HÁSKÓLI ÍSLANDS

FÉLAGSVÍSINDASVIÐ

VIÐSKIPTAFRÆÐIDEILD

Desired Leader Profile in Educational Sector in Iceland

Lolita Urboniene

Lokaverkefni til MS-gráðu í mannauðsstjórnun

Leiðbeinandi: Dr. Erla S. Kristjánsdóttir

Meðleiðbeinandi: Dr. Inga Minelgaite Snæbjörnsson

Viðskiptafræðideild

Félagsvísindasvið Háskóla Íslands

Júní 2017

Desired Leader Profile in Educational Sector in Iceland

Ritgerð þessi er 30 eininga lokaverkefni til MS prófs við Viðskiptafræðideild, Félagsvísindasvið Háskóla Íslands.

© 2017 Lolita Urboniene
Ritgerðina má ekki afrita nema með leyfi höfundar.

Prentun: Háskólaprent ehf.
Reykjavík, 2017

Abstract

The aim of this master's thesis was to develop an understanding about the specifics of leadership in the educational sector in Iceland from the followers' point of view, particularly regarding the desired leader behaviour profile. Quantitative research method was used, as it allows to reach a larger number of employees working in the educational sector, namely in kindergarten, compulsory and secondary schools in Iceland. For answering the research question and describing the profile of the desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland, the questionnaire comprised of Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII and Values Survey Module 2008 was used. Sample data was processed using SPSS program.

The results indicated that most desired leader behaviour in the educational sector in Iceland were Demand Reconciliation, Integration, Representation and Consideration. The societal culture of the educational sector in Iceland were described using the VSM 08 seven-dimensional model. The results indicate that highest scoring dimensions were Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV), Indulgence vs. Restrain and Power Distance (PDI) dimensions. An attempt was made to relate societal cultural dimensions to the desired leader preferences, for checking if societal cultural context in the educational sector in Iceland could predict leader behaviour preferences.

Analysis indicated some connections, but they were weak and had low predictive value. Influence of sociodemographic factors on follower´s preferences was analysed, and the results indicated a weak correlation between respondents' age and their cultural preferences. However, due to low number of participants of the particular age group, this implication should be considered carefully. The research was dedicated to educational sector leaders in Iceland and practitioners in the field of management. The thesis provides suggestions for further research.

Ágrip

Markmið þessarar rannsóknar var að auka skilning á því hvað það er sem einkennir leiðtoga á sviði menntunar á Íslandi, frá sjónarhorni fylgjenda. Notuð var eigindleg rannsóknaraðferð sem gerði kleift að ná til stórs hóps starfsmanna í leikskólum, grunnskólum, og framhaldsskólum á Íslandi. Spurningalistinn "Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII" var notaður, ásamt "Values Survey Module 2008". Unnið var úr sýnigögnum í SPSS-forritinu.

Niðurstöður leiddu í ljós að þeir þættir sem tengjast helst æskilegri hegðun leiðtoga í skólakerfinu á Íslandi eru: ásókn/sátt (e. *Demand Reconciliation*), samþætting (e. *Integration*), kynning (e. *Representation*) og tillitsemi (e. *Consideration*). Samfélagsmenningu í íslensku skólakerfi er lýst með sjövídda líkaninu VSM 08. Niðurstöðurnar sýna að hæsta skorið er í víddunum hóphyggju (e. *Collectivism*, *IDV*), valdafjarlægð (e. *Power Distance, PDI*), og eftirlátssemi/aðhald (e. *Indulgence vs. Restraint*). Gerð var tilraun til að tengja víddir samfélagsmenningar við æskilegt atferlismynstur leiðtoga, og reynt að kanna hvort samhengi samfélagsmenningar í íslensku skólakerfi gæti varpað ljósi á og spáð fyrir um atferli leiðtoga.

Greining gefur vísbendingar um tengsl, en þau eru veik og hafa lítið forspárgildi. Áhrif lýðfræðilegra þátta í samfélaginu á hugmyndir fylgjenda um æskilega eiginleika leiðtoga voru greind, og gefa niðurstöður til kynna veik tengsl milli aldurs þátttakenda í rannsókninni og menningarlegs vals. Lítill fjöldi þátttakenda í tilgreindum aldurshópi sýnir þó að þörf er á frekari rannsóknum. Rannsóknin er tileinkuð fræðafólki og leiðtogum í íslensku skólakerfi, og þeim sem starfa við stjórnun. Í ritgerðinni er að finna ábendingar um efni sem krefst nánari skoðunar og rannsóknar.

Acknowledgements and foreword

I would first like to thank my thesis supervisors, Dr. Erla Sólveig Kristjánsdóttir and Dr. Inga Minelgaite Snæbjörnsdóttir at the Faculty Of Business, University of Iceland. You were always ready to help and advise me, pointing to the right direction on my long journey in writing this thesis. Thank you for your patience and valuable feedback.

I would also like to thank the expert, associate professor Romie F. Littrell, who was involved in the validation of the survey and cleaning the sample results for this research project. Special thanks for taking your time in reading my thesis and giving your valuable feedback.

I would also like to acknowledge Sigríður H. Pálsdóttir as the the second reader of this thesis, I am grateful to you for the input in helping me making this thesis look as it is.

I must express my very profound gratitude to my family and friends for providing me with unfailing support and continuous encouragement throughout my years of study and through the process of researching and writing this thesis. This accomplishment would not have been possible without them. Thank you.

Table of Contents

Abstract 4
Ágrip 5
Acknowledgements and foreword 6
List of figures 9
List of tables 10
1 Introduction 11
2 Literature review 17
2.1 Overview of leadership theories 17
2.1.1 Evolution of leadership theories 17
2.1.2 Leadership vs. management 21
2.2 Followers in leadership process 22
2.3 Desired leader prototype 23
2.3.1 Aspects of formation desired leader prototype 25
2.3.2 Societal culture and desired leader profile 27
2.3.3 Gender and preferences of desired leader profile 28
2.3.4 Age and preferences of desired leader profile 30
2.3.5 Education level and preferences of desired leader profile 31
2.3.6 Type of organisation influence on forming a profile of a preferred leader 32
2.4 Leadership in education 33
2.4.1 Educational system in Iceland 33
2.4.2 Research on leadership in the educational sector in Iceland 34
2.4.3 Strengths and challenges of the education system in Iceland 35
3 Methodology 39
3.1 Survey instrument 41
3.2 Preparation of the survey instrument 48
3.3 Sampling strategy and recruitment of participants 48
3.4 Sample size and cleaning process of the sample 49
3.5 Validity and reliability 49
3.6 Data analysis methods 51
3.7 Ethical considerations 52
4 Results 53
4.1 Characteristics of the sample 53

4.2 Desired leader behaviour preferences 57
4.3 Demographic factors influencing followers' decisions – Hypothesis testing ... 59
4.4 Culture of education sector defined by VMS08 66
5 Discussion 72
5.1 Desired leader behaviour in the educational sector in Iceland 72
5.2 Factors influencing leader behaviour preferences in the educational sector in Iceland 73
5.3 Influence of societal cultural context 75
5.4 Future research 76
5.5 Limitations 76
6 Conclusion 78
References 79
Appendix I 87
Appendix II 88
Appendix III 89
Appendix IV 90
Appendix V 91
Appendix VI 92
Appendix VII 93
Appendix VIII 94

List of figures

Figure 2.1: Influence on desired leader prototype. Source: Author according to Goethals et al, 2004. 26

Figure 2.2: Teaching personnel by age. Source: OECD. 30

Figure 2.3: Level and minimum length of initial teacher education of pre-primary and primary teachers, and the minimum proportion of time spent on professional training, 2011/12 in European countries. Source: OECD. 31

Figure 2.4: The level and minimum length of initial teacher education of secondary school teachers in European countries. Source: OECD. 32

Figure 2.5: Icelandic students' PISA results in science, mathematics and reading for the period 2000-2015. Source: OECD. 36

Figure 3.1: Sequential scheme for working on the master's thesis. Source: Author. 40

Figure 4.1: Respondents according to gender vs. Teachers in Iceland. Source: Author. 54

Figure 4.2: Respondents according to age groups. 55

Figure 4.3: Respondents´ educational level. 56

Figure 4.4: Comparison of religion in Iceland and the respondents. Source: Statistics Iceland. 57

Figure 4.5: The followers' desired leader behaviour preferences according to LBDQXII 12 factors. 58

Figure 4.6: Societal cultural value dimension means: Educational sector, business sector and HI students in Iceland. 67

Figure 4.7: MAS by the age groups of the respondents.weak correlation between 71

List of tables

Table 2.1: Comparison of leadership theories 20

Table 3.1: Preferred leader behaviour dimensions defined by LBDQ XII 43

Table 3.2: Description of VSM08 and question examples 46

Table 3.3: Internal validity of LBDQXII factors in the thesis research sample 50

Table 4.1: Sociodemographic characteristics of the sample versus Statistics and OECD Iceland. 53

Table 4.2: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on gender differences for LBDQXII 12 factors 59

Table 4.3: Correlation analysis: Respondents age and LBDQXII dimensions 60

Table 4.4: Correlation analysis – Respondents' education and LBDQXII dimensions 61

Table 4.5: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on type of institution differences 62

Table 4.6: Correlation analysis – Size of the organisation and LBDQXII dimensions 63

Table 4.7: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on ownership type of institution differences 64

Table 4.8: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on place of residence differences 65

Table 4.9: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors gender plus VSM differences 69

Table 4.10: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on age plus VSM08 differences 70

1 Introduction

Today's leaders are faced with many challenges, globalisation, changing surroundings, new technologies, and competition; all these factors force leaders to look for new and more effective ways in leading their organizations (Murgatroyd and Morgan, 1993; Fullan, 2007). Employees also have high requirements towards their leaders (Janssen and Yperen, 2004). Leaders are required to work effectively in increasingly diverse societal cultural surroundings (Mazeikiene, 2014, House et al., 2004). Leaders are facing particular challenges in education sector which is facing major transformations (Fullan, 2007).

Leader knowledge of employees' attitudes are crucial in improvement of leadership effectiveness (Moshavi, Brown and Dodd, 2003). Andreescu and Vito (2010), contribute to the idea stating that leadership could be improved if leaders knew their followers' attitudes as to what constitutes a preferred leader; hence researching followers' attitudes towards desired leader behaviour has a particular practical value for organizations. Leadership is a context dependent phenomenon, hence it should be considered within specific societal and industry sector contexts (Javidan, Dorfman, Luque and House, 2006; Dimmock and Walker, 2010).

Knowledge of developing leadership effectiveness in the education sector is an important aspect of research in leadership literature, due to the need of education sector to keep up with technological and societal developments in the societies in which they operate (Roco and Bainbridge, 2005). According to Connely and Bartoletti (2013, p.42), leaders of educational institutions are expected to be 'educational visionaries, instructional and curriculum leaders, assessment experts, budget analysts, facility managers, special program administrators, and expert overseers of legal, contractual, and policy mandates and initiatives'. Indicating the complexity of leadership in education sector, Hoy and Miskel (2008) also suggests that educational leaders are expected not only to be the problem and conflict resolvers in the relationships with teachers, students, parents, unions, officials and federal and state agencies, but also to be aware of and fulfil the increasing student needs. The importance of leadership in education is highlighted in the literature (Connely and Bartoletti, 2013; Fullan, 2010; Hallinger and Snidvongs, 2008),

suggesting that in a context of high expectations for leader effectiveness, school leaders are placed in a very hot seat to improve leader identification, education and development. Therefore, researching leadership in education sector within particular cultural sector has high practical value.

In Iceland, the debate has been increasing on effective leadership in the educational sector (Hansen, 2013; Gunnlaugsdottir, 2003). Icelandic educational institutions are increasingly moving towards closer cooperation with one another and other industry sectors, both inside the country and with partners abroad, transparency and individualisation of learning, which makes teachers´ and especially school leaders´ job more and more challenging (Haraldsdottir, 2013). The educational system is under constant reorganization and improvement. Private schools and kindergartens, oriented to some particular philosophical and psychological trends are being established. For example, *Waldorf* education (based on the principals of Austrian philosopher Rudolph Steiner), educational philosophy called *Hjallastefnan*, New Zealand mathematics teaching methods used in the International school and other psychological theories are stressing up-to-date organizational management and culture and non-standard leader role (Helgason, 2011).

Changes in economic and political life in Iceland were followed by the latest teachers' strikes in 2004 and 2012, when compulsory and secondary school teachers protested against mismatch between their work load and salaries. This illustrates that school leaders in Iceland are constantly facing new challenges, the need to react to the changing situation and solve not only managerial-administrative tasks, but also be the leaders inspiring followers. The need to improve the educational process and its leadership has been discussed heavily in daily media in Iceland in recent years (Hálfdánardóttir, 2014; Óskarsson, 2015). Moreover, it has been outlined as the public policy by the Parliament and Ministry of Education, Science and Culture in a framework called White Paper (White Paper, 2016).

Considering above mentioned changes in the educational sector in Iceland and its surroundings, as well as calls made for more effective leadership, and established relation between employees´ attitudes of leadership and leadership effectiveness, it is stated that there is a need for conducting desired leadership research from follower's perspective in

order to contribute to leadership theory and practice within Icelandic educational context.

Follower focused leadership research which could benefit leaders (Greenwood and Gaunt, 1994) in the education field in Iceland in improving leadership process, is virtually non-existent, or is focused just on the compulsory level of education (Guðmundsson, 2009; Hansen, Jóhannsson & Lárusdóttir, 2005; Hansen, 2013). Therefore, this research attempts to ***fill in the above-mentioned gap, by defining followers' attitudes towards desired leader behaviour in an under-researched sector in Iceland, namely education, as means for leadership effectiveness improvement*** (Schyns and Schilling, 2011). Furthermore, the research provides theoretical contribution by elaborating on a profile of desired leader behaviour description evaluated within the Icelandic cultural context.

Considering that a leader fitting a desired leader profile can enhance leadership effectiveness (Littrell, 2013), and that societal culture and industry sector play a role in the description of desired leader profiles (Javidan, Dorfman, Luque and House, 2006), the research question is formulated as follows: **What is the profile of the desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland from the followers' point of view?**

The literature indicates (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004), that attitudes towards desired leader profile in particular societal culture and sector can also depend on sociodemographic characteristics of the followers. In other words, follower´s gender, level of education and other characteristics can affect the attitude towards what constitutes a desired leader (Bellov, 2011; Salahuddin, 2010; Vecchio and Boatwright, 2012; Snaebjornsson, 2016). Therefore this research also investigates whether the sociodemographic characteristics of the followers (gender, education level, age, and other) affect desired leader behaviour preferences.

The main goal of this master's thesis is to describe the profile of the desired leader in the educational field in Iceland and contribute in filling the existing gap in leadership research from the followers' point of view in Iceland. Furthermore, to contribute to increasing effectiveness in leadership process in the educational sector in Iceland, as well as raising awareness of the importance of leadership role in the education field.

Above outlined will be reached by:

1. Overviewing leadership theories and discussing the concept of leadership phenomena from the follower's perspective.
2. Analysing the literature on leadership in education field from the organisational point of view.
3. Analysing the literature on leadership in education sector in Iceland.
4. Investigating cultural effects on leader behaviour preferences.
5. Analysing and describing the picture of the desired leader as described by kindergarten, compulsory and secondary school employees.
6. Identifying the diversity/uniformity of attitudes towards desired leadership in the education sector based on followers' sociodemographic characteristics.
7. Preparing recommendations and presenting them to the stakeholders in the educational sector in Iceland.

The following research methods will be used in this thesis: analysis of scientific literature, quantitative survey (empirical research using LBDQ XII and VSM08 questionnaires), and statistical analysis of survey data.

The value and originality of the research stems from few sources:

1. Research contributes to the follower-centric theory of leadership that has received limited attention in leadership research yet (Lord, Brown and Freiberg, 1999; Bluedorna and Janssib, 2008; Hinojosa, McCauley, Randolph-Seng and Gardner, 2014).
2. Research presents data on the educational sector that is one of the most important and problematic sector in Iceland and in this way contributes to solving leadership issues within the sector.
3. Data selected contributes to the ongoing global research on Preferred Leader Behaviour and Cultural Values (see: http://crossculturalcentre.homestead.com/)
4. The results of the research will contribute to raising awareness of leadership importance in the educational sector in Iceland.

5. The results of the research might contribute to constructive debate/dialogue on improvement leadership process in the educational sector in Iceland.
6. Additional validation and adaption of the LBDQXII to the educational sector was made, allowing use of the instrument for further researches in the educational sector in Iceland. Research presented in this master's thesis, hence, can serve as a benchmark for future longitudinal research attempting to determine the changes in followers' attitudes towards desired leadership in the educational sector in Iceland.
7. The results of this research will provide Icelandic educational leaders practical guidelines for leadership effectiveness.

To sum up, this research will make contribution to follower oriented theory of leadership, more effective leadership practice in education sector in Iceland, and can have implications towards increased awareness of leadership importance within education sector, as well as policy making.

This research is an integral research of a larger international study, namely Leadership and Values, and is coordinated by R.F. Littrell (see Littrell, 2013). The main goal of this overarching project is to compare the actions of the preferred leader in different national cultures. Over 200 scientists researching leadership have collaborated within the framework of the project. The project researches are already performed in China, South Korea, Japan, Germany, Iran, Iceland, Romania, Russia, Turkey, Uganda, Ghana, Kenia, Zambia, South Africa, Mexico, Chile, The USA, Lithuania and New Zealand.

This master´s thesis consists of six main parts. The introduction discusses the basis for choosing the topic and how it is grounded on ideas of leadership scholars and the need within the industry. The research question is introduced in the introduction part as well. Short overview of main leadership theories is presented in the second part. The theoretical aspects of desired leader prototype in the context of followers and cultural diversity contexts are also discussed in the second part. Leadership in the educational sector and its particularities in Icelandic schools are also discussed there. The third part is the methodological part, where research instrument and reasons for the particular

choice are introduced. Results of the empirical research are presented in the fourth part. Discussion, recommendations and conclusions are at the end of the paper.

2 Literature review

The aim of this chapter is to review existing literature on the subjects relevant to the leadership in education topic. The evolution of leadership theories, helping contextualise desired leadership theory and the importance of follower, are discussed first. Further, desired leader prototype theory and the role of follower is discussed in detail. Then, the particularities of leadership in education sector are discussed in this literature review. Situation in educational sector in Iceland is overviewed at the end of the chapter.

2.1 Overview of leadership theories

Leadership phenomenon has been discussed since ancient time in the works of Plato, Cesar, Plutarch and other philosophers and there are a lot different theoretical approaches for explaining the complexity of the leadership process (Bass, 1990; Rost, 1991; Northouse, 2013). Different communities and cultures have been looking for answers to the questions: Why are some people followed and have more authority than others? What character traits distinguish a leader from the crowd? Why is good leadership important to the development and progress of the organisation (Valuckiene et.al., 2015)?

Below the evolution of leadership theories is discussed, building the case regarding the lack of follower focused approach in leadership theory development, as well as recognition of the important role of the follower. Furthermore, this overview of leadership theory evolution highlights the importance of leader behaviour/style theory and its prevailing role within other leadership theories.

2.1.1 Evolution of leadership theories

Literature suggests, that leadership process means different things to different people and in different contexts, but in general, leadership is defined as the process of influence changing the behaviour of individuals and their groups (Yukl, 2012). Leadership studies have always been a challenge and a sphere of interest for researchers. There are more than 60 leadership theories with different classifications and leader descriptions found in scientific literature (Dinh et al., 2014; Fleishman et al., 1991). The wide range of leadership theories in scientific literature shows the complexity of this phenomena and scientists' desire to analyse it. On the other hand, this variety makes the scientific process

of analysing leadership more complicated and time consuming (Snaebjornsson, 2016). The most common and recognised leadership theories are: Great Man theory, Trait theory, Skills theory, Style/behaviour theory, Situational theory, Contingency theory, Path-goal theory, Leader-Member Exchange theory, Transformational theory, Servant leadership theory, Authentic Leadership theory, Team leadership theory, and Psychodynamic theory (Bass and Bass, 2008; Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Northouse, 2013). Stogdill (1974) suggested that there are "almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 259).

Great Man and Trait theories are one of the oldest leadership theories suggesting that some people are born with a set of traits, qualities that make them great leaders and that allow them to be differentiated from other people, non-leaders, who do not have those traits (Northouse, 2013). Throughout the 20th century, researchers were working on identifying and classifying the definitive traits belonging to the leaders (Bryman, 1992; Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1974). Northouse (2013) classified leadership traits distinguished by the researchers and claimed, that some of the traits were the central ones in other studies. He synthesised five major leadership traits, "intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity and sociability" (Northouse, 2013, p. 23). He also stated, that "trait approach suggests that organisations will work better if the people in managerial positions have designated leadership profiles" (Northouse, 2013, p. 29). The trait approach has several identifiable strengths and is applied widely despite its several weaknesses that are also identified by the same author.

Skills theory also discusses leader-centred perspective of leadership. Though the skills approach researchers pay more attention to the skills and abilities that can be developed and acquired (Northouse, 2013), Robert Katz (1995) suggested that effective leaders have three basic personal skills: conceptual, human and personal. The Three-Skill approach and Skills Model suggested by Mumford and colleagues are discussed, used and investigated widely, its strengths and weaknesses disclosed (Northouse, 2013).

Style approach is different from the trait and skills approaches, as it emphasises the behaviour of the leader and it "focuses exclusively on what leaders do and how they act" (Northouse, 2013, p. 75).

Leader behaviour theory emphasizes the behaviour of a leader by focusing on his or her specific behaviour, and not on what he or she is (Hansen and Viladsen, 2010; Northouse, 2013). Leader behaviour is considered as "the relatively consistent pattern of behaviour that characterizes a leader" (Dubrin, 1994, p. 94). Leadership behaviour theory states that a great leader is formed and not born. Behaviourism makes the basis of these theories, and researchers pay attention to a leader's actions and decisions and not to his thinking abilities and inner state (Cibulskas, Zydziunaite, 2012). Leadership behaviour (or style) theory suggests that leaders engage in two types of behaviour – task behaviours and relationship behaviours. Leader behaviour theory, popularized by Ohio State University Studies (Stogdill, 1948) and University of Michigan Studies (Cartwright and Zander, 1960), continues to be among major leadership theories and has been a base of or influence to other leadership theories (House, 1971).

Littrell (2013) contributed to Leader behaviour theory by checking and developing the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Hemphill & Coons, 1957) that was constructed from many items by a group of researchers at Ohio State, describing different aspects of leaders' behaviour. Leader behaviour theory differs from other leadership theories in the way that it does not make a diagnosis and does not tell us what is right and what is wrong. It is the theory focusing on and analysing behaviour.

Contingency theory (Fiedler, 1993; Evans, 1989; House, 1997) analyses how situations change a leader's behaviour and leadership style. Based on contingency theory it is possible to state that there is no universal leadership style for all situations. Leader's success depends on many variables, leadership style, followers and situation. Some representatives of this theory (Kouzes and Posner, 1999) divide leaders into two types according to their leadership style, depending on the situation. The first type are the leaders seeking to perform a task while strengthening their relationship with the group; they are called relationship oriented leaders, and the second type of leaders are task oriented, their main goal is to perform the task. Cibulskas and Zidziunaite (2012) acknowledge that in accordance to these theories, ideal leadership model does not exist; leaders are successful only when their leadership corresponds to the situation.

Representatives of the **Leader-membership theories** (Bass, 1985, 1990; Coleman, 1994; Spillane, Camburn, 2006; Bass, Bass, 2009; Harris, 2010) claim that it is the

relationship between leaders and their followers that decides leadership success, and not the leader's alone traits or behaviour.

Transactional and transformational leadership theories are among the newest theories. The paradigm of the new leadership stresses leader's social habits, having transactional (interaction) and transformational (change) leadership in the centre of attention. Those theories were presented by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) and are dominant in the recent literature (Politis, 2002; Sims, Faraj and Yun, 2009). Transformational leadership covers charismatic and vision leadership (Northouse, 2013).

Servant leadership focuses on leadership from the leader´s point of view. It emphasizes that leaders should be 'attentive to the concerns of their followers, empathize with them, and nurture them' (Northouse 2013, p.219). Servant leaders demonstrate strong moral behaviour toward followers (Graham, 1991).

Table 2.1: Comparison of leadership theories

	Leader centric	Leader behaviour	Context	Interaction	Follower centric
Great Man theory	X				
Trait theory	X				
Skills theory	X				
Style/behaviour theory	X	X			
Situational theory	X		X		
Contingency theory			X		
Path-goal theory					
Leader-Member Exchange theory				X	
Transformational theory	X			X	
Servant leadership theory	X	X			
Authentic Leadership theory	X				
Team leadership theory				X	
Psychodynamic theory	X			X	X

Source: Bass and Bass, 2008; Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Northouse, 2013

The above mentioned leadership theories could be summarised by comparing their focus on the following factors: if the theory is leader or follower centric, if it emphasizes leader behaviour, context and interaction with the followers.

As can be seen from the table above, major focus in most recognised theories of leadership has been on leaders, however, the other half of leadership (Hurwitz and Hurwitz, 2015) has been underrepresented in evolution of leadership theory. However, this research attempts to contribute to follower centric theory of leadership by focusing on investigation of followers' attitudes of leadership.

Servant leadership is regarded as the most progressive theory, providing a new insight to leadership theories, and the relationship between leaders and followers. It is a theory that has been gaing momentum and is considered to be the most developing theory in the literature.

2.1.2 Leadership vs. management

A confusion of two terms, leadership and management, is often noticed in literature. The concepts of leadership and management are independent constructs, though they are correlated and cannot be analysed separately (Littrell, 2013). A manager ensures that the job is performed well and in time; he or she knows all the rules and oversees that they are followed, while a leader influences others in different ways and creates a future vision. Leaders are active emotionally, they cooperate with others in formulating ideas and implementation ways, finding alternatives (Mumford, 2006; Zvirdauskas, 2006). Rost (1991) claims that leadership implies overall mutual influence to the relationship, while management is one sided power demonstration. According to Northouse (2013) there are two forms of leaders, the ones who are appointed leaders because of the position they have, called managers, and prominent leaders. Prominent leaders are leaders not because of the formal position they have, but because the group considers them to be leaders. Zaleznik (1977) wrote that the difference between managers and leaders lies in the conceptions they hold. Managers seek stability and control, they try to resolve problems quickly and embrace all the processes in the organisation. Leaders, on the other hand, might tolerate a lack of structure and be willing to delay solving the problem in order to understand the issue better. Zaleznik (1977) compares leaders to artists, scientists and creative thinkers. He also states that an organisation needs both managers

and leaders for success. Analysing prominent leaders could give valuable insight into how followers influence leaders, and first and foremost what kind of leader's behaviour and activity is considered to be effective in leadership. Hogg (2011) claims that group members conform themselves to the prototype of the leader they have constructed themselves. And the leader is successful as long as he or she manages to make followers agree and comply with the leader's ideas and suggestions that fit to their designed prototype of an ideal group leader. Kotter (1990) points out that both leadership and management are of vital importance for an effective functioning of any organisation. Without leadership, organisation becomes too bureaucratic, and without proper management it can be destroyed by meaningless changes. According to Northouse (2013), leadership and management in the organisation are intertwined and difficult to separate, that is why the author states that these two concepts are to be equated and analysed as one.

The discussion about management and leadership can be summarised by Littrell's (2013) opinion that these two constructs are not independent from each other, that is why they can be analysed only together, as one. To manage the organisation means to ensure that the job is performed, to know all the system and structure, but to lead it, means to influence others, implement necessary changes and create future plans and visions (Bennis and Nanus, 1998; Dubrin, 1995; Mumford, 2006; Yukl, 2013).

2.2 Followers in leadership process

Leadership is a process where one group is influenced by another group of people and where individual and group goals are reached (Yukl, 2013). Leadership as a process cannot be analysed from the leader's perspective only, followers' perspective also has to be included, as leadership is understood as interaction between a leader and his or her followers. Describing leadership as a process and the transaction between leader and his or her followers is taken into consideration, but not leader's traits or qualities (Antonakis, Cianciolo and Sternberg, 2004; Northouse, 2013).

Leadership behaviour and style theories state that while analysing leader's behaviour it is important to pay attention not only to the circumstances in where the leader is acting, but also to his or her followers' characteristics. Leadership is a process of influence and that is why the effectiveness of leadership is influenced not only by behaviour and

personal characteristics of the leader, but also by the followers, their competence, motivation, behaviour and beliefs (Yukl, 2013).

Leadership theories could also be divided into two groups having different approaches: 1) leadership from the leader's approach, called leader-centric (e.g. Trait and Skills theories), and 2) leadership from the context and follower approach, called follower-centric (e.g. partially situational theory) (Northouse, 2013). Leadership theorists (Bass and Bass, 2008; Rowold and Schlotz, 2009; Littrell, 2010) claim that most leadership researches are traditionally oriented to the leader, his self-evaluation, influence of his leadership style on the organisational processes, culture and members. Much less attention is paid to the leadership from the contextual and follower approach (Keller, 1992; Sosik, 1997). The process how the followers influence the leader, is not being researched well (Littrell, 2010). Bass and Bass (2008) recognise that all the leadership definitions are leader-centric. Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009, p. 434) state that "perhaps one of the most interesting omissions in theory and research on leadership is the absence of discussions of followership and its impact on leadership." Littrel's study (2013) focuses on followership and fills the follower-centric gap that Bass and Bass (2008) are talking about.

To summarize, leadership cannot be discussed without having followers in mind, as leadership depends on the leader himself, the followers and the context.

2.3 Desired leader prototype

Sociodemographic characteristics of the individual/the follower, his or her unique experience, social and cultural surroundings, influence the formation of the ideal leader prototype. According to Rush, Thomas and Lord (1977), Lord and Maher (1991), House, Wright and Aditya (1997), Hogg (2001) and Yukl (2013), effectiveness of the leadership depends on how much the leader's behaviour and characteristics correspond to the picture of the ideal hero, the set of characteristics that are prescribed to the ideal leader. Hogg (2001) has established that every social group forms their own identity and thus prototypes of the group members and leaders. The author states, that in groups where general leadership prototype is less expressed, the leader could get less power and his or her position is less stable. So, if a leader wants to be effective, he or she has to maintain well expressed and clear general group agreement about the leadership prototype.

Leaders who correspond to the leadership prototype of the group do not have to demonstrate power for acquiring influence. They are influential because other group members accept them as such, and propositions made by such leaders are accepted without doubts as such leaders and their ideas represent the norms of the group (Hogg, 2001).

A prototype of the desired leader can be investigated by analysing leader behaviour dimensions. Rush, Thomas and Lord (1977) established that if a fake leader is evaluated using the LBDQXII (Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII) questionnaire the results are very similar to the ones evaluating real leaders. Leadership behaviour questionnaires analysing ideal desired leader behaviour can be used as a valuable research instrument. Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy and Stogdill (1974) used leader's behaviour analysis instrument and established that leadership effectiveness is determined by a range of situational agents, followers' expectations for the leader's behaviour being among them.

Research on the influence of the desired leader prototype on the effectiveness of the leader reflects the views that leadership is impossible without followers. Followers are understood not as passive observers and objects of the leaders' behaviour and influence, but as active creators of communication and relations with the leader and factors influencing the effectiveness of the leader. This is like a counterweight to the leader oriented views, analysing leader's traits, character, skills, competences and behaviour. Bass and Bass (2008) claim that many leader behaviour description questionnaires found out that there is a discrepancy between leader self-evaluation and how subordinates evaluate him or her. This means that there is a weak correlation between what leaders state that they do and how their subordinates describe their behaviour and actions. This is explained not only by leaders' inadequate self-evaluation but also by the influence of the leader behaviour prototype created by the followers, meaning that followers evaluate the leader through the filter of their own experiences and beliefs, assigning him or her features and behaviour that in reality is never demonstrated by the leader (Popper and Druyan, 2001). Littrell and Valentin (2005) claim that idealised leader behaviour prototypes not always comply with the real leader behaviour and actions, that is why prototypes cannot predict individual behaviour. Sometimes, when the compliance

between factual, real leader and the desired leader prototype is very high, group effectiveness can decrease. Hogg (2001) analyses prominent leaders whose effectiveness is based on the compliance to the prototype of the desired leader, and he presents the following shortcomings of such type of leadership: group led by such kind of leader can become too close and defensive, the leader can be too converged with the group and lack other sources of influence, in homogenised groups, representatives of minorities have very little chance of becoming leaders.

2.3.1 Aspects of formation desired leader prototype

Effective leadership systems and leader prototypes are formed based on cultural context. The way the individual understands the social surroundings depends on the cultural context he or she is active in (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Evaluating a leader's behaviour may differ among different cultural groups, and this means that in such communities different leader prototypes can be expected (Bass, 1990; Hofstede 1993; Den Hartog et al., 1999).

A leader´s prototype is formed in early childhood when the child takes over leadership features from the first people surrounding him or her – parents and teachers (Goethals et al., 2004). People are shaping their leader´s prototype all their life, as they have been growing and acting in the groups where the leader was a natural phenomenon (Van Quaquebeke and Van Knippenberg, 2012). With time this prototype changes considering social and cultural events. A leader´s prototype is also formed during leader´s and follower´s interactions, and during social events and personal communication (Epitropaki and Martin, 2004). A leader also faces expectations built up by the followers, based on physical features depending on gender, race, and ethnicity that might emphasise the prototypes unconsciously existing in followers´ mind (Lord and Emrich, 2001).

People create organisations taking into account the values they possess, and society creates institutions conveying the same values and culture (Hofstede, 1984). All societies, organisations and groups have their own ways to transfer culture and values to their members (Littrel, 2010). All the members of an organisation create leadership context together while expressing their opinion about a leader, sharing ideas what is the ideal leader and thus this context builds up leader prototypes describing features and behaviour of the preferred ideal leader (Goethals and Sorenson, 2007). In this way, every

group has its social identity (Hogg, 2001; Hogg and Van Knippenberg, 2003) which serves as the basis for creating group member and leader prototypes. As has been mentioned previously, those prototypes are influenced by people´s work and life context, which is why they are so different among different people and groups (Gentry and Eckert, 2012). Every culture keeps those prototypes in memories of its members. Though these idealised leader prototypes might not correspond to reality, group members use them in evaluating leader´s effectiveness. During this process of evaluation, group members determine a leader´s social power and level of influence (Lord and Maher, 2002). Individuals have personal leader´s image and their own theories and experiences in their minds. It is possible to state that followers´ conception of leadership is influenced by social, environmental and overall cultural contexts. All these contexts influence formation of desired leader prototype.

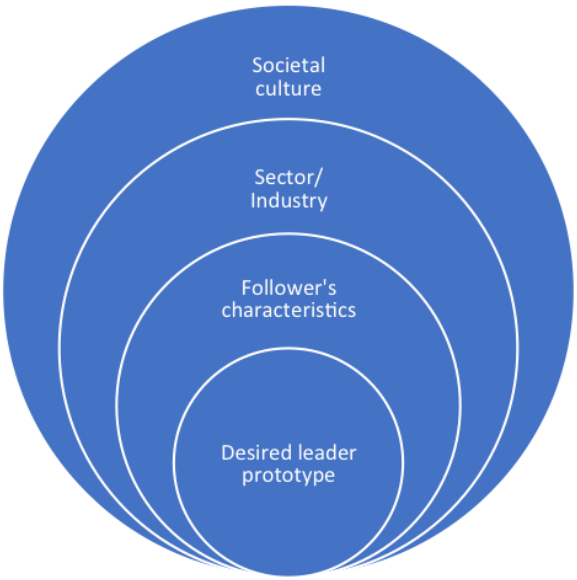

Figure 2.1: Influence on desired leader prototype. Source: Author according to Goethals et al, 2004.

To summarize, every individual has a particular prototype of the desired leader regarding the behaviour of the effective leader. As the individual does not live in isolation, his understanding of the desired leader is formed under the influence of social, environmental and cultural contexts. The more factual leader's behaviour complies with the prototype created by a follower, the more the follower is ready to accept the leader and follow his ideas, hence the more effective the leader will be (Lord and Maher, 1991).

2.3.2 Societal culture and desired leader profile

Why are leaders different in the USA and China? What is the influence of culture in the formation of leaders in different cultures? Globalisation that has been advancing throughout the world since World War II created a need to understand how cultural differences affect leadership performance (Northouse, 2013). Leaders had to become more competent of cross-cultural awareness and "understand business, political and cultural environments worldwide" (Northouse, 2013, p. 383).

For becoming a successful leader, one has to know what the cultural values of the particular country are, and what type of leader is followed in particular time and situation. History witnessed great leaders, Ghandi, Obama, Mother Teresa and Winston Churchill are just a few to be mentioned, who had millions of followers. Without followers a leader is not a leader (Mills, 2015). In order to identify what leader's behaviour is effective, several situational determinants have to be analysed. Cultural dimensions are among them. Literature suggests that what constitutes good leadership is culture specific (Littrell, 2013). Researchers have been looking for ways to measure cultures and their influence on leaders' behaviour. The idea of cultural dimensions has been under consideration for a long time and was especially developed during the past few decades (Littrell, 2013; Snæbjörnsson, 2016). The understanding of the effect of culture on leader behaviour was significantly enriched by the publication of Hofstede's (1980b) Cultures Consequences (Littrell, 2013). This publication provided empirical support to already existing theories on cultural influence and was followed by further large projects and researches employing measurements of cultural dimensions in different countries. Researches made by Maznevski and others in 1995, Inglehart in 1997 and the GLOBE team in 2004 could be mentioned among others (Snæbjörnsson, 2016). Almost all the researches had the dimensions that were introduced by Hofstede. 'Hofstede's framework has become a foundation for further cross-cultural research' (Taras, et.al., 2013, p. 2).

There are very few published studies on Icelandic culture in cross-cultural literature (Snæbjörnsson et.al., 2017). The study performed in 2011 (Aðalsteinsson et al., 2011) states that Iceland is low on the Masculinity dimension, low Power Distance, high Uncertainty Avoidance, high Individualism vs. Collectivism and average Long Term Orientation dimension, thus allowing to describe Iceland as egalitarian country. This study

measured five dimensions: PDI, UAI, IDV, MAS and LTO, and students from the University of Iceland were respondents to the study.

Another cross-cultural study was performed by I.M. Snæbjörnsson in 2016 comparing business leaders in Iceland and Lithuania. Snæbjörnsson´s (2016; Snæbjörnsson et al., 2017) results on Icelandic business sector leaders differ from the above mentioned study results, and measured seven dimensions. Snæbjörnsson's study results state that Iceland scores highest in Indulgence vs. Restrain dimension, Power Distance and Individualism vs. Collectivism are the other two highest dimensions. Masculinity vs. Femininity, Monumentalism vs. Flexumility or Self-effacement and Long Term vs. Short Term Orientation are low scoring dimensions for Iceland in her study. Uncertainty Avoidance is the lowest average in all dimensions in Iceland. High Indulgence indicates a 'society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun' (Hofstede, 2011, p. 15).

Understanding how employees´ values at the workplace are influenced by culture is very important. Littrell (2013, p.573) states, that 'there is a feedback system of relationships amongst leader behaviour, individual personality, individual values within national and/or societal culture and organisational culture'. Focusing on cross-cultural issues helps to uncover new relationships, as research designs must include a much broader range of variables that are frequently not considered in single-country theories, variables such as a national or effectively national religion, language, history, or political systems (Dorfman, 1996).

The literature also suggests that there are gender and age related differences for cultural dimensions, thus providing insight on leadership characteristics (AlAlnezi and Alansari, 2006; Cuddy et.al. 2015; Hofstede, 1984).

Therefore, in every culture people have an image of the ideal leader which they are ready to follow (Hofstede, 1980; Littrel, 2002). Only the leaders who manage to find out what is expected of him or her, leaders who are closest to the desired leader's image, can successfully lead the group, organisation, or the country.

2.3.3 Gender and preferences of desired leader profile

Gender influence in leadership is being widely discussed among academics (Adler & Osland, in press). The growing number of women in the international workforce has

awaken the discussion of gender in leadership among scholars (Trinidad and Normore, 2005). Investigating followers´ preferences the question if male and women have common prototypes of leader behaviour is being raised (Bellou, 2011). Teacher profession is overwhelmingly female at lower levels of education in European countries, where 70% of teachers at lower or middle levels are female (European Commission report, 2013). According to the latest information provided by Statistics Iceland in 2011 there were 19 923 people working in educational sector in Iceland, 4 409 of them were male, that makes 22% of all the employees (Statistics Iceland, 2017). The situation is improving at the higher secondary and professional levels, where the number of male teachers is higher, both in Iceland and other European countries as well (European Commission report, 2013).

Birkelund, Goodman and Rose (1996) state that individuals within every gender group cannot be operationalised as a homogeneous group. Victoria Bellou (2011) confirms the fact that men and women cannot be viewed as one unique group while examining leadership preferences.

The research on the ideal leader preferences from the followercentric approach in business sector in Iceland was conducted by Snæbjörnsson in 2016, where the author also analyzed the gender influence on followers' decisions. Results of her research show that there are no gender difference in ideal leader preferences in business sector in Iceland (Snæbjörnsson, 2016).

According to Hall (1994), gender is a major grouping variable, besides, the number of male and female employee is different in different levels of educational institutions, thus it is interesting to observe whether leadership preferences depend on gender in educational sector in Iceland.

2.3.4 Age and preferences of desired leader profile

Inglehart (1997) investigated preferences of different generations worldwide and found out that that older people give priority to materialistic values, while younger ones prefer post-material values. Littrell (2010) suggests that generational preferences might differ in different countries as different generations in different countries were influenced by different historical events among other criteria.

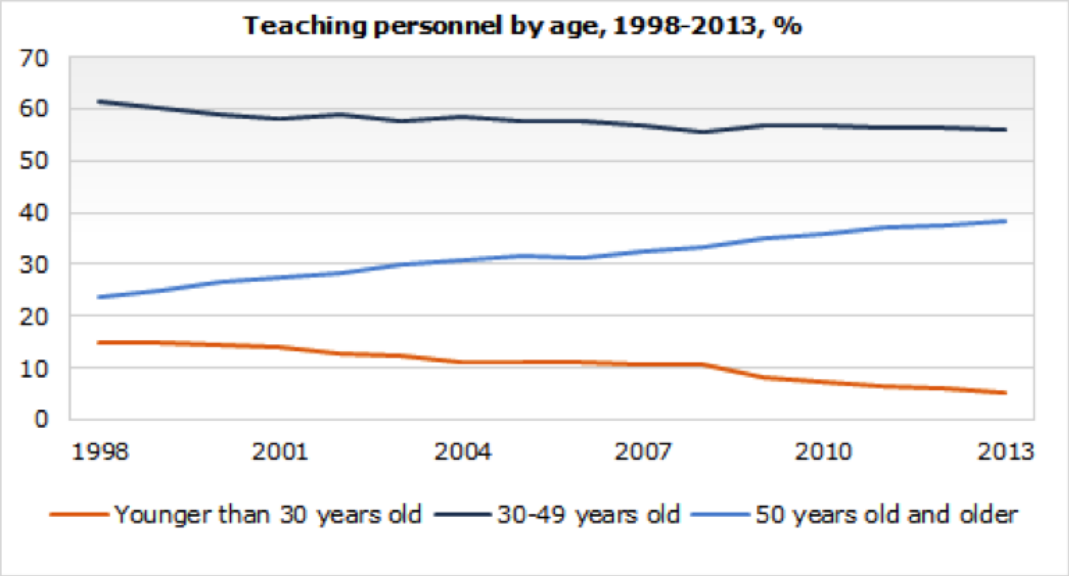

Figure 2.2: Teaching personnel by age. Source: OECD.

Figure 2.2 depicts the age of teachers in Iceland as presented in an OECD report (OECD, 2016). It demonstrates the age divided into three categories, and the change of the percent of employees in the mentioned categories during the period 1998-2013. According to the report the number of the teachers over 50 years is rapidly increasing and reached 38,6% of all the teaching staff in 2013 (OECD, 2016).

According to the report, the situation of teachers aging in Iceland is very similar to the situation in other European countries, where almost half of the teachers are aged over 50 and thus such situation together with the declining number of new applicants for the teacher education is leading to a teacher shortage in the future (OECD, 2016).

The literature suggests (Boatwright, 2000; Salahuddin, 2010; Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2008) that follower´s age influences leader behaviour priorities and societal

values change over time and different generations have different values. Thus, the age influence on followers' preferences is analysed in this paper.

2.3.5 Education level and preferences of desired leader profile

Snæbjörnsson (2016) points out that the influence of education level of the follower in forming the profile of the preferred leader has not received enough attention in leadership research yet. However, Snæbjörnsson (2016) claims that some differences regarding the effect of education level are reported.

Some studies (Littrell and Snæbjörnsson, 2016) suggest that difference in education level can be effected by different emphases on certain values and priorities. Personal beliefs and expectations change as a person becomes older, more experienced and educated, hence resulting in differences in leader preferences.

Employees working at different educational levels in European countries and Iceland are mostly required to have university or special college education (OECD, 2016). This is demonstrated in the Figures 2.3 and 2.4 below, where numbers indicate the length of studies, and official abbreviations are used for indicating European countries.

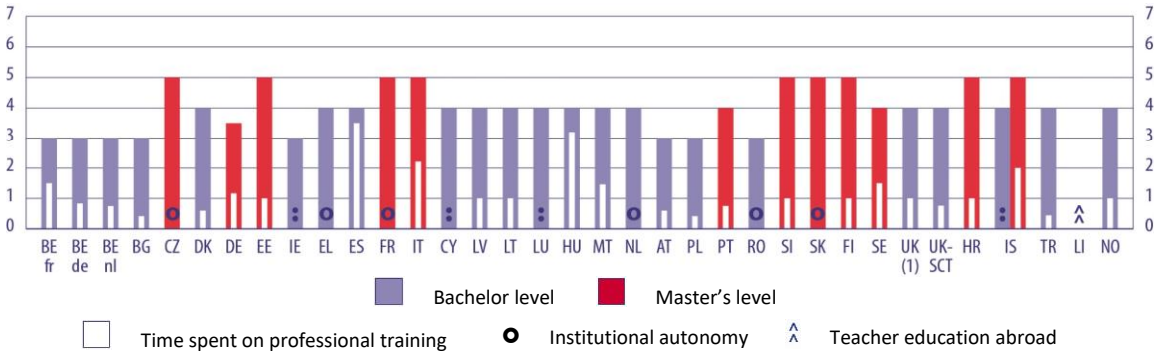

Figure 2.3: Level and minimum length of initial teacher education of pre-primary and primary teachers, and the minimum proportion of time spent on professional training, 2011/12 in European countries. Source: OECD.

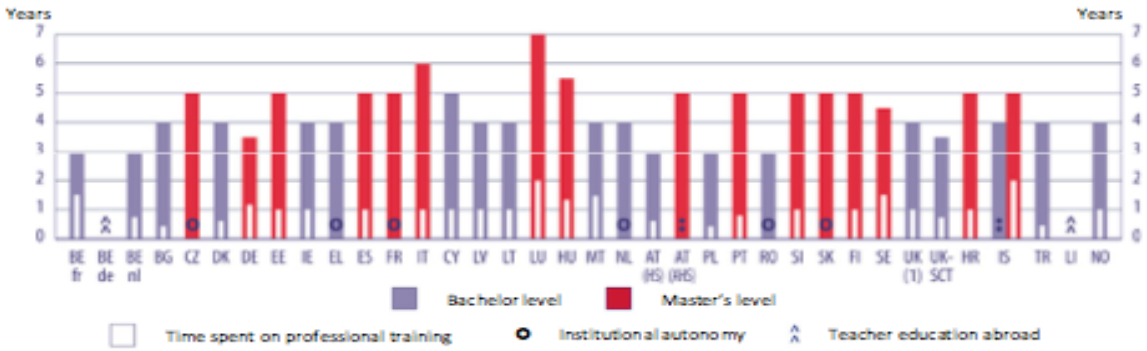

Figure 2.4: The level and minimum length of initial teacher education of secondary school teachers in European countries. Source: OECD.

Since 2012, teachers in all educational levels in Iceland are required to have a master's degree in education or in their field of study, as well as the confirmation of Teacher Certification Studies (OECD, 2016).

Vecchio and Boatwright (2012) found out that employees with higher education expressed less preference for leader structuring. The influence of employee's education level on their desired leader preferences in educational sector in Iceland is analysed in chapter 4.1 of this thesis.

2.3.6 Type of organisation influence on forming a profile of a preferred leader

Leader behaviour preferences can be affected by the sector of employment of a follower (Snæbjörnsson, 2016). Literature indicates, that different sectors and industries have distinctive cultures (Phillips, 1994; Chatman & Jehn, 1994). This culture level is broader than one company level, but narrower than the national culture level (Pizam et al., 1997). Chhokar, Brodbeck and House (2007) indicate significant industry effects on leadership preferences within the same country. Phillips (1994) offered to use the term mindset industry, meaning that organisational culture differs not only on the international or national levels, but also on the organisational and industry levels. Thus, the industry where particular specialists and professionals act forms the specific culture, values and attitudes that might change from other industries.

Analysis of the theories and literature presented above prove, that it is very important to analyse the variety of the followers in analysing the leader prototype. Most of the researchers state that leadership is affected by gender, education, age and industry sectors, but there are also some researches proving that other sectors, for example city

vs. countryside (Allen, 2008), also have influence on leadership and followers' attitudes towards leadership. That is why the aspect of followers' variety is analysed in the empirical part of this master's thesis.

2.4 Leadership in education

Leadership in educational sector has a very specific model 'from a structural/positional perspective and the view that everyone already is a leader' (Davis, 2014, p.34). Hansen and Villadsen (2010) have stated that in comparison to other fields of researches, 'leadership theory has generally received little attention in public management research' (p.247). Tummers and Knies (2013) performed a research in the Netherlands on how LMX (leader-member exchange leadership model) influence meaningfulness at work in education and two other public sectors. They analysed three parts of outcomes of meaningfulness: work effort, organizational commitment and work-to-family enrichment. An example of work-to-family enrichment is when involvement at work results in a positive emotional state for the teacher, who feels valued at work because he (she) can help students with their assignments and that is why he (she) is in a good mood at home. Their research emphasized the importance of leadership in education and public sector.

2.4.1 Educational system in Iceland

Education in Iceland has traditionally been organized within the public sector, and there are also a few private institutions in the school system. Almost all private schools receive public funding. Hansen (2013) describes the educational system, its development, and how evaluation and accountability policies became parts of formal education policy; he also explains how children with special needs and immigrants use the same right to compulsory education in Iceland for the children at the age of 6-16. He discloses the role of the compulsory school headmaster and influence of the fiscal crisis on school budgets and management.

Icelandic Parliament is legally and politically responsible for the educational system in Iceland. The Parliament and Ministry of Education, Science and Culture determine the basic objectives and main administrative framework. The newest White Paper on Education Reform (2014), issued by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture,

defines the main goals in the education system until the year 2018. Two main goals are emphasized in this paper: the first one is that 90% of students 16 years old and younger meet the minimum standards in reading; the second goal is that 60% of students complete their secondary education on time, that is, before they turn 24 years old. The Icelandic national curriculum guides for compulsory and upper secondary schools, among other guidelines, also talk about shortening and changing of the school programs, thus enabling students to graduate from upper secondary level in three years instead of four.

Teachers and staff working with students at all educational levels always try to follow progressive ideas and adapt the newest programs. Political and economic changes and restructuring always cause some instability, worries and people feel insecure and protest against it. Strikes are the most severe form of protest used in Iceland. Several strikes on different educational levels have hit Iceland recently. Luckily, a consensus was reached and the collective agreements were signed (The Icelandic Teacher's Union).

2.4.2 Research on leadership in the educational sector in Iceland

Guðmundsson (2009) conducted a quantitative research on the relationship between school authorities and upper secondary school teachers in four capital area schools in Iceland. It was concluded that teachers in upper secondary schools believe that good communication with managers, support, encouragement and teamwork are of vital importance for headmaster-teacher communication (Guðmundsson, 2009).

After 1995, when control over compulsory schools was transferred from the state to the municipalities, the role of the school headmasters increased and became more clear and structured (Hansen, 2013). The extensive analysis on the change of the school headmasters' role was implemented by Hansen et al. (2002) and showed that the change positively influenced the working environment. This analysis was compared to the analysis of headmasters' role in compulsory school conducted by the same research team in 1991 (Hansen et al., 1997).

In the study conducted in 2005 (Hansen, Jóhannsson & Lárusdóttir), the views of the headmasters and teachers on the implementation of self-evaluation practices were analyzed. Analysis was made in six compulsory schools in Iceland and the results showed that there are great differences among the schools regarding self-evaluation activities. 'The findings indicate that the critical factors are the knowledge and skills of headmasters

and teachers of self-evaluation methods, clear leadership within schools and the attitudes of headmasters and teachers towards self-evaluation as a means for change and development´ (Hansen, 2013, p.72).

Above described indicates the gap in literature regarding leadership research in educational sector in Iceland, particularly from administrative/managerial point of view. Most of the research are fragmented and focus on narrow level, e.g. compulsory school level (Guðmundsson, 2009). Education leadership in the other three levels: pre-school, upper-secondary school and university levels, and especially the leader-employee relationship are under-researched as suggested by the literature (Guðmundsson, 2009; Hansen et al. 2005; Hansen, 2013), hence represents the gap. This gap is addressed with research presented in this thesis.

2.4.3 Strengths and challenges of the education system in Iceland

The OECD report, *Iceland Improving Schools Review*, was published in 2012. The report was prepared by the OECD Improving Schools Team (OECD, 2012). It introduces the key conclusions from the OECD analysis and discussions held during the OECD-Iceland workshop with OECD officials and international experts. In the report the educational sector in Iceland is overviewed, and strengths and challenges pointed out.

Icelandic educational system has a lot of strengths, and students in general are performing well, that is proved by international test results TALIS. Iceland cares about its education system and invests into it. All the students have equal access to learning at all levels and lifelong learning is a reality, when students of all ages, from early childhood to adulthood, are attending schools. The OECD (2012) report also states that in Iceland policy reforms are aimed to raise the quality of education and that decentralised governance aims to help local authorities, including schools, to make better decisions. All the above mentioned facts were indicated as strengths in the Icelandic education sector. Unfortunately, something went wrong in this policy. The fact that Icelandic students were performing above the OECD average in mathematics and reading was indicated as the main strength in the report. The situation in this field has changed and later PISA results show that students' results are dramatically worsening. The figure demonstrates how this factor became a challenge to the Icelandic educational sector.

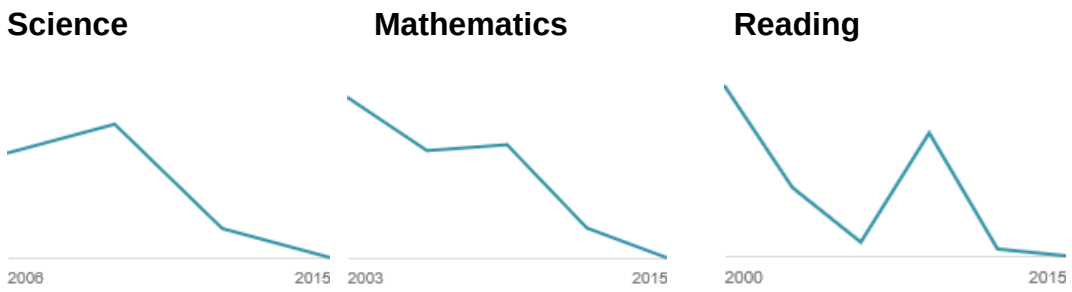

Figure 2.5: Icelandic students' PISA results in science, mathematics and reading for the period 2000-2015. Source: OECD.

Knowing the strengths is supporting and encouraging, but the educational sector and its leaders in particular, are also faced with a lot of challenges. Beside the one discussed above, several more challenges were pointed out in the OECD School Review report. First of all, it is stated that high dropout rates from upper secondary school level suggest that the whole school structure has to be revised and means taken already at the earlier school levels. 'Building on the foundations from compulsory schooling, upper secondary education consolidates basic skills for the transition into higher education or the labour market' (OECD 2012, p. 5). Several reasons for possible students' dropout are mentioned in the report, such as a lack of relevant curricula, duration of studies, guidance and others. The report also suggests, that quality of vocational education and training seems to lack attractiveness for the students and meets a lot of challenges, such as access to resources, teaching aids and equipment.

Teachers and other staff working at schools have a lot of influence and can make a difference, but they meet a lot of obstacles in their job. Recent reforms suggest to increase the quality of teachers' work; thus a Master's degree is required for teaching at all the levels. This means that teachers´ studies are prolonged from three years to five. Þórður Hjaltested, the chairman of the Icelandic Teachers´ Union, pointed out that this reform caused a lot of problems and fewer people are choosing teachers´ studies, so this might need to be reconsidered (Hjaltested, 2017). OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) results point out such challenges for teachers as little teaching time, low starting salaries, high level of absenteeism and poor participation in professional development. The results also show that teacher training is not systematically planned but decided on the spot, according to the particular needs at the moment, and this challenge is named to be the critical one in the report. Another

important challenge to the educational system according to the report is that despite all the reforms and efforts to keep students at school the labour market incentivises students into workforce and away from education. Students leave school and enter labour market, as the difference wages between low skilled and high skilled jobs is very small and young people are tempted to earn money immediately instead of studying for the profession.

The report also states, that the decentralised governance system in Iceland is not providing enough of support nor accountability for school. There is a lack of redistribution strategies within and between schools and thus there is less capacity to hold actors accountable. This means that students do not have equal access and their needs are not always met. Ministry of Education, Science and Culture is in charge of upper secondary level, while municipalities are responsible for the compulsory education in Iceland. According to the TALIS suggestions, these two bodies need to work more closely together for ensuring smoother students' transition from one level into another and preventing possible learning gaps.

According to the Statistic Iceland the average age of teachers has been increasing since the year 2000 when it was 42,2 to the 46,6 in 2015, showing the tendency that teachers are getting older, that could result in a shortage of teachers in the future, as also fewer people are choosing studies for the teacher's profession (Skaftadóttir, 2017).

Leadership in educational sector is very specific, as all the teachers are leaders themselves, and their requirements for the leader behaviour are different than in other industries. Educational sector in Iceland has received good evaluation by international tests and comparisons with educational sectors in other countries (see TALIS and PISA test results), and this is one of the numerous strengths Icelandic leaders have in their work.

Besides strengths, leaders in the educational sector in Iceland meet several challenges to cope with. OECD (2016) report points out, that "school leaders need to be trained and supported to be stronger pedagogical leaders" (OECD, 2016, p. 10). That is why they need to have their employees to be their followers and support them in reaching common goals.

Summarising the above chapter: the emphasis in this master´s thesis is to describe the profile of the desired leader in the educational field in Iceland from the follower´s point of view, paying special attention to the followers´ sociodemographic characteristics and societal cultural effects. The procedure and research methods are described in the following chapter.

3 Methodology

The main goal of this master's thesis is to describe the profile of the desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland, namely in pre-school, primary, compulsory and secondary school levels and thus contribute in filling in the existing gap in leadership literature in Iceland. This goal is implemented by conducting empirical research, describing and comparing the results with the existing similar research and leadership theories. Empiric research aimed to answer the main question of the research: **What is the profile of the desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland from the followers' point of view?**

After conducting a literature review, it became evident (see chapter 2.3.1.) that in order to properly answer the overall question of the research, few sub-questions need to be formulated:

1. Do women and men in the educational sector in Iceland describe the desired leader differently when measured by the 12 LBDQXII factors?
2. Does the age of the personnel make a difference in describing the image of the desired leader when measured by the 12 LBDQXII factors?
3. Do people with different education level describe the desired leader differently when measured by the 12 LBDQXII factors?
4. Is the profile of the desired leader the same in all the types of educational institutions when measured by the 12 LBDQXII factors?

After careful consideration and analysis of available literature, in order to answer above outlined questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

H1. The profile of the ideal leader in educational sector in Iceland does not depend on employee's gender.

H2. The profile of the ideal leader in educational sector in Iceland does not depend on employee's age.

H3. The profile of the ideal leader in the educational sector in Iceland does not depend on the employee's education.

H4. The profile of the ideal leader in the educational sector in Iceland does not depend on the employee's type of institution.

The research of the desired leader profile in the context of the Icelandic educational sector was performed in four phases according to the sequential scheme demonstrated in figure 3.1.

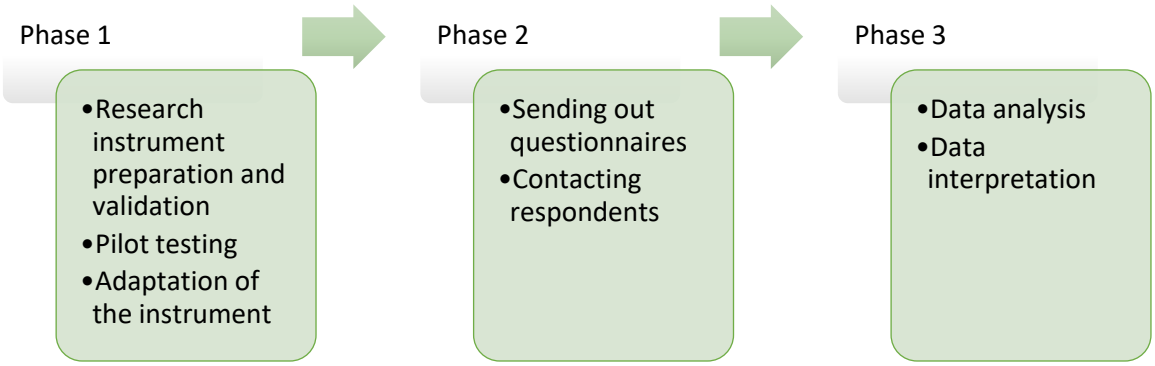

Figure 3.1: Sequential scheme for working on the master's thesis. Source: Author.

A questionnaire, "A Study on Leadership and Values" consisting of Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire form XII (LBDQ XII) and Value Survey Model 2008 (VSM08), was used in the empiric part of this research. The rationale behind this choice is described in the text below.

A Study on Leadership and Values questionnaire, consisting of LBDQXII and VSM08, is originally in English. The translation of the questionnaire into Icelandic was made by Snæbjörnsson (2006), following Brislin´s (1980) procedure. The population in this research are employees of pre-school, primary, compulsory and secondary schools in Iceland. Hence, as every industry has certain particularities (e.g. job level), the Icelandic version of the questionnaire was adapted with minor changes in the sociodemographic part, in order to reflect specifics of the education industry in Iceland. Two focus groups were organized for discussing and validating the translations.

Fifteen questionnaires were answered by respondents in the pilot test of the adapted questionnaire. The final questionnaire was composed after receiving this feedback.

During the second phase, a survey link was sent to the offices of secondary and compulsory schools and kindergartens that were found on the internet, asking to share

the link with the employees of the organisation. As the responses were very few, two weeks later, some schools in the capital area were visited personally and emails sent to employees of the educational sector asking them to share the link and ask friends working in the educational sector all over the country to participate in the survey (snowball method was used, understanding that it is not the most rigorous method of data collection, however, considering the time frame and resources available, this choice was taken).

The third phase, data cleaning process, was performed by Professor R. Littrell, who leads the Study on Leadership and Values, when improperly filled in questionnaires were removed. Data cleaning process was performed according to the criteria and procedures established by CCCC consortium, as discussed in Littrell (2010, pp. 184-191).

After data cleaning the third phase was performed. It covered data analysis and interpretation and hypothesis testing. Statistical data analysis was performed using the SPSS program.

3.1 Survey instrument

The field survey method was used in investigating the profile of the desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland from the followers' point of view. A Study on Leadership and Values questionnaire is used in the survey, which comprises of Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII (Stodgill, 1974; Littrell, 2002) and Hofstede´s societal cultural value model VSM08 (Hofstede, 1980, 1991; Hofstede, G. and Hofstede, G.J., 2005). This survey is the component of the Preferred Leader Behaviour Across Cultures project, which started in China in 1997 and facilitated by the Centre for Cross Cultural Comparisons with over 25 samples from 16 countries (Littrell, 2013; Snæbjörnsson, 2016).

The Study on Leadership and Values questionnaire consists of three parts:

- Sociodemographic questions,
- Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII,
- VMS 08 cultural dimension questionnaire.

The Study on Leadership and Values questionnaire was used for investigating the profile of the preferred leader in the educational sector in Iceland. The questionnaire is used worldwide and was translated into Icelandic and validated by Snæbjörnsson (2016), who is North-East-Central Europe area manager for the Global Preferred Leadership and Cultural Values project.

This research instrument was chosen for the following reasons:

1. It investigates the desired leader behaviour prototype, both in the country and the sector.
2. The questionnaire provides means to research follower centric approach to leadership and effects of sociodemographic characteristics of followers.
3. The questionnaire provides means to draw guidelines for improvement and increasment of leadership effectiveness within specific sector and within particular group of followers.
4. It investigates the relation between the desired leader behaviour prototype and cultural dimensions.
5. This instrument is used in the international Study on Leadership and Values and the results of this thesis will be added to the global project data.
6. It is validated and used globally, and corresponds to the requirements of scientific ethics and honesty.
7. The questionnaire has been already translated into Icelandic and validated. Translation and validation of the new instrument requires a lot of time, human resource and financial resources.

Introducing Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII (LBDQXII)

The English version of the questionnaire is publicly available from the Ohio State University and is particularly designed to investigate preferred leader behaviour from the perspective of the followers. Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII (Stodgill, 1963) has a model specifically developed to investigate twelve leader behaviour qualities: representation, demand reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration and superior orientation. LBDQ XII is comprised of 100 items, that ask respondents to evaluate the

behaviour of their preferred leader according to Likert scale as occurring always, often, occasionally, seldom or never.

Table 3.1: Preferred leader behaviour dimensions defined by LBDQ XII

LBDQXII quality	Evaluates	Question/item example
1. Representation (five component items: 1, 11, 21, 31, 41)	How much the leader speaks and acts as the representative of the group.	Acts as the spokesman of the group.
2. Demand and Reconciliation (five component items: 51, 61, 71, 81, 91)	How well leader reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system.	Is overwhelmed by situations requiring attention to many details.
3. Tolerance and Uncertainty (ten component items: 2, 12, 22, 32, 42, 52, 62, 72, 82,92)	How well the leader is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset.	Accepts delays without becoming upset.
4. Persuasiveness (ten component items: 3, 13, 23, 33, 43, 53, 63, 73, 83, 93)	How much the leader uses persuasion and argument effectively and exhibits strong convictions.	Is very skillful in an argument.
5. Initiation of Structure (ten component items: 4, 14, 24, 34, 44, 54, 64, 74, 84, 94)	How clearly leader defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected.	Decides what shall be done and how it shall be done.
6. Tolerance and Freedom (ten component items: 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, 55, 65, 75, 85, 95)	How wide scope for initiative, decision and action the leader allows to his followers.	Assigns a task, then lets the members handle it.
7. Role Assumption (ten component items: 6, 16, 26, 36, 46, 56, 66, 76, 86, 96)	How actively the leader exercises the leadership role rather that surrendering leadership to others.	Backs down when he/she ought to stand firm.
8. Consideration (ten component items: 7, 17, 27, 37, 47, 57, 67, 77, 87, 97)	How much the leader regards the comfort, well being, status and contribution of followers.	Puts suggestions made by the group into operation.
9. Production Emphasis (ten component items: 8, 18, 28, 38, 48, 58, 68, 78, 88, 98)	How much the leader applies pressure for productive output.	Asks the members to work harder.
10. Predictive Accuracy (five component items: 9, 29, 49, 59, 89)	How accurately the leader exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcome.	Things usually turn out as he/she predicts.

11. Integration (five component items: 19, 39, 69, 79, 99)	How well the leader maintains a closely knit organization and resolves inter-member conflicts.	Settles conflicts when they occur in the group.
12. Superior Orientation (ten component items: 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100)	How well the leader maintains cordial relations with superiors, influences them and strives for higher status.	Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.

Source: Summarised from Stogdill (1963)

The research made by Ohio State University in 1964 investigating leader behaviour discerned 1800 statements describing leader's behaviour. These statements were summarised and grouped into 150 statements, that enabled scientists to create one evaluation scale (Littrell, 2013). Scientists from Ohio State University were composing several versions of the leadership behaviour questionnaires based on the LBDQ (Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire), such as SBDQ (Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire) and LOQ (Leadership Opinion Questionnaire) (Bass, 1990), but none of them became as popular as LBDQ. Northouse (2013) also claims that LBDQ XII is one of the most widely used instruments for investigating leader's behaviour.

Both LBDQ and LBDQ XII have been used for more than 50 years and the results achieved by different scholars proved that the questionnaire is valid and trustful and suitable to use for investigating both real and desired leader behaviour (Bass, 1990; de Vries, 2008; Dente et al., 2011; Greene, 1975; Halpin, 1954, 1957; Hemphill, 1963; Judge et al., 2004; Katerberg and Horn, 1981; Littell and Nkomo, 2005; Sashkin, 1979; Kerr et al., 1974; Stogdill, 1963, 1974; Tracy, 1987, Rodriguez, 2012).

Based on research results received by Judge et al. (2004) and by Vecchio (1987), as well as on his own investigations, Littrell (2013) confirmed that LBDQ XII is valid and reliable. Littrell (2013) states, that the instrument can be used also for informing, teaching and preparing specialists, emigrants and local leaders about leadership expectations in different cultures.

Even though the LBDQ XII has been validated, recognised and widely used among scholars during the last 50 years, it has also received some critique. Mainly its validity was analysed. The criticism mainly relates to the two-factor theory, but not the 12-factor

theory. It was questioned if consideration and structure initiation are the basic leader behaviour dimensions, differentiating different level leaders (Bass, 1990; Derue et al., 2011; Lowin et al., 1969; Hills, 1963; Schriesheim, 1982; Kerr et al., 1974; Tracy, 1987; Rodriguez, 2012).

Introducing Value Survey Model 08 (VSM08) questionnaire

Cultural values theory by Hofstede et al. (1984), operationalised by Hofstede´s seven-dimension Values Survey Module 08, is a part of 'A Study on Leadership and Values' questionnaire and thus has been used in this research (Snæbjörnsson, 2016).

The importance of developing cross cultural awareness (Adler and Batholomew, 1992), understanding how culture affects leadership (Northouse, 2013) and selecting management able to lead culturally diverse teams (House and Javidan, 2004) is being widely discussed in the contemporary leadership literature. 'Hofstede´s research enhanced the understanding of cultural effect on leader behaviour, as he provided evidence on how culture affects management and leadership processes (Hofstede, 1980, 1984), even though he was not particularly focused on the association of leadership and culture' (Snæbjörnsson, 2016, p. 28).

The VSM08 research instrument is used to measure influence of cultural differences in two or more countries or regions in one country (Hofstede et al., 2008). In this research, it is used for descriptive purposes, as was mentioned earlier, leadership phenomenon cannot be separated from the influence of culture in the particular country or within the industry sectors. The questionnaire is formed from 28 questions that fall under seven cultural dimensions: Power Distance (PDI), Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV), Monumentalism vs. Self-effacement (MON), Indulgence vs. Restraint (IVR), Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS), Long Term Orientation (LTO) and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI). Five of the dimensions measured (PDI, IDV, MAS, LTO, UAI) are described extensively in the work of Geert Hofstede (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). They deal with key issues in national societies, known from social anthropology and cross-cultural research. The other two dimensions (MON and IVR) are based on the work of Michael Minkov (2007). They are added by way of experiment, and it is expected they may reveal aspects of national culture not yet covered in the Hofstede dimensions.

All content questions are scored on five-point scales (1-2-3-4-5). Index scores are derived from the mean scores on the questions for national samples of respondents.

The VSM 08 is copyrighted, but may be freely used for academic research projects.

Table 3.2: Description of VSM08 and question examples

Name of the cultural dimension	Dimension description	Example of the question in VSM08
Power Distance Index (PDI)	Describes how the society, and especially its less powerful members accept that power is distributed unequally and how it manages to handle it. People in societies exhibiting a large degree of PDI accept a hierarchical order, in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. In high PDI scoring societies the communication is based on the model 'down from the top', high level of control is prevailing, managers and staff do not consider themselves to be on the same level, and discrimination due to gender, origin, education and profession could be noticed.	How often, in your experience, are subordinates afraid to contradict their boss (or students their teacher)?
Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV)	Indicates to which level individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families. A society´s position in this dimension is reflected in whether people define themselves as I or we. In the societies scoring high in this dimension personal achievements are valued and appreciated more than loyalty to the organization.	In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to have a job respected by your family and friends?
Monumentalism vs. Flexumility (Self-effacement) (MON)	This dimension is related to how one takes pride in oneself and national pride, believing in religion to be very important and making one´s parents proud. In monumentalistic societies members accept only positive information about themselves and their heroes, and decline all the negative information. Their people are like monuments, proud and not changing. This dimension is partially correlating with LTO dimension.	How proud are you to be a citizen of your country?
Indulgence vs. Restrain (IVR)	Societies with higher score in indulgence allow relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life and having fun. Leaders in these societies are expected to give enough of attention and freedom for the employees´ personal life, they want the leader to be optimistic, positive and demonstrate good mood. Societies scoring higher in restrain dimension tend to suppress gratification of needs and regulate it by means of strict norms and forbiddance. Happiness in high restraint societies is understood as a negative phenomenon. Seriousness,	Are you a happy person?

	moral discipline, little attention to personal feelings and demands are expected from the leader in these societies.	
Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS)	The masculinity side of this dimension represents a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material reward for success. Such societies are very competitive, people expect the leader is very strict, deciding and rational. Feminine societies expect their leaders to be tolerant, emphatic and oriented to social relations.	In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to have chances for promotion?
Long Term vs. Short Term Orientation (LTO)	Societies who score high in this dimension encourage thrift and efforts in modern education as a way to prepare for the future. Priority is devoted to saving, patience, learning and perfection. On the other hand, low scoring societies prefer to maintain time-honored traditions and norms and view societal change with suspicion. They value analytical thinking, personal honor and status.	If there is something expensive you really want to buy but you do not have enough money, what do you do?
Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)	Shows how much society members are sensitive to uncertainty and ambiguity. The fundamental issue here is how a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known, should the future be controlled, or just let be? Countries having high score in this index are intolerant to different behaviors and ideas, where principles and rules are very important. In organizations of such societies clear rules and directions, job descriptions, plans and experts are very important and valued.	How often do you feel nervous or tense?

Source: Author, according to Hofstede (2001), Hofstede (1984)

Hofstede´s widely acknowledged and developed model, is, despite criticism, the most commonly used method to compare cultures (Smith and Bond, 1999). Littrell (2012), noted that while talking about Hofstede VSM instrument, critics always gave the same arguments and doubts regarding its validity and Hofstede always managed to address the issues raised by critics and give contradictory arguments in his academic writings (Littrell, 2012). For example, the instrument is being criticized because the dimensions were derived from the research results from only one company, IBM. In 1980, Hofstede compared his IBM research results with the research results performed by Michael Harris Bond who investigated national values of 10 national and ethnic groups using Rokeach Value Survey. M.H. Bond found similar cultural dimensions to the Hofstede's ones.

Similarity of cultural dimensions derived by the research performed by M.H. Bond and G. Hofstede strengthens the validity of the instrument (Littrell, 2012).

3.2 Preparation of the survey instrument

The Icelandic version of A Study on Leadership and Values questionnaire was used by Snæbjörnsson (2016) in her research on leadership in business settings in Iceland and translation process (following Brislin´s (1980) recommendations) and validation process.

The Icelandic version of the questionnaire was further adjusted when conducting the research presented in this thesis, seeking relevance to the education sector.

A refined version of the questionnaire went through additional validation process in order to adjust the questionnaire for the educational sector. This was done by organizing two focus groups meetings where ten different respondents answered and discussed the questions and their meanings. Minor corrections were applied to the translations and new questions that were adapted to the educational sector, following the feedback of the focus groups discussions. Specifically, sociodemographic questions were adjusted after consideration of particularities of the educational sector, namely, question 12 about respondent´s position and questions 14 and 15 about the institution the respondent is working at were adjusted to the Icelandic educational system. As participants of the focus groups were mainly teachers, teaching both English and Icelandic, minor changes in wording were made in the Icelandic translated version used by Snæbjörnsson in the following questions: 13, 17, 18, 21-7, 21-18, 21-28, 21-50, 23, 24, 25 and 34.

The choice of the instrument was also dictated by the fact that the instrument is widely used for investigating leadership from the followers´ perspective, it is fit for achieving the aims of the research, it is validated and translated into Icelandic, and the possibility to join the global study on Leadership and Values (supervised by R. F. Littrell) and receive additional guidance in the research.

3.3 Sampling strategy and recruitment of participants

The permission to distribute the survey using the official educational employee´s data sources was declined by Reykjavík's Department of Education and Youth as letters were never answered and the explanation given in a telephone conversation was that as this is only a master's research, respondents should be found by the researcher herself.

Therefore, the link of the online version of the survey was sent to publicly available emails in educational institutions, first to schools and kindergartens' offices and to their principles, asking to distribute and encourage other employees to answer it (snowball method). Two weeks later, with the turnout still very low, private emails were sent to kindergarten and compulsory school employees in the northern and western parts of Iceland, as participation from this part of the country was especially low. Around 400 invitations to participate in the survey were sent out. Some schools and kindergartens were visited privately in the capital area or called and encouraged to participate in the research.

3.4 Sample size and cleaning process of the sample

As Littrell (2010) suggests, it is critical to clean all the collected data before analysing it. The CCCC consortium has established criteria for dropping respondents who have an appearance of taking a careless approach to completing the survey or skipping too many items.

The survey data is cleaned by professor R. F. Littrell who leads the Study on Leadership and Values according to the rules established during the first CCCC LBDQXII study in China in 1997.

Sample size: 115 respondents answered the questionnaire (N=115) online during the period of two months, April and May. The survey link was sent to personal addresses in several rounds for receiving more answers. After the cleaning process, 105 surveys remained (N=105).

3.5 Validity and reliability

LBDQ XII and its previous versions of the LBDQ have been used for more than 50 years and the results achieved by different scholars proved that the questionnaire is valid and reliable and suitable to use for investigating both actual and desired leader behaviour (Bass, 1990; de Vries, 2008; Dente et al., 2011; Greene, 1975; Halpin, 1954, 1957; Hemphill, 1963; Judge et al., 2004; Katerberg and Horn, 1981; Littell and Nkomo, 2005; Sashkin, 1979; Kerr et al., 1974; Stogdill, 1963, 1974; Tracy, 1987, Rodriguez, 2012). Thus, based on research results received by Judge et al. (2004) and by Vecchio (1987) as well as

on his own investigations, Littrell (2013) confirmed that LBDQ XII is valid and reliable and is based on such psychometric qualities as construct validity and reliability.

The LBDQ XII twelve leadership behaviour factors reflect how respondents evaluate exploratory dimensions. During the research, respondents were asked to evaluate every leader behaviour element that the ideal leader should have within the rating scale of A, B, C, D and E, where A means never, B means seldom, C means sometimes, D means often and E means always. These letters are converted to numbers: A=1, B=2, C=3, D=4, E=5. While analysing the results the reliability of the questionnaire was evaluated by using the Cronbach alpha function. It measures how closely related a set of items are as a group. The Cronbach alpha is calculated using the particular formula (Yaffee, 2003).

George and Mallery (2003) provide the following Cronbach alpha evaluation rules:

$\alpha > 0{,}9$ – the internal consistency of the elements is excellent;

$0{,}9 > \alpha > 0{,}8$ – good;

$0{,}8 > \alpha > 0{,}7$ – acceptable;

$0{,}7 > \alpha > 0{,}6$ – questionable;

$0{,}6 > \alpha > 0{,}5$ – poor;

$\alpha < 0{,}5$ – unacceptable.

On the other hand, Smitt (1996) states that low Cronbach alfa can be still used and useful in some cases.

Table 3.3: Internal validity of LBDQXII factors in the thesis research sample

Number of factor	Items	Cronbach α
F1	1, 11, 21, 31, 41	0.792
F2	51, 61, 71, 81, 91	0.849
F3	2, 12, 22, 32, 42, 52, 62*, 72, 82, 92	0.654
F4	3, 13, 23, 33, 43, 53, 63, 73, 83, 93	0.905
F5	4, 14, 24, 34, 44, 54, 64, 74, 84, 94	0.778
F6	5, 15, 25, 35, 45, 55, 65, 75, 85, 95	0.793

F7	6, 16, 26, 36, 46, 56, 66, 76, 86, 96	0.769
F8	7, 17, 27, 37, 47, 57, 67, 77, 87, 97	0.826
F9	8, 18, 28, 38, 48, 58, 68, 78, 88, 98	0.659
F10	9, 29, 49, 59, 89	0.844
F11	19, 39, 69, 79, 99	0.898
F12	10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100	0.686

Caneles, Tejeda-Delgado and Slate (2008) stated that the Cronbach alfa data received using LBDQXII usually ranges between 0,67 and 0,95, showing a high level of items consistency and proving that the instrument is valid and reliable. Thus, the Cronbach alfa analysis provided in table 3.3 is acceptable.

3.6 Data analysis methods

Before starting reviewing the analysis of the research it is important to introduce the methods and instruments that were used in analysing the results.

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (SPSS) was used for data analysis. LBDQXII dimensions were measured by **Likert scale** that is an ordinal type of scale.

Cronbach alfa was used for evaluating internal reliability of the 12 factors in the LBDQXII questionnaire. It was calculated using the formula presented by Yaffee (2003).

Leven test was used for evaluating homogeneity of variances, that is an obligatory condition for further using ANOVA test. If homogeneity is less than 0,05 the variance cannot be further checked.

ANOVA is a statistical method used to analyse research results that are influenced by several factors at the same time. This method helps to state dependencies and determine differences between two or more independent groups (Aron, Coups and Aron, 2011).

Pearson correlation coefficient was used to measure the strength of the association between two variables, that is, if LBDQXII factors depend on respondents‘ demographic characteristics and what is the strength of this dependence, if an increase of one variable value influences the change of the other variable. Williams and Monge (2001) claim that

Pearson correlation coefficient is the most popular coefficient to measure the strength of association between variables.

For answering part of research question 4, **statistical hypotheses** have been formulated and tested.

Descriptive analysis was used for describing the sample characteristics and leader behaviour preferences.

3.7 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations make a very important part in the research. According to Bryman and Bell (2007) there are ten principles of ethical considerations. All these principles were followed in the thesis and participants of the research were informed about this in the letter introducing the survey. The purpose and importance of the research were also pointed out. First, it was mentioned that participants were not subjected to harm in any ways whatsoever. Dignity of the research participants was prioritised and participants were informed that by participating they gave full consent and the protection of their privacy was ensured as they were not asked to disclose neither names nor their organisations. The data was handled with care, avoiding deception or exaggeration about the aims and objectives of the research. Any type of communication in relation to the research was done with honesty and transparency, and any misleading information was avoided.

Using discriminatory, offensive or unacceptable language was avoided at all cost, both in formulating the questionnaire and in describing the results and discussing the topic.

Acknowledgement of works of other authors in any part of the essay was made by using the APA referencing system.

4 Results

The overall question intended to be answered by the research performed in the master thesis is: 'What is the profile of the desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland from the followers´ point of view?' This question is comprised from two parts: what is the picture of the desired leader behaviour and what are the characteristics of the followers influencing their preferences.

4.1 Characteristics of the sample

115 respondents answered the questionnaire (N=115) online during the period of two months April and May of 2016. The survey link was sent to personal addresses of the educational sector employees in several rounds for receiving more answers. After the cleaning process 105 surveys were left (N=105). 27 men and 75 women answered the questionnaire. The average age of the respondents was 49 years old, the youngest respondent being 24 years old, and the oldest 76. Majority of the respondents (93%) hold a university degree.

Analysis of the demographic characteristics of the sample and population indicate representation of the sample compared to the demographics of the population in Iceland.

Table 4.1 presents the comparison of age, gender, educational level and religion of the respondents to the similar data on the educational sector personnel, received from the Icelandic National Registry (Statistics Iceland, n.d.) and OECD (2012) report.

Table 4.1: Sociodemographic characteristics of the sample versus Statistics and OECD Iceland.

		Sample	Education sector/Iceland
Gender	Male	26,5%	29% in compulsory schools. 47,8% in upper secondary schools.
	Female	73.5%	71% in compulsory schools. 52,2% in upper secondary schools.
Age (average)		49 years	46.6 years
Education	Non university education	6,9%	

	Unfinished Bachelor's	7,8%
	Bachelor's degree	31,1%
	Unfinished Master's	12,6%
	Master's degree	38,8%
	PhD	2,9%
Religion	Catholic	11%
	Lutheran	66%
	Other	23%
	Not indicated	5%

Source: Statistics Iceland and OECD report

Below, four demographic characteristics (gender, age, education level and type of the organisation) are analysed because of their possible effects on desired leader behaviour preferences, as discussed in chapter 2.3.1.

Gender

Analysis indicates that more women (73%) than men (27%) answered the questions and this corresponds to the gender situation in the educational sector, where there are more women than men, as discussed in chapter 2.3.3.

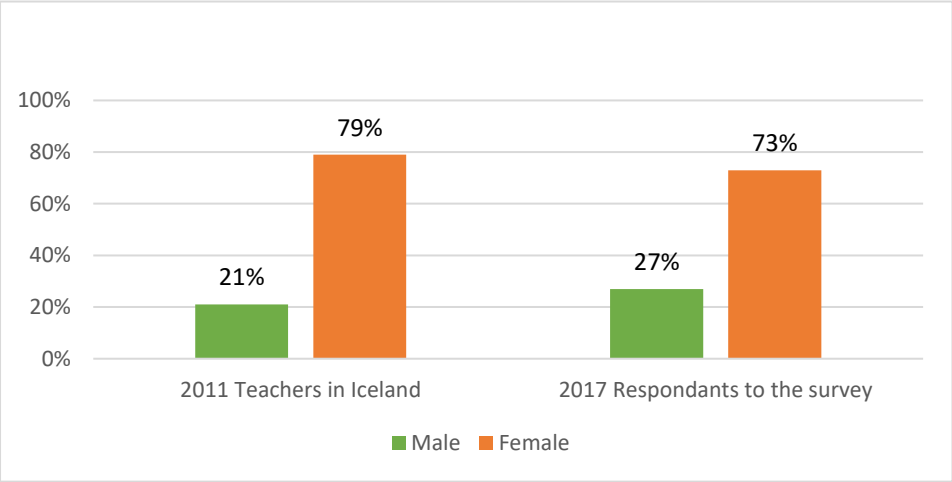

Figure 4.1: Respondents according to gender vs. Teachers in Iceland. Source: Author.

Age

The average age of the respondents in the sample is 49 years old. That is just a few years higher than the average teachers' age in Iceland and very similar to the average teachers' age in many European countries, as discussed in chapter 2.3.4.

Respondents in this research are also grouped into the same categories as the teachers in the literature review section (see chapter 2.3.4.) and the results are presented in the figure below.

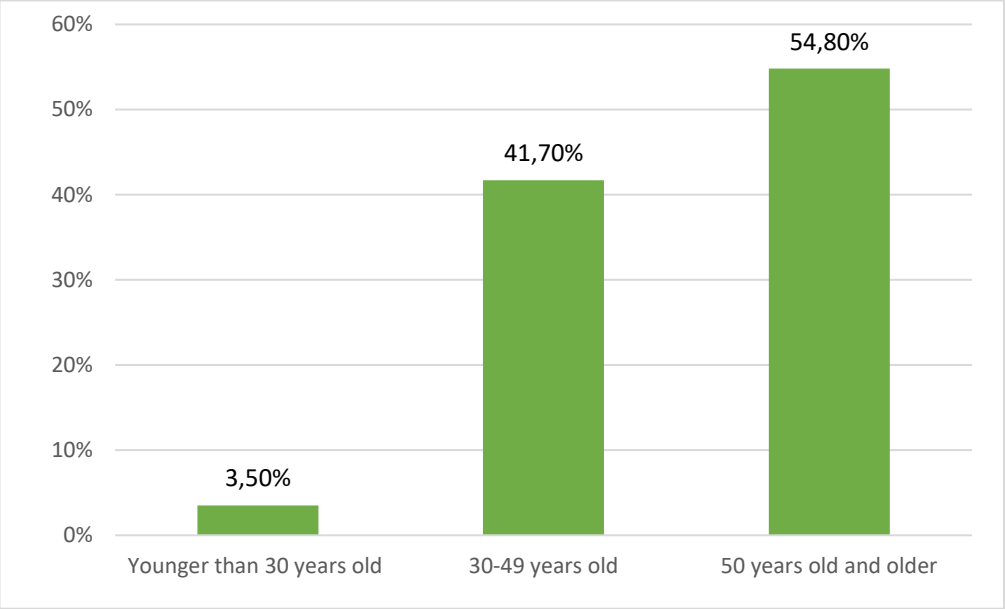

Figure 4.2: Respondents according to age groups.

Education

The majority of the respondents of the sample were teachers (87%), working both at schools and kindergartens, thus assuming that they mainly have university education because, as indicated in the literature review section (see chapter 2.3.5.), university education is required for the teachers working at all educational levels in Iceland.

Figures 2.3 and 2.4 in the literature review section demonstrate what kind of education is required for the teachers working at different educational levels in European countries and Iceland.

Figure 4.3 presents the educational level of the respondents to the survey and confirms the fact that the sample data correspond to the European requirements for the school personnel education and proves the validity of the sample responses, where the majority of the respondents have university education or are still studying at the university. Other personnel working in the educational sector but whose position does not require a university education were also asked to answer the questionnaire. They were the minority in the sample.

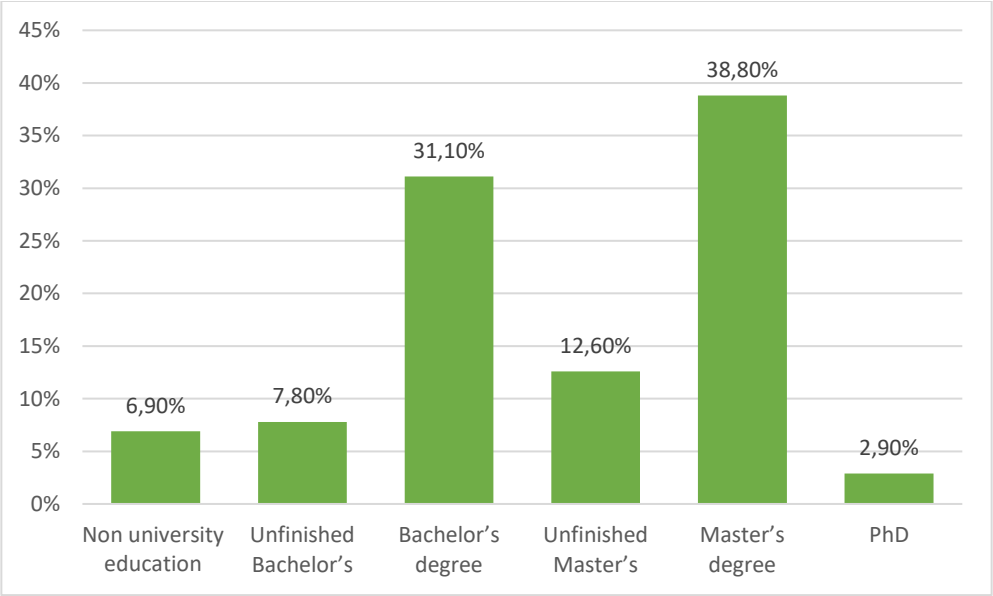

Figure 4.3: Respondents´ educational level.

All the employees working in educational institutions in Iceland were asked to answer the questionnaire, so positions not requiring university education are also included in the sample.

Religion

Religious representation within the sample is probably the simplest way to identify whether a sample is representative with general population as data from the official statistics state that 81% of the population are Lutherans (Statistics Iceland, 2017). This corresponds to the number of respondents' answers, where the majority marked to be Lutheran confession.

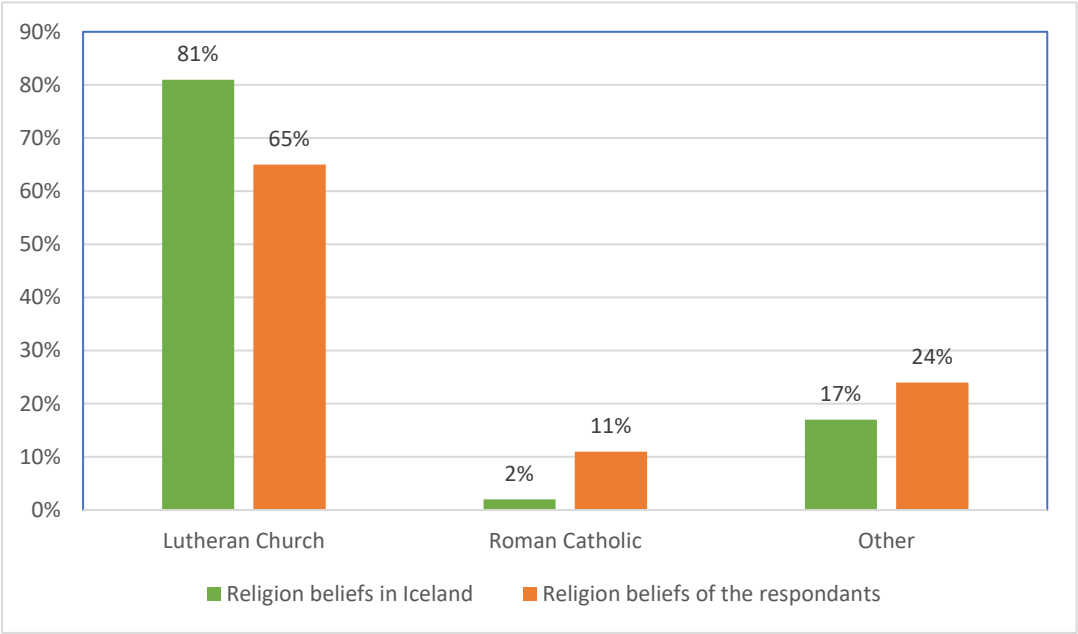

Figure 4.4: Comparison of religion in Iceland and the respondents. Source: Statistics Iceland.

Majority of the respondents (76%) belong to the two most common religions in Iceland, namely Lutheran (65%) and Roman Catholic (11%). Other groups were marked by very few respondents or not marked at all, so they are categorized in one group, ´other'. This distribution of respondents' religion and its coherence with general tendencies in Iceland indicates that the sample is representative.

4.2 Desired leader behaviour preferences

The main goal of this research is to describe what the profile of the desired leader behaviour is in the educational sector in Iceland from the followers' point of view. The findings of the LBDQXII 12 factors questionnaire show that the most preferred leader behaviours in the educational sector in Iceland are: Demand reconciliation, Representation, Integration, Consideration and Tolerance of Freedom (see figure 4.5). This indicates that for the employees in the educational sector the most desired features of their leader is his or her ability to reduce disorder to system and reconcile conflicting demands. Among the most desired behaviours of the leader, followers also indicate leader's ability to handle complex problems efficiently and not getting confused by many demands (Demand Reconciliation). The leader is expected to represent the group and speak of its behalf and to be a visible representative and spokesman of the group

(Representation). The desired leader keeps the group working together as a team, manages to settle conflicts and differences when they occur and maintains a closely-knit group (Integration). At the same time the desired leader is friendly and approachable, does little things to make the members feel happy and well, does not differentiate among the group members and treats them equally (Consideration). The desired leader is willing to make changes, but always gives notice of the forthcoming change and consults the group before acting. The leader allows followers scope for initiative, decision and action (Tolerance of Freedom). So, the desired leader in education in Iceland is friendly, understanding and participating, sharing and caring.

The least desired behaviour of a desired leader, as seen by followers in education sector in Iceland, is Product Emphasis, in other words, encouragement for overtime work, competing, and urging to beat previous records is not appreciated.

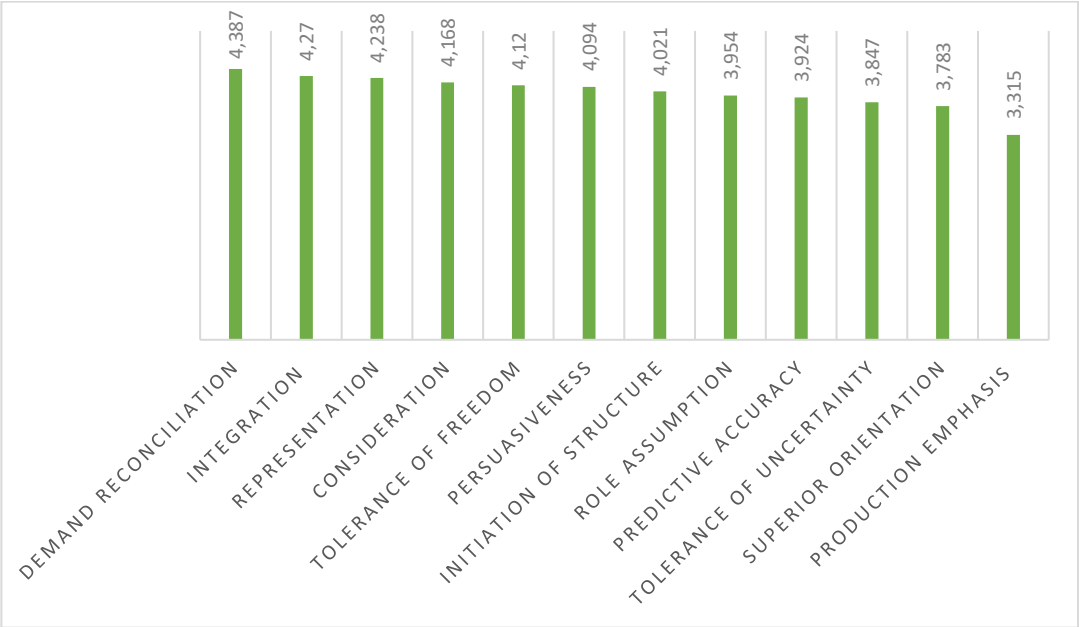

Figure 4.5: The followers' desired leader behaviour preferences according to LBDQXII 12 factors.

The followers' preferences of the desired leader behaviour in the educational sector in Iceland are of value, as they confirm somewhat different attitudes towards preferred leader behaviour of different sectors (e.g. compared with Snæbjörnsson´s (2016) research on preferred leader behaviour attitudes among business people in Iceland). Therefore, this research provides evidence of possible effects of sector/industry type and the need to research desired leadership in different industry sectors and not count on

"national" profile of desired leader in Iceland. Furthermore, somewhat different preferences by followers in the education sector in LBDQXII dimensions indicate a possible certain existing culture of the education sector in Iceland.

4.3 Demographic factors influencing followers' decisions – Hypothesis testing

The profile of the desired leader is drawn by the followers, who are influenced by cultural, environmental and social contexts, as was elaborated in the literature review section (see chapter 2.3.).

Four main null hypothesis are formulated for investigation of the effects of demographic factors on the followers' desired leader preferences.

H1. The profile of ideal leader in educational sector in Iceland does not depend on employee's gender as measured by LBDQXII preferences. One way ANOVA test is chosen for testing this hypothesis as it allows to determine differences between two or more groups, in this case, between men and women.

Levene test of homogeneity of variances is performed first in order to enable using ANOVA (see Appendix I). P (sig.) is more than 0.05 in Levine test of homogeneity, hence groups are homogeneous giving confidence in ANOVA test result.

Table 4.2: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on gender differences for LBDQXII 12 factors

			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
F1	Representation	Between groups	.328	1	.328	.941	.334
F2	Demand Reconciliation	Between groups	.216	1	.216	.485	.488
F3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between groups	.307	1	.307	1.522	.220
F4	Persuasiveness	Between groups	.000	1	.000	.000	.999
F5	Initiation of Structure	Between groups	.009	1	.009	.035	.852
F6	Tolerance of Freedom	Between groups	.069	1	.069	.330	.567
F7	Role Assumption	Between groups	.322	1	.322	.847	.360
F8	Consideration	Between groups	.161	1	.161	.498	.482
F9	Production	Between	.019	1	.019	.086	.770

	Emphasis	groups					
F10	Predictive Accuracy	Between groups	.005	1	.005	.012	.912
F11	Integration	Between groups	.193	1	.193	.356	.552
F12	Superior Orientation	Between groups	.000	1	.000	.000	.986

ANOVA test with p (or Sig.) > 0.05; all twelve LBDQXII factors indicate no gender differences when evaluating desired leader behaviour using LBDQXII. This means that there are no gender differences in describing desired leader´s profile and thus confirming the hypothesis of no difference among men and women in desired leader behaviour preferences according to LBDQXII 12 factor evaluations. These findings are coherent with the research performed by Snæbjörnsson (2006), and described in the literature review chapter 2.3., when no gender differences are noticed in leadership preferences. *Hypothesis accepted.*

H2. Age of respondent does not affect desired leader behaviour (LBDQXII) preferences. Correlation analysis and ANOVA test were used for testing this hypothesis.

As discussed in the literature review (chapter 2.3), age can influence desired leader behaviour preferences, where differences in values and preferences in different age groups are disclosed. In order to check this effect the above mentioned hypothesis is formulated.

Correlation analysis is used to find out relations between respondents' age and their LBDQXII preferences and confirming or rejecting the hypothesis.

Table 4.3: Correlation analysis: Respondents age and LBDQXII dimensions

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
Person Correlation	.171	.215*	.100	.156	-.036	.059	.140	.199*	-.092	.108	.178	-.084
Sig. 2 tailed	.083	.030	.315	.115	.717	.552	.157	.04	.356	.280	.071	.401
N	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05level (2-tailed)

A 0.05 significance positive correlation (week) is indicated between age of the respondent and Demand Reconciliation and Consideration dimensions. This means that the older the respondent is the more attention he pays to the factor describing the

desired leader behaviour. Nevertheless, the correlation is 0.05 significance and is rather weak (0,215 and 0,119), so the results should be evaluated carefully and considered to be more orientation than absolute. *Hypothesis partially accepted.*

H3. Level of education does not affect desired leader behaviour (LBDQXII) preferences.

As was discussed in the literature review chapter (chapter 2.3.) respondents' level of education can have influence on their desired leader preferences.

Correlation analysis is performed to establish whether the profile of the desired leader in educational sector in Iceland is influenced by the employee's education.

Table 4.4: Correlation analysis – Respondents' education and LBDQXII dimensions

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
Person Correlation	.017	.166	.190	.023	-.057	.151	.204*	.142	-.088	-.026	.119	-.149
Sig. 2 tailed	.862	.093	.054	.814	.570	.128	.039	.151	.375	.793	.233	.132
N	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05level (2-tailed)

Correlation analysis indicate that there are no significant correlations (significance level 0.01) among 12 LBDQXII factors and education of the respondents, indicating that there are no differences in preferences of desired leader behaviour according to LBDQXII 12 factors depending on respondent's level of education. Thus, further ANOVA test is not performed for further analysis.

The leadership literature review (chapter 2.3) indicated that follower's level of education can have influence on his or her preferences, but this is not confirmed by my research. Followers' education in educational level in Iceland does not have effect on their desired leader behaviour preferences. *Hypothesis accepted.*

H4. Type of institution where respondent is employed does not affect desired leader behaviour (LBDQXII) preferences.

This hypothesis is formulated following the literature suggestions (see chapter 2.3.) that the type of institution the employee is working at can have influence on his desired leader behaviour preferences, suggesting that different sectors can have distinctive cultures (Phillips, 1994).

Levene test of homogeneity of variances and one way ANOVA test were performed for confirming or rejecting this hypothesis (see Appendix II for Levene test of homogeneity). P (sig.) is more than 0.05 in the Levine test of homogeneity, hence groups are homogeneous giving confidence in the ANOVA test result.

Table 4.5: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on type of institution differences

			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
F1	Representation	Between groups	.821	4	.205	.584	.675
F2	Demand Reconciliation	Between groups	3.150	4	.788	1.853	.125
F3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between groups	.909	4	.227	1.129	.347
F4	Persuasiveness	Between groups	.931	4	.233	.550	.699
F5	Initiation of Structure	Between groups	.297	4	.074	.278	.892
F6	Tolerance of Freedom	Between groups	.312	4	.078	.370	.829
F7	Role Assumption	Between groups	1.539	4	.385	1.024	.399
F8	Consideration	Between groups	1.442	4	.360	1.137	.344
F9	Production Emphasis	Between groups	.207	4	.052	.230	.921
F10	Predictive Accuracy	Between groups	.546	4	.137	.302	.876
F11	Integration	Between groups	.523	4	.131	.237	.917
F12	Superior Orientation	Between groups	.522	4	.130	.653	.626

The test results show that there are no significant differences regarding effects of type of the organisation on the respondents' desired leader behaviour preferences according

to LBDQXII. This finding does not support the statements in the literature review chapter (see chapter 2.3.). *Hypothesis accepted.*

For investigation of influence of other sociodemographic factors on followers' preferences, additional exploratory hypotheses are formulated and checked, attempting to find other sociodemographic factors that could influence follower's attitudes toward desired leader behaviour preferences. These hypothesis are not discussed in the literature review, however, formulating additional exploratory hypothesis is seen as means to perform even deeper analysis of desired leader behaviour preferences.

H5. Size of organization respondent works at, does not affect ideal leader behaviour (LBDQXII) preferences.

Correlation analysis is performed for checking this hypothesis.

Table 4.6: Correlation analysis – Size of the organisation and LBDQXII dimensions

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
Person Correlation	.086	.084	.037	.004	-.051	.082	.001	.041	-.024	-.107	-.023	-.110
Sig. 2 tailed	.390	.406	.711	.968	.614	.412	.991	.683	.815	.287	.817	.274
N	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Correlation analysis indicate no effects on preferred leader behaviour dimension means in educational sector in Iceland due to the size of the organization the respondent works at. *Therefore, the hypothesis Number 5 is accepted*.

H6. Ownership type of institution where respondent is employed, does not affect ideal leader behaviour (LBDQXII) preferences.

Levene test and One way ANOVA are performed for testing this hypothesis. P (sig.) is more than 0.05 in Levine test of homogeneity (see Appendix III), hence groups are homogeneous giving confidence in ANOVA test result.

Table 4.7: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on ownership type of institution differences

			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
F1	Representation	Between groups	.371	3	.124	.351	.789
F2	Demand Reconciliation	Between groups	2.731	3	.910	2.143	.100
F3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between groups	.436	3	.145	.712	.547
F4	Persuasiveness	Between groups	1.789	3	.596	1.455	.232
F5	Initiation of Structure	Between groups	.501	3	.167	.636	.549
F6	Tolerance of Freedom	Between groups	.734	3	.245	1.198	.315
F7	Role Assumption	Between groups	2.159	3	.720	1.968	.124
F8	Consideration	Between groups	1.922	3	.641	2.074	.108
F9	Production Emphasis	Between groups	.090	3	.030	.135	.939
F10	Predictive Accuracy	Between groups	2.334	3	.778	1.812	.150
F11	Integration	Between groups	2.237	3	.746	1.409	.245
F12	Superior Orientation	Between groups	.255	3	.085	.424	.736

All p meanings are above 0.05, indicating no difference. Hence, the ownership type of the organisation does not influence the respondents' desired leader preferences, according to LBDQXII 12 factors. *Hypothesis accepted.*

H7. Place of residence of the respondent does not affect ideal leader behaviour (LBDQXII) preferences.

Levene and One way ANOVA tests are performed for testing this hypothesis. This hypothesis investigates the difference in preferences of LBDQXII between respondents living in the greater capital area and those living in province. This hypothesis tests if place of residence (great capital area vs. province) of the respondent affects ideal leader behaviour (LBDQXII) preferences.

P (sig.) is more than 0.05 in Levine test of homogeneity (see Appendix IV) , hence groups are homogeneous giving confidence in the ANOVA test result.

Table 4.8: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on place of residence differences

			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
F1	Representation	Between groups	.530	1	.530	1.540	.217
F2	Demand Reconciliation	Between groups	.094	1	.094	.213	.645
F3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between groups	.045	1	.045	.219	.561
F4	Persuasiveness	Between groups	.179	1	.179	.429	.514
F5	Initiation of Structure	Between groups	.047	1	.047	.178	.674
F6	Tolerance of Freedom	Between groups	.013	1	.013	.062	.804
F7	Role Assumption	Between groups	.262	1	.262	.695	.406
F8	Consideration	Between groups	.079	1	.079	.246	.621
F9	Production Emphasis	Between groups	.237	1	.237	1.089	.299
F10	Predictive Accuracy	Between groups	.648	1	.648	1.481	.226
F11	Integration	Between groups	.075	1	.075	.140	.709
F12	Superior Orientation	Between groups	.006	1	.006	.032	.858

Hypothesis accepted as all Sig (p) meanings are above 0.05, indicating that respondents' place of residence does not affect their desired leader behaviour preferences according to LBDQXII 12 factors.

Summarizing the results from hypothesis testing, it is evident that followers in the Icelandic educational sector have very uniform and non-diverse attitudes towards desired leader behaviour. All of the tested hypothesis regarding the effects of followers' demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, type, size and ownership of organisation, and place of residence) towards LBDQXII preferences showed very little or no differences in attitudes. This is coherent with research described in the literature review section (see chapter 2.3) where other sector in Iceland is also described by uniform attitudes of the followers.

4.4 Culture of education sector defined by VMS08

One part of the research question to be answered in this chapter is 'what are the societal cultural values in educational sector in Iceland and how they affect the followers' preferences.

As discussed in the literature review (chapter 2.4), cultural context is very important in leadership research, as leaders and followers are influenced by cultural values of the country, sector, and the organisation. Societal cultural values of the educational sector in Iceland were measured using VSM08 questionnaire and were compared to the other researches made in Iceland (Snæbjörnsson, 2016; Aðalsteinsson et al.,2011). Hofstede (1980, 1984) said that the only way to talk about cultures is to compare them with other cultures. This master thesis' research covers only one cultural sector in Iceland, and thus VSM08 questionnaire is used for descriptive purposes comparing societal cultures between different industrial sectors of one country and checking if cultural values of the educational sector can have influence on employees´ desired leader preferences.

The picture below (figure 4.6) demonstrates the results of the analysis of societal cultures performed in the research in this master's essay compared to the results of the research performed by I.M. Snæbjörnsson, (2016) on the cultural values preferences in Icelandic business sector and also to the results of the research performed by Aðalsteinsson et al. (2011) on the cultural values preferences as defined by the university students. Aðalsteinsson used the older version of the VSM questionnaire, so IVR and MON dimensions are not analysed in their research.

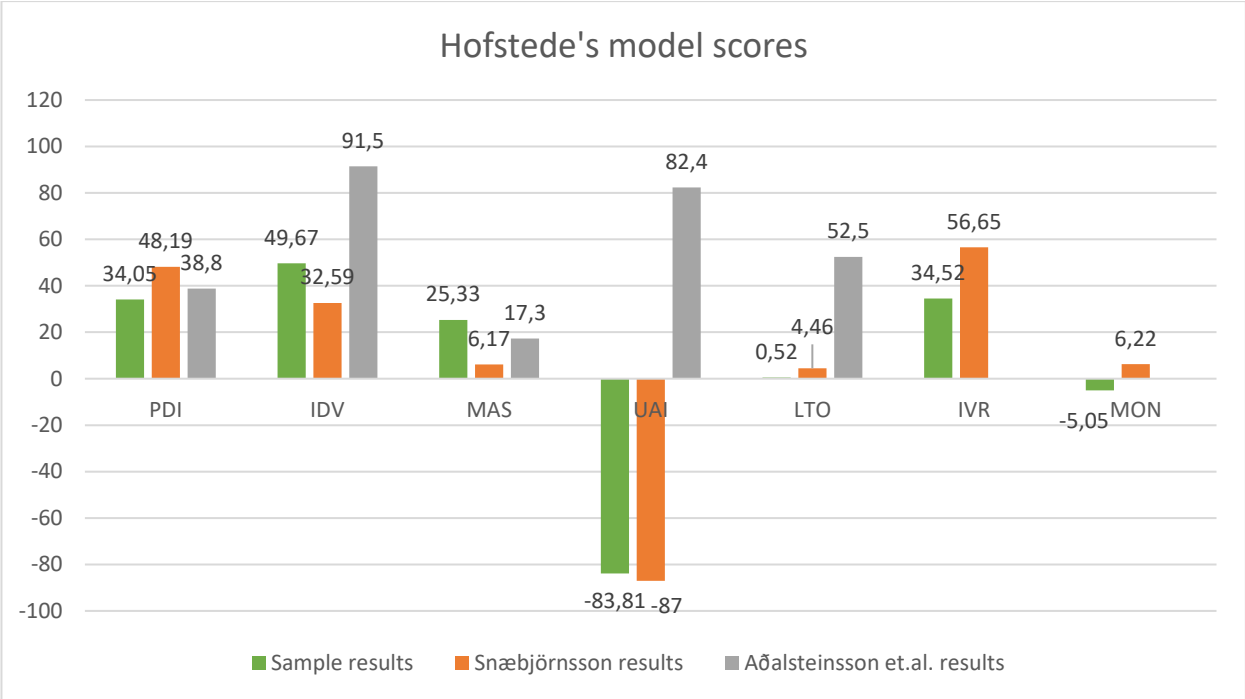

Figure 4.6: Societal cultural value dimension means: Educational sector, business sector and HI students in Iceland.

Standard constant 0-100 is used for describing VSM08 results. This constant is used for comparing cultures in two countries, but in this master's thesis the constant meanings are used only for descriptive purposes and compared with other dimensions within the sectors of the same culture.

The meanings of the dimensions in the sample are explained below. Individualism vs. Collectivism dimension (IDV=49,67) is the highest mean in the research.

This dimension represents an 'I' over 'we' priority in society. 'This dimension is very important when it comes to motivating people' (Snæbjörnsson, 2016, p. 92).

The next two highest dimensions are Indulgence vs. Restrain (IVR=34,55) dimension and Power Distance (PDI=34,05). IVR dimension is a new dimension and is related to perceived happiness, importance of leisure and overall control over life. High IVR score dimension indicates 'a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun' (Hofstede, 2011, p. 15). PDI is relatively high mean in the research, though Iceland is presented as a low Power Distance country, compared to the other samples using VSM. This dimension indicates to what extent both the more and less powerful members of the institutions in the society expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. In the educational sector this can be

explained that hierarchy is perceived as existential, subordinates expect the educational institution leader to tell them what to do and obey him or her. Though recent strikes in Iceland show that teachers are not so obedient and unresisting.

Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS=25,33) dimension compared to the other countries is average. Masculinity dimension according to Hofstede (2001), is associated with a performance society, while Femininity relates to a welfare society. The average score means emphasis on quality of work life, equality and solidarity. According to Snæbjörnsson (2016), and Aðalsteinsson (Aðalsteinsson et al., 2011) Iceland is and egalitarian country and the reason for this could be dominant Lutheran religion and rather long and successful history of feminism and influence of cultures from other Scandinavian countries.

Long Term vs. Short Term Orientation (LTO=0,52) is a low scoring dimension in Iceland. This dimension represents persistence and thrift. Iceland is a Short Term Oriented culture according to the survey data. People in Short Term Oriented cultures are described as stable individuals having strong need for immediate gratification, spending and are sensitive to social trends in consumption. Freedom, rights, achievements, and thinking of themselves, are the main values in Short Term Oriented cultures (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010).

Monumentalism vs. Flexumility or Self-effacement (MON=-5.05) scores very low in the survey. This dimension is related to pride in self and national pride, believing that religion and the need for achievement are very important.

Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI=-83,81) is the lowest scoring dimension in this research, that corresponds to the cross-cultural study results performed by I.M. Snæbjörnsson, I.R. Eðvarðsson and R.F. Littrell (2017), and compared to the other countries from the VSM08 of the consortium. According to Hofstede (1984), this means that in the educational sector in Iceland one can expect to find written and unwritten rules for convenience. This is also described in the findings by Eyjólfsdottir and Smith (1996), where they say that people in Iceland feel comfortable in situations with the few rules, freedom is desired and opportunism is common. Low scoring in this dimension also means that the culture has lower level of stress and more positive attitude towards unfamiliar situations and innovations at work are accepted well and people are interested in them.

Further analysis of the results led to the question, if the perceptions of desired leader behavior in educational sector in Iceland could be dependent on the societal cultural values of the followers. Correlation analysis method was chosen for testing this implication (see Appendix III). Analysis of the correlation results indicate that cultural value dimension means (VSM08) are not predictors of preferred leader behavior dimension (LBDQXII) in the educational sector in Iceland with slight exception in MAS/Consideration dependence, where MAS can account for 9.3% of Consideration dimension. In other cases analysis indicated weak nonsignificant predictive power. This outcome has also been observed in other studies from Chile, China, Mexico and New Zealand (Littrel, 2010).

As described in the literature review, cultures can be "gendered", where women and men within same culture have different attitudes.

Levene test of homogeneity of variances and One way ANOVA test were performed for checking if there is gender influence on respondents´ cultural values preferences. (see Appendix V for Levene test of homogeneity). P (sig.) is more than 0.05 in Levine test of homogeneity, hence groups are homogeneous giving confidence in the ANOVA test result.

Table 4.9: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors gender plus VSM differences

			Sum of Squares	**DF**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
PDI	Power Distance Index (PDI)	Between groups	1322.880	1	1322.880	.861	.356
IDV	Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV)	Between groups	167.390	1	167.390	.064	.801
MAS	Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS)	Between groups	48.039	1	48.039	.017	.897
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)	Between groups	205.181	1	205.181	.074	.786
LTO	Long Term vs, Short Term Orientation (LTO)	Between groups	1383.583		1383.583	.417	.520
IVR	Indulgence vs. Restrain (IVR)	Between groups	55.147	1	55.147	.015	.901
MON	Monumentalism vs. Flexumility (Self effacement) (MON)	Between groups	273.422	1	273.422	.142	.707

The test results indicate that there are no significant differences regarding effects of gender on the cultural values preferences in the educational sector in Iceland.

The same tests were performed for checking if there is any age influence on employees´ cultural values preferences in the educational sector in Iceland.

P (sig.) is more than 0.05 in Levine test of homogeneity (see Appendix VI), hence groups are homogeneous giving confidence in the ANOVA test result.

Table 4.10: One-way ANOVA analysis of variance factors on age plus VSM08 differences

			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PDI	Power Distance Index (PDI)	Between groups	4679.118	3	1559.706	1.020	.387
IDV	Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV)	Between groups	2090.286	3	696.762	.264	.851
MAS	Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS)	Between groups	23589.843	3	7896.614	2.974	.035
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)	Between groups	4130.185	3	1376.728	.501	.682
LTO	Long Term vs, Short Term Orientation (LTO)	Between groups	4889.081	3	1629.694	.482	.695
IVR	Indulgence vs. Restrain (IVR)	Between groups	9652.804	3	3217.601	.914	.437
MON	Monumentalism vs. Flexumility (Self effacement) (MON)	Between groups	3483.039	3	1161.013	.608	.611

One-way ANOVA analysis showed that P<0.05 in MAS dimension, indicating the difference between age of the employees in the educational sector and Masculinity vs. Femininity dimension. Thus, MAS dimension was checked on the age groups of the respondents.

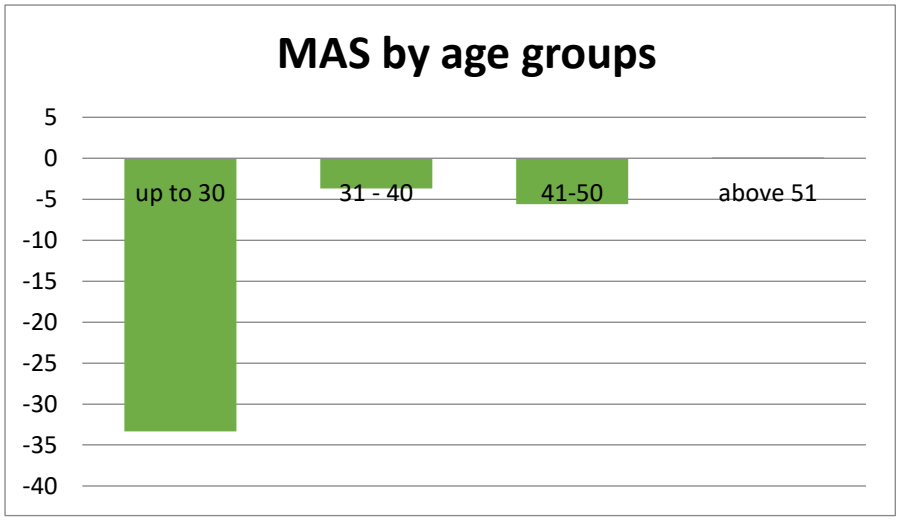

Figure 4.7: MAS by the age groups of the respondents.weak correlation between

The above presented tests indicate that there are no significant differences with the exception of Masculinity vs, Femininity dimension, regarding effects of age on the respondents' preferences. However, these results should be treated carefully due to low numbers in certain age groups (e.g. up to 30), where this mean is the lowest. In order to confirm that youngest generation of employees in the educational sector in Iceland considerably lower valuate MAS, we would need to collect more data. However, this is an interesting finding that should be explored further.

The correlation analysis is performed (see Appendix VII) for checking if societal cultural values of the employees in the educational sector in Iceland could predict their desired leader preferences. The correlation results indicate that there is a slight dependence between MAS/Consideration value, so this is item to be researched further.

In summarizing the results it is stated that possible influence of societal cultural values, environmental and sociodemographic factors on followers´ desired leader behavior preferences was declined with several slight exceptions, by checking hypotheses and analyzing data.

5 Discussion

In this chapter, the results from the research are summarised and compared to the material discussed in the literature review. The research question that is raised at the beginning of the masters' thesis and indicates the structure of this chapter is the following: *What is the profile of the desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland from the followers' point of view?*

As discussed in the literature review, there is a gap in the follower centred leadership research in the educational sector in Iceland. This thesis contributes to filling in the gap by describing the profile of the desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland, as seen by the followers. Furthermore, factors influencing leader behaviour preferences are discussed.

5.1 Desired leader behaviour in the educational sector in Iceland

The educational sector and its leaders in Iceland face many challenges outlined by European commission reports (OECD, 2016) and local scholars (Hansen, 2013; Haraldsdottir, 2013; Helgason, 2011). The latter can explain the preferences of the followers in the education sector in Iceland towards Demand Reconciliation dimension, which implies leader´s ability to reduce disorder to system and reconcile conflicting demands. Followers expect their leaders to solve problems efficiently, without getting confused by many demands, and support the staff in complicated situations. These findings are in coherence with another research, investigating leader behaviour preferences in Iceland, however, the business sector, where the most desired leader behaviour preferences were also found to be X, Y, IR Z (Snæbjörnsson, 2016). Leaders both in the educational and business sectors (Snæbjörnsson, 2016, 2017) are expected to maintain a closely-knit organization, keep the group working as a team and resolve inter-member conflicts and differences when they occur. Representing the group, speaking on behalf of it, being a visible representative and spokesperson of the group, are also among the desired behaviours, indicating coherence in desired leader behaviour in Iceland, suggesting little effects based on the sector of the employment. One of the explanations of followers' uniformity of preferences could be explained by the economic situation after the crisis that both sectors face, among other challenges listed in the literature review

chapter, when employees both in the business and educational sector are looking for leaders whom they could trust, depend on and rely on. Consideration is also desired behaviour from the leaders in the educational and business sectors, where leaders are expected to regard the comfort, wellbeing, status and contribution of their followers, that indicates charismatic behaviour of the leader. However, the research made by House et.al. (2004) state that charismatic leadership is a universally desired behaviour of a leader.

Leader´s behaviour emphasizing productive output and encouraging hardworking is the least desired in the research. This dimension describes leader behaviour to encourage employees to outmatch achieved previous goals. There can be few explanations as to why this leader behaviour is least desired, however, more research is needed (qualitative research in particular) in order to answer this question.

Based on the above, it can be suggested that the desired leader behaviour in the educational sector in Iceland has universally desired leader behaviour characteristics, namely charismatic behaviour. Furthermore, this research is in coherence with the findings with desired leader profile in other sectors in Iceland, indicating uniformity of followers ´attitudes in Iceland, regardless the sector. The most important characteristics towards higher leadership effectiveness within educational sector in Iceland is related to empowerment of employees by providing them with freedom to act, support and care, as well as understanding and having awareness that the followers in the educational sector are leaders themselves on a certain level.

5.2 Factors influencing leader behaviour preferences in the educational sector in Iceland

The literature suggests that sociodemographic characteristics have influence on followers´ desired leader preferences. The hypothesis were formulated on the basis of these implications. The analysis of the results indicates that there is no difference in desired leader behaviour preferences in the educational sector in Iceland between men and women. These finding are in coherence with findings from previous research by Snæbjörnsson (2016) analysing the business industry. Snæbjörnsson suggests that ´favourable environment has been created in Iceland, which resulted in convergence of attitudes of women and men' (2016, p. 136) and this can explain the lack of diversity of

attitudes between men and women towards women and men. In comparing this research with Snæbjörnsson's (2016), the ration of participating men and women is different in the sense that more men opted to participate in Snæbjörnsson's research, whereas women have higher representation in the empiric research presented in this thesis. It could be somewhat expected that differences in representation could have an effect by highlighting gendered attitudes towards desired leader behaviour. However, at the same time, Iceland is known in the world as one of the most egalitarian countries (Global Gender Gap Index, 2016), where gender equality policies and social norms are strongly embedded in the society and it might explain the lack of differences in attitudes among men and women.

The research results indicate positive correlation between age of the respondent and Demand Reconciliation and Consideration dimensions. This means that the older the respondent is, the higher importance follower attaches to the leader´s ability to handle complex problems efficiently and not getting confused by many demands, as well as the extent the leader regards the comfort, well-being, status and contributions of followers. However, the results should be evaluated carefully due to week correlation of above-mentioned dimensions and age of the respondents. Therefore, it can be stated, that when evaluated by age, respondents in the educational sector in Iceland show rather uniform attitudes towards desired leader behaviour.

As discussed in the literature review, difference in education level of the follower can effect differences in desired leader behaviour preferences due to differences in values and priorities (Vecchio and Boatwright, 2012). Personal beliefs and expectations change as a person becomes older, more experienced and educated, hence resulting in differences in leadership attitudes. This was not confirmed in the research made within the limits of this master's thesis. Data analysis indicate that the education level of the follower does not affect follower´s desired leader behaviour preferences. This partially might be explained by the fact that majority of the respondents have a university education, and the number of respondents having university and non-university education was not even.

The research in this master's thesis was conducted in the educational sector in Iceland, covering primary, compulsory and secondary school levels, kindergartens and after school programs. All these institutions are very much alike, and there were no differences

indicated in followers' desired leader behaviour preferences, depending on different institutions. The influence of other sociodemographic characteristics is not indicated in the followers´ preferences in this research, hence adding to the body of research and theory by providing evidence of no difference when evaluating followers' gender, age and level of education.

Findings regarding the sociodemographic factors´ limited effect on desired leader behaviour preferences in the educational sector in Iceland makes the work of the leader less complicated when applying follower centric leadership in order to improve leadership effectiveness. This is due to reduced need to adjust leadership style to diversity of follower´s, hence, enabling easier application of authentic leadership style.

5.3 Influence of societal cultural context

The literature overview suggests that understanding the cultural context and societal cultural values of the followers is very important for successful leadership and might help to explain such cultural phenomena as leadership, as well as desired leader behaviour preferences. One of the main aims of this master´s thesis is to indicate what are the societal cultural values as indicated by the educational sector employees in Iceland and to determine whether these values (measured by VSMO8) can predict desired leader behaviour preferences.

Analysis of the correlation results indicate that cultural value dimension (VSM08) are not predictors of desired leader behaviour dimension (LBDQXII) in the educational sector in Iceland, with slight exception in MAS/Consideration dependence, where MAS can account for 9.3% of Consideration dimension. In other cases, analysis indicated weak nonsignificant predictive power. This outcome has also been observed in other studies from Chile, China, Mexico and New Zealand (Littrel, 2010).

Correlation analysis between cultural dimensions and age and gender factors indicate that there is some difference between age of the employees in the educational sector and Masculinity vs. Femininity dimension. Younger employees in the age group until 30 years old are more inclined to value competitiveness, individual achievement, and task oriented management. Though, in order to make more definite conclusions, we need more research with larger sample, representing all age groups.

.

5.4 Future research

The research on the followers' preferences towards the desired leader behaviour is conducted in the educational sector in Iceland. That is a distinct group in rather small society, nevertheless, the leadership research in this sector can be very interesting and valuable. It might be interesting to compare the results to other sectors in the country, as well as to the educational sectors in other countries.

One of the findings show that there is influence of respondents' age on his desired leader preferences in Masculinity dimension, when investigating value differences in relation to respondents. It might be interesting to analyse this topic further, particularly as this dimension is related to gender egalitarianism, but even more so with society´s emphases on competition and individual achievements versus inclusion and wellbeing of all. Slight differences in this dimension could indicate a shifting focus among genders in Iceland, however, in order to make more elaborate conclusions, longitudinal study should be made with bigger sample.

Another focus of future research would be to compare the educational sector desired leader preferences with other sectors in Iceland and also in other countries. This would enable a better understanding of the influence of societal culture as well as effects of the sector´s culture and improve leadership in a very important sector, the educational sector.

More research might be useful in this field, for gaining a greater focus on the influence of other sociodemographic factors, such as employees' position. This was not investigated in this thesis, as well as age, which showed a slight influence on follower's preferences.

5.5 Limitations

As mentioned above, this is the research performed within the boundaries of a master's thesis; therefore, it has some limitations, mainly related to time and financial restraints. First, it was rather difficult to collect the data, and respondents to the survey were not as many as expected. The permission to send the link of the survey through the educational system links was not received, and sending emails to school and kindergarten offices did not give the desired results. Another limitation was the length of the survey. It was rather long, as the data was going to be used for comparing in other cross-cultural leadership

researches, but many respondents refused to participate after seeing the length of the survey. Also, the fact that the survey was sent to all the employees in the educational institutions, and not to a particular group, e.g. only teachers, made it difficult to compare the results to the other data and researchers, where the respondents were only teachers.

The final limitation is the nationality of the researcher herself. I am a Lithuanian immigrant living in Iceland for about ten years, and my knowledge of the Icelandic language is not perfect yet, sometimes making it difficult to find information and understand complicated texts.

6 Conclusion

Due to raising demand to increase leadership effectiveness in the educational sector in Iceland, the profile of the desired leader is described from the followers´ point of view in this sector. Leadership literature showed that most leadership theories are leader–oriented, and only style theory, developing Ohio State University leadership approach are analysing leadership from the followers´ point of view. Understanding followers´ preferences and factors influencing those preferences help leaders to improve the effectiveness of their leadership.

A Study on Leadership and Values questionnaire (comprised of LDBQ XII and VSM 08) is the component of the Preferred Leader Behaviour Across Cultures project, which is facilitated by the Centre for Cross Cultural Comparisons and used in this research, and the results are joined in the study data for further comparisons and investigations.

Followers' preferences regarding desired leader in the educational sector in Iceland include Demand Reconciliation, Representation, Integration, Consideration and Tolerance of Freedom dimensions. Production emphasis is the least desired behaviour. Followers' sociodemographic factors do not influence their preferences.

Societal cultural dimensions of the master thesis are similar to the other studies performed in Iceland, with highest scoring Individualism vs. Collectivism, Indulgence vs. Restrain and Power Distance. Uncertainty of Avoidance mean is the lowest. Sociodemographic factors have no influence on the followers' preferences, with the slight exception of influence of age on Masculinity vs. Femininity dimension.

Societal cultural dimensions have no or weak predictive power towards desired leader behaviour preferences. Nevertheless, societal cultural dimensions are useful in understanding better and describing the profile of the desired leader behaviour.

References

Aðalsteinsson, G., Guðmundsdóttir, S., & Guðlaugsson, Þ. (2011). Icelandic national culture in relation to Hofstede´s five dimensions. *Stjórnmál & Stjórnsýla, 7*(2). doi:10.13177/irpa.a.2011.7.2.7

Adler, N., & Bartholomew, S. (1992). Academic and professional communities of discourse: general knowledge on transnational human resource management. *Journal of International Business Studies, 23*(3), 551-569. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490279

Andreescu, V., & Vito, F. (2010). An exploratory study of ideal leadership behavior: the options of American police managers. *International Journal of Police Science & Management, 12*(4), 567-583. doi:10.13.50/jps.2010.12.2.207

Antonakis, J., Cianciolo, A., & Sternberg, R. (2004). Leadership: Past, present, and future. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 11*(4), 355-361. doi:10.1108/eb028980

Avolio, B., Walumbwa, F., & Weber, T. (2009). Leadership:current theories, reseach and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 421-449. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163621

Bartoletti, J., & Connelly, B. (2013). Leadership matters: what the research says about the importance of principal leadership. *National Association of Elementary School Principals, 16*.

Bass, B. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations.* (C. Macmillan, Ed.) New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill´s handbook of leadership: theory, research and managerial applications* (3rd ed. ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B., & Bass, R. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership. Theory, research, and managerial applications.* New York: Free Press.

Bell, E., & Bryman, A. (2007). The ethics of management research: an exploratory content analysis. *British Journal of Management, 18*(1), 63-67. doi:10.1111&j.1467-8551.2006.00487.x

Bellou, V. (2011). Do women followers prefer a different leadership style than men? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 22*(13), 2818-2833. doi:10.1080/09585192.2011.599677

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1998). *Lyderiai. Atsakomybes strategija.* Vilnius: Algarve.

Birkelund, G., Goodman, L., & Rose, D. (1996). The Latent structure of job characteristics of men and women. *American Journal of Sociology, 102*(1), 80-113.

Bluedorn, A., & Jaussi, K. (2008). Leaders, Followers, and Time. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*(6), 654-668. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.09.006

Boatwright, K., & Forrest, L. (2000). Leadership preferences: the influence of gender and needs for connection of workers´ideal preferences for leadership behaviors. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 7*(2), 18-34. doi:10.1177/107179190000700202

Brislin, R. (1980). Expanding the role of the interpreter to include multiple facets of intercultural communication. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 4*(2), 137-148. doi:10.1016/0147-1767(80)90025-5

Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and leadership organizations.* Vancouver: Sage Pubns.

Burns, J. (1978). *Leadership.* New York .

Canales, M., Tejada-Delgado, C., & Slate, J. (2008). Leadersip behaviours of superintendent. Prinipals in small, rural school districts in Texas. *The Rural Educator, 29*(3). Retrieved 04 05, 2017, from http://epubs.library.msstate.edu/index.php/ruraleducator/article/view/188

Cartwright, D., & Zander, A. (1960). Leadership and group performance: Introduction. *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*, 487-510.

Chatman, J., & Jehn, K. (1994). Assessing the relationship between industry characteristics and organizational culture: How different can you be? *Academyof Management, 37*(3), 522-553. doi:10.2307/256699

Chhokar, J., Brodbeck, F., & House, R. (2007). India:Diversity and complexity in action. *Culture and Leadership across the world. The GLOBE book of in-deph studies of 25*, 1004-1055.

Cibulskas, G., & Zydziunaite, V. (2012). *Lyderystes vystymosi mokykloje modelis.* Vilnius: Lodvila.

Coleman, J. (1994). *Foundations of Social Theory.* Camridge: Harward University Press.

Davis, E. (2014). *Representations of commonsense knowledge.* Morgan Kaufmann.

de Vries. (2008). *The Industrious revolution: Consumer behaviour and the household economy.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Den Hartorg, D., House, R., Hanges, P., & Ruiz-Quntanilla, S. (1999). Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? *The Leadership Quarterly, 10*(2), 219-256. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00018-1

Dente, B., & Coletti, P. (2011). Measuring governance in urban Innovation. *Local Government Studies, 37*(1), 43-56. doi:10.1080/03003930.2010.548553

Derue, D., Nahrgang, J., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: an integration and meta-analytic test of their relative valdity. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(1), 7-52. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01201.x

Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (2010). Globalisation and Societal Culture: Redefining schooling and school leadership in the twenty-first century. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 30*(3), 303-312. doi:10.1080/713657474

Dinch, J., Lord, R., Gardner, W., Meuser, J., Linden, R., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium:Current theortical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*(1), 36-62. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.005

Dorfman, P. (1996). *Handbook for International Management Research* (2 ed.). (B. S. Punnet, Ed.) Michigan: The University of Michigan press Ann Arbor.

DuBrin, A. (1994). Sex differences in the use and effectiveness of tactics of impression management. *Psychological Reports, 74*(2), 531-544. doi:10.2466/pro.1994.74.2.531

DuBrin, A. (1995). *The breakthrough team player. Becoming the MVP on your workplace team.* AMACOM.

Epitropaki, O., & Robin, M. (2004). Implicit leadership theories in applied settings: factor structure, generalizability, and stability over time. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(2), 293-310. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.2.293

Evans, D., & Leighton, L. (1989). Some empirical aspects of enterpreneurship. *The American Economic Review, 79*(3), 519-535. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/1806861

Eyjolfsdottir, H., & Smith, P. (2016). Icelandic business and management culture. *International Studiens of Management & Organization, 26*(3), 61-72. doi:10.1080/00208825.1996.11656688

Fiedler, K. (1993). Constructive processes in person cognition. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 32*(4), 349-364. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8309.1993.tb01005.x

Fleishman, E., Mumford, M., Zaccaro, S., Levin, K., Korotkin, A., & Hein, M. (1991). Taxonomic effortsin the description of leader behavior: A synthesis and functional intepretation. *The Leadership Quarterly, 2*(4), 245-287.

Gentry, W., & Eckert, R. (2012). Integrating implocot leadership theories and fit into the development of global leaders: A 360-degree approach. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 5*(2), 224-227.

George, D., & Mallery, M. (2003). *Using SPSS for Windows step by step: a simple guide and reference.*

Gibson, M. (1997). More evidence on the link between bank health and investment in Japan. *Journal of the Japanese and International Economies, 11*(3), 296-310. doi:10.1006/jjie.1997.0379

Goethals, G., & Sorenson, G. (2007). *The quest for a general theory of leadership.* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Goethals, G., Sorenson, G., & Burns, J. (2004). *Encyclopedia of leadership.* London: Saga.

Guðmundsdóttir, G., Hatlevik, O., & Loi, M. (2015). Digital diversity among upper secondary students: A multilevel analysis of the relationship between cultural capital, self-efficacy, strategic use of information and digital competence. *Computers & Education, 81*, 345-353. doi:10.1016/j.compedu.2014.10.019

Hall, E. J., & C.H., S. J. (1994). A methodological note on diversity measurement. *Strategic Management Journal, 15*(2), 153-168. doi:10.1002/smj.4250150206

Hall, E. J., & St. John, C. (1994). A methodological note on diversity measurement. *Strategic Management Journal, 15*(2), 153-168. doi:10.1002/smj.4250150206

Halpin, A. (1954). The leadership behavior and combat performane of airplane commanders. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 49*(1), 19-22. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0055910

Hansen, B. (2013). Transnational influence and educational policy in Iceland. *Transnational Influences on Values and Practices in Nordic Educational Leadership, 19*, 49-60. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-6226-8_4

Hansen, B., Jóhannsson, Ó. H., & Lárusdóttir, S. (2002). *Hlutverk skólastjóra og mat þeirra á yfirfærslu grunnskólans til sveitarfélaga.*

Hansen, B., Jóhannsson, Ó., & Lárusdóttir, S. (2005). Hvaða þættir ráða mestu um hvernig gengur að innleiða aðferðir við sjálfsmat í grunnskólum? : niðurstöður athugana í sex skólum. *Skemman*. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/1946/14421

Hansen, J., & Villadsen, A. (2010). Comparing public and pritave manager's leadership styles: understanding the role of job context. *International Public Management Journal, 13*(3), 247-274. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10967494.2010.503793

Harris, D. (2010). *Quantitative analysis.* Macmillan.

Hemphill, J., & Coons, A. (1957). Development of the leader behavior description questionnaire. *Leader Behaviour:its description and measurement, 6*(38).

Hills, R. (1963). The representative function:neglected dimension of leadership behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 8*(1), 83-101. doi:10.2307/2390888

Hinojosa, A. M., Randolph-Seng, B., & Gardner, W. (2014). Leader and follower attachment styles: Implications for authentic leader-follower relationships. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*(3), 595-610. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.12.002

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences.* Beverly Hills: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences.* Beverly Hills: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1984). Cultural dimensions in management and planning. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 1*(2), 81-99.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind: Intercultural Cooperation and its Importance for Survival.* London: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (1993). Cultural constraints in manaement theories. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 7*(1), 81-97. doi:10.5465/AME.1993.9409142061

Hofstede, G. (1993). Cultural constraints in management theories. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 7*(1), 81-94. doi:10.5465/AME.1993.9409142061

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences.* London: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. (n.d.). *Culture*. Retrieved from http://geerthofstede.nl/culture.

Hofstede, G., & Minkov, M. (2010). Long-versus short-term orientation: new perspectives. *Asia Pacific Business Review, 16*(4), 493-504. doi:10.1080/13602381003637609

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G., Minkov, M., & Vinken, H. (2008). *Values survey module 2008 manual.* Maastricht: Institute for Research on Intercultural Cooperation.

Hogg, M. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Persoality and social psychlogy review., 5*(3), 184-200.

House, J. (1997). *Translation quality assessment: a model revisited.* Tubingen: Naar.

House, R. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16*(3), 321-339.

House, R. (1971). A path goal theory of leadereffectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16*(3), 321-339. doi:10.2307/2391905

House, R., Hanges, P., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: the GLOBE study of 62 societies.* London: Sage Publications.

House, R., Hanges, P., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies.* (P. M. R.J.House, Ed.) London: Sage Publications, Inc.

House, R., Wright, N., & Aditya, R. (1997). Cross-cultural research on organiizational leadership:A critical analysis and proposed theory. *American Psychological Association*, 535-625.

Inglehart, R. (1997). *Modernization and postmodernization: cultural, economic, and political change in 43 societies.* Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Janssen, O., & Van Yperen, N. (2004). Employees´ Goal Orientations, the Quality of Leader-Member Exchange, and the Outcomes of Job Performance and Job Satisfaction. *Academy of Management, 47*(3), 368-384. doi:10.2307/20159587

Javidan, M., Dorfman, P., & House, R. (2006). In the Eye of the Beholder: Cross Cultural Lessons in Leadership from Project Globe. *Academy of Management, 20*(1), 67-90. doi:10.5465/AMP.2016,19873410

Judge, T., Piccolo, R., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The calidity of consideratio and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(1), 36-51.

Keller, R. (1992). Transformational leadership and the performance of research and development project groups. *Journal of Management, 18*(3), 489-501.

Kennarasamband Íslands. (2015). *Kjarasamningur FF og FS samþykktur*. Retrieved from http://www.ki.is/rss/2554-kjarasamningur-ff-og-fs-samthykktur

Kerr, S., Schriesheim, C., Murphy, C., & Stogdill, R. (1974). Toward a contingency theory of leadership based upon consideration and initiating structure literature. *Organizational Behavior and Human Perforancec., 12*(1), 62-82.

Kotter, K. (1990). *A force for change: how leadership differs from management.* New York: Free Press.

Kouzes, J., & Posner, B. (2003). *Encouraging the heart: a leader´s guide to rewarding and recognizing other.* San Francisco: A Wiley Imprint.

Littrell, R. (2002). Desirable leadership behaviours of multi-cultural managers in China. *Journal of Management Development, 21*(1), 5-74.

Littrell, R. (2010). *Comparative Value priorities of Chinese and New Zealand Businesspeople and Their Relationships to Preferred Managerial Leader Behaviour. PhD thesis.* Aucland University of Technology. Retrieved from http://aut.reseachgateway.ac.nz/handle/10292/1198

Littrell, R. (2013). Explicit leader behaviour: a review of literature, theory development and researh project results. *Journal of Management Development, 32*(6), 567-605.

Littrell, R., & Nkomo, S. (2005). Gender and race differences in leader behaviour preferences in South Africa. *Woman in Management Review, 20*(8), 562-580. doi:10.1108/09649420510635204

Littrell, R., & Valentin, L. (2005). Preferred leadership behaviours: exploratory results from Romania, Germany, and the UK. *Journal of Management Development, 24*(5), 421-442.

Lord, R., & Emrich, C. (2001). Thinking outside the box by looking inside the box: extending the cognitive revolution in leadership research. *The Leadership Quarterly, 11*(4), 551-579.

Lord, R., & Maher, K. (1991). *Leadership and information processing: linking perceptions and performance.* Cambridge: Unwin Human.

Lord, R., & Maher, K. (2002). *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance.* London: Routledge.

Lord, R., Brown, D., & Freiberg, S. (1999, June). Understanding the Dynamics of Leadership: The Role of Follower Self-Concepts in the Leader/Follower Relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 78*(3), 167-203. doi:10.1006/obhd.1999.28.32

Minkov, M. (2007). *What makesus different and similar: a new interpretation of the worl values survey and other cross-cultural data.* Sofia: Klasika I Stil.

Moshavi, D., Brown, F., & Dodd, N. (2003). Leader self-awareness and its relationship to subordinate attitudes and performance. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 24*(7), 407-418. doi:10.1108/01437730310498622

Mumford, M. (2006). *Pathways to outstanding leadership: A comparative analysis of charismatic idealogical, and pragmatic leaders.* London: Psychology Press.

Northouse, P. (2013). *Leadership: Theory and practice.* London: Sage.

OECD. (2012). *PISA 2012 Results: What makes schools successful?* Retrieved from https://www.oecd.org/pisa/keyfindings/pisa-2012-results-volume-IV.pdf

OECD. (2016). *Education at a Glance 2016.* Retrieved from http://www.oecd.org/edu/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm

Oskarsson, E. (2015). *Nýir stjórnendur á vinnustað í vanda, MS thesis.* Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/1946/20478

Phillips, M. (1994). Industy mindsets: ecploring the cultures of two macro organizational setting. *Organization Science., 5*(3), 384-402.

Pizam, N., Pine, R., Mok, C., & Shin, J. (1997). Nationality vs industry cultures: which has greater effect on managerial behacior? *International Joutnal Hospitality Management, 16*(2), 127-145.

Politis, J. (2002). Transformational and transactional leadership enabling (disabling) knowledge acquisition of self-managed teams: The consequences for perfrmanec. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal., 23*(4), 186-197.

Popper, M., & Druyan, N. (2001). Cultural prototypes? Or leaders' behaciors? A study on workers' perceptions of leadership in an electronics industry. *Journal of Managerial Psychology., 16*(7), 549-558.

Prastacos, G., Wang, F., & Soderquist, K. (2012). *Leadership through the Classics.* (W. F. Prastacos G.P., Ed.) Athens: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-32445-1

Roco, M., & Bainnbridge, W. (2005). Societal implications of nanoscience and nanotechnology: Maximizing human benefit. *Journal of Nanoparticle Research, 7*(1), 1-13. doi:10.1007/s11051-004-2336-5

Rost, J. (1991). *Leadership for the twenty-first century.* New York: Praeger.

Rowold, J., & Schlotz, W. (2009). Transformational and transactional leadership and followers' chronic stress. *Leadership Reveiw, 9*, 35-48.

Rush, M., Thomas, J., & Lord, R. (1977). Implicit leadership theory: a potential threat to internal validity of leader behacior on team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 20*, 93-100.

Salahuddin, M. (2010). Generational differences impact on leadership style and organiational success. *Journal of Diversity Management., 5*(2), 1.

Sims, H., Faraj, S., & Yun, S. (2009). When should a leader be directive or empowering? How to develop your own situational theory of leadership. *Business Horizons, 52*(2), 149-158.

Skaftadottir, O. (2017, 02 17). Kennaraskortur yfirvofandi-hvað er til ráða? *Vísir*, 2. Retrieved from www.visir.is/g/2017170228759/kvoldfrettir-stodvar-2--kennaraskortur-yfirvofandi---hvad-er-til-rada-

Snæbjörnsson, I. (2016). Ideal leader profiles in the Icelandic business sector: Evidence of uniformity of followers´attitudes. *Timarit um viðskipti og efnahagsmál, 13*(2), 97-118. doi:10.24122/tve.a.2016.13.2.5

Sosik, J. (1997). Effets of transformational leadership and anonymity on idea generation in comper mediated froups. *Groups and Organization Management, 22*, 460-487.

Stogdill, R. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: a survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology, 25*, 35-71.

Van Knippenberg, D., & Hogg, M. (2003). A scial identity model of leadership effectivness in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behaviour., 25*, 243-295.

Van Knippenberg, D., & Hogg, M. (2003). A social identity model of leadership effectiveness in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 25*, 243-295. doi:10.1016/S0191-3085(03)25006-1

Van Quaquebeke, N., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2012). Second generation leader categorization research: How subordnates' self- and typical leader perceptions moderate leader categorization effects. *Journal of Applied Social Pwychology., 42*(6), 1293-1319.

Vecchio, R. (1987). Situational leaderhip theory: An examination of a prescriptive theory. *Hournal of Applied Psychology., 72*(3), 444-451.

Vecchio, R., & Boatwright, K. (2002). Preferences for idealized styles of supervision. *The Leadership Quarterly., 13*(3), 327-342.

Yukl, G. (2013). *Leadership in organizations: global edition.* New York: Pearson Education.

Zaleznik, A. (2004). Managers and leaders: are they different? *Harward Business Review, 82*(1), 74-81. Retrieved 1 5, 2017

Appendix I

Homogeneity of Variances Test for Gender Factors for LBDQXII 12 Factors

		Levene Statistic	Sig.
F1	Representation	.043	.836
F2	Demand Reconciliation	.878	.351
F3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	.011	.918
F4	Persuasiveness	.891	.348
F5	Initiation of Structure	.693	.407
F6	Tolerance of Freedom	.084	.772
F7	Role Assumption	.177	.675
F8	Consideration	.312	.578
F9	Production Emphasis	1.184	.279
F10	Predictive Accuracy	.503	.480
F11	Integration	.535	.466
F12	Superior Orientation	.145	.708

Appendix II

Homogeneity of Variances Test for Type of Institution Factors

		Levene Statistic	Sig.
F1	Representation	.675	.611
F2	Demand Reconciliation	1.160	.333
F3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	.360	.836
F4	Persuasiveness	1.519	.203
F5	Initiation of Structure	1.013	.405
F6	Tolerance of Freedom	2.698	.035
F7	Role Assumption	.731	.573
F8	Consideration	2.184	.076
F9	Production Emphasis	1.856	.124
F10	Predictive Accuracy	.725	.577
F11	Integration	1.494	.210
F12	Superior Orientation	1.441	.226

Appendix III

Homogeneity of variances test for ownership type of institution factors

		Levene Statistic	Sig.
F1	Representation	.651	.584
F2	Demand Reconciliation	1.472	.227
F3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	.002	1.000
F4	Persuasiveness	1.045	.376
F5	Initiation of Structure	1.073	.364
F6	Tolerance of Freedom	1.916	.132
F7	Role Assumption	1.091	.357
F8	Consideration	.869	.460
F9	Production Emphasis	.755	.522
F10	Predictive Accuracy	.792	.501
F11	Integration	1.192	.317
F12	Superior Orientation	1.624	.189

Appendix IV

Homogeneity of Variances Test for Place of Residence Factors

		Levene Statistic	Sig.
F1	Representation	.648	.423
F2	Demand Reconciliation	.903	.344
F3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	.027	.871
F4	Persuasiveness	1.842	.178
F5	Initiation of Structure	2.448	.121
F6	Tolerance of Freedom	.840	.361
F7	Role Assumption	1.585	.211
F8	Consideration	3.890	.051
F9	Production Emphasis	.006	.939
F10	Predictive Accuracy	2.541	.114
F11	Integration	.853	.358
F12	Superior Orientation	.299	.586

Appendix V

Homogeneity of Variances Test for gender plus VSM Factors

		Levene Statistic	Sig.
PDI	Power Distance Index (PDI)	.610	.437
IDV	Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV)	1.007	.318
MAS	Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS)	.209	.649
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)	.800	.373
LTO	Long Term vs, Short Term Orientation (LTO)	.381	.538
IVR	Indulgence vs. Restrain (IVR)	.175	.677
MON	Monumentalism vs. Flexumility (Self effacement) (MON)	.590	.444

Appendix VI

Homogeneity of Variances Test for Age plus VSM08 Factors

		Levene Statistic	Sig.
PDI	Power Distance Index (PDI)	.819	.487
IDV	Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV)	1.734	.165
MAS	Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS)	1.413	.243
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)	.203	.894
LTO	Long Term vs, Short Term Orientation (LTO)	.515	.673
IVR	Indulgence vs. Restrain (IVR)	1.637	.186
MON	Monumentalism vs. Flexumility (Self effacement) (MON)	.967	.412

Appendix VII

Correlation between VSM08 and LBDQXII

	Repre	Dmd Rec	Tol Uncert	Persua	Init Struct	Tol Free	Role Asmp	Consid	Prod Emph	Pred Acc	Int	Sup Orient
PDI_UNC	.070	.162	.063	.127	-.035	-.056	.035	.121	-.009	.073	.075	-.025
	.478	.100	.522	.197	.725	.570	.721	.220	.928	.458	.450	.804
IDV_UNC	-.058	.141	.088	-.032	-.057	.100	.118	.109	-.190	-.002	.016	-.154
	.559	.151	.371	.743	.565	.308	.230	.268	.052	.980	.875	.117
MAS_UNC	-.212*	-.216*	-.217*	-.103	-.057	-.141	-.068	-.320**	.022	-.248*	-.196*	.003
	.030	.027	.026	.295	.567	.150	.488	.001	.821	.011	.045	.976
UAI_UNC	.088	-.217*	-.207*	-.027	.066	-.152	-.216*	-.226*	.012	-.030	-.082	.179
	.370	.026	.034	.786	.501	.121	.027	.020	.902	.762	.403	.067
LTO_UNC	-.017	-.009	.054	-.083	-.110	-.021	-.049	-.040	.005	-.025	-.058	.085
	.866	.927	.588	.402	.265	.832	.621	.684	.962	.799	.555	.387
IVR_UNC	.015	.049	.029	.143	.241*	.040	.091	.044	.219*	-.006	.058	.187
	.877	.622	.768	.146	.013	.688	.355	.659	.025	.949	.553	.057
MON_UNC	.131	-.082	-.150	.029	.225*	.002	-.005	-.030	.123	.049	.056	.134
	.183	.405	.126	.768	.021	.985	.956	.762	.211	.621	.572	.171

Appendix VIII

DESIRED LEADER BEHAVIOUR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE – FORM XII

ICELANDIC VERSION

Boð um þátttöku í rannsóknarverkefni í viðskiptafræði

Titill verkefnis: Ímynd æskilegs leiðtoga í íslenska menntakerfinu.

Tilgangur og markmið rannsóknar: Þessi rannsókn er hluti af fjölþjóðlegri langtímarannsókn. Gögnum er safnað frá fólki sem vinnur í framhalds-, grunn- og leikskólum og fristundarheimilum. Niðurstöður rannsóknarinnar verða notaðar í MS ritgerð Lolitu Urboniene, sem er að útskrifast úr Háskóla Íslands, viðskiptafræðideild, og er lika kennari í Tækniskólanum (netfang: lolitaurbon@gmail.com)

Leiðbeinandi er Dr. Erla S. Kristjánsdóttir, lektor/Assistant Professor, Viðskiptafræðideild, Háskóla Íslands (e-mail:esk@hi.is).

Þín þátttaka: Það tekur um það bil 30 mínútur að svara þessum spurningum. Allar spurningarnar gegna mikilvægu hlutverki í rannsókninni. Þér er ekki skylt að svara könnuninni en ef þú ákveður að taka þátt vinsamlegast fylltu út alla könnunina.

Gætt er fyllsta trúnaðar í meðferð gagnanna og könnunin að sjálfsögðu órekjanleg.

Hér fyrir neðan er spurningalisti. Vinsamlegast fylltu hann út.

1. Fæðingarstaður:

2. Þjóðerni við fæðingu:

3. Núverandi þjóðerni:

4. Búsetuland:

5. Móðurmál:

6. Núverandi búseta, borg/bær/sveit:

7. Ég er:

7.1. Karl

7.2. Kona

8. Ég er _____ ára gömul/gamall

9. Ég hef starfað á Íslandi í _____ ár

10. Hef starfað á Íslandi allan minn starfsferil

10.1 Já

10.2. Nei

11. Ef nei, hef starfað í öðru landi/löndum í um það bil _____ ár

12. Ef þú ert í eða hefur verið í launaðri vinnu, hvernig vinna er/var það?

1. Skólameistari, skólastjóri, leiksskólastjóri
2. Aðstoðarskólameistari, aðstoðarskólastjóri, aðstoðarleikskólastjóri
3. Áfangastjóri, deildastjóri, fagstjóri, fjármálastjóri, skrifstofustjóri
4. Kennari
5. Þroskaþjálfi, sérkennari
6. Námsráðgjafi
7. Leiðbeinandi
8. Ritari
9. Stuðningsfulltrúi
10. Annað

13. Stærð fyrirtækis míns/stofnunar er um það bil _____ manns

Fjöldi starfsmanna á vinnustað mínum er um það bil _____ manns.

14. Vinnustaður minn starfar innan:

14.1. Framhadskoli

14.2. Grundskoli

14.3. Leikskoli

14.4. Fristundarheimili

14.5. Annað

15. Vinnustaður minn er:

15.1. Ríkisrekin

15.2. Sveitafélagsrekin

15.3. Einkarekinn

15.4. Ef annað á við,vinsamlegast tilgreinið:

16. Meirihluta menntunnar minna hlaut ég í (land):

17. Menntunarstig mitt er:

17.1. Grunnskólapróf

17.2. Ekki lokið framhaldsskóla

17.3. Stúdentspróf

17.4. Ekki lokið iðnmenntun

17.5. Lokið iðnmenntun

17.6. Ekki lokið háskólagráðu (Bachelour)

17.7. Lokið háskólagráðu (Bachelour)

17.8. Ekki lokið framhaldsháskólagráðu (Masters)

17.9. Lokið framhaldsháskólagráðu (Masters)

17.10. PhD.

17.11 Annað, vinsamlegast tiltakið hvað

18. Ég ólst upp í borg/bæ þar sem íbúafjöldi er um það bil (Tiltaktu þann stað sem þú bjóst lengst á)

18.1. íbúar:

18.2. eða í sveit/sveitabæ:

19. Nafn á borg, sýslu, og landi þar sem ég hef verið stærsta hluta lífs míns. (Ef þú hefur búið jafn lengi á tveimur stöðum, skrifaðu báða)

_____

20. Ég aðhyllist eftirfarandi trúarskoðanir:

20.1. Afrísk hefðbundin-/ættflokkstrú

20.2. Kínversk hefðbundin hugmyndafræði (Dao, Buddhist, Confucian)

20.3. Búddatrú

20.4. Kristin trú: Kaþólska

20.5. Kristin trú: Rétttrúnaðarkirkja

20.6. Kristin trú: Lúthersk trú

20.7. Kristin trú: Mótmælandi (annað en Lúthersk trú)

20.8. Daoist/Taoismi

20.9. Hindúatrú

20.10. Gyðingatrú

20.11.Trúlaus/Agnostic/Atheist

20.12.Íslam

20.13. Annað, tilgreinið:

_____

Á eftirfarandi blaðsíðum er listi fullyrðinga sem ætlaður er til að lýsa hegðun yfirmanns eins og þér finnst að hann eða hún <u>ætti</u> að haga sér sem fyrirmyndar leiðtogi og yfirmaður. Þó að sumar spurningarnar líti út fyrir að vera svipaðar, þá leiða þær í ljós mun sem er mikilvægur í lýsingu á leiðtogum. Þetta er ekki próf á hæfni í að svara spurningum. Tilgangurinn er eingöngu að ná fram eins nákvæmri lýsingu og mögulegt er á æskilegri hegðun leiðtoga og yfirmanna.

a. LESIÐ hverja fullyrðingu vandlega.

b. HUGSIÐ um hversu oft leiðtoginn hegðar sér eins og lýst er í fullyrðingunni.

c. ÁKVEÐIÐ hvort hann/hún hegðar sér: *alltaf*, *oft, af og til*, *sjaldan* eða *aldrei* eins og lýst er í fullyrðingunni.

d. MERKIÐ VANDLEGA VIÐ *einn af fimm valmöguleikum* sem kemur á eftir fullyrðingunni til að *sýna* svarið sem þú hefur valið.

21. Hinn "fyrirmyndar stjórnunarleiðtogi er" Alltaf, Oft, Af og til, Sjaldan, Aldrei

	Alltaf	**Oft**	**Af og til**	**Sjaldan**	**Aldrei**

1. Virkar sem talsmaður hópsins	A	B	C	D	E
2. Bíður þolinmóður eftir niðurstöðu ákvarðana	A	B	C	D	E
3. Heldur ræður af eldmóði til að ýta undir frammistöðu og starfsanda	A	B	C	D	E
4. Lætur samstarfsmenn vita hvað ætlast er til af þeim	A	B	C	D	E
5. Veitir samstarfsmönnum fullkomið frelsi í vinnu sinni	A	B	C	D	E
6. Er tvístígandi við að taka frumkvæði	A	B	C	D	E
7. Er vinalegur og auðvelt að nálgast	A	B	C	D	E
8. Hvetur til yfirvinnu	A	B	C	D	E
9. Tekur réttar ákvarðanir	A	B	C	D	E
10. Semur vel við yfirmenn sína	A	B	C	D	E
11. Vekur athygli annarra á vinnu hópsins	A	B	C	D	E
12. Fyllist kvíða þegar hann/hún getur ekki komist að því hvað er í vændum	A	B	C	D	E
13. Rök hans/hennar eru sannfærandi	A	B	C	D	E
14. Hvetur til samhæfingar í vinnuferlum	A	B	C	D	E
15. Leyfir meðlimum starfshóps að nota eigin dómgreind til að leysa vandamál	A	B	C	D	E
16. Grípur ekki til aðgerða þegar nauðsynlegt er	A	B	C	D	E
17. Gerir margt smátt til að ýta undir ánægjuna af því að vera hluti starfshópsins	A	B	C	D	E
18. Leggur áherslu á að (vera) standa framar í samkeppninni við aðra starfshópa	A	B	C	D	E
19. Heldur uppi teymisvinnu í starfshópnum	A	B	C	D	E

20. Sér til þess að starfshópurinn sé mikils metinn hjá æðri valdhöfum	A	B	C	D	E
21. Talar sem málsvari starfshópsins	A	B	C	D	E
22. Tekur á ósigri af yfirvegun, án þess að það trufli eigin starfsvenjur	A	B	C	D	E
23. Færir sannfærandi rök fyrir eigin sjónarmiðum	A	B	C	D	E
24. Prófar sínar hugmyndir innan starfshópsins	A	B	C	D	E
25. Ýtir undir framtakssemi meðal starfshópsins	A	B	C	D	E
26. Leyfir öðrum í starfshópnum að taka yfir forystuhlutverk sitt	A	B	C	D	E
27. Hrindir tillögum starfshópsins í framkvæmd	A	B	C	D	E
28. Ögrar fólki svo það leggi harðar að sér	A	B	C	D	E
29. Virðist geta séð fyrir hvað er í vændum	A	B	C	D	E
30. Vinnur ötullega að því að fá stöðuhækkun	A	B	C	D	E
31. Talar fyrir hönd hópsins í viðurvist gesta	A	B	C	D	E
32. Sættir sig við tafir án þess að komast í uppnám	A	B	C	D	E
33. Er mjög sannfærandi ræðumaður	A	B	C	D	E
34. Gerir eigin viðhorf skýr fyrir hópinn	A	B	C	D	E
35. Leyfir starfsfólki að vinna á þann hátt sem það telur best	A	B	C	D	E
36. Leyfir sumum í starfshópnum að notfæra sig	A	B	C	D	E

37. Lítur á alla samstarfsmenn sem jafningja sína	A	B	C	D	E
38. Heldur uppi miklum vinnuhraða	A	B	C	D	E
39. Jafnar út ágreining sem kemur innan hópsins	A	B	C	D	E
40. Yfirmaður hans/hennar tekur jákvætt í tillögur hans/hennar	A	B	C	D	E
41. Er fulltrúi/talsmaður hópsins á fundum utan vinnustaðar	A	B	C	D	E
42. Verður órólegur/óróleg á meðan beðið er eftir framvindu mála	A	B	C	D	E
43. Er mjög hæfur/hæf í rökræðum	A	B	C	D	E
44. Ákveður hvað skal gert og hvernig það skal gert	A	B	C	D	E
45. Setur fyrir verkefni og lætur starfsfólk sjá um það	A	B	C	D	E
46. Er leiðtogi hópsins aðeins af nafninu til	A	B	C	D	E
47. Tilkynnir breytingar með fyrirvara	A	B	C	D	E
48. Ýtir á eftir aukinni framleiðslu	A	B	C	D	E
49. Hlutir fara yfirleitt eins og hann/hún spáði fyrir	A	B	C	D	E
50. Nýtur forréttinda stöðu sinnar	A	B	C	D	E
51. Meðhöndlar flókin vandamál með skilvirkum hætti	A	B	C	D	E
52. Getur þolað seinkanir og óvissu	A	B	C	D	E
53. Er ekki mjög sannfærandi ræðumaður	A	B	C	D	E

54. Setur starfsmönnum fyrir tiltekin verkefni	A	B	C	D	E
55. Setur starfsmönnum fyrir verkefni og leyfir þeim að framkvæma án þess að fylgjast náið með	A	B	C	D	E
56. Gefur eftir þegar hann/hún ætti að standa fastur/föst fyrir	A	B	C	D	E
57. Hann/hún heldur sig til hlés	A	B	C	D	E
58. Biður alla aðila um að leggja sig betur fram í vinnu	A	B	C	D	E
59. Sér fyrir þróun mála	A	B	C	D	E
60. Nær að fá hans/hennar eigin yfirmenn til að vinna að velferð hópsins	A	B	C	D	E
61. Finnst aðstæður óyfirstíganlegar þegar beina þarf athyglinni að mörgum smáatriðum	A	B	C	D	E
62. Þegar vandamál steðjar að, getur hann/hún sýnt þolinmæði um tíma, en bregst svo við af krafti	A	B	C	D	E
63. Talar af sterkri innri sannfæringu	A	B	C	D	E
64. Tryggir að allir í starfshópnum skilji hvert hlutverk hans/hennar er	A	B	C	D	E
65 Er tregur til að veita starfsmönnum frelsi til athafna.	A	B	C	D	E
66. Leyfir sumum starfsmönnum að hafa vald sem hann/hún ætti að hafa	A	B	C	D	E
67. Passar upp á velferð hvers og eins innan starfshópsins	A	B	C	D	E
68. Leyfir starfsmönnum að taka því rólega í vinnunni	A	B	C	D	E

69. Sér til þess að samræmi sé í vinnu starfshópsins	A	B	C	D	E
70. Orð hans/hennar vega þungt meðal yfirmanna	A	B	C	D	E
71. Hegðun hans/hennar hefur tilhneigingu til að valda því að flóknar aðstæður versni	A	B	C	D	E
72. Heldur ró sinni þegar hann/hún er óviss um það sem er í vændum	A	B	C	D	E
73. Veitir innblástur með ræðum sínum	A	B	C	D	E
74. Áætlar tíma í þá vinnu sem þarf að vinna	A	B	C	D	E
75. Gefur rúm fyrir mikið frumkvæði í starfshópnum	A	B	C	D	E
76. Tekur fulla stjórn þegar neyðartilvik kemur upp	A	B	C	D	E
77. Er fús til að gera breytingar	A	B	C	D	E
78. Leggur hart að sér þegar vinna þarf verkefni	A	B	C	D	E
79. Hjálpar starfsmönnum að jafna út ágreining	A	B	C	D	E
80. Fær það sem hann/hún biður yfirmenn sína um	A	B	C	D	E
81. Getur fært aðstæður frá mikilli óreiðu og ringulreið yfir í röð og reglu	A	B	C	D	E
82. Getur frestað aðgerðum þangað til að rétti tíminn kemur	A	B	C	D	E
83. Sannfærir aðra um að hans/hennar hugmyndir séu þeim til hagsbóta	A	B	C	D	E
84. Viðheldur afdráttarlausum frammistöðuviðmiðunum	A	B	C	D	E

85. Treystir starfsmönnum til að nota góða dómgreind	A	B	C	D	E
86. Sigrast á tilraunum til að ögra forystuhlutverki hans/hennar	A	B	C	D	E
87. Neitar að útskýra athæfi sitt	A	B	C	D	E
88. Hvetur starfshópinn til að slá sín fyrri met	A	B	C	D	E
89. Gerir ráð fyrir vandamálum og gerir áætlanir samkvæmt þeim	A	B	C	D	E
90. Hann/hún er að vinna sig á toppinn	A	B	C	D	E
91. Verður ringlaður/ringluð þegar of margar kröfur er gerðar á hann/hana	A	B	C	D	E
92. Hefur áhyggjur af útkomu nýrra starfshátta	A	B	C	D	E
93. Getur stuðlað að eldmóði fyrir verkefnum	A	B	C	D	E
94. Fer fram á að meðlimir starfshóps fylgi eftir hefðbundnum lögum og reglum	A	B	C	D	E
95. Leyfir hópnum að ráða vinnuhraðanum	A	B	C	D	E
96. Er auðveldlega viðurkenndur sem leiðtogi hópsins	A	B	C	D	E
97. Framkvæmir án samráðs við starfshópinn	A	B	C	D	E
98. Lætur starfshópinn vinna á fullum afköstum	A	B	C	D	E
99. Viðheldur góðum tengslum innan starfshópsins	A	B	C	D	E
100. Viðheldur góðu sambandi við yfirmenn	A	B	C	D	E

VSM08 part of the questionnaire is copyright.