study was designed, the data collection techniques and the data analysis procedure.

3.1 Research Design

In this study, the researcher has used a correlational research design. From the data that was gathered, the relationship between the leaders' leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies was analyzed. Survey method has been used to collect information about leaders' opinions regarding their leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies. The same method and procedure was followed to gather information pertaining to leader's leadership style and preferred conflict resolution strategies from subordinates. Leader's leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies as reported by the leaders themselves and the subordinates was analyzed to check the prominent leadership styles in the office and also the conflict resolution strategies being followed.

3.2. Population of the Study

The target populations under study are permanent workers of World Vision & FH Ethiopia, non-governmental organization National Offices. As per the information obtained from the human resource offices of the organizations, there are a total of 220 permanent workers under head office. From this staff, 43 of them were leaders at different job levels (from Officer to Director). From the total 220 staff members, 26 of them were females, out of which one female is senior director and 6 unit coordinators at different departments. The rest 194 were male.

3.3. Study Area Description

World Vision and FH Ethiopia encompasses almost all the regions in Ethiopia. The offices are situated in Addis Ababa. Both the organizations cover the vast area of the country, but World Vision is found in all the regions including Afar. There are a total of four regions namely Oromia, Amhara, Tigray and South regional Program Operation Offices are found under the supervision of the national office. Under the regional offices

there are 12 different cluster program operation offices. Under each program operation offices there are from four to seven Area Development Programs led by a manager. From 5 (for newly phase in area) to 22 (matured area) staffs are contained in each Area development Programs. The different Program Operation Offices are funded by different countries, the prominent being United States.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

This study data was obtained from a self-report questionnaire administered to 39 leaders and one hundred forty two subordinates of Food for Hunger (FH) & World Vision Ethiopia, workers. The sample was drawn from all work units of the organization by using systematic random sampling methods. The researcher tried to select the initial unit of the sample randomly from the whole populations of the organization and the other units are selected at a certain space interval from the population (employee) arranged in a systematic order numerically. It is because this technique is independent of the property of the employee which is under study so it gives me quite a representative sample. And also as the researcher is staff of the same organization it will reduce the chance of bias creeping in to the sample.

So, the participants of the study were 39 leaders of the head office and 142 of their subordinates. The size of the sample was determined based on Yamane (1967) formula (see Appendix C).

3.4.1 The characteristics of the sample

The characteristics of the sample leader respondents by sex, age, educational level, educational qualification (area of specialization), work experience and organizational job level are tabulated as follows:

Table 1, Showing Leaders Background Characteristic

Variables	N	%
Sex		
Male	35	89.7
Female	4	10.3
Age		
26-35	12	30.8
36-45	17	43.6
46-55	9	23.1
56 and above	1	2.6
Educational Level		
First Degree	13	33.3
Second Degree	26	66.7
Education Qualification		
Leadership Management	6	15.4
Non Leadership Management	33	84.6
Work Experience		
Less than 5 Years	11	28.2
5-9	18	46.2
10-14	5	12.8
15 and above	5	12.8
Organizational Level		
Lower Level	8	20.5
Middle Level	27	69.2
Higher Level	4	10.3

3.5 Data collection Instrument

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.

3.5.1. Leadership Styles Assessment Questionnaire

Leader's background information like their age, sex, educational levels, qualification, 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 to gather information regarding leadership styles. MLQ is available in two forms which are almost parallel in content: the rater form in which a supervisee

rates the leadership skills of the supervisors, and the self-rating form in which the supervisor rates himself/herself on the same items. In the present study, subordinates were requested to answer the questionnaire by rating how frequently their current immediate supervisor displays the behavior stated using a five point scale (0=Not at all to 4=fairly often if not always). Leaders have also rated their leadership style against this five point Likert Scale on how often they display specific behaviors. 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). This tool has 16 transformational leadership measuring items (*four for idealized influence, four for intellectual stimulation, four for inspirational motivation, and four for individualized consideration*); 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 and 4 items measuring the non-leadership styles*). Thus for this study the 32 items measuring leadership styles were used.

Scholars have extensively made use of the MLQ in field as well as in laboratory researches in order to study the transformational, transactional and the 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).

Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) studied the reliability of MLQ and found out Cronbach alpha, $\alpha=0.89$ which is a very acceptable level, (Kanste, Miettunen and Kyngas, 2006) have assessed the validity and reliability of MLQ and concluded that MLQ is a highly suitable instrument for measuring multidimensional leadership and is appropriate for research and in explorations of the factor structure of measures and in validation studies of instruments. According to Bass and Alvolio (2012), the MLQ has been used extensively during the past 20 years and is valid and reliable across cultures and types of organizations.

3.5.2. 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* strategies. These items measure how supervisors at different hierarchical levels handle conflicts with their subordinates when task or employee relationship related conflicts happen in the organization through the course of organizational activities. Thomas and Kilman's CRSS was adapted 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.

3.5.3 Pretest

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. The pilot test was carried out on thirty workers (10 leaders and 20 subordinates) of the World Vision Ethiopia. The leaders and subordinates, who participated in the pilot study were selected using simple random sampling technique from different department of the organization. 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= 0.738) and (alpha0.791) respectively. On the other hand, leader's conflict resolution strategies measuring scale had internal consistency of (alpha= 0.757). 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 for the main study data collection.

In order to prevent test contamination, participants who participated in the pilot study were selected from regional offices and they are not participated in the real implementation. Based on the pretest, two questions that were very similar was merged, one question was dropped with the same case and finally after, the pretest the questionnaires are made very clear, concise and answerable.

3.6 Procedure of Data Collection

Before data collection, the researcher has made discussion with the higher officials of the study's target organizations on the objectives of the study. Following this, official permission allowing the researcher to undertake the research in the offices. Then respondents were briefed on the nature as well as objectives of the study. Data was collected in the working places of the respondents. The data collection has taken the researcher three weeks as the offices are located in different area and six assistants were cooperating in the process of data collection after orientation has been given briefly to them.

3.7. Methods of Data Analysis

In order to analyze the data which was collected for the purpose of this study, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 was utilized. Spearman correlation was used to see the relationship between leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies. In this case, the extent to which leaders' leadership styles related to their specific ways of conflict resolution strategies were seen by computing the correlation coefficients of variables considered in the study. The relationship between leaders' background variables and conflict resolution strategies as well as the relationship between leaders' leadership style and the different background variables were also analyzed using the same method. Multiple linear regression analysis was also run by confounding some of the variables. The one sample t-test and the independent sample t-test were also utilized to compare the average mean values of the different variables associated.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. Results

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the investigation in view of answering the basic research questions. The results of the analysis are presented in summarized forms using descriptive statistics (mean & standard deviation), one sample t-test, independent sample t-test, spearman correlations and multiple linear regressions.

4.1 Leadership Styles

Under this category of the analysis, the different leadership styles are presented with the corresponding results from the study.

4.1.1 Transformational Leadership

In order to see the level at which transformational leadership style the leaders follow, responses of both leaders and the subordinates were considered separately. Accordingly one sample t-test for the total transformational leadership scores and for each of the dimensions of transformational leadership were run to see the level at which leaders exercise the transformational leadership style and its dimensions.

Table 2 Shows the results of level at which transformational leadership style the leaders follow

Variables	Respondents	
	Leaders (n=39)	Subordinates (n=142)
<i>Idealized Influence</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	3.2	2.11
<i>SD</i>	0.6	0.97
<i>t-value</i>	12.2*	1.39*
<i>Inspirational Motivation</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	3.38	2.34
<i>SD</i>	0.67	1.1
<i>t-value</i>	12.8*	3.65*
<i>Intellectual Stimulation</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	3.28	2.22
<i>SD</i>	0.65	1.05
<i>t-value</i>	2.72*	2.47*
<i>Individualized Consideration</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	2.92	1.86
<i>SD</i>	0.87	1.18
<i>t-value</i>	6.63*	-1.43*
<i>Transformational Leadership Overall</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	3.26	2.12
<i>SD</i>	0.5	0.72
<i>t-value</i>	14.30*	1.97*

Shows P<0.05

As the t- value measures the size of the difference relative to the variation in the sample data between the population mean and the hypothesized value the researcher tried to compare the two population with the hypothesized means that are the same (the researcher hypothesis the result from both population will produce same mean)

From the above tabulation, the means on the use of idealized influence by leaders as perceived by themselves and by their subordinates respectively were 3.2 and 2.11. The one sample t- test with test value 2 (Mean=3.2, SD=0.6, t- value= 12.2, p<0.05) for leader respondents, and (Mean=2.11, SD=0.97, t-value= 1.39, p>0.05) for subordinates revealed that there is statistically significant difference between leaders' own perception of their use of idealized influence and the expected idealized influence mean value in favor of observed score. Also there was statistically significant difference between subordinates' report of their leaders' use of idealized influence and the expected mean value in favor of the expected mean. From this it is possible to conclude that

leaders perceive that they exercise idealized influence, whereas, their leadership is not viewed as they think by their fellow subordinates. The reasons for the variation could be that the leaders may have the aspiration to practice idealized influence and the subordinates might not have perceived the same or may indicate the absence of smooth relationship among leaders and subordinates of the organization.

For the inspirational motivation dimension of transformational leadership, the one sample t-test with test value 2 (Mean=3.28, SD=0.67, t-value= 12.8, $p < 0.05$) for leader respondents, and (Mean=2.34, SD=1.1, t-value= 3.65, $p < 0.05$) for subordinates revealed that there are statistically significant difference between their perception on the use of inspirational motivation and the expected mean value in favor of the observed score. This shows that both leaders and subordinates perceive that the leaders do make use of idealized influence. Specially, most of the leader respondents have assumed that they use this style of leadership frequently.

For the intellectual stimulation type of leadership, the one sample t- test with test value 2 (Mean=3.28, SD=0.65, t-value= 2.72, $p < 0.05$) for leader respondents revealed that the perception of leaders on the use of this leadership type has statistically significant difference with the average mean value. That means, they think that they follow intellectual stimulation type of transformational leadership. On the other hand, the response from subordinates, t-test with test value 2 (Mean=2.22, SD=1.05, t-value=2.47, $p > 0.05$) shows that there is no statistically significant difference on the use of this type of leadership. The reason for the variation could be erroneous perception of the subordinates or leaders' desire to exercise intellectual stimulation type of transformational leadership.

For the transformational leadership style individualized consideration, the one sample t-test result with test value 2 (Mean=2.92, SD=0.87, t-value= 6.63, $p < 0.05$) for leader respondents revealed that leaders have statistically significant difference between leaders response mean value and the expected average mean value depicting that leaders view themselves as they exercise this type of leadership. However, the response from their fellow subordinates with t-value 2 (Mean=1.86, SD=1.18, t=-1.43, $p > 0.05$) indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the average mean

value and the respondents mean value. This means that, the subordinates do not feel their leaders do make use of the individualized consideration type of transformational leadership style. The perception difference could have been brought due to leaders' exaggeration of their leadership style or subordinates underestimation of their leadership style.

From the above table, we can observe that the highest mean value for leaders occurs on inspirational motivation dimension of transformational leadership with mean value 3.38 for leaders and 2.34 for subordinates. For both category of respondents there is statistically significant difference between observed and expected mean in inspirational motivation in favor of the observed mean. Meaning that from all the four types of transformational leadership styles, World Vision Ethiopia, leaders practice inspirational motivation leadership style towards the achievement of common organizational goal. The mean difference between the leader respondents and the subordinate respondents might be because these leaders overestimate their leadership or feel that they have the characteristics of such leaders like motivating and inspiring through providing challenges and meaning within their work environment, articulate shared goals and mutual understanding of what is right and important for the organization in simple ways and also provide their subordinates with vision of what is possible and how to attain them, etc, which are spices of organizational success. This could have been questioned by some of the subordinate respondents due to erroneous perception or subordinates underestimation of leaders' leadership style or may depict the relative presence of weak leader subordinate relationship between leader individuals and their fellow subordinates, which may devastate organizational effectiveness and efficiency.

The result from table above reveals that, the one sample test result with mean=3.26, SD=0.5, t-test=14.30, $p < 0.05$ depicting statistically significant difference between the expected mean and the observed mean score for leader respondents and $M=2.12$, SD=0.72, t-test=1.97, $p > 0.05$ indicating there is no statistically significant difference between the average mean value and the observed mean score for subordinates. This implies, the leaders feel that they use transformational leadership, where as their subordinates do not feel so. The variation in perception could have been brought about by the leaders as they could have exaggerated their leadership style or by the

subordinates as they could have wrongly perceived or underestimated the leadership of their leaders.

4.1.2 Transactional Leadership

In order to see the level at which leaders practice transactional leadership style the leaders follow, response of both leaders' and subordinates' were considered separately. Accordingly, one sample t-test for the total transactional leadership scores and for each of the dimensions of transactional leadership were run to see the level at which leaders exercise the transformational leadership style and its dimensions.

Table 3 shows the result.

Variables	Respondents	
	Leaders (n=39)	Subordinates (n=142)
Contingent Reward		
Mean	3.33	2.38
SD	0.66	1.07
t-value	12.57*	4.24*
Passive Management by exception		
Mean	2.1	1.68
SD	0.91	0.93
t-value	0.7*	-4.08*
Active Management by exception		
Mean	0.87	2.08
SD	0.7	0.86
t-value	-10.1*	1.18*
Transactional Leadership overall		
Mean	2.15	1.50
SD	0.59	0.35
t-value	1.64*	-16.16*

Shows $P < 0.05$

From the response distribution tabulated above, we can see that the mean value for the leader respondents on contingent reward with test value 2 is 3.33, SD=0.66 and $t=12.57$, $p < 0.05$, shows the presence of statistically significant difference between the observed mean and the expected mean for this dimension of transactional leadership style. The response from the subordinates also show the difference between the observed mean value =2.38, SD=1.07, $t=4.24$, $p < 0.05$ and the expected mean was statistically significant. This means that both the leader respondents and the subordinate respondents

feel that the leaders use contingent reward style of transactional leadership.

So, these leaders clarify goals, talk about expected behaviors and accomplishments, and reward subordinates for expected level of performance.

The above response distribution table shows, the mean for passive management by exception for leaders =2.1, SD=0.91, $t=0.7$, $p>0.05$ showing that there is no statistically significant difference between the average mean and the score observed and for subordinate raters, $M=1.68$, $SD=0.93$, $t=-4.08$, $p<0.05$, shows the presence of statistically significant difference between the expected mean value and the score for this style of leadership. So, leaders' response does not give significant evidence on the use of this style of leadership. The response from their subordinates however shows that their leaders do not use this style of leadership.

For active management by exception leadership style, the leaders average mean value, $M=0.87$, $SD=0.7$, $t=-10.1$, $p<0.05$, showing the presence of statistically significant difference between the score observed and the expected mean value. The response from subordinates however shows, $M=2.08$, $SD=0.86$, $t=1.18$, $p>0.05$, indicating that there is no statistical evidence to say there is significant difference between the average mean value and the score observed. So, the leaders feel that they do not practice active management by exception type of transactional leadership, which means they do not closely monitor followers so that they can point out mistakes and errors before they happen and dump performance, whereas their subordinates do not feel that way.

From the data in the table above, the highest average mean occurs in contingent reward type of transactional leadership, $M= 3.33$ for leaders and $M=2.38$ for subordinates shows that the leaders of World Vision Ethiopia & FH, uses contingent reward type of transactional leadership.

The one sample t-test, with mean=2.15, $SD=0.59$, $t\text{-test}=1.64$, $p>0.05$ for leader respondents reveal that there is no statistically significant difference between the average mean and the observed mean score; so there is no evidence to say there is statistically significant difference between the two. For the subordinate respondents however, $M=1.50$, $SD=0.35$, $t\text{-value} =-16.16$, $p<0.05$, shows the presence of statistically significant difference between the expected mean value and the observed mean score

depicting inverse relationship. So, the subordinates' response shows disagreement on their leaders' exercise of transactional leadership style.

4.1.3 Laissez Faire Leadership

The below tabulation shows the response distribution from both the leaders and their fellow subordinates in making use of the laissez leadership style separately. Accordingly one sample t-test for the laissez faire leadership scores were run to see the level at which leaders exercise the laissez faire leadership style. Table 4 shows the results.

Table 4, Results of t-test for Laissez Faire leadership style

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Respondents</i>	
	<i>Leaders (n=39)</i>	<i>Subordinates (n=142)</i>
<i>Laissez Faire</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	0.36	1.75
<i>SD</i>	0.81	1.19
<i>t-value</i>	-12.6*	-2.53*

*P<0.05

From results presented in table 6 above, it can be seen that the mean score for leaders on the use of Laissez Faire leadership style with test value 2 is 0.36, SD=0.81 and t=-12.6 and p<0.05, which shows that there is statistically significant difference between observed mean and expected mean in favor of the expected mean depicting that the leaders mostly do not use this style of leadership. The response from the subordinates, M=0.36, SD=0.81, t=-2.53, where p>0.05, also does not give evidence for the use of this leadership style by the leaders. However, there is a difference in the average mean as the leaders do not want to associate themselves with this leadership style but subordinates expressed that their leaders display the non-leadership (laissez-faire) characteristics more than the leaders self-rating.

From all the leadership styles presented in the above tables, it is observed that the leaders have leadership behaviors of intellectual stimulation type of transformational leaders with average mean value of 3.38, whereas, in the perception of their subordinates, the most widely used leadership style of the leaders is contingent reward

type of transactional leaders with an average mean value of 2.38 followed by inspirational motivation with an average mean value 2.34.

In short, the observed leadership style perception difference between leaders and subordinates may be due to either the leaders exaggerated their leadership styles or the subordinates underestimation of their leaders' leadership styles or erroneous perception of the subordinates. This may indicate the weaknesses of good work spirit relationship between individuals on a leadership position and the subordinates. But in order for the organization to achieve the pursued goals, the team spirit among the different organizational members and groups and between leaders and followers should be strong enough.

4.2 Conflict Resolution Strategies

In order to see the level at which leaders use each of conflict resolution strategies one sample t-test separately for leaders responses and followers' responses were conducted Table 5 shows the results.

Table 5, Results of t-test of the leader's conflict resolution strategies

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Respondents</i>	
	<i>Leaders (n=39)</i>	<i>Subordinates (n=142)</i>
<i>Avoiding</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	2.8	3
<i>SD</i>	0.73	0.81
<i>t-value</i>	6.8*	14.55*
<i>Dominating</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	2.1	3.02
<i>SD</i>	0.75	0.96
<i>t-value</i>	0.85*	12.63*
<i>Compromising</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	3.5	3
<i>SD</i>	0.79	0.83
<i>t-value</i>	11.4*	14.04*
<i>Accommodating</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	3.54	2.94
<i>SD</i>	0.85	1.08
<i>t-value</i>	11.25*	10.4*
<i>Collaborating</i>		
<i>Mean</i>	4.4	3.09
<i>SD</i>	0.64	1.11

<i>t-value</i>	26.62*	11.7*
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Shows P<0.05

The response distribution from table above shows, the average mean value for the leaders on the avoiding conflict resolution strategy with test value 3 shows, 2.8, SD=0.73, $t=6.8$, $p<0.05$, which shows the presence of statistically significant difference between the expected mean and the observed mean score and the response from the subordinates shows $M=3$, $SD=0.81$, $t=14.55$, $p<0.05$ again with significant statistical difference showing that both respondents feel the leaders use this strategy of conflict resolution. It is vivid that, the leaders tend to ignore conflict situations when they occur. But, avoiding conflict may not help the leader escape the conflict in the future too or this blocks the way for making conflicts opportunities for change. Avoidance may be necessary sometimes in cases like when the issue is trivial or when one has no chance of winning. Using this strategy could be effective when the issue would be very costly. It is also very effective when the intervention seems to trigger the issue more and there is need of creating a gap.

The average mean score for the leaders in using dominating strategy shows, 2.1, $SD=0.75$, $t=0.85$ and $p>0.05$ revealing that there is no statistical evidence which shows the significant difference towards this strategy. The leaders think that they do not dominate in resolving conflicts. In contrast, the subordinates mean score, is 3.02, $SD=0.96$, $t=12.63$ and $p<0.05$ showing the presence of significant statistical difference, depicting that, unlike the response from the leaders, the subordinates think the superiors dominate while resolving conflicts. The significant difference brought about by the responses of leaders and subordinates could be as a result of the subordinates erroneous perception, thinking that their superiors want the upper hand, win-lose strategy or the leaders desire to collaborate with their subordinates other than dominating. This strategy to conflict resolution could be working in emergency situations where you know you take best decision and there is no time to accommodate or collaborate with others idea.

The above table also shows that, the average mean score for the leader respondents on using compromising strategy to conflict resolution is 3.5, $SD=0.79$, $t=11.4$, $p<0.05$ revealing the presence of statistically significant difference towards this strategy to

conflict resolution, depicting the usage of compromising strategy by the leaders. The subordinate respondents also responded similarly with average mean score of 3, $SD=0.83$, $t=14.04$, where $p<0.05$, shows World Vision Ethiopia, and FH leaders use compromising strategy. So, it is likely that the leaders compromise during conflicts and attain middle ground to the problems. With this conflict handling mode, the leaders are devoted to partially satisfy the interests of parties in conflict through give and take mechanism. That means if one party's needs have to be fulfilled, that party should sacrifice some. The same is true for the other party.

An examination of the mean and t-test in the table above for accommodating conflict resolution strategy of leader respondents demonstrates, $M= 3.54$, $SD=0.85$, $t=11.25$, where $p<0.05$ depicting, that the leaders make use of accommodating conflict resolution strategy. The response for the subordinate respondents is $M=2.94$, $SD=1.08$, $t=10.4$ where $p<0.05$, showing that the subordinates also feel their leaders use accommodating strategy to resolve conflicts that occur in organizations. Those leader individuals want to please others in order to keep the peace more than striving to meet their own personal needs.

In the data presented in table above for the collaborating strategy to conflict resolution response distribution for the leaders indicates, $M=4.4$, $SD=0.4$, $t=23.62$, $p<0.05$, implying the use of this strategy by the majority of the leaders. The response from the subordinates with $M=3.09$, $SD=1.11$, $t=11.7$, $p<0.05$ also shows that the majority of the leaders use this strategy to resolving organizational conflicts. So, it means that the leaders attempt to satisfy the concern of both conflicting parties through open discussion. Such leaders make open discussions with their subordinates, exchanging ideas with them and examining differences to reach mutual consensus. Though the responses of both leaders and subordinates are the highest in using this strategy, there is significant difference in the mean of the two. This probably could be due to the leaders' overestimation of the strategy they follow in resolving conflicts or, the subordinates' underestimation of their leaders' efforts to resolve the conflicts or wrong perception from both sides due to prevailing work place conflicts.

The response distribution for the leaders' conflict resolution strategies above clearly indicate that, collaboration strategy is the most widely and frequently used style of

conflict resolution in World Vision Ethiopia, & FH leaders. Collaborating

style adopting leaders attempt to satisfy the concerns of persons, individuals or groups engaged in conflict through honest discussion. The goal of this strategy is to find solution to the conflict that is both satisfying to everyone involved and fulfills the greatest needs or concerns of the groups. On the other hand, the leaders feel that, domination is the least practiced type of conflict resolution strategy, while the response from the subordinates dictates accommodating is the least.

4.3 The relationship between leadership style and conflict resolution strategies

The fourth research question of this study involves determining the relationship between leadership style and conflict resolution strategies. To answer the question zero order correlations were determined using Pearson r. Table 6 shows the results.

Table 6, Correlation results for the relationship between leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies

Variables	Avoiding	Dominating	Compromising	Accommodating	Collaborating
<i>Transformational</i>	0.035	-0.198	0.17	0.18	0.51**
<i>Transactional</i>	0.29	-0.02	0.23	0.26	0.41**
<i>Laissez Faire</i>	0.14	-0.40*	-0.15*	-0.02	0.02

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 6 indicates that, statistically significant correlation existed between transformational leadership styles and collaborating conflict resolution strategy at ($r=0.51$, $p<0.01$), between transactional leadership style and collaborating conflict resolution strategy at ($r=0.41$, $p<0.01$), between Laissez faire style of leadership and dominating conflict resolution strategy at ($r=0.40$, $p<0.05$) and between laissez faire leadership style and compromising leadership style at ($r=-0.15$, $p<0.05$).

The implication from these figures is that, leaders who adopt transformational leadership style and those leaders who adopt transactional type tend to follow collaborative approach to conflict resolution. On the other hand, those leaders who

adopt laissez faire type of leadership style are less inclined to use dominating and compromising conflict resolution strategies. This implies that, as the leaders increase to practice laissez faire type of leadership, the use of accommodating and compromising conflict resolution strategies decreases and vice-versa.

4.4 The relationship between leadership styles and different variables

The third research question of this study involves determining the relationship of leadership style with sex, educational qualification, educational status, age, work experience and leadership positions.

4.5.1 Sex and leadership style

Table 7, Independent t-test results for the relationship between leadership styles and leaders sex

Variables Leadership Style	Sex				t-value
	Male		Female		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Transformational	47.1	6.1	45.5	9.4	0.47
Transactional	25.23	5.1	23.8	1.9	0.57
Laissez Fair	2.23	2.85	3.5	2,89	-0.84

The leadership style and sex relationship response distribution table above depicts that there is no significant difference of mean value for transformational leaders of both sexes with M=47.1 for male and M=45.5 for female counterparts. This reveals that there is no difference in the use of transformational leadership style by both male and female. The same holds true for the use of transactional leadership style by male and female with mean values, 25.23 and 23.8 respectively. For laissez faire type of leadership style also, mean of the male respondents and that of the females have no significant difference with mean values 2.23 and 3.5 respectively.

The implication drawn from this tabulation is that, there are no significant differences of sex in making use of the different leadership styles. This means both male and female leaders could equally practice transformational, transactional and laissez faire types of leaderships. Therefore, it is a matter of devoting oneself and showing behavior of the three leadership styles presented here. The further implication from this is that, females are equally capable to show the characteristics of transformational and transactional leaders, they can equally motivate, inspire and stimulate their fellow subordinates for achievement of common organizational goal.

4.4.2 Educational qualification and leadership styles

Table 8, t-test result for leadership styles and educational qualification

Variables	Specialization				
	Leadership/Mgmt		Non-Leadership Mgmt.		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Leadership Style					
Transformational	47.00	8.10	46.91	6.15	-0.644
Transactional	23.83	5.85	25.30	5.85	0.032
Laissez Fair	1.67	1.37	2.49	3.03	-0.674

From the table above, one can observe that there are no statistically significant variations in the use of transformational leadership by those who attended leadership/management courses and the non-leadership/non-management courses, with the average mean values 47 and 46.91 respectively with $p > 0.05$. The implication is that, whether the leaders have graduated in leadership/management and not attended did not affect their use of transformational leadership.

The same holds true for the transactional leadership style for both who attended leadership /management and those who are from other qualification streams with average mean values 23.83 and 25.30 respectively, signifying that there are no significant differences.

The data shows the same result for the laissez faire leadership style with average mean values 1.67 and 2.49, $p>0.05$ depicting that there are no statistically significant difference in the practice of this leadership style whether the leaders have attended leadership/management courses or others.

4.4.3 Background characteristics and leadership styles

Table 9, The relationship between demographic variables and leadership styles

Variables	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez Fair
Education status	0.24	0.11	-0.17
Work experience	-0.14	-0.17	0.40
Age	-0.10	-0.20	-.015
Organizational job level	0.20	0.07	0.14

From the above leaders' background characteristics and leadership styles correlation table, it is clear to see that leaders' educational status has no significant difference in the use of both transformational and transactional leadership styles. That means, whether the leaders have first degree or second degree, has not affected their practice of both leadership styles. But, there is negative correlation coefficient ($r=-0.17$) though insignificant between educational status and the practice of Laissez faire type of leadership, showing that there is an inverse relationship. In another way, when the leaders' educational status increases, the leaders tend to make less use of the non-leadership style and vice versa.

Generally, none of the background variables set (educational status, work experience, age and organizational job level) do have significant correlation with the transformational, transactional and laissez faire types of organizational leaderships.

4.5 The relationship between conflict resolution strategies and different variables

The following consecutive tables are presented to show the analysis of conflict resolution strategies with different variables such as sex, educational status, educational qualification, experience, age and organizational job level

4.5.1 Sex and conflict resolution strategies

Table 10, t-test results for the relationship between conflict resolution strategies and leaders' sex

Variables	Sex				t-value
	Male		Female		
Conflict resolution strategy	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Avoiding	13.5	2.9	14.8	4.2	-0.78
Dominating	11.1	2.8	13.3	3.9	-1.37
Compromising	16.6	2.9	16.5	0.58	0.07
Accommodating	16.7	3.1	18.5	4.4	-1.03
Collaborating	20.7	2.7	20.5	0.58	0.13

The table above shows the independent t-test results with test value 3 between leaders' sex and their corresponding conflict resolution strategies. The average mean for the male and female leaders on the use of avoiding conflict resolution strategy is 13.5 and 14.8, where $p > 0.05$, which shows that there is no significant statistical difference on the use of this strategy. This result is almost similar for the dominating strategy with average mean values 11.1 and 13.3 for male and female leaders respectively where $p > 0.05$ indicating that there are no significant statistical differences to say one sex uses this strategy the more than the other. The same is true for compromising, with average mean value 16.6 and 16.5 for male and female respectively with $p > 0.05$. The average mean value for accommodating strategy for male is 16.7 and for female leaders is 18.5, $p > 0.05$ revealing that there are no significant mean differences to conclude the other way. For collaborating strategy the result is almost the same. The male leaders have mean value of 20.7 and the females have average mean value of 20.5, $p > 0.05$.

The independent t-test results between the different conflict resolution strategies and the leaders' sex has no evidence to say one of the sexes use this style of conflict resolution strategy the more and the other uses another type of conflict resolution

strategy. This research finding is supported by the findings of Moore and Rudd (2000), who studied the relationship between leaders' sex and their conflict handling strategies.

4.5.2 Educational qualification and conflict resolution strategies

Table 11, Results of t-test for conflict resolution strategy and educational qualification/specialization

Variables	Specialization				
	Leadership/Mgmt.		Non Leadership/Mgmt		t-value
Conflict resolution strategy	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Avoiding	12.67	3.27	13.82	2.97	-0.86 ^{ns}
Dominating	10.67	3.88	11.48	2.81	-0.62 ^{ns}
Compromising	17.33	2.73	16.45	2.81	0.71 ^{ns}
Accommodating	17.17	2.37	16.88	3.40	0.20 ^{ns}
Collaborating	20.17	3.31	20.78	2.50	-0.51 ^{ns}

The t-test examination between the different conflict resolution strategies and the educational courses the leaders attended for the avoiding strategy shows average means of 12.67 and 13.82, with $p > 0.05$ indicating that there are no significant statistical differences in using this strategy. For the dominating conflict resolution strategy, the average mean results are 10.67 and 11.48 depicting with no significant differences in both those who attended management/leadership courses and those who attended other fields and came to leadership positions. The same is true for compromising with average mean values 17.33 and 16.45 with $p > 0.05$, revealing that there are no significant statistical differences. The average mean results for accommodating are 17.17 and 16.88 whereas the figure for collaborating is 20.17 and 20.76 respectively.

The findings from the above table clearly indicates, the assumption that leaders conflict resolution strategies could be influenced by their areas of specialization has no evidence, meaning not supported. The average mean results for the five conflict resolution strategies above shows no significant differences for those who area of

specialization are leadership/management or other than leadership/management. This may have also indicate that, the leaders have come to almost similar in making use of the strategies as a result of the different trainings given to them.

4.5.3 The relationship between background variables and conflict resolution strategies

The following table presented to show the relationship between background variable and conflict resolution strategies.

Table12, Correlation results for background variables and conflict resolution Strategies

Variables	Avoiding	Dominating	Compromising	Accommodating	Collaborating
Education status	-0.310	-0.243	0.077	-0.145	-0.022
Work experience	-0.436*	-0.040	0.053	-0.244	-0.202
Age	-0.469**	-0.058	-0.102	-0.406*	-0.178
Organizational job level	0.148	-0.144	0.048	-0.144	-0.058

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

As it can be observed from table 14 above, the relationship between leaders' educational status and their use of the different conflict resolution strategies is insignificant. There are no statistically significant correlation coefficients for all the five strategies. However, leaders work experience has inverse relationship with avoiding type of conflict resolution strategy at ($r=-0.436$, $p<0.05$). That is, as leaders age increases, the leaders' use of avoiding conflict resolution strategy decreases and vice-versa. Age has again an inverse relationship with avoiding and accommodating types of conflict resolution strategies. There is statistically significant correlation at ($r=-0.469$ and $r=-0.406$) for avoiding and accommodating respectively where $p<0.05$. This implies that, as the leaders age increases, they tend to decrease the use of avoiding and accommodating conflict resolution strategies and vice-versa. As it can be viewed

on the table, organizational job level has no significant relationship with the five conflict resolution strategies

4.5.4 Determinants of leaders' conflict resolution strategies

The Correlation analysis result presented in the tables above provides simple association between variables without controlling the effect of confounding factors. The main determinants of the levels of conflict resolution strategies controlling all confounding factors, was examined using multivariate analysis in the form of multiple regression analysis as shown in table below.

Table 13: Results of multiple linear regression analysis for the effects of background and leadership style variables on conflict resolution strategies

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables									
	Avoiding		Dominating		Compromising		Accommodating		Collaborating	
	B	t	B	t	B	t	B	t	B	T
Transformational Leadership	-.30	1.28	-.08	-.30	.11	.42	.16	.66	.50	2.40*
Transactional Leadership	.41	1.8	-.02	-.08	.76	.09	.37	.60	2.76*	
Laissez Faire	.07	1.8	-.02	-.08	.21	.76	.09	.37	.06	2.76
Gender	.04	.21	.16	.87	.07	.37	.116	.64	-.07	-.51
Educational status	-.23	-1.23	-.08	-.04	.01	.07	-.10	-.49	.06	.34
Work experience as a leader	-.28	-1.41	-.24	-.90	.26	.93	.14	.53	-.08	-.38

R² **.438** **.339** **.105** **.512** **.481**

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

In this model, conflict resolution strategies (Avoiding, Dominating, Compromising, Accommodating, and Collaborating) are labeled as dependent variables and about eight leaders' background and leadership style variables (Transformational leadership, Transactional leadership, Laissez fair leadership, sex, Educational status, Work experience as a leader, Age and Organizational job level) were taken as independent variables.

It is evident from table above that, the age of leaders has negative and significant effect ($B=-0.48$, $p<0.05$) on avoiding conflict resolution strategy. It can be concluded from the values of regression coefficient that if the age of leaders increased by one unit, the response variable avoiding will be expected to decrease by

0.48 regardless of other independent variables in the model. This shows that if a leader becomes older in age, they are not likely willing to follow avoiding type conflict resolution strategy.

According to the multiple linear regression data above, Laissez faire leadership style has statistically negative significant effect ($B=-0.34$, $p<0.05$) on dominating type of conflict resolution strategy. The regression coefficient values shows that if leaders were to increase their agreement on the way Laissez faire leadership style is exercised by one unit, the response variable dominating will be expected to decrease by 0.34 given the other variables in the model held constant. The implication is that, the more laissez faire type the leader becomes, the less is the usage of dominating conflict resolution strategy.

The table also reveals that, age of a leader has negative significant effect ($B=-0.70$, $p<0.01$) on accommodation conflict resolution strategy. The regression coefficient indicates that, as age of leaders increase by one unit, the response variable accommodation is expected to decrease by 0.7 regardless of other independent variables in the table. In another way, the older leaders becomes, the less is their adoption of accommodating conflict resolution strategy.

It can be observed from the tabulation above that, transformational and transactional leadership styles have positive significant effect ($B=0.5$, $p<0.05$) and ($B=0.6$, $p<0.05$) on collaboration conflict resolution strategy respectively. The implications are, for each unit the transformational and transactional leadership styles are exercised, the response variable collaboration is expected to increase by 0.5 and 0.6 respectively. The conclusion is the more transformational and transactional leaders become, the more is their adoption of collaborating leadership style.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

This chapter reflects on the main findings of the research in terms of its contributions to the organizations.

5.1 The relationship between leaders preferred leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies

The results indicate that there are significant relationships between some leadership styles and the preferred conflict resolution strategies they adopt. Transformational leadership style had significant positive correlation with the collaborating conflict resolution strategy. The result shows that there is direct relationship; meaning, as a leader practices transformational leadership style more and more, he will be adopting collaborative conflict resolution strategy the more. From this study perspective, the other conflict handling styles had no significant relationship with transformational leaders. Though not significant, there is an inverse relationship with dominating style of conflict resolution. This means that, a leader will avoid being dominant in conflict resolution when he grows more to transformative leader. Transactional leadership style has also significant positive correlation with collaborating conflict resolution strategy, implying as a person grows more to transactional leader, that person will be more tending to adopt collaborative approach to sole conflicts. Laissez faire type of leadership style has an inverse relationship with dominating and compromising conflict resolution strategies. The meaning is that, as a leader grows more to be laissez faire type leader, that person will decrease to be dominant in resolving issues and also that leader will be making less use of the compromising type of conflict resolution.

The result obtained in this study is supported with some previous researchers' findings. Panagiotis (2006) found out that transformational leadership characteristics are in harmony with collaborative conflict resolving strategies. Similarly Transformational leaders_ futuristic focus value creativity and innovation, and they are able to create synergistic environments that enhance collaboration towards change (Wolf, Boland & Aukerman, 1994).

For the transactional leadership type also, the result shows collaborative approach to resolving conflicts has strong positive inter correlation suggesting, the more a leader exercises transactional type of leadership, the more the person collaborates with other staff members or groups to achieve common organizational goal. Hendel and others, (2005) in their study with the Israeli nurses found transactional leadership to be having significant influence on the Collaborating mode.

It was also found from this study that, the laissez faire leadership style followers were found to be having strong inverse correlations with dominating and compromising strategies. This implies, as the leaders practice this type of leadership style, they will tend to decrease using dominating and compromising conflict resolution strategies and vice-versa. Ebrahimifarahangian (2014), Laissez faire leaders are passive, not active and will avoid making decisions. He found out negative correlations between laissez faire leadership and collaborating but positive correlation between laissez faire and avoiding. It has positive correlation with avoidance though not significant.

5.2 The relationship between leaders' background variables and the their preferred leadership styles

One of the objectives of this study was to examine the relationship between the leaders' different background variables such as sex, age, educational status, educational qualification, work experience and organizational job level.

The t-test result for the relationship between leaders' sex and their preferred leadership style does not show significant mean values. That is, sex is not an influencing factor of the preferred leadership style in this study. This finding is consistent with Komives (1991) cited in John, Barbuto, Susan, Fritz, Gina and David (2007), who has found no significant difference between leadership styles and sex, on his study of sex roles.

From the research finding of this particular study, leaders' experience is found to have no significant correlation with the leaders' leadership style. This finding does not support Russell's (2011) finding, a leader's level of experience, both as a leader and

with a particular organization can have an impact on his style. Someone who is new to a leadership role may be more inclined to lead "by the book" to avoid potential mistakes, while a more experienced leader will often feel more confident in following his own interpretation of rules and regulations. A leader who has been part of an organization for many years will likely have a better understanding of the organization's nuances than a new member, so she may be more comfortable when making decisions. From the background characteristic of the leader's, 74.4% of them are found to have experience nine years and less. This may be the reason that could have brought the variation as most of them fall in similar experience ranges.

Educational status is found to have no significant correlation with leadership styles. This finding goes in line with Kabeer, Jamilah & Jeffrey (2012) finding on their study of social demographic factors that affect leadership. They found that there was no significant difference between educational qualification and leadership styles. Meaning that education levels or certificate does not influence leadership styles of an individual.

The other background variables- Educational qualification, age and organizational job level also does not have significant correlation with leaders' preferred leadership styles. This means, whether this variables increase or decrease in magnitude, does not bring change on the leadership style the leaders exercise. However, it is important to note the direction of some of the relationships like age and transformational leadership style, age and transactional leadership style as well as age and laissez faire style where there are insignificant negative magnitudes.

5.3 The relationship between leaders' background variables and their Preferred conflict resolution strategies

The other objective of this study was to determine the relationship between leaders' background variables-age, sex, educational status, educational qualification and organizational job level and their preferred conflict resolution strategies.

One of the hypothesized variables to determine conflict resolution strategies was sex. However, the study finding reveals that none of the conflict resolution strategies have significant mean difference to say male uses this strategy than female or vice-versa.

This study is consistent with previous scholars. 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.

The other variable to be investigated was whether area of specialization affects ones' conflict resolution strategies. The result of this study shows that there are no significant mean differences between those who attended leadership/management courses and non-leadership/non-management courses. This finding is inconsistent with Devonish and Nurses (2007) finding which says leaders who were exposed to more formal educations tend to use collaborative approach. This may be because the organization arranges different leadership and conflict management trainings for those who assume leadership positions. These trainings are meant to bring all the leaders on board to understand conflict resolution strategies similarly.

Organizational job level has no significant correlation with the different conflict resolution strategies. This finding seems inconsistent with that of Brewer et.al (2002) lower organizational leaders have greater use of avoiding conflict resolution strategies while upper organizational status was correlated with collaborating approach. In consistent with the result obtained in this study, Rahim (1986) also 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. This may be because they attend the same leadership and conflict management trainings which could have brought them to similar level and also the number of higher level officials is few compared to the others.

Age is found to have significant correlation with the conflict resolution strategies. The relationship between them is found to be inverse. The same finding holds true for leaders' age and accommodating conflict resolution strategy. Regarding the relationship between age and the use of avoidance conflict resolution strategy, 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.

Work experience is found to have significant negative correlation with the avoiding conflict resolution strategy found through correlation. However, the multi linear regression analysis shows that, there is no significant relationship between leaders' work experience and their preferred conflict resolution strategies though the magnitudes are the same. This finding is consistent with the research result of Mullins (2005) who found out that as the workers' experience increases they are more likely to use compromising and accommodative style to manage conflict situations and decrease tendency to use the avoiding approach.

Educational status does not have any significant correlation with any of the conflict resolution strategies as per the result of this study. This means, whether the leader has first degree or second degree does not affect the type of conflict resolution strategy the person adopts. This goes in line with Hendel and others, (2005) finding who found no significant correlation among Israeli nurses in their conflict resolution strategies.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study. It also includes conclusions, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research

6.1 Summary

The main objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between leaders' preferred leadership style and their choice of preferred conflict resolution strategies. In doing so, the leaders' prominent leadership styles and conflict handling strategies were explored. In addition, leaders' demographic variables (sex, age, work experience, educational status, educational qualification, and job levels) were considered to see their relationship with leadership style and leaders' preferred organizational conflict resolution strategies.

To carry out the study, relevant information was collected from randomly selected World Vision Ethiopia & FH Leaders (39) and subordinates (142). The samples were taken based on Yamane (1967), $n = N / (1 + N(e)^2)$ formula. 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 and modified form of conflict resolution strategies questionnaire. Data collected from the study participants were analyzed using descriptive statistics, one sample t-test, independent sample t-test and bivariate correlation analysis.

The results obtained are summarized as follows. From all the leadership styles, leaders

rated themselves high on intellectual stimulation type of transformational leadership with mean value 3.38, whereas their fellow subordinates rated them as they follow contingent reward type of transactional leaders with mean value 2.38. The 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 six out of the eight leadership dimensions considered in this study.

The response distribution for the leaders' conflict resolution strategies in this research clearly indicates that, collaboration strategy with average mean value (4.4) is the most widely and frequently used style of conflict resolution in World Vision Ethiopia & FH leaders followed by accommodation with average mean value (3.54).

Concerning the relationship between leaders' preferred leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies, significant correlations were found between transformational leadership style and collaborating conflict resolution strategy ($r=0.51$), transactional leadership and collaborating conflict resolution strategy ($r=0.41$), laissez faire leadership style and dominating and compromising conflict resolution strategies at ($r=-0.40$ & -0.15) respectively.

The bivariate correlation between the different leadership styles and the different leaders' background variables showed no significant correlations.

From the independent t-test result it was observed that there is no significant difference between male and female leaders in using the different leadership styles.

The independent t-test result to see if there is significant difference between male and female leaders in using the different conflict resolution strategies also proved insignificant depicting there is no difference between the two sexes.

The independent t-test results for leaders' leadership style with area of specialization do not have significant variation.

The independent t-test results for conflict resolution strategy and educational qualification also proved to be insignificant in this study.

The correlation results of the different conflict resolution strategies with the different leaders' background variables, educational status, work experience, age and organizational job level showed some significant correlations between work experience and avoiding conflict resolution strategies at ($r=-0.436$), between age and avoiding strategy at ($r=-0.469$) and between age and accommodating strategy at ($r=-0.406$).

6.2 Conclusion

The following conclusions were drawn from the findings of the study:

There is perception difference between leaders and their fellow subordinates concerning the leaders' leadership style. Leaders rated their leadership to be strongly associated with transformational leadership style, inspirational motivation, while subordinates response shows they are strongly transactional type, contingent reward.

Collaboration conflict resolution strategy is the most widely and frequently used style of conflict resolution in World Vision Ethiopia, & FH leaders followed by accommodating. On the other hand, the leaders feel that, domination is the least practiced type of conflict resolution strategy, while the response from the subordinates dictates accommodating is the least.

Leaders' response showed, their practice of transformational and transactional leadership styles is positively associated with the use of collaborative conflict resolution strategy. Transformational leadership styles had significant positive relationship with collaboration strategy, and transactional leadership had significant positive relationship with collaborative strategy and laissez faire leadership had significant negative correlation with dominating and compromising strategies.

None of the background variables (sex, educational qualifications stream, age, experience, organizational job level & educational status) were found to affect leadership styles of World Vision and FH Ethiopia leaders

Leaders' sex and educational qualification stream, educational status, organizational job levels do not have significant influence on conflict resolution strategies. However there are significant correlations between work experience and avoiding conflict resolution strategy from correlation table, age and conflict resolution strategy and age and age and accommodating conflict resolution strategy.

6.3 Limitations of the study

The research findings in this paper should be viewed with some limitations. Data were collected from only sample drawn from two selected organization and this may limit the generalizability of the study findings to other organizations. Another shortcoming is should be noted that the relationships found in this study are correlation and not causal. Therefore, further study is suggested to be conducted to establish a cause-effect relationship among the different variables considered in this study.

6.4 Recommendation

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

- Transformational leadership is all about driving employees toward the achievement of common organizational goal through individualized consideration, inspiration of well stated vision, setting high expectation, and intellectual stimulation, which all support seeing problems from different angles. All the components of the transformational leadership are said to be practiced by the leaders more than the average mean value. However, the response shows, the comparative utilization of individualized consideration is low and this needs attention from the leaders as approaching individual members differently when needed is important for the success of the common goal.
- There is no one best conflict resolution strategy. All have situations in which they are adopted. Therefore, the leaders are responsible to analyze the conflict

situation deeply and apply the appropriate conflict handling strategy where deemed necessary. Three of the conflict handling strategies, collaborating, compromising and accommodating are found to be used more than the hypothesized value by the leaders. The response from the subordinates show, collaborating, compromising dominating and avoiding. The above are said to have been practiced by the leaders more than the average value. But, the leaders should not arbitrarily use any of the strategies in dealing with different issues.

Understanding the other side of the issue, acknowledging individual difference and looking common grounds is crucial. In order for the leader to be effective in addressing the issues, setting objective criteria is important before embarking on resolving. The other point is, leaders need to come up with options suiting for both parties in conflict to satisfy their interest. For organizational effectiveness and growth, it is important to draw lessons from conflict situations and make them constructive to bring the desired change.

- Organizational leaders are the fore-runners to assess conflicts that happen among the different organizational workers and make proper intervention before the effects become devastative to the organization itself. Thus, studying how leaders' handle conflict has an enormous contribution in enabling leaders' to re-evaluate their conflict resolution styles whether it is an appropriate one. So, further study has to be undertaken considering variables which have 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.
- Some of the responses made on the leaders' leadership styles and conflict resolution strategies are found to be inconsistent between leaders' self-rating and subordinates' rating. For instance, the subordinates response shows, their leaders do make use of dominating conflict resolution strategies, while the leaders' response shows they rarely use it. Such differences may implicate the weak team spirit among the staff. However, the relationship between the leadership and the subordinates need to be strong enough to achieve the desired common goal. To bring about this, both leaders and subordinates have different roles to play such as practicing the culture of transparency and open discussion

to understand each other better.

- Subordinates also are expected to give feedback to their leaders on their leadership styles. This culture of feedback enables the leaders foster their positive leadership qualities and eliminate the destructive behaviors.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Questionnaire to be answered by leaders

Part I: Leaders' Background Information

Sex of the leaders Male Female

Education Status Diploma First Degree Second Degree

Work Experience as a leader ----- years

Age 18 – 25 26 – 35 36 – 45 46 – 55 56 and Above

Leadership Position Director CPO Manager AP Manager
 Team Leader Coordinator Officer

Educational Qualification stream:

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 "✓" in the boxes under the numbers listed 1 to 5. Keys for the numbers are given below

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 solved					

Part III: Multifactor Questionnaire - Leader Form

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “other” may mean your peers, clients, supervisees, and/or all of these individuals. Show your responses on how frequently you do the behaviors indicated in the statements by putting “✓” in the boxes under the numbers listed 0 to 4. Keys for the numbers are given below

Key 0 = not at all 1 = once in a while 2 = sometimes 3 = fairly often 4 = frequently, if not always

NO	Statements	0	1	2	3	4
1	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts					
2	I critically re-examine assumptions to question whether they are Appropriate					
3	I fail to interfere until problems become serious					
4	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
5	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise					
6	I talk about my most important values and beliefs					
7	I can be absent from work when I need					
8	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems					
9	I talk optimistically about the future					
10	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets					
11	I wait for things to go wrong before taking action					
12	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
13	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose					
14	I spend time teaching and coaching					
15	I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved					

16	I show that I am a firm believer in “If you can’t do, don’t plan it”					
17	I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group					
18	I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action					
19	I concentrate on telling my subordinates what they have to know in order to resist mistakes or errors from occurring					
20	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions					
21	I monitor my subordinates closely to see and correct failures that block them from meeting standards					
22	I articulate a compelling vision of the future					
23	As long as things go smoothly, I do not try to make improvements					
24	I avoid making decisions					
25	I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others					
26	I get others to look at problems from many different angles					
27	I help others to develop their strengths					
28	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
29	I delay responding to urgent questions					
30	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission					
31	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations					
32	I express my confidence that goals will be achieved					

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. Show your choice by putting “√” below one of the words/phases:

NB: Do not write your name in the questionnaire.

Thank you for your 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

NO	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					

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 or when there was a conflict at your workplace that could have involved you or did not involve you. How does your immediate supervisor usually respond to such situations? Reflect on conflict you have encountered or others have encountered 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/others face incidents of disagreements, or conflict situations at the workplace, my supervisor:	1	2	3	4	5
1	He/she tries to avoid being singled out, keeping conflict with others to himself/herself					
2	He/she can figure out what needs to be done and he/she usually is right.					
3	He/she usually tries to split the difference to resolve an issue.					
4	No matter how much it costs him/her generally tries to satisfy the others' needs.					
5	He/she tries to investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to the conflicting people.					
6	He/she usually avoids open discussion of his/her differences with the other.					
7	He/she uses his/her authority to make a decision in his/her favor.					
8	He/she prefers to compromise when solving problems and just move on.					
9	He/she often accepts the recommendations of colleagues, peers, and coworkers.					
10	He/she tries to integrate his/her ideas with the other's to come up with a joint decision.					
11	He/she tries to stay away from disagreement with the other.					
12	He/she uses his/her expertise to make a decision that favors him/her.					
13	To break deadlocks, he/she would meet half way.					
14	He/she gives in to the other's wishes in order to be at peace with them.					
15	He/she tries to work with the other to find solutions that satisfy both our expectations.					
16	He/she tries to keep his/her disagreement to himself/herself in order to avoid hard feelings.					
17	He/she generally pursue his/her side of the issue.					
18	He/she tries to reach compromises through negotiation with others.					

19	He/she is very much concerned about the other parties' goals and interests.					
20	He/she exchanges accurate information with the other so we can solve a problem together					
21	He/she tries to avoid unpleasant exchanges with the other.					
22	He/she sometimes uses his/her legitimate power to win a competitive situation.					
23	He/she uses "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.					
24	He/she usually gets satisfied with satisfying other expectations.					
25	He/she tries to bring all our concerns out in the open so that issues can be solved					

APPENDIX C: Manipulation of sample size using Yamane (1967) formula

Sample size for leaders	Sample size for subordinates
$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$	$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$
$n = \frac{43}{1 + 43(0.05)^2}$	$n = \frac{220}{1 + 220(0.05)^2}$
$n = \frac{43}{1 + 43(0.0025)}$	$n = \frac{220}{1 + 200(0.0025)}$
$n \approx 39$	$n \approx 142$

Where: **n**=Sample size

N=Total population

e=Sampling error

Both were administered to 181 systematically selected samples out of 263 World Vision & FH Ethiopia, Head office staffs, that is 60 & 203 respectively. Out of this figure, 39 of them were leaders at different organizational levels and 142 of them were subordinates.

