



**THE EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP
COMPETENCIES ON ORGANIZATIONAL
EFFECTIVENESS, CASE OF UNIVERSITY OF
DUHOK**

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THESIS APPROVAL PAGE

I certify that in my opinion the thesis submitted by Zirak Yousif Hasan HASAN titled “The Effect of Leadership Competencies on Organizational Effectiveness, Case of University of Duhok” is fully adequate in scope and in quality as a thesis for the degree of PhD.

Assoc.Prof.Dr. Mehmet Murat TUNÇBİLEK

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This thesis is accepted by the examining committee with a unanimous vote in the Department of Business Administration as a PhD thesis. 27.09.2023

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The degree of PhD by the thesis submitted is approved by the Administrative Board of the Institute of Graduate Programs, Karabuk University.

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Director of the Institute of Graduate Programs

DECLARATION

I hereby decelerate that this thesis is the result of my own work and all information included has been obtained and expounded in accordance with the academic rules and ethical policy specified by the institute. Besides, I declare that all the statements, results, materials, not original to this thesis have been cited and referenced literally.

Without being bound by a particular time, I accept all moral and legal consequences of any detection contrary to the aforementioned statement.

Name : Zirak Yousif HASAN

Signature :

FOREWORD

First and foremost, I would like to thank God for giving me the perseverance and capacity to have progressed this far in my academic pursuit. I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to my PhD thesis supervisor, associate Professor Dr. Mehmet Murat Tunbilek, for his insightful criticism and help at every stage of the procedure. My appreciation also extends to the whole academic staff at the university I attend (Karabuk University). Last but not least, without my wife "Jiman" love and endurance, none of this would have been possible during my PhD path.

ABSTRACT

Nowadays, making changes is one of the most and essential factors of organizations that helps sustainability and stronger competition in the environment. The current global crisis is a crisis of decision-making rather than a financial one. The present research aims to determine the effect of leadership competencies on organizational effectiveness, case of university of Duhok. In order to achieve the research objective, questionnaires which contain of 50 different questions were distributed into 11 different dimensions. However, 1500 valid answers were collected from around 14 colleges from university of Duhok. The distribution process was by Google form and according to the results, 56% of respondents were male and 44% were female. On the other hand, the majority of sample respondents were academic staff 40%, followed by student respondents and administrative staff 37% and 24% respectively. The results show that there was overall agreement about the effect of leadership Competencies on Organizational effectiveness in university. The findings suggest that the independent variable” Leadership Competencies” is highly critical in driving organizational effectiveness. More specifically, the study results revealed that there was a significant and positive correlation between the Leadership Competencies and Organizational Effectiveness, as the value of the correlation coefficient of the total indicator between them was (0.724) and at a significant level (0.01), which is less than the significance level specified for the study. (0.05). Also it was found that there is a significant and positive medium correlation between the Leadership Competencies dimensions represented by (Goal framing, Capacity Building, Defusing resistance and conflict, and institutionalizing), as an independent variable with Organizational Effectiveness as a dependent variable where the value of the correlation coefficient was the total indicator between them (0.584), (0.644), (0.607) and (0.677) respectively, at a significant level of (0.01), which is less than the study level of significance (0.05). Therefore, we conclude that the greater the interest of the two surveyed university in developing leadership competencies, this leads to strengthening their capabilities in organizational effectiveness. Regarding regression between research variables, the result shows a significant effect of Leadership competencies on

Organizational effectiveness, as the value of the calculated significance level was (0.000), which is much less than the default level of significance for the current study, set at (0.05), which is confirmed by the calculated (F) value of (1648.494), which is much higher than its tabular value of (3.8415) and in degrees of freedom (1498, 1). The result concludes that if the university surveyed wanted to improve their Organizational effectiveness capabilities, this would be done through the Leadership Competencies. The study also reveals that there is a strong correlation “relationship between leadership competencies and organizational effectiveness and that means we conclude that the greater the interest of the surveyed university in developing leadership competencies, this leads to strengthening their capabilities in organizational effectiveness. On the other hand, it has been concluded that if the university surveyed wanted to improve their organizational effectiveness capabilities, this would be done through the leadership competencies.

Key words: Leadership Competencies, organizational effectiveness. University of Duhok.

ÖZ

Günümüzde değişim yapmak, çevrede sürdürülebilirliğe ve daha güçlü rekabete yardımcı olan örgütlerin en önemli faktörlerinden biridir. Mevcut küresel kriz, finansal bir krizden ziyade bir karar alma krizidir. Bu araştırma, liderlik yetkinliklerinin örgütsel etkililik üzerindeki etkisini Duhok Üniversitesi örneğinde belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Araştırma amacına ulaşmak için 50 farklı sorudan oluşan bir anket 11 farklı boyuta dağıtılmıştır. Ancak, Duhok Üniversitesi'nden yaklaşık 14 kolejden 1500 geçerli cevap toplandı. Dağıtım işlemi google formu ile yapıldı ve sonuçlara göre yanıt verenlerin %56'sı erkek, %44'ü bayan. Öte yandan, örneklem katılımcılarının çoğunluğunu %40 ile akademik personel oluştururken, bunu sırasıyla %37 ile öğrenciler ve %24 ile idari personel izledi. Sonuçlar, liderlik Yetkinliklerinin üniversitede Örgütsel etkililik üzerindeki etkisi hakkında genel bir fikir birliği olduğunu göstermektedir. Bulgular, "Liderlik Yetkinlikleri" bağımsız değişkeninin örgütsel etkililiği yönlendirmede oldukça kritik olduğunu göstermektedir. Daha spesifik olarak, çalışma sonuçları, Liderlik Yeterlilikleri ile Örgütsel Etkililik arasında, aralarındaki toplam göstergenin korelasyon katsayısının değeri (0,724) ve anlamlı düzeyde (0,01) olduğundan, anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. çalışma için belirlenen anlamlılık düzeyinden düşüktür. (0.05). Ayrıca, bağımsız bir değişken olarak (Hedef belirleme, Kapasite Geliştirme, Direniş ve çatışmayı ortadan kaldırma ve kurumsallaşma) ile temsil edilen Liderlik Yeterlilikleri boyutları ile bağımlı değişken olarak Örgütsel Etkililik arasında anlamlı ve pozitif bir orta korelasyon olduğu bulunmuştur. korelasyon katsayısının, aralarındaki toplam gösterge sırasıyla (0.584), (0.644), (0.607) ve (0.677) olup, (0.01) gibi anlamlı bir düzeyde olup, bu da çalışma anlamlılık düzeyinden (0.05) düşüktür. , ankete katılan iki üniversitenin liderlik yetkinliklerini geliştirmeye olan ilgisi ne kadar büyükse, bunun örgütsel etkililik konusundaki yeteneklerini güçlendirmeye yol açtığı sonucuna vardık. Araştırma değişkenleri arasındaki gerileme ile ilgili olarak, hesaplanan anlamlılık düzeyi değeri (0.000) olduğu için Liderlik yetkinliklerinin Örgütsel etkililik üzerinde önemli bir etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir; 0.05), bu da tablo değerinden (3.8415) çok daha yüksek olan (1648.494) hesaplanan (F) değeri ve serbestlik derecesi (1498,1) ile

doğrulandır. Sonuç, ankete katılan üniversitenin Örgütsel etkililik yeteneklerini geliştirmek istemesi halinde, bunun Liderlik Yetkinlikleri aracılığıyla yapılacağı sonucuna varmaktadır. Çalışma aynı zamanda liderlik yetkinlikleri ile örgütsel etkililik arasında güçlü bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır ve bu, ankete katılan üniversitenin liderlik yeterliliklerini geliştirmeye olan ilgisinin artmasının, örgütsel etkililik konusundaki yeteneklerini güçlendirmeye yol açtığı sonucuna vardığımız anlamına gelmektedir. Öte yandan, ankete katılan üniversitelerin örgütsel etkililik yeteneklerini geliştirmek istemeleri halinde, bunun liderlik yetkinlikleri aracılığıyla gerçekleştirilebileceği sonucuna varılmıştır. Üniversitenin idari personele akademik personelden daha fazla önem verdiği, idari personelin ortalamasının akademik personelden daha fazla olduğu ve üniversitede yanıtlayıcı örneklem tarafından liderlik yetkinliklerine daha fazla dikkat edilmesinin idari personel için ana önceliğe sahip olduğu sonucuna vardık. sonra akademik kadro. diğer taraftan, insan kaynakları geliştirme faaliyetlerinin rekabet avantajı elde etme potansiyeline sahip olması nedeniyle liderlik yetkinliklerinin yönetilmesinde benimsenebilecek uygun bir girdi olması nedeniyle üniversitenin insan kaynakları geliştirmeye olan ilgisini artırmak ve değişime karşı direnç ve yeni keşifler için yeni planlar oluşturmak. Çalışanların değişim çabasını tehdit eden davranışları hakkında direnmenin yeni yolları ise, çalışanların değişime direncinin temel nedenlerini tanımlar. ayrıca öğrencilerin gelişimi ve kariyer gelişimi vurgusu ve kurum tarafından sağlanan kariyer gelişimi fırsatları üzerinde çalışır. araştırma yapılan üniversitedeki yöneticilerin, özellikle bir taraftan değişim için gerekçe sunacak ve diğer taraftan ulaşılabilir hedefi geliştirecek olan hedef çerçeveleme olmak üzere, liderlik yetkinliklerinin boyutları ile örgütsel etkililik arasındaki ilişkiyi güçlendirme ihtiyacı. ancak, hedef çerçevelemeyi geliştirmek, üniversite için planlanan hedeflere ulaşmak için yeni stratejiler geliştirecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler (Keywords in Turkish):Liderlik Yetkinlikleri, örgütsel etkililik. Duhok Üniversitesi.

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ARŞİV KAYIT BİLGİLERİ

Tezin Adı	Liderlik Yetkinliklerinin Örgütsel Etkililiğe Etkisi, Duhok Üniversitesi Örneği
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SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH

The main subject of the research discusses the effect of leadership competencies on organisational effectiveness. The main objective of this study is to examine the effect of leadership competencies on organizational effectiveness of University of Duhok in Iraq. In the current research, four sub-variables about leadership competencies such as Goal framing , Capacity Building, Defusing resistance and Conflict, and Institutionalizing were used as independent variables though the study. However, eight different dependent sub-variables about Organizational effectiveness such as Student Education Satisfaction, student achievement development, Student Career development, student personal development, Employment satisfaction , Professional Development and Quality of College Education satisfaction, System Openness and community Interaction, and Ability to Acquire Resource were used as dependent variables trough the study. The relationship among the above different variables is illustrated in figure (1) which represents the theoretical framework of the study.

As indicated earlier, the independent variable in this study is leadership competencies and the dependent variable of the study is Organizational effectiveness. Below is a brief definition of all main and sub research variables:

Table 1: Brief definition of all main and sub research variables

Main variables	Sub-Variables
Leadership Competencies	Goal framing
	Capacity Building
	Defusing Resistance and Conflict
	Institutionalizing
Organizational effectiveness	Student Educational Satisfaction
	Student Career Development
	Student Academic Development
	Student Personal Development
	Professional Development and Quality of the Education Satisfaction
	College Employment satisfaction
	System Openness and Community Interaction
	Ability to Acquire Resources

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The main objectives of the study can be addressed in the following:

1. Testing and clarifying the nature of the relationship among all research variables and its sub-variables.
2. Determining the correlation between Leadership competencies and Organizational effectiveness
3. To determine the effect of leadership competencies on the organizational effectiveness.

RESEARCH MODELS

To achieve a systematic solution of the problem of the study and its questions, it needs to build a model which determines the relationship between all research variables, which will highlight a brief perception of research main hypothesis as well as presenting solutions for research questions and problem. The research model for this study contains two main variables:

A. Independent Variable (IV): Leadership Competencies: this variable contains of four main sub-variables which are Goal framing, Capacity Building, Defusing Resistance to Conflict, and Institutionalising.

B. Dependent Variable (DV): Organizational Effectiveness: this variable contains of Student Education Satisfaction, Student Career Development, College Employment Satisfaction, Professional Development and Quality of the faculty, system openness and community interaction, and Ability to acquire Resources.

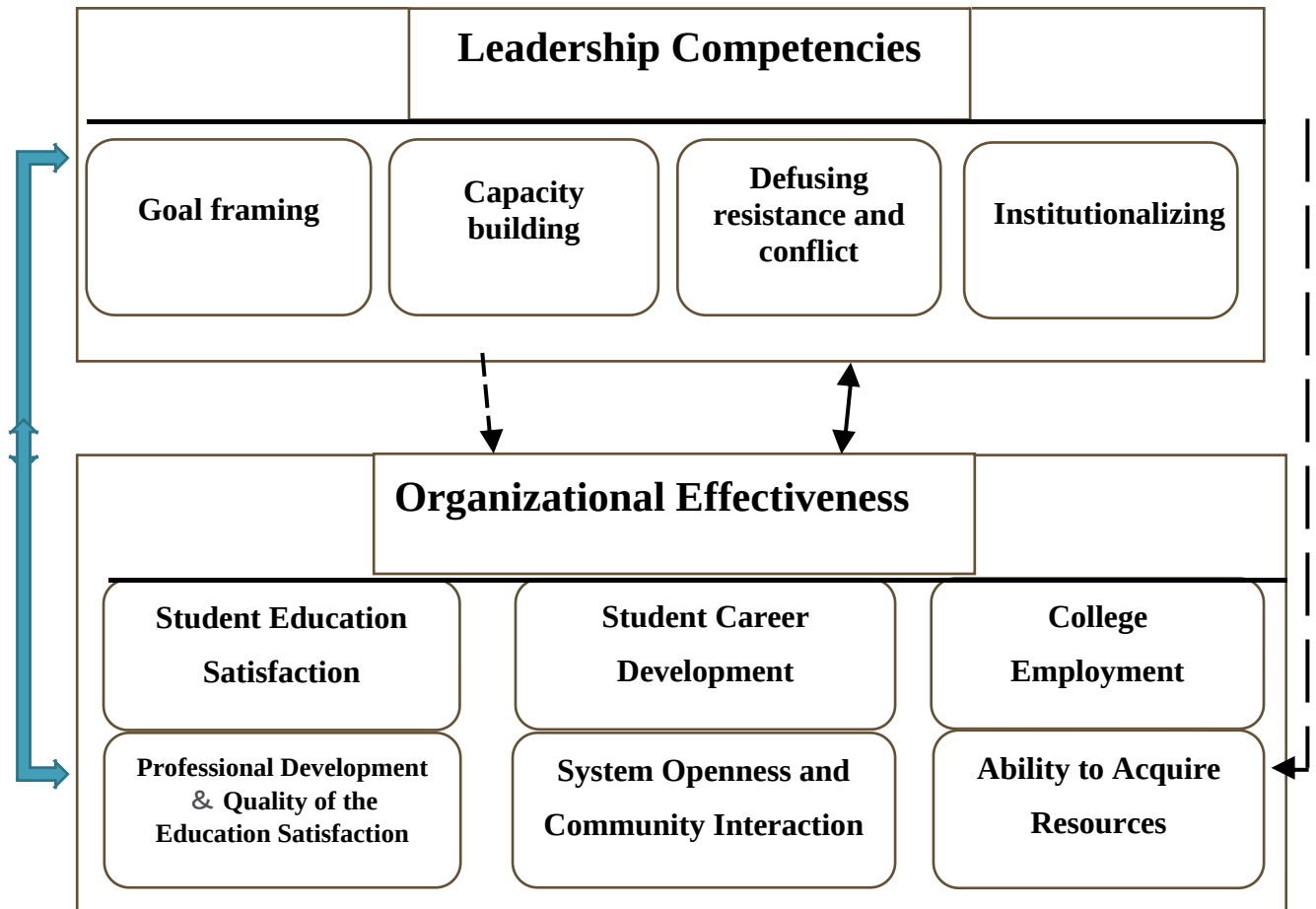


Figure 1: Research Model

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

In accordance with the objectives of the study and the choice of its model, the study relied on the following hypotheses:

There are two main Hypotheses that we addressed for this research as below:

1. The first main hypothesis: There is a significant and positive correlation between leadership competencies and organizational effectiveness

The following sub-hypotheses emerged from it:

- A. There is a significant and positive correlation between Goal framing and organizational effectiveness
- B. There is a significant and positive correlation between Capacity Building and organizational effectiveness

C. There is a significant and positive correlation between Defusing Resistance to Conflict and organizational effectiveness

D. There is a significant and positive correlation between Institutionalizing and organizational effectiveness

2. The second main hypothesis: There is significant and positive effect of leadership competencies on organizational effectiveness.

The following sub-hypotheses emerge from it:

A. There is a significant effect of goal framing on organizational effectiveness

B. There is a significant effect of Capacity Building on organizational effectiveness

C. There is a significant effect of defusing resistance to conflict on organizational effectiveness

D. There is a significant effect of Institutionalizing on organizational effectiveness

RESEARCH PROBLEM

Due to the needs of most of organizations to the good qualifications of both academic staff, and administration staff, especially the universities, therefore, the major of Iraqi universities seeks to develop their human resource management capabilities and their qualifications through training programs and getting new qualifications especially for academic staff. However, today, Human Resource Management HRM is become one of the most controversial issues and become the most important needs for those Universities who need to stay in competition cycle.

We can address the research problem on determining the effect of Leadership Competencies on Organizational effectiveness among All Colleges and Institutions in University of Duhok. However, the below questions were addressed to clarify the research problem:

1. To what extend there is correlation between leadership competencies and organizational effectiveness at Duhok University?
2. To what extend does Leadership competencies and its Dimensions effect on Organizational effectiveness?

DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The questionnaire was generally consisted of three main sections. The first section was about respondents' demographic information such as (gender, participant type, college, department, and seniority). Section two of the questionnaire was related leadership competencies which is research's independent variable which consists of four main sub variables and a total of 20 questions. However, this section was taken from Tai Mei Kin, et al (2014) research. Section three of the research questionnaire was related dependent variable organizational effectiveness and this variable were contains eights sub variables and a total of 30 questions. However, this section was taken from Paula. K and Allen. W (2003). Generally, respondents were asked to answer the set of questions via Google form using link which were sent to all selected candidates in accordance with 16 College website managers from University of Duhok. All respondents were asked to follow five-point Likert scale system as were set in each question in the scale. This scale is graded according to the following measurement and weight indicators; strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), strongly agree (5).

Table 2: Components of a research questionnaire (leadership competencies)

variables		Definition	Items from-to
Main variables	Sub-variable		
Leadership Competencies	Goal framing	Presents rationale for change, develops attainable goals, and making strategies to achieves the organization's goals.	X1 to X5
	Capacity Building	Providing trainings for employee's development and coaching to be capable to perform new tasks through continuance training programs about latest innovative ideas.	X6 to X10
	Defusing Resistance to Conflict	Anticipate the resistance behavior that threatens the change effort, and identifies the root causes of staff resistance to change. Making strategies or plans to resistance to change and controlling the conflict.	X11 to X15
	Institution alizing	Established system sustainability and ensure the staff members continuing to contribute to change. Analyzing the final change outcomes and create opportunities for sharing best practices.	X16 to X20

Source: Tai Mei Kin, et al (2014)

Table 3: Components of a research questionnaire (organizational effectiveness)

variables		Definition	Items from-to
Main variables	Sub-variable		
Organizational effectiveness	Student Education Satisfaction,	The degree of satisfaction of students with their educational experiences at the institution.	X21 to X24
	Student Academic Development	The extent of academic attainments, growth, and progress of the students at the institution	X25 to X27
	Student Career Development,	The extent of occupational development of students, and the emphasis on career development and the opportunities for career development provided by the institution	X28 to X31
	Student Personal Development	Student development in academic, no career oriented areas, e.g., socially, emotionally, culturally, and the emphasis on personal development and opportunities provided by the institution for personal development	X32 to X34
	College Employment Satisfaction,	Satisfaction of college members with their jobs and employment at the institution	X35 to X38
	Professional Development and Quality of the faculty,	The extent of professional attainments and development of the college and the amount of stimulation toward professional development provided by the institution	X39 to X42
	system openness and community interaction, and	The emphasis placed on interaction with, adaptation to, and serve in the external environment	X43 to X46
	Ability to acquire Resources	The ability of institution to acquire resources from the external environment such as good students and faculty, financial support, ct.	X47 to X50

Sources: Paula. K and Allen. W (2003)

Also, it must be mentioned that according to AMOS analysis, there are number of questions which are related to some of sub-variables from both depended and independent variables were excluded (see figure no 2&3). However, regarding Leadership Competencies Dimensions, Q1 and Q2 were excluded from Goal framing. Q6 from capacity building were excluded. Q11 and Q15 were excluded from defusing resistance and conflict. And q17 from institutionalising were excluded. Out of 20 questions, only 14 were used to measure Leadership competencies.

Regarding Organizational Effectiveness Dimensions, also there are number of Items or Questions were excluded. However, regarding student education satisfaction, Q23 and Q24 were excluded, student academic development (Q25, Q26, Q27) were excluded. Q30 from student career development were excluded, also Q32, Q33, Q34 from student personal development were excluded, and also Q35 and Q38 were excluded from college employment satisfaction. Q41 and Q42 from professional development and quality of the college education satiation were excluded. Regarding system openness and community interaction, Q45 and Q46 were excluded. Finally, Q50 were excluded from ability to acquire resources. Out of 30 questions, only 14 questions were used for measuring Organizational Effectiveness.

RESEARCH MEASURES ITEMS

Quantitative approach was applied to attempt and explain the effect of leadership competencies as independent variable (IV) on organizational effectiveness as dependent variable (DV). The first section of the research scale was about leadership competences and had 20 items across 4 sub-variables were taken from Tai M. Kin, et al (2014). The second section of the research scale were about Organizational effectiveness and contain of 30 items across 8 sub-variables were obtained from Paula. K and Allen. W (2003). The evaluation process of measured variables had been achieved by using means of Likert scale in five levels starts from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

Table 4: research scale adopted and sub variables with their items that used in the study as research scale measure instruments

NO	variables	No of items
1	Leadership Competencies (Total)	20
A	Goal framing. (GF)	5
B	Capacity Building (CB)	5
C	Defusing Resistance and Conflict. (DRC)	5
D	Institutionalizing (INS)	5
2	Organizational Effectiveness (Total)	30
A	Student Education Satisfaction (SES)	4
B	Student Academic Development (SAD)	3
C	Student Career Development (SCD)	4
D	Student Personal Development (SPD)	3
E	College Employment Satisfaction (FES)	4
F	Professional Development and Quality (PDQ)	4
G	System Openness and Community Interaction (SOC)	4
H	Ability to Acquire Resources (AAR)	4

RESEARCH POPULATION

Determining the research population has the main effect on the researcher's capability to test the research hypothesis as well as it helps to make liaison and interrelation between mental and theoretical perspective with real situation in the field. When a population cannot be studied in its whole but is known, a smaller sample is obtained using a random sampling procedure. Slovin's method enables a researcher to accurately sample the population (Stephanie, 2013).

The population of the current research consists of all academic staff, administrative staff, and students of the University of Duhok. Also, it must be mentioned that University of Duhok consists of 19 different colleges with 69 departments. The research population were mainly divided into three sections, academic staff, administrative staff and students. The number of academic staff that works in University of Duhok consists of (1827) including professors, assistant professors, lecturers, and assistant lecturers. Regarding the administrative staff, University of Duhok has around (2527) members in all colleges and units. The administrative staffs hold PhD, masters, and Bachelor degree. Finally, every year university of Duhok has the capacity to have around (22900) undergraduate and (837) postgraduate students from different colleges.

RESEARCH SAMPLE

For this research, a research sample were determined to be (1500) which were distributed among 14 different faculties in university of Duhok using questionnaire which were distributed via Google link. In the current research, the respondent sample was classified into three main parts. Academic Staff, Administrative Staff, and Students. A smaller sample is chosen using a random sampling strategy when it is not possible to investigate a population as a whole but the population is known. A researcher can sample the population with the necessary level of accuracy using Slovin's formula (Stephanie, 2013).

To calculate the accepted research sample size for the study, Slovin's Formula was used as below:

$$\text{Acceptance sample size (n)} = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$$

Where: N: is population size

E: is margin of errors

Calculating acceptance sample size for academic staff is as below:

$$\text{Academic staff Acceptance sample size (n)} = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} = \frac{1827}{1+1827(0.05)^2} = 328$$

However, the researcher took 589 respondents as academic staff which is more than the required level according to Slovin's formula.

Calculating acceptance sample size for administrative staff is as below:

$$\text{Administrative staff Acceptance sample size (n)} = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} = \frac{2527}{1+2527(0.05)^2} = 345$$

However, the researcher took 552 respondents as administrative staff which is more than the required level according to Slovin's formula.

Calculating acceptance sample size for students is as below:

$$\text{Students Acceptance sample size (n)} = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} = \frac{23737}{1+23737(0.05)^2} = 393$$

However, the researcher took 359 respondents as students which are more than the required level according to Slovin's formula.

To sum up, all three categories that were used in the current research are valid and accepted as they passed the standard level according to Slovin's formula.

Table 5: Research sample Respondent

NO	TYPE	NUMBERS	PERCENTAGE
1	ACADEMIC STAFF	589	39.3
2	ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF	359	23.9
3	STUDENTS	552	36.8
4	Total	1500	100%

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

The below research limitation are addressed:

1. Limited access to data: the researcher through data collection method suffered of collecting data due to the big sample size which forced the researcher to involve surveying certain respondents from different colleges and departments.
2. Resource limitation: although there many useful tools and ways that helps researchers to collect required information, still the researcher during this research suffer of getting some appropriate sources.
3. The study sample covered around 75% of the faculties. However, this might not be the same results if they cover all faculties
4. The study did not cover all organisational effectiveness sub-variables due to confirmatory factor analysis exclusions
5. Participation rate of the students in the sample size might effect on the results of the study, as they have lack of information and work seniority comparing with administrative staff and academic staff.
6. Although the Data collection process were online using google form, it still took too much time to collect the required number.

1. CHAPTER ONE: LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

1.1. Introduction

Global competition and shifting environmental conditions have increased institutions' awareness of and propensity for change, which is necessary for effective participation from every level of the organization within levels of institutions and because human resources are also an asset in addition to land, labour, and capital. The aim is to arrange institutional work and enhance institutional performance as long as institutional performance is essential to the effective operation of the organization and the achievement of its goals (Muhaisen, Habes, and Alghizzawi, 2020; Lau Chin, 2011). (Elgamel, Elbasir, and Sarrah, 2013). As long as human resources become an organization's competitive advantage in this dynamic and competitive global environment if they are managed well, it follows that since leaders have significant influence over followers, the leadership standard is more crucial than ever in the institutions and organizations sector because of how directly it affects economic growth. Habes, Alghizzawi and Salloum et al, (2020) mentioned that the improvement of performance, as a result of the improvement and growth in the sector of institutions and organizations, ensures the overall expansion of the national economy, particularly in developing nations, as well as the achievement of institutional innovation and the benefit of being globally competitive. In 2020, Habes, Alghizzawi, Ali, and others studies have also revealed a strong link between the standard of leadership and the accomplishment of performance outcomes among individuals and institutions because a leader who fosters a cooperative attitude in his subordinates would achieve better performance results. More than other leaders, support and involvement in the job brings about the happiness of the subordinates via interpersonal interactions, mutual communication, carrying responsibility, and decision-making. Delegating power and paying attention to employee needs and wants boost productivity and improve performance effectiveness. Both the research results (Moradi Korejan and Shahbazi, 2016) and the findings of the study (Bakan et al., 2014) showed that when a leader allots time and resources to discuss and test out new creative ideas of employees, this results in the creation of a culture of trust and cooperation to resolve issues, boost productivity, and develop work. Al-Qatawneh, Al-Weshah, and Al-Manasrah (2018).

The leader's comprehension and knowledge of the employees' motives in work areas and their job happiness are essential factors in helping managers develop a good work environment and an effective incentive system. As the most valuable assets possessed by workplace organizations, workers' effectiveness and job performance must be improved by managers in order to sustain growth and meet higher goals. In other words, organizations need leadership at all levels that can accomplish organizational goals effectively and efficiently and motivate their workers to go above and beyond to achieve those goals. Additionally, the managers who currently hold positions of authority within organizations must adopt leadership philosophies that boost institutional performance in addition to employee performance. (Asim, 2013; Aghazadeh, Alghizzawi, and Habes, 2020).

1.2. The Concept of Leadership

The term "leadership" has been defined in a variety of ways. As defined by Koçel (2015), leadership is the practice of "influencing one person's activities on other people under certain conditions and in order to achieve specific goals." Therefore, the process of the leader doing such things is what is meant by leadership. In the words of Koçel (2015), a leader is someone who motivates and inspires people to work towards a common objective while also taking into account their needs. On the other hand, leadership defined by Northhouse (2013), as the process through which one individual motivates a group of others to achieve a common objective. Leadership, as stated by Riggio and Murphy (2003), is the process of persuading people to attain a goal and leading the organization in a way that improves its cohesion and coherence. According to these definitions, leadership is a process that involves a person who uses their power to accomplish or carry out predetermined goals. A leader is "a person who is elected or appointed or who has emerged from the group to direct and organise the efforts of the group members towards some specific purpose," according to Fiedler and Garcia (1987). In addition to producing and sustaining sufficient cohesiveness and motivation among group members to keep them operating as a unit, the leader organises, organises, directs, and monitors the actions of group members. In essence, a leader challenges and unifies followers to accomplish a task. According to Winston and Patterson (2006), "a leader is one or more people who selects, equips, trains, and

influences one or more followers who have diverse gifts, abilities, and skills and focuses the followers on the organization's missions and objectives, causing the followers to willingly and enthusiastically expend spiritual, emotional, and physical energy in a concerted, coordinated effort to achieve the organization's missions and objectives." In spite of the fact that this definition covers all facets of leadership, Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006) describe transformational leadership as "transformational leaders motivate their followers to do more than they originally intended and thought possible." "The leader has high expectations and encourages team members to work harder" Despite not being the same thing, management and leadership are intertwined. While leaders are expected to guide and influence their subordinates, leadership is the act of encouraging people to work together to achieve a shared objective.

1.3. Leadership Definition

The study literature is replete with leadership studies and theories Chemers (2000), Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, and McKee (2014), and Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, and Hu (2014) are a few examples. Finding out what leadership is and how to define and express it has been the subject of years of research. As stated by Northouse (2013), leadership is a subject that has broad appeal and has been conceived in a variety of ways. Leadership is not just a phenomenon that has been extensively researched, but it is also one of the notions that many people find to be the least clear (Bass, 1990). Many of us "do not have the least understanding of what leadership is all about," as stated by Burns (1978, p.451). Others concur that there has been a lack of consistency in the study and application of leadership, with little consensus on these topics (Hackman & Wageman, 2007; Rost, 1991). Even coming up with a consensus definition of leadership may be difficult. The common misunderstandings regarding the leadership sector may be attributed to two main factors. First, a social phenomenon that involves not just leaders but also followers and the situations in which they interact has an impact on how people perceive leadership (Bligh, Kohles, & Pillai, 2011). Additionally, over time, there have been changes in how leadership has been conceptualised, leaving the concept unclear. As stated by Rost (1991), there are three widely held beliefs that affect how people view leadership, including the ideas of

management, administration, and leadership as perfection. These widely accepted notions of leadership permeate society, and as a result, they have affected how each individual perceives leadership and the function of a leader. Instead, followers and leaders interact in a two-way connection that must be understood in reference to one another. The one who is in a position of authority and who exercises influence is the leader. Depending on Antonakis et al. (2004), relationships between the leader and followers are what make leadership a successful process on followers (Antonakis et al., 2004). Achieving a goal through a group of individuals is leadership. A leader is someone who is successful in reaching particular objectives via collaboration with others (Prentice, 2004). In today's changing, fast-moving and challenging environment, the leader plays an important role in the engagement, motivation, and commitment of employees (Rukmani et al., 2010). Organizations need successful leaders to attract talented staff. Also, creativity and innovation play a prominent role in fast-moving sectors. Leadership is a key point in encouraging employees to be creative and innovative. This implies that leadership has a considerable influence on giving the organization a competitive edge. (Aydoğdu and Alkan, 2019).

Later definitions of leadership acknowledged that, although being dependent on the leader, the practise of leadership was also impacted by the context in which it was practised. Leadership was described as "a process wherein a person inspires a group of others to attain a shared purpose" (Northouse, 2013, p. 5). It takes a team effort from members of the same group to exercise leadership; it is not the sole responsibility of one person. Leadership is the capacity to persuade peers, superiors, and subordinates in a professional or organizational setting. As stated by Yukl (2007), Assisting both individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared goals, leadership is the act of getting people to understand and agree on what has to be done and how to do it.

As a result, several definitions of leadership have been developed, each concentrating on a different component of a leader's impact and conduct. The quantity of material discussing individuals as leaders as well as their distinctive traits and abilities has grown recently (Day et al., 2014; Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2013; Winston & Patterson, 2006). The subject of leadership was explored in these literary works from several perspectives, including what leaders are, what they do, and how they do it (Kotter, 1990). Northouse (2013) asserts that knowledge of influence and power dynamics is essential to understanding what leadership entails. Leadership is not

a solitary activity, it doesn't take place in a vacuum, and it isn't just about the leader (Myatt, 2013).

Atwater and Chemers, (2000) mentioned that Years of study have indicated a tremendous desire to understand, articulate, and explain what it means to be a leader. Leadership, as indicated by Northouse (2013), is a universally appealing topic that has been conceived in a number of ways. Not only is leadership a well-studied phenomenon, but it is also one of the most misunderstood concepts by many people (Bass, 1990). Burns (1978) argued that "many of us have no idea of what leadership is all about". Others believe that there has been a lack of uniformity in the field of leadership, with little consensus on how leadership is researched and implemented (Hackman & Wageman, 2007; Rost, 1991). It might be challenging to come up with a consistent definition of leadership. People's misconceptions of leadership are brought on by two things. First, a social phenomenon that involves not just leaders but also followers and the contexts of their interactions influences how people evaluate leadership (Bligh, Kohles, & Pillai, 2011). Additionally, the concept of leadership has become vague as a result of changes in the term's significance over time. According to Rost, three key concepts—leadership as excellence, management, and administration—have a substantial impact on the concept of leadership. Common views about leadership, which permeate society, have an effect on how people see leadership and the function of a leader. As a result, several definitions of leadership have developed, each concentrating on unique facets of a leader's behaviour and impact. Researchers have recently placed more attention on individuals acting as leaders (Day et al., 2014; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2011; Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2013; Winston & Patterson, 2006). These studies examined leadership from a number of angles, including the characteristics of leaders as well as their actions and methods (Kotter, 1990). Knowing the dynamics of influence and power is essential to knowing what leadership includes, according to Northouse (2013). According to Myatt (2013), leadership is neither a solitary act performed in isolation or about the leader alone. On the other hand, leadership must be viewed in the perspective of a two-way relationship between leaders and followers. The leader has the power to sway others because of his or her position of authority. According to subsequent definitions of leadership, while the practise of leadership depends on the leader, it is also influenced by the environment in which the leader operates. According to the most recent academic

research, leadership is "a process through which a person inspires a group of others to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2013, p. 5). Leadership is a collaborative effort among members of the same organization, rather than the responsibility of a single person. The ability to influence peers, superiors, and subordinates in a professional or organizational setting is referred to as leadership. Leadership, as stated by Yukl (2007), is the act of persuading others to comprehend and agree on what has to be done and how it should be done, as well as the process of aiding individual and community efforts to achieve agreed-upon goals.

1.4. Importance of leadership

The organization views the leader as a significant and valued human resource. The function of leadership, on the other hand, relates to engagement with the things that assist in achieving a certain objective. Leadership is also the capacity to organise and direct all activities inside an organization in order to accomplish objectives. Today's culture places a high value on leadership, making it one of the most popular academic areas. According to Uzohue et al. (2016), there is no one definition of leadership that is accepted everywhere. It alludes to the nine acts of overseeing and regulating a group's operations, which is typically done by a single person (Uzohue et al., 2016). The word "leadership" has a long history and includes terms like "king," "chief," "commander," "head of state," etc. The relationship between two or more group members, frequently including the structuring or restructuring of a group, is what Heather (2009) defines as leadership. As a result, leadership plays a role in influencing or modifying how others innovate (Heather, 2009). The leader has a significant impact on the employees' engagement, motivation, and dedication in today's dynamic, fast-paced, and demanding workplace (Rukmani et al., 2010). Successful leaders are essential for organizations to hire skilled personnel. In addition, creativity and innovation are crucial in quickly evolving industries. Additionally, fostering a culture of creativity and innovation among people requires strong leadership. In other words, leadership has a big influence on giving the organization a competitive edge (Aydodu and Alkan, 2019). Act of regulating and guiding a group's actions, usually under the direction of a single individual (Uzohue et al., 2016). The term "leadership" is an ancient one and includes terms like "king," "chief," "commander," "head of

state," etc. The relationship between two or more group members, frequently including the structuring or restructuring of a group, is what Heather (2009) defines as leadership. Therefore, leadership has a role in influencing or modifying how people think and act (Heather, 2009). Today's culture places a high value on leadership, making it one of the most popular academic areas. According to Uzohue et al. (2016), there is no universally accepted definition of leadership. Darwish, (2019) mentioned that The American Management Association gathered information on the performance of 46 leaders from various centres who possess several competences in order to identify the best-performing leaders. According to its study, the organization focused on a number of elements that contribute to leadership success and distinction and how they impact the productivity of the people they manage and the institutions they lead. These elements are summarised as follows:

1. The ability of the leader to guide activity (achieve corporate objectives)
2. The leader's capacity to establish rapport and show personal accountability (keeping commitments, taking ownership of mistakes),
3. The capacity of the leader to create teams (promote collaboration and coordination within the work unit)
4. The ability of the leader to be flexible and agile (adapting one's behaviour to changing circumstances and responding to change)
5. A leader's capacity for persuasion (using strategies that appeal to logic, principles, or feelings to elicit zeal or devotion)
6. The capacity of the leader to effectively communicate
7. The leader's capacity for confidence (having a realistic assessment of one's talents without coming off as conceited).

The greatest leaders, according to the study, are those that are able to mix interpersonal skills with implementation-oriented behaviours in order to promote trust, collaboration, and a performance balance between their leadership and their team. 2019's Hases, Salloum, Al-Emran, et al. The leader affects employee and institutional performance as well as work performance in general once the successful parts of leadership are present and unique in it. Influence has a key role in how well-performing leaders are seen, as well as how much potential is seen in both the leader

and the subordinate. This underlines the necessity of persuasive leadership skills for leaders of innovation and excellence in order to build consensus and develop commitment (Al-Shibly et al., 2019). The most successful leaders, according to Moradi Korejan and Shahbazi (2016), are those who employ four key strategies: inspiration (appealing to values and beliefs), counselling (engaging people to "shape" an idea), cooperation (decreasing difficulty implementing the request), and rational persuasion (using facts and logic). Lee, Hunter, and Chung in (2020) consequently, successful leadership methods and strategies are discussed. However, from the researcher's perspective, one of the reasons for the leader's success and differentiating characteristics is his capacity to define objectives, choose his priorities, choose the best methods, and recognise the various dimensions of the conditions the organization he leads is facing. This capacity is in addition to the leader's capacity to identify problems and make decisions.

1.5. Leadership Theories

Throughout history, leadership ideologies have changed. Kendra (2012) lists eight leadership paradigms, including "great man" theories, trait theories, contingency theories, situational theories, behavioural theories, participative theories, management theories, and relationship theories. There are many other methods to categorise other leadership ideas. Wolinski (2010) introduced a number of theories, including the skills theory, situational theory, path-goal theory, transformational theory, transactional theory, and servant leadership theory. All of these leadership theories are based on one of three perspectives on leadership: leadership as a process or connection, leadership as a set of qualities or personality traits, or leadership as a measurement of certain skills or behaviours (Avolio, 2005).

1.5.1. Theory of Personality

According to the characteristic theory of leadership (Wolinski, 2010), people either have or do not have the traits that help them succeed in a leadership role. People are born with specific skills and traits that support their leadership. In order to be a leader, one must be born with the leadership genes since leaders are born, not

manufactured. The great man hypothesis, which contends that leadership aptitude is intrinsic, and the attribute theory of leadership are comparable in this regard (Kendra, 2012). Early leadership studies centred on identifying leadership traits and what made a leader unique. According to Filley and House (1969), many of the early studies sought to identify characteristics, such as the mental, emotional, social, and physical make-up of a leader, that were similar to all of them. Two separate studies on leadership traits were conducted by Stogdill in 1974. In the first research of its kind, Stogdill (1974) discovered that a typical individual in a leadership position was different from a typical group member in terms of (a) intellect, (b) attentiveness, (c) insight, (d) responsibility, (e) initiative, (f) persistence, (g) self-confidence, and (h) sociability. At the conclusion of the second study, Stogdill (1974) listed eleven qualities that make a good leader, including (a) a desire for accountability and task completion, (b) a passion for and tenacity in pursuing objectives, (c) risk-taking and creativity in problem-solving, and (d) a willingness to take the lead in social circumstances. e) Williams' sense of self-worth and sense of identity; f) her willingness to accept the results of her decisions and actions; and g) her capacity to handle interpersonal stress. Stogdill (1974) demonstrated the relationship between personality qualities and leadership effectiveness in a range of contexts, but he did not prove that there are specific personality features that separate successful from unsuccessful leaders. Some leadership traits are passed down from one generation to the next. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) said that a leader may be distinguished from a non-leader by six qualities: (a) a desire to lead; (b) honesty and integrity; (c) self-confidence; (e) cognitive capacity; and (f) knowledge. Even while leaders and followers may be distinguished by certain psychological traits, according to Kirkpatrick, Locke, and Stogdill (1974), Wright (1996) emphasised that earlier studies had revealed no distinctions in these traits between leaders and followers. It seems questionable that the characteristics essential for leadership are equally distributed throughout the general population if, as Filey and House (1969) pointed out, certain qualities are required for each of the 24 scenarios and those qualities must vary as the circumstance changes. As a result, unless they are combined with the appropriate environment, these qualities and attributes will not be able to identify leaders from non-readers. The way a leader interacts with group members and how they see the leader's activities as promoting their own well-being are key factors in determining a

leader's success, according to Filey and House. In my opinion, leadership is a skill that can be learned.

The first viewpoint on leadership theories covered is the trait approach. The characteristics of the leader are regarded as the most crucial element in the leadership process of characteristics (Elkins, 1980). In other words, a person's attributes will determine whether or not a group would accept them as a leader. In terms of traits, a leader and other group members are very different from one another (Koçel, 2015). With this strategy, a person with traits that set them apart from other group members is accepted as the group's leader. The main goal of this strategy is to identify someone who can be distinguished from other group members in terms of features, traits, and characteristics in order to identify a leader (Koçel, 2015). This method claims that the leader and followers significantly differ in terms of both physical and psychological traits. Numerous studies have been done in this area, and researchers think that a leader should have characteristics like age, height, gender, ethnicity, and beauty, confidence in others, good speaking, intelligence, knowledge, and the capacity for interpersonal communication. They also think that a leader should be mature, honest, trustworthy, and intimate.

1.5.2. Analyse the situation.

Situational theory, in contrast to characteristic theory, emphasises leadership in specific conditions based on observable behaviours. According to Kendra (2012), the situational theory of leadership proposes that leaders decide on the best course of action based on the circumstances at the time. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977), leadership is a dynamic process that varies depending on the environment, followers, and other visible changes. I believe that a leader's response to a crisis defines them. Leadership conduct is influenced by a number of factors. Hersay and Blanchard (1979) highlighted four key connections that affect leadership behaviours in a range of contexts as well as how effective or ineffective leaders are viewed: a low connection with a low task, a high task with a high relationship, a low connection with a low task, and a low relationship with a low task. Leaders employ a range of tactics when it comes to governing. According to Fiedler and Garcia, a leader's efficacy is influenced by their leadership style and how much power and influence the

environment grants them over their followers. The following elements are essential to a leader's success, according to Fiedler and Garcia (1987): (a) the leader-follower connection; (b) work organization; and (c) position. Authority. Despite the fact that the situational leadership style requires leaders to change their behaviour in response to the environment, contextual considerations may cause leaders to behave differently when presented with the same situation.

1.5.3. The Theorem of Contingency

The primary tenet of the contingency leadership theory is that there is no one-size-fits-all method of leadership and that each leadership style should be tailored to the situation at hand, suggesting that a leader's effectiveness is dependent on the circumstances (Burns, 1978). This theory, which is founded on situational theory concepts, contends that leadership can only be explained in terms of the interaction between the leader and a number of environmental conditions, which may determine the best leadership style in particular scenarios. Leadership is defined as the display of exact behaviours that force followers' devotion and drive them to achieve predetermined objectives, according to this definition (Filey & House, 1969). There is no one-size-fits-all leadership style that works in all settings; rather, success is based on a multitude of factors. Fiedler (2005) studied the leadership styles of hundreds of military commanders in a variety of situations to see whether they were successful or not. Fiedler was best suitable for certain circumstances, and which were least appropriate at the conclusion of the research. Fiedler divides group-tasking situations into eight categories. Three leadership dimensions assess one part of the circumstance that influences a leader's ability to influence his followers and the likelihood of the scenario being positive. In order to evaluate the most favourable and least advantageous conditions, numerous presumptions were made by Fiedler (2005). One of these presumptions was that people in positions of power and attractiveness with clearly stated aims could force people to do what they wanted. On the other side, leaders who lack a defined set of goals will find it difficult to maintain the loyalty of their followers. Fiedler also held that the relationship between a leader and their followers affects how advantageous a situation is, and that although negative leaders cannot influence their followers, attractive leaders can. Based on these presumptions,

Fiedler found that when determining how effective a leader is, the leader-follower relationship dimension is more important than the task-structure component. As stated by Fiedler, group success is linked to leadership styles and the extent to which events enable leaders to influence their followers. As a result, relationship-oriented leaders thrive in environments with limited influence because, despite their strong position authority and well-defined responsibilities, they are not widely liked. Followers are willing to be led and taught what to do under advantageous settings, such as when leaders have influence, informal support, and generally well-structured employment. Task-oriented leaders are anticipated to be more successful in a crisis than caring leaders who are concerned with interpersonal relationships. A caring, relationship-oriented approach is most useful in environments that are just slightly favourable or negative for leaders. When acceptable leaders are confronted with unfamiliar duties, or when the activities are well-organized but the leaders are despised, compassionate, relationship-oriented leadership is more likely to lead to good team performance. As indicated by Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006), leaders who are well-liked by their peers and supervisors, pleasing to their subordinates, and whose approaches produce great follower performance are more likely to be both relational and task-oriented in an integrated way. In today's culture, leaders do not need to have expert authority considering the government's multiple institutions already have sufficient Coercive authority, even when exercised under strong leadership such as a military dictatorship, has no place in a democratic society. In the right conditions, however, attraction power may be a powerful instrument for building strong leader-follower bonds and boosting efficient job performance.

1.5.4. The Theory of Transactions

The characteristics of the interactions between a leader and their followers define the transactional theory of leadership. According to Burns (1978), transactional leadership is the building of links with followers in order to serve their own interests. According to Burns, a leader who has clear objectives will mobilise resources in opposition to or rivalry with others in order to enthuse, engage, and satisfy the needs of his followers. As a consequence, the leader and followers will accomplish objectives that are shared by both parties. According to Bass (1985), the most successful

transactional leaders use contingent compensation and management by exception to establish a mutually reinforcing environment that promotes exchanges between the leader and followers. As stated by Bass, the leader and followers must accept interdependent roles and duties in order to accomplish particular goals, with the leader acting as a reinforcing agent for the followers. The transactional leader, as stated by Kouzes and Posner (1995), is quite comparable to a conventional manager. The idea is founded on the idea that it is a leader's obligation to provide structures that clearly indicate what is expected of followers, as well as the repercussions of meeting or failing to fulfil those expectations (Wolinski, 2010). As stated by transactional theory, people want to enjoy as many pleasant experiences as possible while avoiding as many unpleasant ones as possible. The transactional leadership model was developed to show how leadership is formed and performed (Shafritz & Russell, 2016). Bass (1990) defined transactional leadership as the process of starting a contract with others in order to exchange a desired return, which might be financial, political, or psychological. According to Burns (1978), contract-based leadership is the most common type of leadership, and people may learn the requisite leadership skills. Burns (1978) noted that there are two different types of leadership interactions between a leader and their followers: transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Despite their traditional categorization, transactional and transformational leadership, as stated by Burns, are at different extremes of a continuum. When their followers meet or surpass their targeted targets, transactional leaders enhance the benefits they provide them. The crucial phrase here is "tacit transaction between leaders and followers". Additionally, transactional leaders employ time restrictions, rigorous evaluation, and tight actions to accomplish their objectives (Bono and Judge, 2004). They also use economic, political, and psychological incentives to offer the required motivation, direction, and pleasure to achieve the needed outcomes. In this method, workers establish a group in a formal organization to accomplish particular objectives. Behaviour in this manner may be found in four different circumstances. The first sort of behaviour is when a leader acts in a way that creates an environment that is conducive to improving employee performance by giving them access to more tools and support. The second behaviour category covers circumstances where the leader oversees the work process and takes remedial action. When a leader is passive and interferes when something goes wrong, such behaviour is referred to as the third kind

of behaviour. The fourth style of behaviour allows employees to operate independently and the boss to refrain from interfering. (Koçel, 2015).

1.6. Leadership Styles

There are many different leadership structures and philosophies that have been established that fit with different business or organizational settings. Each leadership style has its own distinct set of behaviours, structures, outlooks, expectations, strengths, and limitations. However, none of the featured leadership philosophies are inherently bad; rather, they all function well in a range of situations. According to Van Eeden, Cilliers, and Van Deventer (2008), a leader's leadership style describes how they go about influencing their subordinates. While there are many different leadership philosophies that are dependent on the workplace, several philosophies have had success or failure in the past when it comes to interactions between a leader and their employees. Bolden et al. (2012) noticed that interest in the significance of leadership and leaders in transforming institutions has increased quickly. They focused on leader conduct and effectiveness in higher education. A few of the many facets of effective educational leadership include the capability to lead college members, critical thinking skills, and the capacity to lead by example (Thrash, 2012). For instance, Thrash (2012) argued that an academic dean should be able to adapt to the leadership style that works best for the team that he or she is in charge of. The two leadership styles that have been shown to be most prevalent in educational settings are described, along with the instruments employed to assess leadership behaviours. Effective 24 features and traits of each kind are listed in order to establish the foundation for the conceptual framework's leadership style component. Transformative and transactional leadership are the two leadership philosophies. Transformative and transactional leadership are the most preferred management styles in current studies since it is assumed that they would produce the desired results, as stated by Thrash (2012). One of the chosen leadership philosophies of many academic deans is transformational leadership, which, in the context of education, affects systemic change in institutions. Since they are important stakeholders in the organization, professional leaders in higher education, including academic deans and heads of departments, academic advisers, student counsellors, administrative leaders, and college members, are included in the research.

1.6.1. Servant Leadership

The idea of servant leadership is based on the charismatic leadership theory, and many scholars believe that the desire to serve is the main driving force behind leadership. According to Keith (2008), ethical and practical behaviour are associated to servant leadership. In his definition of servant leadership, Robert Greenleaf—the man who created this style of leadership—states that servant leaders "emphasise serving others and sacrifice their personal interests for the benefit of others to increase their authority and health and become servant leaders." He goes on to say that the desire to serve others comes naturally and is the foundation of servant leadership (Keith, 2008). The foundation of the leader's motivation for leading in the servant leadership style is the leader's feeling of equality with the subordinates. In other words, the leader's worldview compels him or her to see themselves as on an equal footing with those they are guiding. The leader is crucial in promoting the establishment of a group inside the organization, and all members of the group have equal and comparable rights, knowledge, and perspectives (Dierendonck, 2011).

1.6.2. Charismatic Leadership

Basically, charismatic leadership is a means of persuading people to engage in certain behaviours through communication, persuasion, and force of personality. Charismatic leaders inspire people to act or change their behaviour. The term "charismatic leader" refers to individuals who have significantly altered society, such as politicians, military leaders, scientists, and artists (Koçel, 2015). One of the most effective leadership philosophies is the charismatic approach. Charismatic executives inspire their subordinates to carry out the company's mission. This is why this leadership style has always been regarded as one of the most useful. The right environment for invention and creativity is provided by charismatic leadership, which is frequently tremendously inspiring. In an organization, charismatic leaders are readily followed. However, there is a significant issue that might possibly limit the value of charismatic leaders: if they leave the organization, it may take years for the organization to regain its focus. This is because charismatic leaders are hard to replace (Koçel, 2015).

1.6.3. Transformational leadership

A style of leadership that places a strong focus on change is transformational leadership. The focus of transformational leadership is on people's capacities to foster organizational progress via the expression of a sense of ownership in the business (Bass, 1985). Particularly inspiring and motivating people to follow them, transformational leaders develop their own leadership skills in the process (Bass, 1990; Obiwuru et al., 2011). Companies with transformational CEOs can do well. Studies (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2011) show that transformational leadership is superior to transactional leadership in terms of decreased turnover, increased productivity, less stress and burnout, and improved employee satisfaction. According to Ingram (1997) and Yuen and Cheng (2000), effective transformational leadership for educators requires a certain set of leadership qualities. These activities were categorised by Yuen and Cheng (2000) as inspiring, socially beneficial, and enabling. Ingram, 1997; According to earlier studies (Hackman & Johnson, 2004), transformational leaders are characterised as being extremely enthralling, passionate, empowering, visionary, and innovative. According to Obiwuru et al. (2011), the most important factor for performance improvement is the solid relationship that transformational leaders have with their followers. Creating resilient businesses and successfully and swiftly adjusting to change are skills that transformational leaders excel at. Due of the charismatic component, some scholars use the term charismatic leadership instead of transformational leadership. However, McLaurin and Al-Amri (2008) asserted that these two words differ greatly from one another. They argued that rather than being the only 27 ingredients, charisma is just one of several characteristics of a transformative leader. Additionally, some academics debated how situational preferences or uncertainty affected both approaches, how transformational behaviour downplayed charisma, whether a charismatic leader might be self-centred, and the likely negative effects of charismatic leadership (McLaurin & Al-Amri, 2008).

1.6.4. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership refers to a management style that is centred on transactions. Follower behaviour evolves gradually as a result of transactional leadership. For example, transactional leaders frequently reward or punish their

followers as stated by the quality of their job. Transactional leaders invest time and effort into enhancing and growing the processes, systems, tasks, and potential of their followers. Transactional leadership preserves the status quo, does not promote organizational progress or personnel development, and keeps employees' views and values the same. Transactional leadership, on the other hand, is not a less effective kind of leadership; rather, it may be used to supplement transformational leadership's effects (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987). The primary source of power for transactional leaders is their formal authority inside the organization. As fundamental management procedures, they focus on regulating, organising, and short-term planning. Professionals who work in educational settings bring their own dedication and interests to the creation and enhancement of their academic community. As indicated by Basham (2010), transactional leaders clearly clarify what is required and expected of their followers, but transformational leaders rally their followers to achieve common goals by expressing their own standards. In addition, transformational leadership creates a dynamic relationship with other people's ideas and includes empowering voices in the mix. Transactional leadership. Both transformational and transactional leadership styles appear to be viable solutions for companies with high worker turnover (Long & Thean, 2012). As stated by Bass and Avolio (1995), transactional leadership has three components: management by exception (active and passive), management by exception (active) and dependent incentives. When leaders specify the tasks that must be completed and employ incentives as payment for successful performance, they are said to be using contingent rewards. Management by exception (active) refers to leaders actively monitoring the work of followers and ensuring that standards are followed as opposed to management by exception (passive), which refers to leaders acting only when problems occur (Antonakis et al., 2003). Transactional leadership characteristics, as identified by Bryman (1992), are not even eligible for the name of "true" leadership. This is due to the fact that it is based on exchange, meaning that this style of leadership does not strive to increase followers' motivation above what is necessary to avoid punishment or get extrinsic benefits. The performance and contentment of the subordinates may therefore suffer as a result of total reliance on this specific style of leadership (Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992).

1.7. Evaluation of Leadership Styles

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Form 5X-Short) was created by Bass and Avolio (1997) and is the most widely used instrument for assessing leadership types. For this project, an authorization to administer the MLQ for research purposes, as well as authorization to reprint in publications and other copyright issues, is required for this project ("MLQ for Researchers). The MLQ has been shown to be a reliable and legitimate leadership tool in both industrialised and service sectors (Kleinman, 2004). This instrument now has 45 questions that assess behaviours associated with three different leadership styles: (a) transformational leadership; (b) transactional leadership; and (c) passive avoidant behaviour, which might be considered a lack of leadership (Lievens, Geit, & Coetsier, 1997). Furthermore, each leadership style is divided into sub-categories, and the MLQ evaluates attributes and behaviours that have been experimentally connected to these leadership styles. The researcher employed the MLQ to identify each participant's boss's leadership style. On a 5-point Likert scale, potential participants graded their leaders' activities. The leadership style that obtained the highest aggregated score was favoured (used more frequently) by the academic staff who were evaluated. More information on the MLQ instrument may be found in Chapter 3 of this paper's methodology section.

1.8. Modifications to the Theory

By rewarding followers for upholding agreements and standards and punishing them with a stick when they don't, transformative leadership, as opposed to transactional leadership, motivates followers to go above and beyond expectations and goals (Bass, 2006). According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership involves leaders and followers working together to raise morale and motivation. By adopting charismatic approaches to draw people to the ideas and to the leader, transformational leaders raise the bar by 30 points by appealing to the higher conceptions and values of their followers. According to Burns, transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership because it appeals to society ideals rather than individual interests and motivates individuals to collaborate rather than work alone. According to him, transformational leadership is a continuous process as opposed to transactional

leadership, which consists of a series of discrete occurrences. According to Bass (1990), excellent visioning, impression management, and argumentation abilities are necessary for transformational leadership. Bass claims that these characteristics are used by transformational leaders to elicit strong feelings from their followers and inspire them to go above and beyond. Wolinski (2010) defined transformational leadership as a process in which a person establishes a connection with others and is able to forge a bond that raises the motivation and morale of both followers and leaders. According to the charismatic leadership hypothesis, leaders that exhibit certain traits, such as assurance, extroversion, and clearly stated values, are best able to motivate followers (McLaurin & Amri, 2008). In order to help followers attain their full potential, a leader in transformational leadership must be aware of their needs and motivations, according to Hopen (2010). In its most fundamental sense, transformational leadership is concerned with how leaders can design and put into practise substantial changes in organizations, corporations, and governments. The primary tenet of the transformational leadership theory is that leaders may influence their followers by being inspiring and magnetic. Due to the adaptability of rules and regulations and the influence of group norms, followers have a feeling of belonging since they can readily relate to the leadership and its objectives (McLaurin & Amri, 2008).

1.9. Leadership Versus Management

Whereas both management and leadership have many characteristics, they do not have the same meaning. A leader is someone who can assemble the people in a group to accomplish particular aims and objectives. The leader moreover possesses the knowledge and abilities necessary to persuade and mobilise people in this regard (Abu-Tineh et al., 2009). It implies that the foundation of leadership is the ability to persuade others and direct them towards a particular goal. In a nutshell, a leader is someone who directs the members of a team, has the power to influence others, chooses the course for people, establishes goals for them, and provides guidance. Scholars have differed on whether leadership and management are the same or comparable, with some arguing that there are parallels and others arguing that there are significant distinctions. The usage of the terms "leadership" and "management" in acknowledging the

similarities and differences, according to Barr and Dowding (2012:8) and Kotter (1990), is ambiguous. While some people interchange the two terms, others think there are significant differences (Barr & Dowding, 2012:8). Rowe (2007:4), who asserts that leadership and management are similar yet have major differences, supports the perspective put out by Barr and Dowding (2012). According to Rowe (2007:4), "They both entail persuading individuals." They both need collaboration with others. Both are focused on achieving similar objectives. Leadership and management, on the other hand, vary in more ways than they are similar. The majority of academics agree that management and leadership are two very distinct things. As indicated by Zaleznik (1977), leadership and management are two completely different things that can only be done by one person. As a result, leaders become more emotionally invested in their followers' opinions and seek out and shape others' ideas rather than simply responding to their own. According to Zaleznik (2007), leaders are also stated to alter the perspectives of their followers, place a premium on follower loyalty, and view organizations as a whole, with integrity and public perception playing a key role. Leaders believe it is their responsibility to use the best judgement possible. As a result, leaders are confident that their decisions and judgements will have an effect on their organizations, as well as the sector and environment (Rowe, 2001). The required knowledge and skills are also given to followers by leaders. Similar to this, the leaders use their position of authority to resolve any disputes that could occur, On the other hand, managers are perceived as being reactive and are said to be less emotionally involved, despite the fact that they may still wish to work with people (Mintzberg, 1998). Managers' judgements, according to Rowe (2001), are action-oriented and impacted by the organizations for which they work. Industry and environment frequently have an impact on the activities and attitudes of organizations. This suggests that the objectives of the organizations have an impact on the decisions made by management. Managers are said to be in charge of carrying out the main managerial responsibilities, including organising, monitoring, managing change, coordinating, and making sure that everything is completed to the required standards. Kotter (1999) asserts that managers are capable of solving complex organizational problems quickly.

As previously established, management and leadership have several clarifications. Different traits, responsibilities, and behaviours distinguish managers from leaders. In other words, the emotional and cognitive aspects of leadership are

more important than they are in management. Some people have the ability to lead and manage well. A manager is someone who is working to accomplish organizational goals by utilising all management and organizational procedures and resources. Managers should ideally be capable of providing effective group leadership. The majority of managers, however, do not operate in this manner, according to Koçel (2015).

Generally speaking, the distinctions between a manager and a leader may be summed up as follows:

- Management is seen as a profession, but leadership is the art of moving people via influence.
- A formal organizational framework exists for management, but leadership is not dependent on it.
- Performing tasks effectively in order to reach the intended goals is referred to as management. Leadership involves identifying tasks and goals that need to be completed.
- Managers' positions serve as a means of persuasion. Personality traits, behaviours, trust, inspiration, and a person's point of view are among the instruments utilised by leaders.
- Leadership lacks a task-related definition, whereas management does.
- Management involves calculating, measuring, analysing statistics, administering procedures, etc. But effective leadership helps individuals reach their objectives via their own actions.
- While leadership refers to implementing changes inside the organization, management refers to the tasks completed in order to reach the goals.
- Management refers to overseeing an organization's internal structure, and leadership refers to overseeing an organization's exterior structure.
- According to Koçel (2015), a manager is someone who does their duties well, and a leader is someone who accomplishes their duties well.

1.10. Leadership and Organizations:

An organization is made up of a number of different parts that cooperate to achieve a common objective and carry out their respective roles in order to provide customers with real goods and services with the hope of making a profit. Organizations are necessary for today's society to function. Only when employees work together inside a company can they successfully execute intricate tasks; alone, employees can only handle simple activities (J.T. Hennessy, 1998). When human labour is successfully organised, high productivity results; this is not possible when a group of individuals is disorganised. To put it another way, a synergy effect results from coordinated collaboration amongst people. The art of leadership is convincing people to concentrate their efforts on achieving the organization's goals. Leadership, according to J.M.G. Burns (1978), is the process of influencing others' behaviours to achieve the set objectives. In this application, direction refers to pressuring or persuading people to choose a particular course of action. The best answer to "Who is the leader?" is, "The leader is defined as any person who influences individuals and groups within the organization, helps them in defining objectives, and guides them towards achieving these goals." Three elements that may be built upon make up the outlook of the leader in many successful organizations. These elements comprise:

- A. Lord Skiff's maxim that "being an effective leader should see, and better than ever seeing in action" serves as the cornerstone for the requirement that leaders be visible. To achieve both the profit goal and common goals, each organization's major constituents work together. A location where leaders get together to tackle challenging tasks in an effort to accomplish common goals might be thought of as an organization, broadly speaking. Efficiency in an organization is the ability to provide high-quality outcomes in the shortest period of time and with the fewest resources (to act in a way that doesn't waste resources). A leader is effective in their work when they have readily available plans to put people to work in any situation or when they utilise that information rationally to determine how certain resources have been utilised. They don't abandon them without a job or with low bank interest. Effectiveness is the ability to choose the best objectives and strategies to achieve them. Therefore, it entails behaving correctly and when it is needed. According to the

Peter Ducker's, effectiveness comes from doing the right things rather than the right things.

- B. Leaders openly mislead others by putting their utmost trust in their followers and exhorting others to do the same. Leadership thrives in environments where individuals are equipped with the means to achieve their goals. A leader must utilise power in the right ways in order to motivate people to use all of their effort in order to enhance their level of performance. Leadership is the practise of motivating people to work hard to fulfil important tasks. It is one of the most common management issues (B.M. Bass, 1996). Setting goals and coordinating the pooling of resources to carry out the plans are done through planning. While guaranteeing that safe goods return to the right places, it also promotes teamwork and encourages people to utilise their expertise to make ideas come to reality.

1.11. Styles and Qualities of Effective Leaders

According to J.T. Hennessy (1998) the most important qualities of a leader are:

1. **Honesty and integrity:** The Latin word "honesty" indicates quality or honesty, but the English term "honesty" originates from a word that signifies the complete. As the most important qualities for a leader, these are the terms that are almost often cited. This shows that most managers and professionals hold highly regarded leaders who refrain from macro gaming and who are serious, confident, and professional. These leaders keep their word after they've committed to something; they don't make promises they can't keep.
2. **Competence and credibility:** Leadership qualities such as the appropriate industry experience, practical business knowledge, intelligence, and energy are all highly valued. Leaders that demonstrate these qualities, are able to make important and tough decisions, and take their ideas through to completion are rarely well received by their following.
3. **Inspiration and motivation:** Many MBA students believe that one of a successful leader's most important traits is the willingness to take on equally talented and rebellious successors who, if given the opportunity, support, and

appropriate remuneration, will significantly contribute to each organization. To be more precise, we should say that this feature results from the ability to prevent demotions.

4. **Good communication skills:** These are desired characteristics that constitute a good leader. A few of the complex skills and competences needed include the ability to establish relationships with the boy, speak with each person individually and directly, be able to walk and talk, and lead by example for others.

5. **Equality / Parity:** This quality distinguishes leaders who treat everyone of their followers equally, respectfully, and without favouritism. They do not discriminate against anyone based on their physical ability, sexual orientation, gender, race, or colour. When they must assess someone else, they base their decision on their morals, abilities, work ethic, and other overt or evident contributions to the company.

6. **The sense of humour:** One of the best stress-reducers at work is laughter, and funny people get along with each other the best. Humour may be used in almost every situation to lessen tension and workplace conflicts. Contrarily, funny people typically have plenty of examples.

7. **Visionally / direction for the future:** Being a visionary requires a tremendous capacity for learning, creativity, invention, and adaptation. Additionally, it implies the ability to take chances when the audience is restless, shaky, or unreliable. Because they still want the trusted leader to lead them into the future, people will react to these skills in the same way they have for decades.

1.12. Competency as a Concept

Leadership Ability: There has been a lot of research done on leadership abilities. Authors have collated attributes that best depict the ideal applicants with the skill sets and management competencies for job selection using logical metaphors from an organizational viewpoint. Assessment techniques or competence models have been developed by the authors to aid in the improvement of individual skills and the development of an overall corporate strategy (Vathanophas, 2007). As indicated by Knopf (2003; P.20), "competency is a combination of qualities or attributes displayed via behaviour." Others have described competencies as the use of cognitive talents to

achieve certain aims and objectives (Ley, 2006; Pagon, Banutgai, & Bizak, 2008). Shirazi and Mortazavi (2009) agreed with the latter point of view, although they focused on future skills rather than a competence-based approach based on coincidental management and competency linkage. Organizational leaders should specify the skills, attributes, and characteristics they want in all of their leaders, according to Depree (2004). By raising competences to the status of crucial performance indicators and creating the conditions for strategic decision-making, Vathanophas (2007) supported this notion. Competencies are a defining aspect of succession planning and play a vital role in the execution of human resource plans, according to Rothwell (2003). The list of skills was enlarged by Green (1999) to include "habits, communication styles, and cooperation" (p. 25). Employee capabilities are classified as intangible assets in Kaplan and Norton's (2004) study. Competencies are the most important assets for competitive advantage, according to Kaplan and Norton (2004), and they are also the hardest to copy. Organizational leaders must take use of intangible assets' potential, which is sometimes not expressly expressed in strategic plans, according to Zadrozny (2006). The difficulties of monitoring and tracking real-time data relevant to such assets are the cause of the laissez-faire mindset. Managers' failure to recognise a measurable return on investment from intangible assets is the cause of their lack of interest in the topic. According to Gentry, Harris, Baker, and Leslie (2008), the managerial skills of "communicating information or ideas; taking actions, making decisions, and following through" (p.23) were constant across interorganizational jobs with little change. According to Sparks and Gentry (2008), the literature on leadership competencies places more emphasis on the skills needed for particular job tasks, responsibilities, and talents than on the cross-boundary organizational leadership skills needed to uphold long-term organizational efficiency. Mumford et al.'s (2007) leadership skill requirements across management levels and organizational types served as the foundation for Sparks and Gentry's (2008) investigation into whether generic competence attributes might be applied to leadership across organizational boundaries and time. According to the study's findings, leadership skills do not degrade with time, even when dealing with the fallout from a significant disaster like the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001. As a manager's rank rises, soft skills start to matter more than hard capabilities. At higher management levels, leadership traits such as interpersonal aptitude, communication

prowess, and charisma are more crucial than technical expertise and data analysis. At the lowest levels of management, these abilities are very crucial. According to Grigoryev (2006), 81% of probationary employees who fail during their first six months are new hires who lacked soft skills. Competencies take on the form of a multi-level, integrated process when seen from a variety of angles. The skills of co-workers are joined with an individual's values, beliefs, and talents to form a special set of competences that are supportive of value creation. To ensure the organization's long-term success, it is essential to recognise, capitalise on, and use these skills while also coordinating them with the firm's strategic direction (Naqvi, 2009). Naqvi (2009). "Competency mapping and talent management" was welcomed by Naqvi (2009) on page 85. The ideal fusion of personal competencies, skills, and talents is necessary for competency mapping and talent management. Value maximisation is the idea of maximising the value of prospective assets in the areas of company operations, human resources, and strategic goals.

Given the significance of having the correct balance of competences in a company's leadership, it's critical to understand what competency means. Scholars and academics have defined the idea of "competence" in a variety of ways. Competence, According to Gruban (2003), is the ability to apply knowledge and other abilities to successfully and efficiently carry out certain tasks, achieve goals, or carry out specific duties in organizations. Competence is seen to be connected to personal qualities that enhance performance (Lustri, Miura, & Takahashi, 2007). The 70 personal and behavioural attributes that are necessary for effective leaders include knowledge, abilities, expertise, beliefs, attitudes, and intentions (Pagon et al., 2008:1). According to Virtanen (2000:333–341), competence is a character quality of an employee that refers to "a kind of human capital or human resource that may be converted into production." In order to accomplish a work successfully and with high returns, a person must possess the knowledge, abilities, talents, traits, and other behaviours that make up competence (Poorkiani, Beheshtifar, & Moghadam, 2010: 507). Competence should be seen as the cognitive, functional, and social abilities and resources, as well as any other assets required carrying out a range of tasks and producing great results. Similar to this, all competencies are composed of and linked to knowledge, values, attitudes, emotions, motives, and any other social behaviour that may support efficient operations (Svetlik et al., 2005). A person's whole competency reflects their ability,

according to Poorkiani et al. (2010). This claim is supported by Young and Dulewicz (2005), who claim that competencies show what a person can and cannot do. The previous debate made it quite evident that there are several meanings of competence. According to Poorkiani et al. (2010), organizational psychologists, industrialists, and human resource experts have not reached consensus on a common definition of competence. Poortkiani et al. (2010) and Chan (2006), on the other hand, concur that most competencies are made up of a set of knowledge, skills, abilities, beliefs, values, interests, and motivation that are related to a specific job, affect performance and organizational strategic directions, and can be improved through education and reformation. To outline the competency defence, Shahmandi et al. (2011) contend that competence is essential for performing well. It shows that those involved, especially leaders and managers, can produce the desired results in addition to meeting expectations (Hellriegel et al. 2008). Competence is defined in this research as the application of knowledge, skills, and experience, and the use of the appropriate behaviours and attitudes by both managers and non-managers, resulting in the realisation of desired outcomes.

1.13. A Brief History of Competencies

In the 1970s, the McBer consulting group and McClelland (1973) contributed significantly to the development of the idea of "managerial competency." The late 1960s' altering political and economic landscape is when the competence movement first emerged. (For an excellent assessment, see Horton, (2002). In the early 1980s, the American Management Association performed important research that defined a work competence as "an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to effective or superior performance in a job." Boyatzis (1982, p. 21). Boyatzis identified five groups of 19 general behavioural traits goal and action management, leadership, human resource management, attention to others, and subordinate supervision that are associated with managing success that is above average. In the UK, where the government accepted these ideas, first in the Review of Leadership Articles 148 Vocational Qualifications report (De Ville, 1986), and then in the development and use of the National Occupational Standards (NOS) in management, they gained traction. In the UK, it appears that the competency approach is fast displacing other models as the

preferred method for management and leadership development. (Miller and colleagues, 2001); (Rankin,2002).

Although words used in the UK and the USA have similar roots and are used similarly, the 1980s and 1990s witnessed a split in how the principles around competences were implemented. Sparrow (1997) identified three primary types of strategy. The first of these was the managerial competence (or "technical/functional") method created in the UK, which principally relied on functional analysis of job positions to establish anticipated norms of workplace conduct. The use of the NOS to determine National Vocational Qualifications is where this strategy is most obvious. (NVQs). The second strategy identified the behavioural traits of successful and exceptional managers and was based on the work of Boyatzis and colleagues at McBer consultants in the USA. In this instance, the objective was to encourage the actions that result in improved performance rather than to provide a baseline measure of acceptable performance. Third, Sparrow identified the organizational competency (or strategic "core competence") strategy that focused on the organization and business processes rather than the person, resulting in improved creativity, learning, and performance. (E.g. Goddard, 1997).

1.14. Definition of Competency

Competency was defined by McClelland, (1998) as "a fundamental normal for a person that is directly associated with foundation referred strong and furthermore prevalent performance in an activity or a condition." "Capabilities are nonexclusive information thinking process, attribute, social job, or an individual's knowledge associated to unmatched execution at work," says the definition of a capability. As indicated by Shermon (2004), the capacity to execute tasks or better handle the situation is a signature of humans. There are many other properties that make up these traits, including knowledge, aptitudes, attributes, social roles, and mental processes. Conduct qualities occur in a particular structure, allowing for differentiation and fitness estimation.

1.15. The Benefits of Competence Models

When it comes to enhancing leadership abilities, competence models have helped both individuals and organizations (G.P. Hollenbeck et al., 2006). Individuals benefit from competencies because they summarise seasoned leaders' experience and insight, specify a range of useful leader behaviours, provide a tool for self-development, and outline a leadership framework that can be used to help select, develop, and understand leadership effectiveness.

Competencies, when properly constructed, take advantage of an organization's leadership incumbents' expertise and seasoned viewpoint. The personal experiences of a large number of managers and executives are reduced to a limited number of capabilities. The list is kept to a manageable size of about 10–20 competencies so that it is both useful and not overly complicated. As a result, the competencies can provide clear guidance on the behaviours that experienced incumbents believe are linked to success. They are a wonderful educational resource for anyone looking to improve their effectiveness. I'm sure you remember the days when you had to be lucky and work for the right boss, someone who had some leadership characteristics and was ready to teach you how to utilise them. Competency models, on the other hand, serve as a backup to such a hit-or-miss approach. (G.P. Hollenbeck et al., 2006).

Competencies may also help people figure out how effective they and others are as leaders. Individuals can take personal responsibility for their own growth and take action on their own. Competencies may also be used to teach individuals how to evaluate and monitor the effectiveness of others' leadership. They have considerably enhanced managers' performance evaluation skills in several companies.

Businesses have benefited from the use of competence models. Competencies help organizations by communicating which leader behaviours are important; assisting in individual performance discrimination; linking leader behaviours to the business's strategic directions and goals; and providing an integrative model of leadership that is applicable to a wide range of positions and leadership situations.

Competency models are a fairly equitable way of presenting the relevant leader behaviours in a certain firm in a generalised way. It puts important information in everyone's hands and reduces some of the secrecy that has impeded businesses and professions. People are expected to be interested in and take steps to improve

themselves as a result of the widespread distribution of a competency model. People are differentiated based on their career motivation by the degree to which they take initiative (G.P. Hollenbeck et al., 2006).

Furthermore, leadership qualities may be used to develop an integrative model of leadership that can be applied in a number of positions and settings, according to G.P. Hollenbeck et al. (2006). It's a road map to leadership effectiveness that provides several paths to the same destination, but it's not a travel ticket with very specific and rigid directions. It's a framework, not a goal or a solution in and of itself. In one organization where I've worked, the expected leader behaviours for a certain talent varied depending on the leadership position and context. In this scenario, the job level and functional area form a matrix of organizational leadership situations, each with its own set of required actions. As a result, the leadership styles of a level-four operations manager and a level-two human resources director differ. This method not only reveals how KSA interact with leadership situations, but it also demonstrates how expected leadership behaviours change as a result of various career paths. If someone wishes to go up a level or sideways into a different functional area, he may understand what new activities are expected.

On the other hand, the competencies should represent the leadership traits necessary to realise the organization's strategic goals. A marketing-driven corporation, for example, may place a higher priority on leadership abilities than an operations-driven one. An organization in transition can focus on the skills needed to not only get the organization through the transformation, but also help it prosper in the new end state. Because of business strategic shifts, the telecommunications industry, for example, began emphasising marketing and customer relations skills over technical competence and command and control leadership traits.

1.16. Leadership Competency

The growth and success of an organization depend greatly on leadership. According to Muntean and Mircea (2008), "planning and budgeting issues are more manageable with departmental control and leadership from the organizational." Three categories of leadership qualities were identified by Krajewski, et al,(1983) technical skills, interpersonal skills, and conceptual skills. Sergiovanni (1984) expanded the

conceptual skills into the competencies necessary for a successful leader, such as technical, interpersonal, representational, and nurturing abilities as well as professionalism in education. Leadership is described in this research as the fundamental abilities required of a leader, including aptitude, the ability to exhibit certain behavioural traits, the ability to build relationships with others, and the capacity for further education and development.

Leadership is defined in a variety of ways (Allio, 2012; Backus, Keegan, Gluck & Gulick, 2010, Brown & Posner, 2001). Competency is also defined in a variety of ways (Boyatzis, 2008). As a result, it's not surprising that no commonly acknowledged definition of leadership ability exists. Leadership competencies often relate to the capacity to carry out certain responsibilities. Usually, when a leader is competent, the workforce performs better. Manogran (2000) used the following definition of competences when discussing them for the Malaysian public sector: A set of behavioural patterns that might support efficient performance in the workplace is referred to as a competency. Additionally, it is described as groups of an employee's actions that result in greater performance. Another version sees competencies as the fundamental traits of a person that set exceptional performance apart. Competencies, as stated by Applebaun & Paese, are the "how" of leadership. To effectively perform their duties, leaders must possess a set of competences. The "particular talents and abilities that affect" their leadership effectiveness are referred to as competences.

According to certain studies, leadership competence is a set of characteristics that a leader must possess in order to be effective (Muller & Turner, 2010). Leadership competence is defined by most studies as certain activities that a leader must display in order to be successful in a job, position, function, task, or obligation (Boyatzis, 2009, Groves, 2007). Job-relevant conduct (what a person says or does that lead to high or bad performance), motivation (how a person feels about a job, organization, or geographic location), and technical knowledge and abilities are all examples of particular actions (what a person knows and demonstrates regarding facts, technologies, a profession, procedures, a job, and an organization). As defined in this research study (Northouse, 2012), leadership competence is an observable, quantifiable pattern of knowledge, skills, talents, or qualities that a person needs for successful, outstanding performance in a leadership role, as defined in this research study.

1.17. The Misuse of Leadership Competencies

As stated by Miller et al. (2001), organizations utilise competencies for two main reasons: first; to improve employee performance through assessment, training, and other personnel practises; and second; as a way to communicate company values and goals. But as the saying goes, "for the man who has a hammer everything looks like a nail": a competency framework can be viewed as the answer to every problem (selection, recruitment, training, development, appraisal, promotion, and reward) in the hands of an overly enthusiastic HR manager or consultant; doing so, however, is dangerous. First, according to Conger (2005), adopting competencies in leadership and management (and related methods like 360-degree appraisals) for both evaluation and development substantially reduces the value of these skills for personal growth. He contends that while the focus of developmental tools is on openness and honesty, their use in evaluation produces a conflicting dynamic of complicity and alignment. Peers may start to cooperate in multi-rater evaluation exercises as a result, and topics that would be helpful in a developmental discourse are concealed if it is anticipated that they will have a detrimental influence on the recipient's career or reward chances.

The risk of using competences for objectives other than those for which they were intended exists when using them to guide a variety of organizational practises. Facet theory (Donald, 1995; Levy, 1994) says that you should first take into account the essential qualities (or "facets") of what makes a tool efficient for its intended use. This is a crucial premise of effective instrument design. So, for instance, a tool created for selection would want to weed out as many individuals as possible, but one created for development will look to find possibilities for everyone to grow. The majority of the time, however, leadership and management competences are developed from functional job analyses of professional jobs, with little thought given to how they may be used to the creation or evaluation.

A related concern is the incomplete or dubious empirical data that most competence frameworks are built on. For instance, despite the fact that the initial study on which it was built was only obtained from self-report data from Chief Executives and Directors, the NHS Leadership Qualities framework is used throughout the whole NHS. (NHS Leadership Centre, 2003). Additionally, in a manner similar to how "independent" (cause) and "dependent" (outcome) variables are sometimes confused in

leadership competence frameworks The transformational leadership paradigm alternates between portraying leadership as a leader activity or a follower reaction, as Hunt (1991: 214) points out. Such misunderstanding runs the danger of introducing tautologies, such as the definition of "charismatic leader" as "one who possesses charisma," which is extremely common in the behavioural characteristics that go with it.

The competence approach is based on a number of philosophical presumptions regarding the nature of organizational life. The fact that they are mainly concealed and disguised means that they go unnoticed and unquestioned, even if it is probable that many employees in the organizations that utilise them agree with these beliefs. The competence method, for instance, is based on the idea that the worker and the task are two separate things in an objectivist worldview. The issue with this viewpoint is highlighted by Sandberg's (2000) research with automobile assembly employees, which discovered that job competences emerge not through mastering a present of skills but rather as a result of the worker's vision of the ultimate goal of his or her work. Lawler (2005: p215) contends that the objectivist approach "fails to capture the subjective experience of the leadership relationship" because it minimises consideration of the social construction of reality and focuses on "objective" metrics. Similar to how results are generally attributed to the person rather than the collective and/or contextual, there is a significant emphasis on individual behaviour. Such a propensity impacts how we view leadership, where we look for evidence, and causes us to ignore other, equally significant elements in favour of what we are looking for. Changing our frame of reference may modify the linkages we uncover. (Wood, 2005).

2. CHAPTER TWO: ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

2.1. Organizational Effectiveness Concept

The idea of organizational effectiveness is one of the more recent ones in management in general and in the field of educational management in particular. Cameron (Cameron, 1978) performed his research titled "Evaluation of organizational effectiveness" in institutions of higher education and is credited with being the first to use this idea in the field of educational administration. In the 1950s of the previous centuries, interest in the study of organizational effectiveness peaked. Throughout the 1950s, organizational effectiveness was defined as "the extent to which the organization achieves its goals." Despite how straightforward the concept is, it begs numerous questions: What are the organization's goals? Are these legitimate objectives? Who sets these objectives? Society or management? It might be claimed that one of the first challenges a student studying organizational effectiveness encounters is coming up with a precise definition of the term that academics would accept as the foundation for their research. Since the 1980s, the phrase "organizational effectiveness" has gained increased significance, and it has its roots in the early days of management research. The three main historical constructs of organizational effectiveness are those of the Australian psychologist, sociologist, and organizational theorist George Elton Mayo (December 1880–September 1949), Henri Fayol (July 1841–November 1925), and American mechanical engineer Frederick Winslow Taylor (March 1856–March 1915).

Frederick Taylor researched scientific management, which he defined as "a kind of industrial engineering that developed work organization." Taylor's form bridged the gap between early management theory and modern management approaches. Production maximization, cost minimization, and technical excellence, according to Taylor, are the variables that determine organizational performance. Henri Fayol is the founder of the systematic management school. "Planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and regulating" were the five roles he created. Organizational success, as stated by him, is "a result of unambiguous leadership and discipline in companies." Elton Mayo is credited with starting the "Human Relations

Movement." He emphasized the relevance of group influence on individual workplace actions. This was dubbed "organizational effectiveness" by him.

Organizational effectiveness, as indicated by Federman (2006), is linked to an organization's ability to access critical resources in order to meet its goals. Cameron (1978) agreed with Federman and said that organizational effectiveness is defined as an organization's ability to get the resources it requires. Nonetheless, as McCann (2004) pointed out, organizational success is only achievable if the organization's key strategies are followed.

Controlling the environment in which businesses struggle to exist is critical for security and support, and that organizations may manage their environment through their people. As a result, in order to increase organizational performance, human resource activities should be considered in businesses with restricted resources. Managers must be creative in order to address organizational challenges and increase organizational performance (Baker and Branch, 2002). The ability of an organization to fulfil its strategic and operational objectives is commonly characterized as organizational effectiveness. "Organizational effectiveness" is defined as a company's long-term ability to fulfil its strategic and operational objectives consistently (Fallon and Brinkerhoff, 1996, p.14). Organizational effectiveness, according to Mott (1972,p.17).) Is "the capacity of an organization to mobilize its centres of power for action, production, and adaptability" High-quality products are frequently produced by effective businesses, and these businesses are flexible in the face of adversity. Three key factors—productivity, adaptability, and efficiency—have been identified as the most frequently used in various models of organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1977; Sharma and Samantara, 1995). These factors have been characterized as primitive for evaluating organizational effectiveness (Mott, 1972). Positive human attitudes and behaviours, such as organizational dedication, have been linked to organizational efficiency and climate by researchers (Organ and Paine, 1999; Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1997).

The notion of organizational effectiveness is a significant advancement in management theory. It does not use short-term indicators like sales or profit to define company performance. Instead, it concentrates on the long-term advantages. Organizations, for example, aim to blend their short-term sales advantages with their

customers' long-term demands. In order to survive in this competitive atmosphere, it is critical to concentrate on total effectiveness. The efficiency of your organization determines how effectively your firm operates. Before the term "organization" can be defined, the phrase "organizational effectiveness" must first be defined. A definition of the word "organization" may be found in the sentences that follow. Depending on the lens or paradigm one uses to see the world, the concept of organization can take on a wide variety of shapes. Organizations are rational, organic, and open systems, according to Scott and Davis (2007). Organizations are a crucial component of society due to their widespread use. As long as they are involved in everything that is produced, consumed, and traded, organizations permeate every element of human existence. According to Jones (2007), the development of organizations is "a response to and a method of addressing some human needs". Individuals within the company participate in goal-oriented activities by utilizing limited resources to fulfil stated goals, despite the fact that organizational goals and purposes are not always obvious. Organizations are described as linked, defined processes of goal-oriented activities, system structures, and a collection of interactions among organizational members. Scott and Davis (2007) made the argument that while schools teach students how to learn, their ultimate, covert goal is to produce obedient citizens and dependable workers. They used Meyer and Rowan's educational system as an example. Organizational members must be effective in managing resources, meeting demands both internal and external to the organization, and achieving stated goals while seeking to balance competing stakeholder interests. The availability of resources, unpredictability of the environment and markets, and actual or perceived risks are examples of external influences. Internal factors include the leadership styles, knowledge base, and past success of the organization. Organizational members and the connections they uphold are key factors in how well an organization function. Draft's human centric view of organizations emphasizes the significance of an organization's endogenous culture. When it comes to the innumerable interactions and connections among organizational members, organizational culture is a collection of common beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions. According to Jones (2007) and Scott & Davis (2007), organizational culture has an effect on external stakeholders (including vendors and customers).

According to Zammuto (1984), organizational success appears to be the overall level of satisfaction among all stakeholders throughout the effective collection and output of inputs. He also stressed how crucial it is for all parties involved in the acquisition and transformation of a good or service. The fact that the assessments of organizational success were value-based and time-limited is also important to note. Jain and Triandis (1997) claim that "OE is a vector that includes measurable and no quantifiable outputs and reflects the quality and relevance of outputs to broad organizational goals and objectives." According to Jain (1997), "organizational effectiveness" refers to how well a company achieves its declared objectives. According to Thibodeaux and Favilla (1996), organizational effectiveness is the degree to which an organization achieves its goals without exhausting its resources or imposing an unnecessary burden on its employees and/or society through the use of specialized resources.

The extent to which aims and objectives are achieved is how Look and Crawford (2000, p. 111) define organizational effectiveness (OE). This strategy is founded on goal theory and the idea that organizations are conscious, deliberate, and rational beings. The goal-setting hypothesis, for instance, asserts that high OE and performance are caused by employers and employees having a shared set of goals and objectives. The monitoring of inputs, processes, and outputs in relation to the internal and external environment is the primary goal of systems theory, which is the second major OE theory. Shared value theory and stakeholder theory are two other tactics that deal with organizational effectiveness directly. Each method reveals elements that could or might not improve an organization's performance overall.

The term "in a wide sense" was defined by Deokar in 2006. He continued by defining a business organization as an entity involved in the delivery of commodities or services. This requires that the logistic procedures for acquiring, producing, storing, and transporting these 24 goods and services be finished. In these processes, input components like other things and services are consumed or altered. Investing, appropriating, and raising capital are all connected to logistical activities. The domain of organizational effectiveness constructs is concerned with the effectiveness criteria and their interactions. Goodman and Pennings (1980), as mentioned in Walton & Dawson (2001), believe that the relevance of criteria for evaluating success reflects the values or preferences that influence criterion selection and the organizational model

that is applied. Furthermore, according to Van de Ven (1980), value judgements centre on the goals and criteria used in measuring effectiveness, whereas organizational models are mental maps of how organizations work. A basic relationship between labour and pay may be seen in an employee's organizational model, for example.

Cultural objects are layered into organizational culture. Fundamental presumptions are what determine the outcome. The last levels include values, social norms, activity patterns, artefacts, and symbols. According to Schein's definition of organizational culture (First page), organizational culture is "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has proven to be valid and, as a result, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." Organizational effectiveness or performance became a hot topic for executives throughout the 1970s as they sought to account for organizational outputs and processes as well as internal and external alliances. Different people define organizational effectiveness in different ways (Behery, 2008; Gaertner & Ramnarayan, 1983; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002; Scott & Davis, 2007). Over the last four decades, various conceptualizations of organizational performance have emerged and evolved (Federman, 2006). Organizational effectiveness may be approached in two ways. Internal viewpoints emphasize achieving social consensus and promoting work performance, job happiness, and job commitment by (a) optimising organizational structure, (b) strengthening member-to-member communication, and (c) employing human resources as a strategy. On the other hand, the externally oriented system resource approach focuses on how organizational leaders utilize the organizational environment to accomplish goals and objectives. A variant of the latter approach that concentrates on attaining objectives and maximizing a company's ability to get resources is the external resource technique. (Pennings & Goodman, 1977). As stated by some writers, the most productive organizations are those who are CEOs maximize the company's negotiating position while also maximizing its capacity to acquire resource access (Pennings & Goodman, 1977). The current study used a system resource framework-based technique that included adherence to organizational effectiveness constituency models. Many researchers have helped to establish the theory behind such an approach. According to the constituency model, organizations are built up of constituency groups. Bolman and Deal (2008), who regarded an

organization as a collection of individual and interest group coalitions, shared the constituency perspective. The 35 main group conceptions were defined as a plurality of coalitions. According to the dominating group idea, members of each coalition attempt to build alliances with others in order to push their coalition's agenda. The multiple constituency concept is centred on ensuring that coalition members are as happy as possible shared the constituency perspective. The 35 main group conceptions were defined as a plurality of coalitions. According to the dominating group idea, members of each coalition attempt to build alliances with others in order to push their coalition's agenda. The multiple constituency concepts are centred on ensuring that coalition members are as happy as possible.

Organizational effectiveness, as described by the supporters of the dominant group approach, is "an organization's capacity to properly account for its outputs and operations to its various internal and external stakeholders" (Gaertner & Ramnarayan, 1983, p. 97). The authors stated, "Effectiveness in an organization is a condition of interactions within and among these coalitions, not an object, a goal, or a feature of organizational outputs or behaviours. According to Gaertner and Ramnarayan, an effective organization may create accounts of itself and its operations that pertinent members of the dominant coalition and the task environment deem appropriate (p. 102). It was crucial to acquire data on (a) senior leaders' effectiveness in the task context. or (b) how departing senior leaders are regarded or trusted in order to win or keep the support of coalition members, successfully bring together or fulfil various coalition members' expectations. A "lame duck" senior leader is one who is still in office but is about to retire. (Dobson, 2006, p.1) leaders who lack the capacity to change or the support of coalition members. It's possible that members of the group have already started looking for a new head. The methods for achieving organizational goals establish an organized strategy for maximizing the organization's assets or resources. The assets of a firm are both tangible and intangible. The main goals of organizational or management theories are to improve organizational performance, meet stakeholder expectations, and satisfy increasingly complex consumer requests for product and service customization. Organizational leaders must fulfil the increased expectations of their workforce for better pay, better working conditions, greater participation, and empowerment. The needs of employees and performance standards must be balanced by organizational leaders.

2.2. Organizational Effectiveness Indicators

According to a review of the organizational effectiveness (OE) literature, certain research prominently emphasizes the effectiveness's criteria and characteristics. The most often used univariate indicators are (a) overall performance (as assessed by employee or supervisory evaluations); (b) productivity (actual production data); (c) employee happiness (self-report surveys); (d) profit (accounting data); and (e) withdrawal turnover or absence statistics. (Luthans et al. 1988).

Numerous studies have been conducted by academics. One of them is Riemann's investigation. He chose to depend on the views of the organization's senior executives to judge its relative efficacy. Executives were asked to judge the performance of their organization based on eight distinct factors in his study. The first two were determined by monetary criteria like average sales and profit growth over the previous five years. The six non-financial indicators were as follows: (a) the firm's capacity to recruit and retain high-level personnel; (b) employee satisfaction and morale; (c) product quality; (d) customer service; (e) future growth potential (sales and/or profits); and (f) the overall performance rating anticipated by rivals.

Finally, social indicators like turnover rate, absenteeism, satisfaction levels, the degree of conflict between organizational units, and employee involvement are used to measure an organization's social and organizational performance. Organizational indicators include an organization's ability to adapt to changing environments and its ability to control quality and stability. According to a review of the literature, organizational effectiveness, which is described as a framework or model of conflicting values (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981), has served as the analytical framework for more than 40 research investigations. In truth, the model's assertion that it is a "universal paradigm" is supported in part by the widespread usage of the model in organizational and management research. Nine effectiveness criteria or aspects make up the competing values framework: productivity efficiency, quality, cohesiveness, adaptability-readiness, information management, communication, growth, planning-goal setting, human resource development, and stability control. All of which are "prima facie" relevant to organizations.

Another illustration is from Thibodeaux & Favilla (1996). They developed ideas like as (a) planning and goal-setting, (b) flexibility and adaptability, (c)

information management and communication, (d) productivity, quality, and (e) urgency to increase organizational effectiveness. Considerations should be made for conflict, morale, the value of human resources, and customer service. The dimensions or criteria used to assess efficacy were divided into three categories by Harrison (1994). The three categories are: output-goals (goal attainment, quantity of outputs, and quality of outputs); internal systems state (production/service costs; human outcomes; consensus/conflict; work and information flow; interpersonal relations and culture; participation; and fit); and adaptation and resource position (resource quantity, resource quality, legitimacy; competitive-strategic position; impact on the environment; and adaptability, innovativeness, and fit).

2.3. Effectiveness Definition

Effectiveness, in general, relates to how successfully stated objectives are met whether or not a policy achieves its goals. The objective can be as broad or as specific as needed, ranging from very specific outputs (such as "raising the number of solar heating panels placed in new houses") to extremely broad results (such as "enhancing the environment" or even "improving community living standards or welfare").

In the Report on Government Services, Figure 1 displays the Commission's methodology for measuring the performance of government services. Based on the notion of effectiveness, ROGS offers performance indicators at two levels: For cost effectiveness performance indicators, the Provides "technical efficiency" (which is identical to the productive efficiency mentioned above). Performance indicators for program efficacy are based on agreed-upon access, appropriateness, and quality parameters, and they estimate the unit costs of achieving well-defined objectives. These indicators are used to illustrate how well the government's expenditure targets are being reached. Using this paradigm, a service that provides higher-quality services or better access to clients would be judged to be more effective in achieving its aim. The efficacy of different service options might then be ranked.

It is noted on previous attempts by researchers to define the concept of organizational effectiveness that it was based on multiple approaches and approaches dictated by their view of the subject, which in turn led to more difference and ambiguity about the definition of this concept. While some viewed it through the

objectives entrance, others viewed it through the systems/resources entrance, while a third group viewed it through the audience of beneficiaries' entrance, and others viewed it through the internal organizational processes entrance, and so on other definitions. Accordingly, organizational effectiveness can be described as a conceptual complex of different meanings and multidimensionality. Therefore, relying on a single entrance in defining the concept of organizational effectiveness is tainted by many risks and problems, which makes the attempt to treat it from one dimension a systematic and logical fallacy .

2.4. Measurement of Organizational Effectiveness

Organizational Effectiveness Evaluation: We have suggested in this work that research on organizational effectiveness has to be reoriented by developing a research strategy based on the engineering of effectiveness. We envision field research or administrative experimentation as part of an empirical approach. It would be empirically based and carried out in collaboration with practitioners. Unlike traditional case studies, the research findings would link components of organizational design to effectiveness outcomes. The varied means and purposes, as well as the numerous management philosophies and accompanying organizational structures that exist, have made measuring organizational effectiveness an extremely difficult subject. It's difficult to establish a joint preference function or the weights in a multi-attribute effectiveness measure because of the difficulties in doing so (Cyert and March 1963). Furthermore, unlike the qualities of closed physical systems, the current state of knowledge about organizations prevents the calculation of a theoretical performance metric for an organization. In practice, as Steers (1976) points out, evaluating the effectiveness of an organization is a continuous effort. It may involve the entire organization or specific units, functions, or activities (Zammuto 1984).

Thus, a management consultant or financial analyst will compare an organization's effectiveness to that of other, similar organizations in terms of aggregate measures like profits, sales, rate of return on investment, and so on, or in terms of specific functions like strategic planning, marketing, research and development, and so on, or in terms of organizational characteristics like leadership or culture. Effectiveness is determined in relative terms, regardless of the criterion or unit of analysis, and

typically necessitates some subjective way of integrating numerous metrics or a decision to use a single aggregate measure. In general, businesses will rely on historical information or reference groups in goal planning and performance evaluation when the choice of performance criteria is subjective or when causal linkages cannot be stated. As a result, an organization's management finds and employs relative performance measures. These metrics can be used to compare an organization's performance over time or to compare the organization's performance to that of appropriate referent groups (Pennings and Goodman 1977). However, it will be extremely difficult to accumulate findings that will relate aspects of organization design to effectiveness outcomes and thus to the construction of contingent normative theories of effectiveness as long as the choice of measures and their aggregation remain unique to an organization or a strategic constituency, a management consultant, a financial analyst, or an organization theorist. Multiple performance metrics, ratio analyses, and a variety of least-square estimation methods have been used in traditional approaches to performance evaluation. For comparing effectiveness, several performance measurements or the usage of numerous ratios are not particularly useful. This is due to the fact that certain firms perform better than the average on some measures while performing worse on others (for a specific illustration, see Lewin, Morey, and Cook 1982). Furthermore, ratio studies are unable to capture the impact of elements that affect the organization's performance but are outside management's control (e.g., demographic characteristics such as the rate of unemployment). While least square estimation approaches are useful for finding central patterns (i.e., average behaviour), they are less efficient for identifying and analysing outliers—the most effective organizations in comparison to the least effective. Organizational studies frequently employ the comparison of effective and ineffective organizations as a research technique (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967). However, determining successful and ineffective performance, particularly when numerous measurements are involved, has necessitated the use of arbitrary and subjective weights in order to arrive at an aggregate measure of effectiveness. Furthermore, correlational studies, multivariate regressions, analyses of variance, and other least-square estimation approaches are unable to prescribe the changes that must be made in order for the organization to become more effective. Given the limits of present methodologies, a theory-based

mathematic for evaluating an organization's relative performance (through time or in relation to other referent organizations) would be desirable:

1. It is capable of analyzing organizations' relative effectiveness in terms of resource utilization and environmental factors in producing desired outcomes.
2. It is capable of producing a single summary measure of an organization's relative effectiveness in terms of resource utilization and environmental factors in producing desired outcomes.
3. It is capable of handling noncommensurate, conflicting multiple outcome measures, multiple resource factors, and multiple environmental factors simultaneously.
4. Capable of dealing with qualitative elements such as participant satisfaction, the amount of data processing available, the degree of competition, and so on;
5. It can provide insights into the factors influencing relative effectiveness evaluations; and
6. is capable of maintaining fairness in Evaluation process

It may be possible to link performance outcomes to specific strategic decisions, the occurrence of specific reorganizations, or the introduction of important organizational policies as part of a longitudinal case study using repeated measures of performance, resources used, descriptions of the environment, and attributes of the actual organizations. Specific elements that influence the relative effectiveness rating, it may be easy to determine whether management makes a difference. If management doesn't make a difference, it's time to look for someone who will. On the other hand, the elements that contribute to organizational effectiveness and is external to the organization and uncontrollable by management.

2.5. Methods for measuring organizational effectiveness:

Measuring organizational effectiveness means the critical study of the institution's activity in its entirety in all its aspects and fields of activity. It aims to

discover weaknesses in the institution in order to strengthen them and overcome the causes of weakness in a timely manner. It is not easy to measure organizational effectiveness due to the multiplicity of criteria and criteria in light of which the measurement process is carried out. Today, there is almost a consensus that organizational effectiveness requires multiple criteria (Robbins, 1990: 51). For example, if we want to measure the organizational effectiveness of a university, is this in light of the number of students the university accommodates? Or the success rate among them? Or the recurring distribution of grades success, the production of college members, work satisfaction, the university's reputation, or the extent to which it meets the needs of society in its field of activity? All of which are indicators and criteria that cannot be certain that one of them is sufficient to judge the organization and its organizational effectiveness. There is a close relationship between the definition of effectiveness and the method of measuring it, as the accurate measurement of any phenomenon depends on its clarity first, and the availability of the appropriate measure second.

It should be noted here that effectiveness is not a one-dimensional concept, but rather a multi-dimensional concept. It has been possible to use the same or similar dimensions in various studies conducted in different cultural environments (such as Cameron's Nine Dimensions (Cameron, 1978) for the effectiveness of higher education institutions that have proven successful in different cultural environments). Cultural, in the sense that the criteria that can be used to measure the effectiveness of the institution in a particular cultural environment may not be suitable for measuring the effectiveness of a similar institution in another different cultural environment, and accordingly some examples (Cameron, 1978) that the selection of criteria should be commensurate with the cultural environment in which the institution is located and that it should be derived from the institution itself in proportion to its distinctive characteristics and organizational level in its environment. On the basis of which effectiveness is measured, standards should be descriptive criteria that measure what is and actually exists, not normative criteria that measure what it should be.

2.6. Effectiveness versus Efficiency

The distinction between the terms effectiveness and efficiency is very important so that we can explain why some institutions are effective but without high

efficiency, or highly efficient but without effectiveness. Efficiency and effectiveness are two different meanings. From an administrative point of view, efficiency means doing things correctly. This concept refers to the relationship between inputs and outputs, and it is achieved either by increasing outputs through the same amount of inputs, or producing the same amount of outputs through the size of inputs, therefore, effectiveness means doing the right thing.

Although the meaning of efficiency and effectiveness differs, they are not contradictory ideas, as increasing efficiency does not lead to a decrease in effectiveness, and a decrease in efficiency does not lead to an increase in effectiveness. In fact, there is no direct relationship between these two concepts, as they are two unrelated concepts, as each of them is mainly concerned with something different from the thing that is concerned with the other. Although many effective institutions have high efficiency, this is not necessarily true in all cases. Institutions may be effective, but their efficiency is low. In contrast, some institutions may enjoy a high degree of efficiency in the use of resources without being effective an example of this is when a university graduates' students at unsatisfactory levels despite reducing the cost of one student to study. On the other hand, it is possible for the institution to be effective and not efficient, as if the university graduates the planned number of students, but at very high costs without economizing the use of resources. Considering efficiency focuses on costs, it asks: How do we do this and that in a better way? While effectiveness focuses on goals and results, it asks: Which products really deliver great results or can they deliver? And then you ask: Where should resources and effort is directed to deliver great results instead of (ordinary) results that can be produced with full efficiency. This does not diminish efficiency, as the most effective business can die as a result of inefficiency, even the most efficient self-employment it cannot survive let alone success if its efficiency revolves around the wrong work, that is, if it lacks effectiveness. Effectiveness is the basis of success - and efficiency is the smallest condition for survival after reaching success. Also, efficiency is concerned with doing things in the right way (the largest outputs versus the least costs) whereas effectiveness is concerned with doing the right things (Drucker, 1996).

In any case, efficiency and effectiveness remain two indicators of one phenomenon, which is the success of the institution, and the difference between them represents the time period specified for each of them

2.7. Organizational Effectiveness Models and Dimensions

2.7.1. The Goal Approach

The first approach to organizational effectiveness is the goal approach. It focuses on the organization's outputs, such as profit, innovation, and product quality, among others. The goal method is based on a few essential assumptions. The first hypothesis is that businesses should have specified goals and workers should be involved in the decision-making process in order to attain those goals. The other is that the organization needs certain resources in order to attain its objectives (Robbins, 2009).

2.7.2. The System Resource Approach

The second approach to organizational effectiveness is the system resource approach, which focuses on an organization's inputs. The method shows how companies may become more productive by obtaining the resources they require from their surroundings. 2004 (Schermerhorn and colleagues). This strategy assumes that the company is a member of a broader group; the strategy promotes the premise that every aspect of an organization's actions has an impact on all other aspects.

2.7.3. The Process Approach

The process approach to organizational effectiveness is the third method and focuses on the transformation process of companies. The method elucidates the processes that businesses use to create commodities or offer services (Schermerhorn et al., 2004). It assumes that all members are completely integrated into the system, and that companies may attain high levels of performance by effectively employing these procedures. The members' connection is built on trust, honesty, and friendliness. There should be no tension or strain in a productive corporation.

2.7.4. The Stakeholder Approach (The Strategic Constituency Approach)

The last approach to organizational effectiveness is the stakeholder approach. This paradigm, according to Schermerhorn and colleagues (2004), focuses on the major effect of organizations by adding stakeholders and their interests. Effectiveness, as stated by this paradigm, is defined as the minimal satisfaction of all of the organization's key constituents. Every person who has a link to the organization is a strategic constituency (Cameron, 1981). This method assesses environmental concerns while also considering the organization's social responsibility. In this method, social responsibility is also taken into account.

All of the most frequent models for measuring organizational performance are discussed above, but the goal approach (Rojas, 2000) is the most popular and widely used model. The method discusses organizational effectiveness in terms of achieving organizational goals and clearly specifies organizational goals. A combination of people and material resources can be used to attain the objectives. As a result, the model implies that establishing metrics of how effectively the organization is fulfilling its goals in terms of the intended level of outputs is a good method to assess organizational performance. It is founded on the concept that companies are expected to meet certain objectives. Because goal outputs can be easily quantified, the goal model is used in organizations (Daft, 2003). From various angles, the preceding techniques demonstrate the relevance of organizational performance. However, organizational effectiveness emphasises how successfully organizations compete, how fast they bring goods to market, their reputation in the community, their appeal to potential workers, and their profitability. In other words, organizational effectiveness measures how effectively a corporation does business. The research consequently examined elements related to leadership, people systems and processes, values and culture, employee engagement, and customer experience.

2.8. Dimensions of Organizational effectiveness in Higher education

The below table shows the main dimensions and their academic definitions in institutions of higher education (Kim S. and Cameron, 1981)

Table 6: Dimensions of organizational effectiveness in higher education

N	Dimension	Definition
1	Student educational satisfaction	the level of student satisfaction with the institution's educational opportunities
2	Student academic development	The level of academic achievement, development, and advancement of the institution's students
3	Student career development	The level of students' occupational growth, the institution's emphasis on career development, and the options it offers for career development.
4	Student personal development	Student development in nonacademic, non-career-oriented aspects, such as socially, emotionally, and culturally, as well as the focus on personal development and opportunities offered by the school.
5	College and administrator employment satisfaction	Satisfaction with their positions and employment at the school among teachers and administrators.
6	Professional development and quality of the faculty	The faculty's level of professional growth and accomplishment as well as the institution's level of support for such development.
7	System openness and community interaction	The focus on interacting with, adjusting to, and providing service in the outside world.
8	Ability to acquire resources	The capacity of the school to obtain resources from the outside environment, such as quality teachers and students, funding, etc.
9	Organizational health	The kindness, vibrancy, and viability of the institution's internal procedures and practices

2.9. Importance of Organizational Effectiveness

Modern societies, with their various types, and their political, economic, and social systems, need organizations for a main and important reason, which is that these organizations enable us to achieve goals that we are unable to achieve as individuals who are not united by the framework of one organization. Organizations arise and grow to perform a specific mission and perform a specific function on behalf of the society, which gives them in return all the material and moral support they need to preserve their life and help them grow and develop. In practical life, we find developed and backward countries, successful students of science and others, successful organizations that continue and grow, and failed organizations that suffer from a kind of stagnation and may decline and end in annihilation. The question that imposes itself here is what are the reasons that led to and lead to such cases. The quick answer to the questions that may arise in this regard is that developed countries and successful organizations are more productive and effective than their backward or failed counterparts - this is while other factors remain constant. Institutions generally live-in modern society in light of rapid changes and challenges that they must face, which

forces them to adopt the philosophy of the concept of organizational effectiveness as one of the important concepts that organizations can employ to address their problems and improve their services and outputs to ensure their continued survival and growth. It is more profound and more dangerous, due to the nature of the special relations between society on the one hand and university institutions on the other hand, which are the effective tool in the hands of human societies for development and development, and through which they can ensure the survival, permanence and continuity of these societies. On the other hand, the university - and educational institutions in general - cannot survive without the support and backing of the society it is established to serve. It includes support and consolidation in the material and human resources that are provided and made available by the community for the university to use in carrying out its mission, so that if these resources are cut off, the life of the university will stop completely. The building and the challenge are to make a complete change in the level of effectiveness of its institutions, because in the end it is the criterion or indicator of success or failure. The organizational effectiveness of educational institutions in general, and especially universities among them, is of great importance, especially for the reason that this is mainly related to the institution's ability to withstand and deal with the great developments that occur in our world today, and we live in the third millennium and in the light of the globalization system whose features have begun to be determined from now on. That the future is for the strongest - the most organized - the most competitive - the most capable of keeping pace with scientific and technological developments and the most capable of take advantage of everything that is going on around us. Hence, increasing efficiency must be the challenge of institutions in general, which requires all managers in institutions to do their best to achieve increasing levels of increase.

2.10. The importance of measuring the organizational effectiveness of universities:

1. Measuring Organizational effectiveness is useful in diagnosing and solving problems, by revealing the strengths, weaknesses and imbalances in the university institution, and then working on developing and strengthening the

strengths on the one hand and working to treat the weaknesses and imbalances on the other hand.

2. Providing the university administration with the information necessary to take important administrative decisions, whether for development or when fundamental changes occur. Thus, measuring the effectiveness of the university means providing one of the most important conditions for the development of the university.
3. Measurement of effectiveness is one of the most important sources of data and information and is necessary for making administrative decisions and drawing public policies, whether at the level of a single university or at the level of university education as a whole or at the state level.



3. CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Cameron Study

Cameron, (1978) aimed to reach acceptable indicators, through which it can be inferred on the effectiveness of higher education institutions. Where the researcher focused on the organizational characteristics of these institutions in order to reflect the extent to which the objectives are achieved, and the effectiveness of the inputs, processes and outputs of the institutional system.in an indirect way.

A scale was developed to measure organizational effectiveness, and it included nine dimensions:-

1. Student educational satisfaction refers to the degree of students' satisfaction with their educational experience at the university.
2. Student's academic growth refers to the extent of students' acquisition, growth, and academic progress in university.
3. Professional growth of the student refers to the extent of professional growth that the student acquires during his university studies, In addition to the extent to which the university emphasizes this growth through the opportunities it provides for this purpose.
4. Student personal growth refers to the student's growth in non-academic and non-professional fields, such as: Social, emotional, or cultural development. It also indicates the extent to which the university provides opportunities to promote this growth.
5. Satisfaction of college members and administrators with their work refers to the degree of college members' satisfaction with their work teachers and administrators about their jobs and work in the university.
6. The professional growth of the college and their quality refers to the extent of professional growth achieved by the members of the college teaching, in addition to their motivation towards the opportunities for professional growth offered by the university.

7. The openness of the system and its interaction with the community indicates the extent to which the university emphasizes interaction and adaptation and the service it provides to its external environment (the local community).
8. The ability to attract resources refers to the university's ability to attract its resources and its sources from its external environment, such as: students, good teaching staff, financial support, etc.
9. Organizational health refers to the extent to which the university focuses on the public good, vitality, and ability to success in the internal processes and practices of the university.

Among the most important results of this study there are statistically significant differences between the performance averages of universities due to the university variable, in contrast to the job variable, which has no effect. The results also showed that the level of effectiveness the organizational structure of a single institution varies according to the dimensions of the scale used.

This The Cameron Study (Cameron, 1982) aimed to reveal the effectiveness of universities with different respondents. Where the researcher applied the organizational effectiveness model that he had developed in a previous study in 1987 on 92 College and University in the United States. The results of this study indicated that each of these universities has a different performance to distinguish it from other universities, and it was also found that there are no significant differences statistically. It was also found that the effective universities were preferred over other universities by the respondents according to their different jobs, and that the ineffective universities were not preferred by any of the types of job categories, over the job titles.

3.2. Perry Study

Perry, (1986) aimed at evaluating the organizational effectiveness of the University of Guyana through what it contributes to the social, economic and cultural development that the community aims to achieve. Where the researcher analysed the functions of the university related to teaching, scientific research and community service, in addition to the control of the University and its management. The study concluded that the organizational effectiveness of this university was low. This is

because it does not perform its national development functions in a satisfactory manner.

3.3. Cameron Study 1986

Cameron, (1986) aimed to identify the main factors that are related to the high level of organizational effectiveness of colleges and universities in the north-eastern United States, using a scale Regulatory effectiveness which he developed in 1987. The results of this study indicated that some management strategies are related to improving the level of organizational effectiveness over time, and these strategies were geared towards academic aspects, Revenue collection, public relations, student affairs, and the external environment. As was the external environment, the age and type of the university affected the different level of organizational effectiveness of the institutions under study.

3.4. Lyons study

Lysons, (1990) aimed to explore the different relationships that affect organizational effectiveness in Australian Higher Education, and it examines the dimensions of Cameron which are: student satisfaction, student growth, academic, student, personal student, student, student, student, student Society, and the ability to attract resources or resources, organizational health. As it is exploring the manifestations and aspects of the organizational climate that represents the important dimensions of organizational effectiveness this study performs a joint analysis of the Cameron scale and James & Jones to define the overarching set of organizational effectiveness dimensions. The study sample consisted of two categories: the first was an institutional sample that included all institutions. The second is a human sample and it included in Australia.(Universities, colleges and institutes) higher education Academics with a professor's degree or its equivalent, academic directors (deans of faculties and heads of departments), In addition to the general managers (student affairs, registration, library, etc.) The results clearly showed the mono-classification that was assumed in the previous studies related to the regulatory environment. In conclusion, the implications of these results were discussed regarding the amendments

Modern constructivism in the higher education system, including an indication of future directions for research on organizational effectiveness.

3.5. Cameron and Tschirhart study

Cameron and Tschirhart, (1992) aimed to reveal the impact of some post-industrial environmental factors on the organizational effectiveness of colleges and universities, and the impact of administrative strategies and decision-making processes in reducing negative effects and improving the level of organizational effectiveness of these institutions. In other words, the study aimed to reveal the relationships that exist between the characteristics of the environment after the industrial revolution, and between them administrative strategies and decision-making processes, and between the organizational effectiveness of colleges and universities. The study was tested number of colleges and universities that the study for 4 years in the United States of America depending on both private and public system, and the registration capacity system. While the ample individuals where from Deans, Managers, Head of departments, and those who were selected randomly, questionnaire were used for measuring dimensions, and it contain scales for measuring organizational effectiveness, management strategies, decision operations, environment characteristics, and it has been distributed into 12 to 20 individuals from selected sample in each university and colleges. Organizational effectiveness was measured through the nine "Cameron" dimensions, which fall into three categories, three dimensions measure the scientific and academic performance of students and faculty, and three dimensions measure Satisfaction and morale of students, college and administrators, as well as process safety internal, and three dimensions that measure the organization's ability to adapt and respond to external factors. As for the decision processes, they were measured through three distinct decision processes: the decision process participatory, bureaucratic/political decision process, and codified decision process. As for the management strategies, they were evaluated through three strategies: Domain Defence, Domain Attack Strategies, and Innovation Strategies/Pre A emption. As for the environmental factors, they were evaluated through dimensions that represent the characteristics of the environment after the revolution. Industry such as: competitiveness, unpredictability, resource scarcity, regression, and turbulence in

revenue institution and student records. The results indicated that the characteristics of the environment and atmosphere after the industrial revolution as she indicated it have a negative relationship to the effectiveness of colleges and universities. Resources, increased competition, and disruption) the results showed that the process of participation in decision-making and strategies for mitigating local nuisance university, and political decision processes have the greatest impact on mitigating negative environmental impacts and mitigating its sharpness.

3.6. Hatherly and Lysons study

Hatherly, & Lysons, (1992) aimed to describe the dimensions of regulatory effectiveness test in Cameron. In higher education in the UK in an attempt to lay the foundation for an organizational effectiveness perspective from Define policy decisions, organizational analysis, management, and further research. In general, the results indicate that the dimensions that Cameron developed in the United States (which are: student educational satisfaction, student academic growth, vocational student growth, staff satisfaction with work, professional growth and quality of faculty, openness of the organization and its interaction with society, ability to attract resources or resources, personal health. The explanation seems to be related to cultural differences, as the United States and the United Kingdom. The United States has the resources and the reputation that are more closely tied to established traditions than the United States and Australia. The results of a more detailed analysis recommend the importance of conducting further studies to reveal the Each of the interpretation related to cultural specificity, and a full description of the regulatory issues to facilitate the policy future and management decisions

3.7. Wilder study

Wilder, (1993) aimed to describe the work and institutions continuous communication between universities and labour institutions, given that each of the higher education benefits from the development of those relations and the close links between them. The study included personal interviews with representatives from three public universities in The State of Oregon. Representatives of three commercial

establishments are also located in Arjun. The nomination or appointment method has been used to determine the most suitable individuals within the university to be interviewed. Effectiveness was analysed according to the university, the role of people, and affiliation with the university or work. One of the most important indicators of effectiveness approved by the respondents was the communication and expansion of the relationship, and the positive evaluations of the educational courses. There are other indicators of great importance that included referrals from other companies to the university, worker productivity, the worker's registrations in educational courses, in addition to the university's income from worker education fee. These indicators also reflect program vitality, growth, worker satisfaction, and productivity.

3.8. Zheng, & Altschuld, study

Zheng, & Altschuld, (1995) aimed to identify the main issues related to evaluating the effectiveness of research institutions and testing the most appropriate inputs and directions for that evaluation. The study showed that evaluating the effectiveness of educational research institutions as well as research institutions human sciences in general is negatively affected by the lack of specific measurable goals in that field. The study discussed four approaches Institutions and the failure to define standards for measurable outputs. Organizational effectiveness as follows:

1. The approach to achieving goals: focuses on efficiency and measuring outputs, and therefore it refers to a part of limited effectiveness.
2. Beneficiaries' input: It is more suitable for educational research institutions because it focuses on external metrics and social standards that reflect the extent to which the institution achieves the needs of its beneficiaries.
3. Systems entry: It is considered useful in evaluating organizational efficiency because it shows the internal processes in improving organizational efficiency of the institution.
4. The entrance to conflicting values: it is an attempt to find integration between the main trends or entrances to evaluate is the most appropriate organizational effectiveness

Accordingly, the study concluded that this approach (conflict values input) to study the organizational effectiveness of research institutions, inasmuch as it combines internal factors and external to the institution.

3.9. Anantharaman & Chacko Study

Anantharaman, & Chacko, (1996) aimed to clarify the concept of organizational effectiveness and build a tool to measure it. In order to achieve this Objective, the researcher used a method that combines stability and heuristics to determine the appropriate dimensions of effectiveness. The study sample consisted of 841 managers representing 94 industrial establishments. The researchers did Building a questionnaire for organizational effectiveness that consisted of 74 phrases distributed over eight dimensions that were reached through previous studies, and the literature related to organizational effectiveness, in addition to a question. 25 managers representing 03 industrial establishments to determine the dimensions of organizational effectiveness from their point of view. The researchers used factor analysis of questionnaire terms to determine the dimensions of organizational effectiveness. It was found from the results of the factor analysis that the expressions were saturated on 12 dimensions of organizational effectiveness, which are: administrative effectiveness, organizational growth, organizational adaptation, workers' morale and satisfaction with work, organizational structure, financiers, environmental pollution, downward communication, work climate, employee participation, number of competitors. The results showed that effectiveness is a multidimensional complex concept, and it was found that the dimensions of organizational growth and adaptability are among the most important dimensions of organizational effectiveness. The study also showed the importance of work climate in determining the overall organizational effectiveness of the institution.

3.10. Pounder study

Pounder, (1999) aimed to test the organizational effectiveness of higher education institutions in Hong Kong, by means of a scale built for this purpose, called the "Self-Rating Organizational Effectiveness Scale" (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1981,

1983). Thus, it is the first study to test the suitability of the conflicting values model for organizational effectiveness in Higher education institutions. It became clear from the analysis of the conflicting values model that was relied on in constructing the scale that it implicitly includes four models of organizational effectiveness, which are:

1. The rational goal model, which focuses on control and externalization, encourages planning and goal setting (as means of effectiveness), and focuses on productivity and efficiency (as ends of effectiveness).
2. The internal operations model, which emphasizes internal control and direction, is concerned with information and communication management (as means of effectiveness), and seeks stability and control (as ends of effectiveness).
3. And the human relations model, which focuses on flexibility and internal orientation, and is concerned with group cohesion and morale (as means of effectiveness), and focuses on the development of human resources (as targets for effectiveness).
4. Finally, the open system model, which depends on flexibility and external orientation and focuses on adaptation and readiness (as means of effectiveness), and seeks growth and access to resources (as ends of effectiveness).

To build a self-rated effectiveness scale, the nine universities in Hong Kong were invited to participate in the study. The scale, in its initial form, consisted of nine dimensions that were extracted from the conflicting values model of organizational effectiveness developed by "Queen and Rohrbach", which are (productivity/efficiency, quality, cohesion, adaptation/readiness, information management/communication, growth, planning/goal setting Human resource development, stability/control). Seven universities agreed to participate, and 700 academics and administrators were selected from these universities to participate in the development of the scale. This study resulted in the construction of a self-assessment scale that has validity and stability in four dimensions (information management/communication, planning/goal setting, productivity/efficiency, and coherence). The results also indicated that higher education institutions can share in a set of dimensions of organizational effectiveness, regardless of their level of maturity. It thus refutes the hypothesis of Cameron and Quinn (1983), which considered that the dimensions of organizational effectiveness of an institution are related to the life cycle of that institution. The researcher

recommended conducting studies in other countries to ensure the validity of this result, and the appropriateness of the scale for institutions of higher education in general.

3.11. Lee study

Lee, (1999) aimed to test job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness (cohesion and unity of action) among sports leaders in selected colleges and universities in the Republic of Korea. The sample members for this study were randomly selected from the 1997 Korean Universities and Colleges Staff Directory. College) in sports programs in universities and colleges. The random selection of 200 individuals was made to provide us with diversity in individuals who had diverse population backgrounds. After the first and second follow-up messages with the survey questionnaire, a total of 114 questionnaires were returned, with a participation rate of 57%. The following results were obtained from the statistical analysis based on the research questions in this study

1. According to the descriptive data, the average ratings for work unit satisfaction, organizational coherence, and job satisfaction were, respectively, 45.3, 41.1, and 26.8 (the highest score out of 50).
2. At the level of significance (0.05), there are statistically significant variations in the work satisfaction estimates between the sports coach and the team's administrative manager, a university professor, and between the coach and the sports director. At the significance level (0.05), variations in organizational cohesiveness between coaches and sports directors of athletic teams are also statistically significant.
3. The level of job satisfaction rating among employees who earn less than \$1000 per month was less statistically significant than the employees who earn more than \$1500 per month. It also found that employees earning more than \$2,500 per month showed a higher level of satisfaction than those earning \$1,000 to \$1,499 per month, \$1,500 to \$199 per month, or even \$2000 to \$2,499 per month.
4. There are no statistically significant differences in estimating both job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness between sports teams in colleges and universities in the Republic of Korea.

3.12. Flamer study

Flamer, (2000) The study aimed to give a definition of organizational effectiveness from the point of view of administrators in higher education institutions, and to understand how the meaning of work for them corresponds to the definition of organizational effectiveness for each of them. The elements of the conceptual framework included organizational existential theories, effective for each of them. The elements of the conceptual framework included organizational existential theories, the effectiveness of the research questions in this study to reveal the meaning of the lived experiences of (13) of the higher educational administrations. The research method in this study was based on the phenomenological approach and interviews were conducted with heads, heads of academic departments, vice presidents for finance and budget, and deputies This study was undertaken in the hope that the results would do more than add to what was written on the subject of organizational effectiveness in higher education, as it was hoped that this study would move the debate on the issue of the effectiveness of the organization to a global question: Is it possible to judge Should the organization, by its good ability to find a place where it encourages its members to find meaning in their lives? Six conclusions were drawn from these data. Among them, most respondents defined organizational effectiveness as the concept of tasks or goal achievement, the validity of internal business, and the fulfilment of the changing requirements of external beneficiaries. Leaders in this study split roughly in half as to whether there is a strong correlation between their definitions of organizational effectiveness and organizational health. Moreover, leaders have differed on the question of how their personal effectiveness is related to the effectiveness of their organizations. A strong link between personal effectiveness and organizational effectiveness has not been seen as necessarily in the interests of leaders or their organizations.

3.13. Harrison study

Harrison, (2000) aimed to compare two types of educational leadership: change leadership (which is able to meet the needs of different groups of stakeholders in the institution, and enables others to assume responsibility, and achieve results without being autocratic) and procedural leadership (which focuses on the efficiency of

the work of the system (the institution). And then determining the relationship between change leadership factors and procedural leadership, and the impact of each on the effectiveness and performance of community colleges. American community colleges participated in the study, and they followed the quantitative and qualitative method in this study. Information on the behaviour of leaders was collected from college presidents using the multi-factor leadership scale. Information on the effectiveness of the college was collected using the Institutions Performance Survey. From leadership data and effectiveness data on the perception of college members in assigned colleges, the relationship between presidential leadership and college effectiveness has been analysed using the multiple regression method. In this study, interviews were conducted with a number of college presidents to achieve a better understanding of the social complexities related to community college leadership. The results showed that change leadership is a better indicator of organizational effectiveness than procedural leadership for this sample. As stated by the interviews, change leaders rely more on strong personal relationships, open communication, and trust to establish visibility than their procedural counterparts. Also, the leadership behaviour of the president allows predicting part of the college's overall performance. Other factors that contribute to college performance include college culture and the circumstances in which leaders assume their presidential duties.

4. CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

4.1. Respondent Demographic Information

4.1.1. Gender Composition

All participants were asked to determine their gender during their answers. According to the table (8), out of 1500 participants 55.9% (n=839) were male and 44.1% (n=661) were female. This implies that the majority of respondents were male.

Table 7: Descriptive statistic for gender

GENDER		
Statistical test	Frequency	Present
Male	839	55.9
Female	661	44.1
Total	1500	100.0

4.1.2. Colleges

As we can see from the table (9), during this research, it has covered around 13 different colleges. The majority of participants were from college of political science which were around 27.5 followed by college of languages, and colleges of humanities which were around 17.2% and 13.6% of respondents, while a smaller number of participants were from colleges of art, dentist, and nursing, by 10%, 10%, and 15% respectively. As a result, 13 colleges were participated in research sample.

Table 8: Descriptive statistic for participated colleges

N	COLLEGE		
		Frequency	Percent
1	College of admin & economic	112	7.5
2	College of Art	10	.7
3	College of Dentist	10	.7
4	College of Education	140	9.3
5	College of Engineering	143	9.5
6	College of Humanities	205	13.6
7	College of Languages	258	17.2
8	College of Medic	75	5.0
9	College of Nursing	13	.9
10	College of planning	15	1.0
11	College of Political science	413	27.5
12	College of Sports	25	1.7
13	College of Veterinary	81	5.4
	Total	1500	100.0

4.1.3. Participant Type

Regarding research sample respondent types, a total of 1500 respondents were collected from research population zone, research sample contains of three main respondent types (university academic staff, university administrative staff, and students) as shown in Table (10) shows that 39.3% of respondents were from academic staff which were 589 participant and 24% of administrative staff which were around 359 followed by 37% of students which were 552 students.

Table 9: Descriptive statistic for Participant type

PARTICIPANT TYPE		
type	Frequency	Percent
Academic Staff	589	39.3
Administrative Staff	359	23.9
Students	552	36.8
Total	1500	100.0

4.1.4. Seniority

Results shows in the table (11) that 33.1% of respondents had worked in their current employment for more than 10 years, 18% of the respondents indicated that they had worked in their current position from 5 to 10 years. However, only 11.7 of respondents reveal that they have worked for their organizations for less than 5 years. These findings agree with those of Jimmy. Mwithi, (2016) who in his study found out that 41% of respondents had worked for more than 5 years, and 30% of respondents pointed out that they had worked in their current position for 3 to 5 years, while 24% indicated that they have worked in their current employments for less than 3 years. This implies that the majority of employees who works in university have been working in their current positions for a period of time without changing their positions. This point illustrates that working with public sector has more job stability comparing with working with private sectors. It must be mentioned that the rest of respondent's rate which is 36% were students which has no seniority rate.

Table 10: Descriptive statistic for seniority

SENIORITY		
Years of experience	Frequency	Percent
less than 5 Years	176	11.7
From 5 to 10 Years	275	18.3
More than 10 Years	497	33.1
Total	948	63.2
students	552	36.8
Total	1500	100.0

4.2. Descriptive Statistics for research variables

4.2.1. Descriptive statistics for leadership competencies.

4.2.1.1. Descriptive statistics for Leadership competencies Sub variable (Goal framing)

The table (12) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for Goal framing the first dimension of Independent Variable

Leadership competencies. However, the total agreement percentage on this Dimension reached (61.36%) versus the percentage of total Disagreement (13.36%) with Mean (3.36) and Standard deviation (0.94), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of this Dimension which means the University management try to develop and make new strategies to build new future goals.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for Goal framing was the statement (X2) which states that “University Management tries to develop attainable goals “with an agreement percentage of (67.3), mean (3.76) and Standard deviation (0.882) which means that Researched University management are capable to build and make goals that are real and capable to be achieved in the future. On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage for Goal framing was the statement (X5) which states that “University Management uses every possible means to explain the change goals “with an agreement percentage of (54.6), mean (3.50) and Standard deviation (0.985) which means that in a necessary situation, The university management are not capable to make changes in the future goals. Regarding the other statement for Goal framing Dimension , the agreement percentage was (62.2%) with mean (3.63) and standard deviation (0.979).

Table 11: Descriptive statistics for leadership competencies sub -variable (goal framing)

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
X1	2.1	12.5	23.1	44.7	17.5	3.63	0.979	0.959
X2	0.9	8.1	23.7	48.5	18.8	3.76	0.882	0.777
X3	2.5	14.0	28.9	40.3	14.3	3.50	0.985	0.969
Average	1.83	11.53	25.23	44.5	16.86	3.63	0.94	0.90
Total	13.36			61.36				

4.2.1.2. Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Competencies Sub -variable (Capacity Building).

The table (13) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for Capacity Building as the second dimension of Independent Variable Leadership competencies. However, the total agreement percentage on this

dimension reached (55.65%) versus the percentage of total disagreement (18.49%) with Mean (3.45) and Standard deviation (1.044), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of this Dimension and that means University management enhance their abilities to improve their employees' abilities to perform new tasks and to be more effective through training courses and help them to get new ideas about how to be more effective.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for Capacity Building was the statement (X4) which states that "University Management provides training in coaching among the staff" with an agreement percentage of (59.8%), mean (3.54) and Standard deviation (1.018) which means that the researched University is providing new training courses for their Employees to develop their abilities. On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage for Capacity Building was the statement (X7) which states that "University Management exposes staff continually to the latest innovative ideas about how to be effective" with an agreement percentage of (48.8), mean (3.29) and Standard deviation (1.094) which means that the University management does not help staff to develop their innovative ideas about how to be effective in doing their tasks. Regarding the other statement for Capacity building Dimension, the agreement percentage was (57.4%) and (56.6%) with mean (3.48) and (3.49) and standard deviation (0.990) and (1.074) for statement (X5) and (X6) respectively.

Table 12: Descriptive statistics for leadership competencies sub -variable (capacity building)

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
X4	4.1	12.4	23.7	45.1	14.7	3.54	1.018	1.036
X5	3.4	14.3	25.0	45.3	12.1	3.48	0.990	0.981
X6	6.3	10.9	26.3	41.1	15.5	3.49	1.074	1.153
X7	8.1	14.5	28.7	38.1	10.7	3.29	1.094	1.196
Average	5.47	13.02	25.92	42.4	13.25	3.45	1.044	1.091
Total	18.49			55.65				

4.2.1.3. Descriptive statistics for Leadership competencies Sub -variable (Defusing resistance and Conflict)

The table (14) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for Defusing resistance and conflict as the third dimension of Independent Variable Leadership competencies. However, the total agreement percentage on this Dimension reached (47.03%) versus the percentage of total Disagreement (18.5%) with Mean (3.34) and Standard deviation (0.98), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of this Dimension which means the University management develops strategies to for employees to resist the change and the way to increases their trust and work satisfaction through implementing agreement between both the University and their Employees, and this will lead to decrease the conflict against the change.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for defusing resistance and conflict was the statement (X9) which states that “University Management makes individuals who resist change feel confident “with an agreement percentage of (47.9%), mean (3.33) and Standard deviation (1.039) which means the researched University has plans to keep their employees to feel confidence and avoid the conflict through keeping their benefits during the change process. On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage for defusing resistance and conflict to conflict was the statement (X8) which states that “University Management identifies the root causes of staff resistance to changes “with an agreement percentage of (46.1%), mean (3.31) and Standard deviation (0.982) which means that the University management cannot find the permanent solutions for resistance to change by employees. Regarding the other statement for Defusing resistance and conflict, the agreement percentage was (47.1%) with mean (3.40) and standard deviation (0.948).

Table 13: Descriptive statistics for leadership competencies sub -variable defusing resistance and conflict

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
X8	4.4	15.1	34.4	37.0	9.1	3.31	0.982	0.964
X9	5.5	14.9	31.7	36.4	11.5	3.33	1.039	1.079
X10	3.0	12.6	37.3	35.8	11.3	3.40	0.948	0.899
Average	4.3	14.2	34.46	36.4	10.63	3.34	0.98	0.98
Total	18.5			47.03				

4.2.1.4. Descriptive statistics for Leadership competencies Sub -variable (Institutionalizing)

The table (15) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for Institutionalizing as the fourth dimension of Independent Variable Leadership competencies. However, the total agreement percentage on this Dimension reached (50.17%) versus the percentage of total Disagreement (19.9%) with Mean (3.35) and Standard deviation (1.03), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of this Dimension and that means University management interested in the sustainability in their plans and future strategies from one side, and it provides time to keep the work Quality as it is one of the most important competition factors. Moreover, the university management tries to analyse the final change outcomes effectively and develops new liaison among all departments in colleges.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for Institutionalizing was the statement (X12) which states that “University Management allocates sufficient time for maintain quality “with an agreement percentage of (53%), mean (3.38) and Standard deviation (1.027) which means that the University management takes maintaining the quality in consideration. On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage for institutionalizing was the statement (X13) which states that “University Management analyses objectively the final change outcomes “ with an agreement percentage of (45.8), mean (3.30) and Standard deviation (1.024) which means that the University management takes the final results of change outcomes inconsideration for both side benefits the organization and employees. Regarding the other statement for institutionalizing Dimension, the agreement percentage was (52.1%) and (49.8%) with

mean (3.42) and (3.33) and standard deviation (0.986) and (1.102) for statement (X11) and (X14)) respectively.

Table 14: Descriptive statistics for leadership competencies sub-variable (institutionalizing)

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
X11	6.3	7.5	34.1	42.0	10.1	3.42	0.986	0.972
X12	5.7	13.7	27.6	42.9	10.1	3.38	1.027	1.055
X13	4.1	18.5	31.5	34.9	10.9	3.30	1.024	1.048
X14	6.3	17.5	26.3	36.7	13.1	3.33	1.102	1.215
Average	5.6	14.3	29.87	39.12	11.05	3.35	1.03	1.07
Total	19.9			50.17				

4.2.2. Descriptive Statistics for Organizational effectiveness

4.2.2.1. Descriptive statistics for Organizational Effectiveness Sub -variable (Student Educations Satisfaction)

The table (16) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for Student Educations Satisfaction as the first dimension of Dependent Variable Organizational effectiveness. However, the total agreement percentage on this Dimension reached (60.1%) versus the percentage of total Disagreement (14.7%) with Mean (3.57) and Standard deviation (0.965), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of this Dimension which means the University management has made a good campus which contain almost all colleges in one place, and that provides a good environment for students to build a good relationship among all colleges and that helps students to enjoy their university life.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for Student Educations Satisfaction was the statement (Y15) which states that “Students enjoy their university life “ with an agreement percentage of (63.4%), mean (3.65) and Standard deviation (0.950) which means the researched University has provided good environment for student to enjoy their study period of time. On the other hand, the lowest agreement

percentage Student Educations Satisfaction was the statement (Y16) which states that “Students maintain a good relationship with faculties “with an agreement percentage of (56.8%), mean (3.49) and Standard deviation (0.980) which means that the University management has maintained a good relation among all University colleges and that was the main factor to connect all faculties with each other. As a result of this, the students

Table 15: Descriptive statistics for organizational effectiveness sub -variable (student educations satisfaction)

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
Y15	2.8	9.1	24.7	47.2	16.2	3.65	0.950	0.902
Y16	2.9	14.6	25.8	44.5	12.3	3.49	0.980	0.960
Average	2.85	11.85	25.25	45.85	14.25	3.57	0.965	0.931
Total	14.7			60.1				

4.2.2.2. Descriptive statistics for Organizational Effectiveness Sub -variable (Student Career Development)

The table (17) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for Student Career Development as the second dimension of Dependent Variable Organizational effectiveness. However, the total agreement percentage on this Dimension reached (32.5%) versus the percentage of total Disagreement (43.39%) with Mean (2.80) and Standard deviation (1.121), which indicates to a degree of disagreement over the total of this Dimension which means the graduated students cannot find job after. Moreover, they also have problem with their specializations if they find a job, which means the graduated students suffers from employment as well as their working specialization and the deserve salaries.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for Student Career Development was the statement (Y18) which states that “Alumni are employed in their relevant fields of study “with an agreement percentage of (37.5%), mean (2.99) and Standard deviation (1.161) which means graduated students rarely work in their specialization. Based on respondent’s answers, sometimes the alumni work in their

relevant job, and sometimes it's hard to find a related job. On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage Student Career Development was the statement (Y17) which states that "Alumni are able to secure employment shortly after they graduate" with an agreement percentage of (29.2%), mean (2.63) and Standard deviation (1.298) which means that alumni are not able to find a job after their graduation. Additionally, in Duhok the unemployment rate is quite high due to the financial crises that we have for 2013 and that affect negatively on employment rate. However, this affects directly on graduated employees which enable them to find a job after their graduation. Regarding other statement, for Student Career Development Dimension, the statement (Y19) which the agreement percentage was (30.8%) with mean (2.80) and standard deviation (1.121).

Table 16: Descriptive statistics for organizational effectiveness sub -variable (student career development)

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
Y17	26.3	22.4	22.1	20.7	8.5	2.63	1.298	1.685
Y18	12.8	20.9	28.9	29.1	8.4	2.99	1.161	1.348
Y19	15.1	29.1	25.0	23.1	7.7	2.79	1.181	1.394
Average	18.06	25.33	25.33	24.3	8.2	2.80	1.121	1.47
Total	43.39			32.5				

4.2.2.3. Descriptive statistics for Organizational Effectiveness Sub -variable (College Employment Satisfaction)

The table (18) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for College Employment Satisfaction as the third dimension of Dependent Variable Organizational effectiveness. However, the total agreement percentage on this Dimension reached (56.5%) versus the percentage of total Disagreement (14.35%) with Mean (3.50) and Standard deviation (0.96), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of this Dimension which means that the University academic staff do make researches through having a good environment which provides by the university management. Moreover, according to the respondent

answers, we can conclude that academic staff are happy and enjoy doing scientific researches.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for College Employment Satisfaction was the statement (Y20) which states that “The faculty’s academic staff enjoy conducting research “ with an agreement percentage of (59.6%), mean (3.57) and Standard deviation (0.942) which means that the University academic staff do make researches through having a good environment which provides by the university management. On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage of Student Career Development was the statement (Y21) which states that “The faculty’s academic staff is satisfied with their working environment “with an agreement percentage of (53.4%), mean (3.44) and Standard deviation (0.996) which means that the majority of university academic staff are satisfied with their working environment and that leads to increase their competencies.

Table 17: Descriptive statistics for organizational effectiveness sub-variable (college employment satisfaction)

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
Y20	3.5	8.5	28.5	46.4	13.2	3.57	0.942	0.886
Y21	4.5	12.2	30.0	41.7	11.7	3.44	0.996	0.992
Average	4	10.35	29.25	44.05	12.45	3.50	0.96	0.93
Total	14.35			56.5				

4.2.2.4. Descriptive statistics for Organizational Effectiveness Sub -variable (Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction)

The table (19) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction as the fourth dimension of Dependent Variable Organizational effectiveness. However, the total agreement percentage on this Dimension reached (42.95%) versus the percentage of total Disagreement (25.45%) with Mean (3.18) and Standard deviation (1.11), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of

this Dimension which means that the researched University are good in terms of publications and researches. However, University of Duhok's Academic staffs has good qualifications among all Iraqi Universities which enhance the university to be in a high level of competition.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction was the statement (Y23) which states that "Faculties have the best qualifications among all local universities "with an agreement percentage of (44.7%), mean (3.26) and Standard deviation (1.061) which means the researched university has a good qualified staff that can make best of research papers for competitions among all local universities. On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage of Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction was the statement (Y22) which states that "My university ranks the highest in research and publication amongst all local universities in my field " with an agreement percentage of (39.8%), mean (3.11) and Standard deviation (1.161) which means that the researched university is one of the best universities in term of world's ranks and that is due to the qualified academic staff that works in the university.

Table 18: Descriptive statistics for Organizational effectiveness Sub -variable (Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction)

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
Y22	10.9	18.6	30.7	28.5	11.3	3.11	1.161	1.349
Y23	7.7	13.7	33.9	34.7	10.0	3.26	1.061	1.125
Average	9.3	16.15	32.3	32.3	10.65	3.18	1.11	1.23
Total	25.45			42.95				

4.2.2.5. Descriptive statistics for Organizational Effectiveness Sub -variable (System Openness & Community Interaction)

The table (20) clarify Descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for System Openness & Community Interaction as the fifth dimension of dependent Variable organizational effectiveness. However, the total

agreement percentage on this Dimension reached (42.7%) versus the percentage of total disagreement (24.65%) with Mean (3.21) and standard deviation (1.02), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of this dimension which means that the researched university with all available faculties are helpful and are active to serve the various aspects of the community, moreover, the university management emphasize on providing all employees needs in different circumstances.

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for System Openness & Community Interaction was the statement (Y24) which states that “Faculties are active in various community services “with an agreement percentage of (43.1%), mean (3.23) and Standard deviation (1.020) which means the researched Universities related faculties have an effective role in the society as they have a good liaison between the universities and the community. On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage of Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction was the statement (Y25) which states that “University management emphasizes on meeting the needs of employers “with an agreement percentage of (42.3%), mean (3.20) and Standard deviation (1.023) which means that the university management emphasize on providing all employees needs in different circumstances.

Table 19: Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Effectiveness sub -variable (System Openness & Community Interaction)

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
Y24	5.0	19.3	32.6	34.2	8.9	3.23	1.020	1.041
Y25	5.5	19.5	32.7	34.0	8.3	3.20	1.023	1.047
Average	5.25	19.4	32.65	34.1	8.6	3.21	1.02	1.04
Total	24.65			42.7				

4.2.2.6. Descriptive statistics for Organizational Effectiveness Sub -variable (Ability to Acquire Resources)

The table (21) clarify descriptive statistics (percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Variance) for Ability to Acquire Resources as the sixth dimension of dependent variable Organizational effectiveness. However, the total agreement

percentage on this dimension reached (48.03%) versus the percentage of total disagreement (22.06%) with mean (3.31) and standard deviation (1.12), which indicates to a degree of agreement over the total of this dimension which means that the researched university has some of the good features which attract students to study in university of Duhok. Moreover, the University of Duhok has a good specification which attract employees with good qualification

It was found that the highest agreement percentage for Student career development was the statement (Y26) which states that “My University can attract the best student applicants “with an agreement percentage of (53.7%), mean (3.45) and standard deviation (1.067) which means the researched University has some good features to attract new applicant students regarding college offers and the academic staff qualification, as well as Up-to-date curricular. . On the other hand, the lowest agreement percentage Student Career Development was the statement (Y28) which states that “Alumni are able to secure employment shortly after they graduate “ with an agreement percentage of (39.2%), mean (3.14) and Standard deviation (1.145) which means that the researched University has not got the top rank among all Iraqi university for research fund according to applicant respondents, however, this means the university must pay more attention to the research publication field. Regarding other statement, for Ability to Acquire resources Dimension, the statement (Y27) which the agreement percentage was (51.2%) with mean (3.36) and standard deviation (1.159).

Table 20: Descriptive statistics for organizational effectiveness Sub -variable (ability to acquire resources

Statement	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance %
Y26	6.2	11.3	28.9	39.0	14.7	3.45	1.067	1.139
Y27	9.3	12.1	27.5	35.5	15.7	3.36	1.159	1.344
Y28	10.2	17.1	33.5	27.3	11.9	3.14	1.145	1.311
Average	8.56	13.5	29.96	33.93	14.1	3.31	1.12	1.126
Total	22.06			48.03				

4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

4.3.1. Indicators of good conformity and the limits of its acceptance

Table 21: Indicators of good conformity and the limits of its acceptance

Indicators	limits of its acceptance
Tucker-Lewis Index TLI	If the values of TLI, equal to at least. 95 it indicates good fit.
Goodness of Fit Index. GFI	If it is less than (0.90), this means that there is a match Weak, if it is equal to (0.90) or more This indicates the good quality of the model.
Adjusted goodness of Fit Index. AGFI	If it is greater than (0.85), it means matching Acceptable, if it is equal to (0.90) or more means a good match.
Normative Fit Index NFI	This indicates the good quality of the model when it is reached (0.90) or more.
Parsimony Goodness of fit Index PGFI	It indicates the good quality of the model when it is reached (0.60) or more.
Relative Fit Index RFI	It indicates the good quality and conformity of the model data when it reaches (0.90) or more.
Root Mean Square Residual RMR	This indicator indicates a good fit of the model When it reaches (0.08) or less.
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation RMSEA	If the value is equal to 0.8 or less is acceptable

Source: Mia, M. M., et al, (2019).

4.3.1.1. Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI):

Tucker is one of the several incremental fit indices used in exploratory factor analysis, a prominent technique in preventive research, as well as linear mean and covariance structure modelling. If the values of TLI, equal to at least. 95 it indicate good fit.

It was found from the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) that the value of this indicator amounted to (0.94) for Leadership Competencies and (0,95)for Organizational effectiveness which indicates a good match between the two models by comparing this value with the standard value of this indicator, which is equal to (0.90) or greater than it.

4.3.1.2. Normed Fit Index (NFI):

This indicator, in the case of the development of the components and factors of the model into a more complex model, provides information about the quality of conformity (Azouz, 2018, 310)

This indicates the good quality of the model when it is reached (0.90) or more. According to the result in table (23), the value of NFI is reached (0.95) for both research variables; however, this means that the model has an excellent quality.

4.3.1.3. Good of Fit Index (GFI):

This criterion measures the variance in the matrix that is analysed by means of the proposed model, and this criterion (GFI) corresponds to the R criterion in the multiple regression coefficients, and thus this criterion reflects the amount of what the independent variables explain with the dependent variables (Azouz, 2017,309)

It is noted through the data of table (23) that the value of the GFI amounted to (0.94), for Leadership Competencies and (0,96)for Organizational effectiveness which are more than the standard required to be reached, which has a value of (0.90), which indicates the good quality of the model

4.3.1.4. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA):

The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) has values of 0.01, 0.05, and 0.08 that, respectively, indicate excellent, good, and mediocre fit; some go as high as 0.10 for mediocre.

It is inferred from the table (23) the value of the square root of the mean standard error (RMSEA), which was (0.06) for both research variables and that means there is a good match, because this value is less than the standard value of the mentioned indicator which is (0.08).

4.3.1.5. Adjusted goodness of Fit Index (AGFI):

Corrected Good Fit Index (AGFI). This standard is used to avoid bias that can appear in the GFI standard due to complexity Which can occur in the model, and this criterion is affected by the sample size and the level of complexity in the study model to a lesser extent than the (GFI) criterion, which corresponds to the rate (R) in the regression analysis (Amer, 2018, 256)

According to the data of Table (23), if the conformity criterion within this indicator is greater than (0.85), this means an acceptable match, but if it is equal to (0.90) or more, it means a good match. The calculated value of (AGFI) was (0.92) for Leadership Competencies and (0, 93) for Organizational effectiveness and as a result, it conforms to the specified standard.

4.3.1.6. Parsimony Goodness of fit Index (PGFI):

Economic Conformity Quality Index (PGFI). The conformity standard within this indicator when it reaches (0.60) or more indicates the good quality of the model.

It's noted through the data of Table (23) that (PGFI) reached (0.63) for both research variables and this leads to good and it meet the specified standard for the model.

4.3.1.7. Relative Fit Index (RFI):

The relative conformity index (RFI) is one of the indicators modified for the degrees of freedom of the NFI index. Values (greater than 0.90) indicate that the data matches the model, but if it is greater than (0.95) it indicates the best match, and the value of one is correct indicates an exact match (Al-Hawari, 2017, 1431)

It is noted from the data of Table (23) that the RFI value is (0.94) for both research variables which indicates the good quality of the model and its conformity with the data when it reaches (0.90) or more, and as a result it is identical within this standard.

4.3.1.8. Root Mean Square Residual (RMR):

Root Mean Square Residual RMR It is one of the important matching indicators, as it is the root of the mean squares of the residuals, and the focus is on the analysis of the values of the residual matrix of variance and covariance resulting from the difference between the values of the variance and variance matrix based on the sample data and the covariance and variance matrix of the assumed model, meaning that this is the average indicator for all the residuals that expresses the average value For the discrepancy between the hypothetical correlation matrix and the sample data matrix, and indicates a better fit the closer the value is to zero (Azouz, 2018, 311)

It is also noted through the data of Table (23) that the value of the RMR for this criterion is (0.03) for both research variables, which are less than (0.08), and the value is close to the acceptance level.

Table 22: Quality Indicators of matching the theoretical model with the applied model of research used questionnaire

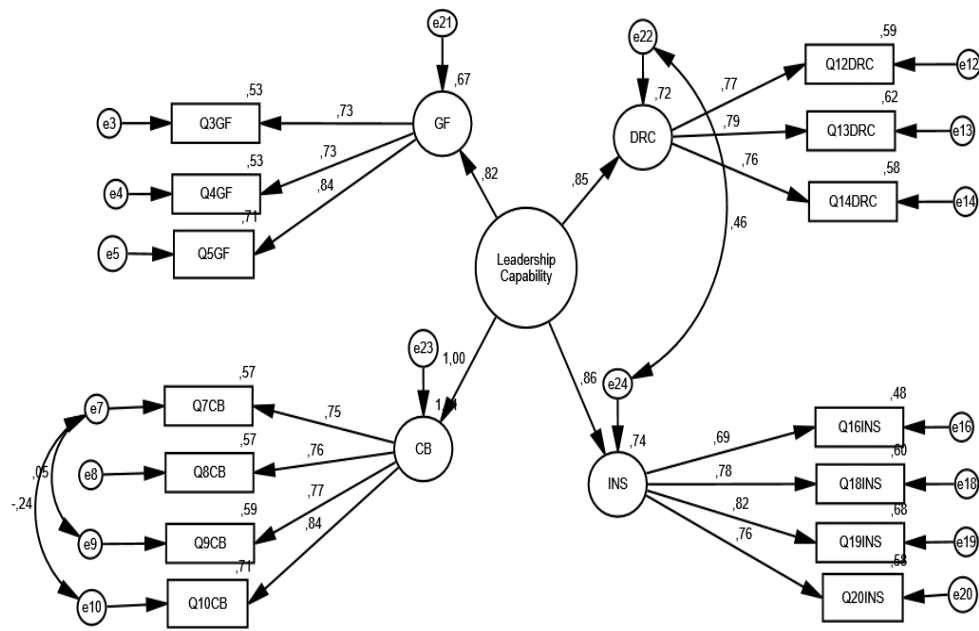
Indicators	Code	calculated value(Leadership Competencies)	calculated value(Organizational effectiveness)	result
Tucker-Lewis Index	TLI	,948	,953	Identical /accept
Normed Fit Index	NFI	,955	,958	Identical /accept
Good of Fit Index	GFI	,949	,960	Identical /accept
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA	,068	,061	Identical /accept
Adjusted goodness of Fit Index.	AGFI	,924	,939	Identical /accept
Parsimony Goodness of fit Index	PGFI	,633	,631	Identical /accept
Relative Fit Index	RFI	,941	,945	Identical /accept
Root Mean Square Residual	RMR	,033	,031	Identical /accept

4.3.2. Confirmative factor analysis (Leadership Competencies):

The confirmatory factor analysis is used to test the hypothesis of a link between the variables and the underlying factors, as well as to evaluate the model to determine the levels and accuracy of its conformity, which is known as the quality of the theoretical model of the study with the applied model, which resulted from the

exploratory factor analysis of field data, and the figure (2) shows the results of the factor analysis.

Based on the result that confirmatory factor analysis, The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) has values of 0.01, 0.05, and 0.08 that, respectively, indicate excellent, good, and mediocre fit; some go as high as 0.10 for mediocre. It is inferred from the table (23) the value of the square root of the mean standard error (RMSEA), which was (0.06) for both research variables and that means there is a good match, because this value is less than the standard value of the mentioned indicator which is (0.08). Moreover, This criterion measures the variance in the matrix that is analysed by means of the proposed model, and this criterion (GFI) corresponds to the R criterion in the multiple regression coefficients, and thus this criterion reflects the amount of what the independent variables explain with the dependent variables (Azouz, 2017,309). It is noted through the data of table (23) that the value of the GFI amounted to (0.94), for Leadership Competencies and (0,96)for Organizational effectiveness which are more than the standard required to be reached, which has a value of (0.90), which indicates the good quality of the model. However, Difference divided by degree of freedom is CMIN/DF. The CMIN/DF for the default model is the value of interest here, and it is read as follows: According to Kline (1998), a fit is considered adequate if the CMIN/DF number is 3. A reasonable fit is indicated if the value is less than 5 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). However, the literature says it should be between 1.0 and 5.0 for an acceptable fit and anything greater than 5.0 should indicate a poor fit.

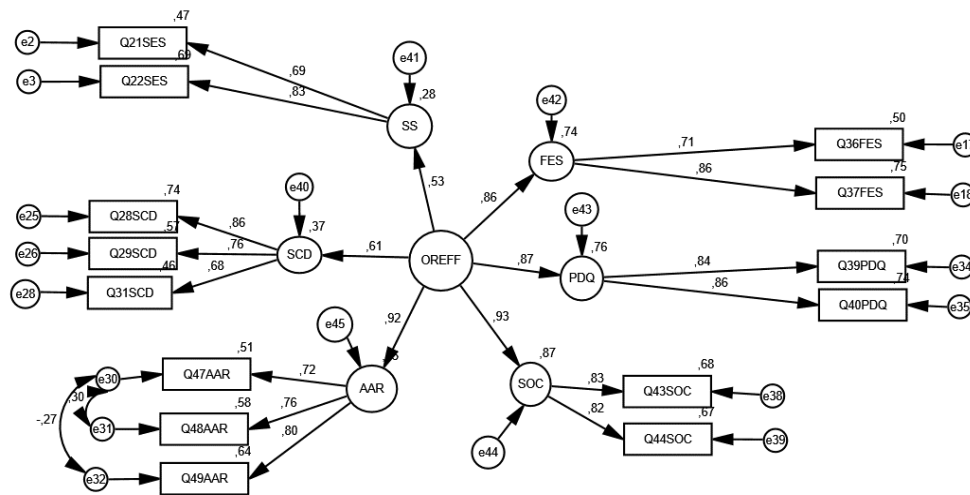


CMIN=557,617; CMINP=,000; DF=70; CMIN/DF=7,966; p=,000; RMSEA=,068; CFI=,960; GFI=,949

Figure 2: Results of confirmatory factor analysis (Leadership Competencies)

4.3.3. Confirmative factor analysis (Organizational effectiveness):

It is noted from the results in the figure (3) and fixed above the straight arrows for the levels of saturation or the contribution of each dimension of the study in the factor to which it belongs, and these values are equal or higher than the values of the ramifications of the dimensions that resulted from the exploratory factor analysis after rotation, and it can be noted that the highest saturation or belonging to the dimension of student career development and within the twenty eight statement which represents Organizational effectiveness, which was (0.86), while the least contribution was belonging to the dimension of student career development and within the thirty first question which represents Organizational effectiveness, which amounted to (0.68). The rest of the dimensions have saturation values that fall between these two values.



CMIN=456,113; CMINP=,000; DF=69; CMIN/DF=6,610; p=,000; RMSEA=,061; CFI=,964; GFI=,960

Figure 3: Results of confirmatory factor analysis (Organizational effectiveness)

4.4. Scale Validity and Reliability

The degree to which a test accurately assesses what it is intended to measure is known as validity. The term applied in the research should be reflected in the questionnaire. When a measurement is valid and reliable, the outcomes may be used and interpreted appropriately (Elstak, 2013). While discussing an instrument's validity, it is important to remember that the data must not only be trustworthy but also truthful and correct. A measurement is dependable if it is valid (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2009). The leadership competencies section was tested using SEM, a comprehensive tool for analysis in academic research, and the participants were large (N=936) and selected from HPSS, making them "information rich" (Patton, 2002). These factors, along with the model's design following an accepted step-by-step procedure recommended by Hinkin (1998), resulted in high reliability and validity. Unquestionably, it is a paradigm with scientific validity that may aid in understanding how well school leaders handle important transition. Regarding organizational effectiveness section, Cameron (1986) included five predictor variables to his study to help validity the

model, demography of the institution, strategy of the institution, structure of the institution, finances of the institution, and external environment. He thought that there was a direct relationship between these predictors and long-term performance. Twenty-nine of the original 41 institutions in his prior initiative that were included decided to take part. Two sets of regression analysis were conducted over a four-year period using these predictors as independent variables: one with the nine dimensions as dependent variables and the other with some modifications to these nine dimensions. The findings demonstrated that the nine factors might indicate effectiveness over a longer time horizon.

The consistency, stability, or dependability of the data is referred to as reliability. Every time a variable is measured, the investigator wants to be certain that the results are reliable and consistent (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). The magnitude of the inaccuracy has an impact on reliability in research. Reliability declines as random error rises (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2009). Results must be genuine and dependable in order to be used in further research phases. Internal consistency and overall reliability analyses were achieved on the questionnaire. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency was used to calculate this. Internal stability examines the similarities in results between many items that attempt to assess the same basic construct on the same test (or the same sub-scale on a bigger test). Cronbach's alpha, the most popular reliability coefficient, calculates internal consistency by examining how each test item relates to each other and to the entire test, or internal coherence of data. The dependability is quantified by a coefficient that ranges from 0 to 1.00. The test is more trustworthy the higher the coefficient. The following general guidelines are provided by Castillo (2009) : >0.9 - Excellent, >0.8 - Good, >0.7 - Acceptable, >0.6 - Questionable, >0.5 - Bad, and 0.5 - Unacceptable. For the purposes of this research, a reliability cut-off value of 0.7 was deemed to be acceptable.

The current research has a strong reliability coefficient for each scale variables. The findings in the below table indicates that the total Cronbach alpha for the entire research scale (questionnaire) has reached (0.937) at significant level (0.05). Total leadership Competencies has coefficient alpha (.94) however Total of organizational effectiveness has coefficient alpha (.93). More specifically, regarding leadership competencies sub-variable, Goal framing has coefficient of a (.81). Capacity building has coefficient of a (.85). Defusing resistance and Conflict has coefficient of a

(.81).institutionalizing has coefficient of a (.84). A total organizational effectiveness has coefficient of a (.93). To be more specific, student education satisfaction has coefficient of a (.72).Student career development has coefficient of a (.80). College employment satisfaction has coefficient of a (.75). Professional development and quality of the college education satisfaction has coefficient of a (.83). System Openness and community interaction has a coefficient of a (.80). Ability to acquire resources has a coefficient of a (.80). All variables depicted that the value of Cronbach's Alpha is above value of 0.7 thus the study was reliable. This represented high level of reliability and on this basis; it was supposed that scales used in this study is reliable to capture the variables.

Table 23: Scale reliability results

variables	Cronbach's alpha	No of items	comment
Goal framing (GF)	0.81	3	Accepted
Capacity Building (CB)	0.85	4	Accepted
Defusing Resistance and Conflict (DRC)	0.81	3	Accepted
Institutionalizing (INS)	0.84	4	Accepted
Student Education Satisfaction (SES)	0.72	2	Accepted
Student Career Development (SCD)	0.80	3	Accepted
College Employment Satisfaction (FES)	0.75	2	Accepted
Professional Development and Quality of the College Education Satisfaction (PDQ)	0.83	2	Accepted
System Openness and Community Interaction (SOC)	0.80	2	Accepted
Ability to Acquire Resources (AAR)	0.80	3	Accepted
Total (Leadership Competencies)	0.94	14	Accepted
Total (Organizational effectiveness)	0.93	14	Accepted
Total of research Scale	0.937	28	

The goal in this section is to diagnose the validity of the construction of the study scale and its conformity and suitability to its scheme, which was assumed according to the theoretical construction, by verifying the variables of the dimensions of the study that represent the independent variable (Leadership Competencies) which consists of (4) sub-dimensions of the main variable. And the dependent variable (Organizational effectiveness), which amounted to (7) variables of the sub-dimensions, through the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Confirmative factor analysis the possibility of testing the validity and accuracy of specific models that are built according to data and theoretical foundations.

4.5. Testing Hypothesis

For the purpose of achieving the objectives of the current study, this section was devoted to testing its main and sub- hypotheses, which were mentioned in the study methodology, depending on its hypothetical model:

4.5.1. Correlation between Research Main Variables:

The result shows that there was a significant and positive strong correlation between the Leadership Competencies and Organizational Effectiveness, as the value of the correlation coefficient of the total indicator between them was (0.724) and at a significant level (0.01), which is less than the significance level specified for the study. (0.05). It must be mentioned that Correlation strength is defined as (0.00 - 0.30) considered weak, (0.31 - 0.69) considered medium, and (0.70 -1) considered high correlation (Büyüköztürk, Ş. 2017). Also it was found that there is a significant and positive medium correlation between the Leadership Competencies dimensions represented by (Goal framing, Capacity Building, Defusing resistance and conflict, and institutionalizing), as an independent variable with Organizational Effectiveness as a dependent variable where the value of the correlation coefficient was the total indicator between them (0.584), (0.644), (0.607) and (0.677) respectively, at a significant level of (0.01), which is less than the study level of significance (0.05). Therefore, we conclude that the greater the interest of the two surveyed university in developing leadership competencies, this leads to strengthening their capabilities in organizational effectiveness. It must be mentioned that Correlation strength is defined as (0.00 - 0.30) considered weak, (0.31 - 0.69) considered medium, and (0.70 -1) considered high correlation (Büyüköztürk, Ş. 2017).

Testing the First main hypothesis: The Simple & Multiple Correlation coefficient was used to identify the nature and strength of the correlation between the study variables and their dimensions, and to test the validity of the first main hypothesis, which states “There is a significant and positive correlation between leadership competencies and organizational effectiveness” at a significant level (0.05). Table (24) shows the results of those research variables Correlation, which were as follows:

Table 24: Correlation matrix among research variables

		Dimensions of Leadership Competence				
		Goal framing	Capacity Building	Defusing Resistance & Conflict	Institution alizing	Total o IV
Organizational Effectiveness	Student Educations Satisfaction	0.389**	0.386**	0.382**	0.449**	0.463**
	Student Career Development	0.379**	0.457**	0.404**	0.484**	0.498**
	College Employment Satisfaction	0.466**	0.520**	0.476**	0.487**	0.561**
	Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction	0.468**	0.549**	0.517**	0.508**	0.589**
	System Openness & Community Interaction	0.462**	0.515**	0.499**	0.606**	0.600**
	Ability to Acquire Resources	0.508**	0.513**	0.494**	0.561**	0.598**
Total of DV		0.584**	0.644**	0.607**	0.677**	0.724**

** Significant at the Level (0.01), (N=1500)

It can be seen the results of the correlation at the level of each dimension of Leadership Competencies and Organizational Effectiveness dimensions in Table (24) to the following we can use Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2017) rules for Correlation strength as he defined as (0.00 - 0.30) considered weak, (0.31 - 0.69) considered medium, and (0.70 - 1) considered high correlation.

A. There is a significant and positive medium correlation between the first sub-dimension of independent variable leadership competencies “goal framing” and the dimensions of organizational effectiveness represented in (Student Educations Satisfaction, Student Career Development, College Employment Satisfaction, Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction, System Openness & Community Interaction, and Ability to Acquire Resources), where the value of the correlation coefficient between them was (0.389), (0.379), (0.466) , (0.468), (0.462), (0.508) and (0.584), respectively, at a significant level (0.01), which is less than the level of The specific significance of the study (0.05), which enables us to conclude that the greater the interest in the Goal Framing This enhances Leadership Competencies in the university surveyed

B. There is a significant and positive medium correlation between the second sub-dimension of independent variable leadership competencies “Capacity building” and the dimensions of Organizational effectiveness represented in (Student Educations Satisfaction, Student Career Development, College Employment Satisfaction, Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction, System Openness & Community Interaction, and Ability to Acquire Resources), where the value of the correlation coefficient between them was (0.386), (0.457), (0.520) , (0.549), (0.515), (0.513) and (0.644), respectively, at a significant level (0.01), which is less than the level of The specific significance of the study (0.05), which enables us to conclude that the greater the interest in the Capacity building This enhances Leadership Competencies in the university surveyed

C. There is a significant and positive medium correlation between the third sub-dimension of Independent variable Leadership Competencies “defusing resistance and conflict” and the dimensions of Organizational effectiveness represented in (Student Educations Satisfaction, Student Career Development, College Employment Satisfaction, Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction, System Openness & Community Interaction, and Ability to Acquire Resources), where the value of the correlation coefficient between them was (0.382), (0.404), (0.476) , (0.517), (0.499), (0.494) and (0.607) respectively, at a significant level (0.01), which is less than the level of The specific significance of the study (0.05), which enables us to conclude that the greater the interest in the Defusing resistance and conflict This enhances Leadership Competencies in the university surveyed.

D. There is a significant and positive medium correlation between Institutionalising and the dimensions of Organizational effectiveness represented in (Student Educations Satisfaction, Student Career Development, College Employment Satisfaction, Professional Development & Quality of the College Education Satisfaction, System Openness & Community Interaction, and Ability to Acquire Resources), where the value of the correlation coefficient between them was (0.449), (0.484), (0.487) , (0.508), (0.606), (0.561) and (0.677) respectively, at a significant level (0.01), which is less than the level of The specific significance of the study (0.05), which indicates that the increased interest of the university surveyed in institutionalising enhances its capabilities in increasing Leadership Competencies.

Depending on the results above, we can conclude that the strongest significant and a positive correlation was between Institutionalising and Organizational effectiveness, with a correlation score of (0.677) at a significant level of (0.05). However, the weakest significant correlation was between Goal Framing and Organizational effectiveness, as the correlation strength reached (0.584) at a significant level (0.05), and thus all sub-hypotheses emanating from the first main hypothesis are realized.

Depending on the results presented in Table (24), the First main hypothesis will be Accepted, which states that there is a statistically significant and a positive correlation at a significant level (0.05) between the Leadership Competencies and Organizational Effectiveness at the macro and micro levels in the university. It must be mentioned that Correlation strength is defined as 0.00 - 0.30 weak, 0.31 - 0.69 medium, and 0.70 - 1 high (Büyüköztürk, Ş. 2017).

4.5.2. The Effect of Leadership Competences on Organizational Effectiveness.

In order to find out the relationship between leadership Competencies and Organizational effectiveness, a simple and a multiple linier regression model (Enter method) was used in which leadership competencies were considered as an independent variable and Organizational effectiveness as a dependent variable. The (F) test was relied upon to identify the influence relationship at the macro level of the variables, as Table (25) shows a significant effect of Leadership competencies on Organizational effectiveness, as the value of the calculated significance level was (0.000), which is much less than the default level of significance for the current study, set at (0.05). This is confirmed by the calculated (F) value of (1648.494), which is much higher than its tabular value of (3.8415) and in degrees of freedom (1498, 1). It is evident from the value of the constant (B0) the presence of Organizational effectiveness with a value equal to (0.812), when the value of Leadership Competencies through its activities is equal to zero. While the value of marginal slope (B1) was (0.712), which indicates that a change in the Leadership competencies by one unit will lead to a change in Organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (71.2), which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing

relationship of Leadership Competencies in Organizational effectiveness. As for the value of the determination coefficient (R^2), which is (0.524), which indicates that the change in Organizational Effectiveness by (52.4) is due to the Leadership Competencies, and that (45.8) of the change in Organizational effectiveness is due to other factors that The study did not study. Thus, we conclude that if the university surveyed wanted to improve their Organizational effectiveness capabilities, this would be done through the Leadership Competencies.

Table 25: Regression coefficient between research main variables

IV DV	Leadership Competence					
	B0	B1	R2	F Cal	F Tab	Sig.
Organizational Effectiveness	0.812	0.712	0.524	1648.49	3.841	0.000

Significant at Level (0.05), N = 1500 DF = (1498, 1)

The below table determines How much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the leadership competencies is shown by the value under the title R square. However, it can be found that R square measures how closely regression line fits research data in an appropriate scatterplot. The results in below table shown that R-square (.524) is good prediction which means around 52% variance in the rate.

Table 26: Model summary for research study

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.722a	.524	.521	.50397

a. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership competencies

Usually, when the independent variable includes three or more categories, the one-way ANOVA can be used as another test for comparing means. The F-value (sig.) would normally be reported, and the means would be used to characterize the groups. However, by looking at the ANOVA table (27), it can be shown that there are a significant difference between leadership competencies and organisational

effectiveness as the F value (41.450) it reaches the significant with p-value (.000) which is less than alpha (0.05) as determined.

Table 27: Analysis of variance ANOVA results

ANOVA					
Organizational effectiveness					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	468.274	50	9.365	41.450	.000
Within Groups	327.398	1449	.226		
Total	795.672	1499			

4.6. Collinearity test:

According to Pallant (2007) and Tabachnick & Fidell (2013), multicollinearity is the relationship between two or more variables, and it becomes problematic when the relationship is 0.9 or higher. Because they raise the magnitude of the error term and the standard error of the regression coefficient, strongly correlated variables include extraneous information that must be removed from the study. The coefficients' statistical significance diminishes as a result. Therefore, Hair Jr. et al. (2010) and Pallant (2007) advise using tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) with cut-off values of more than 0.1 and not exceeding 10 correspondingly in order to examine multicollinearity problems. Regression analysis encounters collinearity when two or more predictor variables have a high degree of correlation and do not contribute distinct or independent information to the regression model. If the correlation between the variables is strong enough, it may be difficult to fit and comprehend the regression mode. The variance inflation factor (VIF), a measure of the correlation and intensity of correlation between the predictor variables in a regression model, can be used to identify multicollinearity.

- If variance inflation factor (VIF) is (1), it means there is no correlation between it and any other predictor variables in the model.
- If variance inflation factor (VIF) is between (1) and (5), it shows an insignificant connection between a particular predictor variable and other predictor variables in the model, although this is frequently not significant enough to warrant attention.

- If variance inflation factor (VIF) is more than (5) indicate that there may be a strong connection between a particular predictor variable and other predictor variables in the model; in this scenario, the coefficient estimates and p-values in the regression output are likely to be suspect.

According to the results in table (28), which shows that the tolerance values are between (0.3) and (0.5) and this means there is significantly higher than (0.1). However, based on the results that show in the table (28), we can conclude that none of the VIF values for predictor variables in this study is more than 5, this shows that the regression model's multicollinearity won't be a problem. On the other hand, in applied regression analysis, tolerance is used to evaluate the degree of multicollinearity. Tolerance quantifies the extent to which the inclusion of additional predictor variables in a model alters beta coefficients. Higher degrees of multicollinearity are indicated by smaller amounts of tolerance.

Table 28: Regression coefficient between research sub-variables

Model	Coefficient						
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	.765	.064		11.917	.000		
Goal Forming	.185	.022	.205	8.253	.000	.509	1.964
Capacity Building	.113	.027	.136	4.245	.000	.309	3.241
Defusing Resistance and Conflict	.108	.024	.126	4.513	.000	.406	2.461
Institutionalizing	.312	.025	.366	12.536	.000	.369	2.707
Dependent Variable: Organizational effectiveness							

At the micro level to determine the influencing relationship between the sub-dimensions at the micro level Applying the (F) test, here the results were as follows:

- A. We find from the results presented in Table (28) that the dimensions of independent variable Leadership Competencies “Goal framing” effect on Organizational effectiveness in terms of the value of the level of significance calculated for all dimensions, which amounted to (0.000), which is less than the default level of significance (0.05), and the calculated (t) test was (8.25), with a

degree of freedom (1495, 4) are larger. Depending on the value of the coefficient of determination (R) and the value of the marginal tendency (B) was (0.205) which that a change in the goal framing by one unit will lead to a change in Organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (0.205). Which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing relationship of Goal framing in Organizational effectiveness?

- B. We find from the results presented in Table (28) that the dimensions of independent variable Leadership Competencies “Capacity Building” effect on Organizational effectiveness in terms of the value of the level of significance calculated for all dimensions, which amounted to (0.000), which is less than the default level of significance (0.05), and the calculated (t) test was (4.245), with a degree of freedom (1495, 4) are larger. Depending on the value of the coefficient of determination (R) and the value of the marginal tendency (B) was (0.136) which that a change in the Capacity Building by one unit will lead to a change in Organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (0.136). Which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing relationship of Capacity Building in Organizational effectiveness?
- C. We find from the results presented in Table (28) that the dimensions of independent variable Leadership Competencies “Defusing resistance and conflict” effect on Organizational effectiveness in terms of the value of the level of significance calculated for all dimensions, which amounted to (0.000), which is less than the default level of significance (0.05), and the calculated (t) test was (4.513), with a degree of freedom (1495, 4) are larger. Depending on the value of the coefficient of determination (R) and the value of the marginal tendency (B) was (0.126) which that a change in the Defusing resistance and conflict by one unit will lead to a change in Organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (0.126). Which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing relationship of Defusing resistance and conflict in Organizational effectiveness?
- D. We find from the results presented in Table (28) that the dimensions of independent variable Leadership Competencies “Institutionalising” effect on Organizational effectiveness in terms of the value of the level of significance calculated for all dimensions, which amounted to (0.000), which is less than the

default level of significance (0.05), and the calculated (t) test was (12.536), with a degree of freedom (1495, 4) are larger. Depending on the value of the coefficient of determination (R) and the value of the marginal tendency (B) was (0.366) which that a change in the Institutionalising by one unit will lead to a change in Organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (0.366). Which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing relationship of Institutionalising in Organizational effectiveness?

4.7. Hypothesis result summary:

The below table summarizes the research hypothesis as below:

Table 29: Hypothesis result summary

No	Hypothesis	Result
1	There is a significant and positive correlation between leadership competencies and organizational effectiveness	Accepted
A.	There is a significant and positive correlation between Goal framing and organizational effectiveness	Accepted
B.	There is a significant and positive correlation between Capacity Building and organizational effectiveness	Accepted
C.	There is a significant and positive correlation between Defusing Resistance to Conflict and organizational effectiveness	Accepted
D.	There is a significant and positive correlation between Institutionalizing and organizational effectiveness	Accepted
2	There is significant and positive effect of leadership competencies on organizational effectiveness.	Accepted
A.	There is a significant effect of goal framing on organizational effectiveness	Accepted
B.	There is a significant effect of Capacity Building on organizational effectiveness	Accepted
C.	There is a significant effect of defusing resistance to conflict on organizational effectiveness	Accepted
D.	There is a significant effect of Institutionalizing on organizational effectiveness	Accepted

CONCLUSION

The below findings were summarised:

It has been concluded that the development of the university depends on the availability of leadership competencies which affect positively on the success of the university future plans from one side, and to keep the sustainability for being in competition line from other side. The data also reveals that there is a strong correlation “relationship between leadership competencies and organizational effectiveness and that means we conclude that the greater the interest of the surveyed university in developing leadership competencies, this leads to strengthening their capabilities in organizational effectiveness.

There is a significant and positive correlation between the first sub-dimension of independent variable leadership competencies “goal framing” and the dimensions of organizational effectiveness which enables to conclude that the greater the interest in the goal framing this enhances leadership competencies.

There is a significant and positive correlation between the second sub-dimension of independent variable leadership competencies “capacity building” and the dimensions of organizational effectiveness which enables to conclude that the greater the interest in the capacity building this enhances leadership competencies.

There is a significant and positive correlation between the third sub-dimension of independent variable leadership competencies “defusing resistance and conflict” and the dimensions of organizational effectiveness which enables us to conclude that the greater the interest in the defusing resistance and conflict this enhances leadership competencies.

There is a significant and positive correlation between institutionalising and the dimensions of organizational effectiveness which indicates that the increased interest of the university surveyed in institutionalising enhances its capabilities in increasing leadership competencies.

According to regression results between research main variables, it has been concluded that if the university want to improve their organizational effectiveness capabilities, this would be done through the leadership competencies. It has been found that the dimensions of independent variable leadership competencies “goal framing” effect on organizational effectiveness which that a change in the goal framing by one

unit will lead to a change in organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (0.205). Which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing relationship of goal framing in organizational effectiveness. It has been found that the dimensions of independent variable leadership competencies “capacity building” effect on organizational effectiveness which that a change in the capacity building by one unit will lead to a change in organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (0.138). Which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing relationship of capacity building in organizational effectiveness?

It has been found that the dimensions of independent variable leadership competencies “defusing resistance and conflict” effect on organizational effectiveness which that a change in the defusing resistance and conflict by one unit will lead to a change in organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (0.133). Which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing relationship of defusing resistance and conflict in organizational effectiveness?

It has been found from the results that the dimensions of independent variable leadership competencies “institutionalising” effect on organizational effectiveness) which that a change in the institutionalising by one unit will lead to a change in organizational effectiveness by an amount equal to (0.359). Which is a high percentage that can be adopted in explaining the influencing relationship of institutionalising in organizational effectiveness?

It can be concluded from descriptive results that highest acceptance level were recorded for goal framing as the first sub-variable of leadership competencies and the lowest record were recorded for defusing resistance and conflict among four sub variables for leadership competencies. We can conclude from this that the University of Duhok seeks to presents rationale for change, develops attainable goals, and making strategies to achieves the organization's goals. It can be concluded from descriptive results that the highest acceptance level was recorded for student education satisfaction as the first sub-variable of organizational effectiveness and the lowest record were recorded for student career development among all sub variables for leadership competencies. However, we conclude that there is a high degree of satisfaction of students with their educational experiences at the university.

We concludes that the university give more attentions to administrative staff than academic staff which the mean of administrative staff were more than academic

staff and that conclude that the more attention to leadership competencies by respondent sample in the university has the main priority for administrative staff then the academic staff.



DISCUSSION

The first main Hypothesis was accepted which reveals that there is a significant and positive correlation between leadership competencies and organizational effectiveness. The study results shows that there was a significant and positive correlation between the Leadership Competencies and Organizational Effectiveness, this result is the same like Almatrooshi, B., et al, (2016) which concluded that there is a significant and a positive correlation between leadership competencies that in turn influence on organizational effectiveness. This outcome is consistent with Carter's (2009) assertion that leadership is the most important factor for managers to consider when it comes to employee development. Leadership is mostly concerned with how to respond to the counsel given by one's staff. The results concur with Etzioni's assessment (2005). The capacity to select the appropriate objectives or tools for the accomplishment of a certain goal demonstrates a person's effectiveness at work. Also this result is in line with Other studies like Shet.V, et al, (2019) conclude that there is a significant correlation between competencies of leadership and Organizational effectiveness. Self-awareness competence in leadership did not strongly correlate organizational performance, either. As a result, we can say that University of Duhok can use this result to develop the leader's competencies which will directly enhance the effectiveness of university's futures objectives.

Regarding the first sub-hypothesis which states that There is a significant and positive correlation between Goal framing and organizational effectiveness. The research concluded that there is a significant and a positive correlation between goal framing and organizational effectiveness, and this is in line with the result of Lambert (2020) who revealed that there is a positive correlation between goal framing and individual's qualifications in organization. On the other hand, Tuk, M.A.,(2021) demonstrated that goal framing dos not effect on Organizations future objectives and this means organizational effectiveness will remain stable if there were framing mechanism for organizations' goals.

As regards to the second sub-hypothesis which states that There is a significant and positive correlation between capacity building and organizational effectiveness. The research concluded that there is a significant and a positive correlation between capacity building and organizational effectiveness. However, this result is in accord

with Lambert, R (2020) who found that there is a positive correlation between capacity building and individual's capabilities in the work. While found that there is a weak correlation between capacity building and organizational effectiveness (Eisinger, 2002).on the other hand Act, G. V.(2011) demonstrated that there is no correlation between capacity building and organizational effectiveness. Moreover, Broxton, M. L. (2012) Found that capacity building has a strong relationship with organizational effectiveness. In addition, this relationship influences positively on the perceived organizational effectiveness.

Relating to the third sub-hypothesis which states that There is a significant and positive correlation between defusing resistance and conflict and organizational effectiveness. The research concluded that there is a significant and a positive correlation between defusing resistance and conflict and organizational effectiveness. However, this result is in accord with Lambert,R (2020) who found that there is a positive correlation between defusing resistance and conflict and individual's competencies. On the other hand, the result is not in line with Seriki. O, (2022) Study who demonstrated that resistance conflict has a weak correlation with organizational performance and effectiveness. Also another study indicated that there is no strong correlation between resistance conflict and organizational effectiveness (Simosi, M. 1997). Also, John-Eke, E., & Akintokunbo, O. (2020) found. The findings of the empirical testing showed a considerably relationship between resistant conflict methods, collective, and organizational success through the use of Spearman correlation analysis.

concerning the fourth sub-hypothesis which states that there is a significant and positive correlation between Institutionalizing and Organizational Effectiveness. The research concluded that there is a significant and a positive correlation between Institutionalizing and organizational effectiveness. However, this result is in accord with Lambert,R (2020) who found that there is a positive correlation between Institutionalizing and individuals competencies. Also Ashforth, B. E., & Humphrey, R. H. (2022)indicated that there is a relationship between institutionalizing and organizational effectiveness which enhance the productivity through reforming some procedures in order to increase organizational productivity.

The second main Hypothesis was accepted which reveals that there is significant and positive effect of leadership competencies on organizational effectiveness. The study result shows that there is a significant effect of Leadership competencies on Organizational effectiveness is in harmony with results of Taylor. M et al, (2014) who showed that there is a significant effect of high leadership behaviour on perceived organizational effectiveness. The greatest perceived organizational effectiveness was promoted in each organization by visionary leaders with strong leadership abilities. Moreover, this result is in line with Detelin. S., (2000), who demonstrated that leadership affect directly and positively on organizational effectiveness of Russian companies over and beyond the impact of transactional leadership, moreover, Detelin mentioned that effective leaders who display leadership made more and positive contribution to achieve organizational effectiveness. Other researchers like shih, m. l, et al (2009) Found that leadership competencies and their charisma affects as a main variable on the organizational performance and effectiveness on farmers' management. Also Taylor. M et al, (2014) found that showed that there is a significant effect or relationship between leadership and perceived organizational effectiveness. Also this result is in line with Lehnussa Johny's research (2010) Study, according to the study's findings, organizational effectiveness is indirectly influenced by leadership competencies . This suggests that a strong leader will be able to affect in their followers, which would eventually result in the development of an efficient company. Other studies like (Muhammad., et al, 2021) discovered that leadership competence, has an indirect impact on organizational effectiveness this result also support the main findings of the research and provides another evidence for University of Duhok to enhance their managers or decision makers to be more effective during their career.

As regards to the first sub-hypothesis which states that There is a significant impact from goal framing on organizational effectiveness. The research concluded that there is a significant impact from goal framing on organizational effectiveness. However this result is in accordance with Lindsay M.(2023) Who found that goal framing is influential on individual's outcomes which affect directly on organizational effectiveness. On the other hand, Stoner, S. A. (2010). Mentioned that age affect directly of goal framing, moreover, leaders who are over 65 years old are more desire in goal framing and this affect negatively on organizational effectiveness. And this

result is in line with (Tuk, M. A., et al. 2021) study who found the impact of goal framing on two dependent variables employees activities and organizational effectiveness and they illustrated that the more framing the goals, the more effectiveness will be limited.

Relating to the second sub-hypothesis which states that There is a significant impact from capacity building on organizational effectiveness. The research concluded that there is a significant impact from capacity building on organizational effectiveness. This result is same as reported by (Blumenthal, 2003; Connolly and York, 2003; Letts et al., 1999; Venture Philanthropy Partners, 2001) whom stated that capacity building and leadership capacities (like governance and strategy) in particular is given attention in the belief that doing so is more likely to have a long-term positive impact on an organization's effectiveness (capacity building that focuses on more fundamental or transformative change on organizational effectiveness. Also, other studies like Venture Philanthropy Partners, (2001) mentioned that it's hard to find the effect of capacity building on organizational effectiveness.

Regarding the third sub-hypothesis which states that there is a significant impact from defusing resistance to conflict on organizational effectiveness. The research concluded that There is a significant effect of defusing resistance to conflict on organizational effectiveness. The result was in line with Seriki,O. B. (2022) study who found that there are impacts of resistance conflict on organizational effectiveness in all styles with different coefficients. Other study's result like Vokic and Sontor (2019) have similar results indicating a positive affect from defusing resistance to conflict on both organizational performance and effectiveness. However, Longe (2015) pointed out that managers use this style to minimize conflicts and ensure a high level of trust among members of the organization. Other study like Sammy (2016) revealed that avoiding resistance by employees and management leads to harmony and creates opportunities for new conflict and favourable circumstances that improves organizational effectiveness

Concerning the fourth sub-hypothesis which states that There is a significant impact from Institutionalizing on organizational effectiveness. The research concluded that There is a significant effect of Institutionalizing on organizational effectiveness. This result is in line with Fleck, D. (2007) study who mentioned that Processes of

institutionalization have a dubious impact on organizational effectiveness. They encourage organizational permanency and stability, but they can result in rigidity and resistance to change. On the other hand the result of this study is not in line with Cameron, K., et al (2011) study which shows that, when organizational effectiveness measures are chosen by the organizations themselves, institutionalizing good practices does, in fact, have a considerable impact on improvement and effectiveness.



SUGGESTIONS

Based on the above recommendations regarding the current study which revealed the effect of leadership competencies on organizational effectiveness, case for the university of Duhok. thus, the following recommendations are hereby presented which may help the university to improve their human resource capabilities and develop the liaison between their managers and organizational effectiveness :

1. Increasing the university's interest in developing human resources because it is an appropriate input that can be adopted in managing leadership competencies because human resource development activities have the potential to achieve competitive advantages.
2. Building new plans for resistance to change and finding new ways to the resistance about employee's behaviour that threatens the change effort, on the other hand, identifies the root causes of staff resistance to change.
3. Work on the development of students, and the emphasis on career development and the opportunities for career development provided by the institution.
4. The need for managers in the surveyed university to enhance relationship between the dimensions of leadership competencies and organizational effectiveness, especially goal framing which will present rationale for change from one side and develop the attainable goal from other side. However, enhancing goal framing will develop new strategies to achieve the planned goals for the university.
5. Enhancing the effect of student educations satisfaction as one dimension of organizational effectiveness on leadership competencies. however, this will help to increase student's satisfaction with their educational experience at the institution.
6. Doing more research on the effect of leadership competencies dimensions on organizational effectiveness. However, this will enhance the relationship between developing employee's capabilities and organizational effectiveness.
7. Working effectively on familiarising leadership competencies dimensions among all academic staff and administration staff in the university through awareness trainings from one side, and through training course from the other side, yet, this will help to build strategic visions and future perception for them.

8. The need of university to sustainable search to find and determine human resource qualifications and capabilities, this will help to choose the right person for the right place, and this will lead to make rational decisions.
9. Maximizing the decision-making zone by making all related managers to be part of decision. However, this will enable all managers to be familiar with the current situation which will help to make more rational decisions.



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LIST OF ATTACHMENTS

English copy

Questionnaire for Evaluating the Effect of Leadership Competencies on Organizational Effectiveness

Dear Participant:

My name is Zirak Yousif Hasan, and I am a Ph.D. student at Karabuk University. For my Doctoral thesis, I am examining the effect of leadership competencies on organizational effectiveness in the case of the university of Duhok. I am inviting you to participate in this research study by completing the attached surveys. The following questionnaire will require approximately 10 minutes to complete. There is no compensation for responding, nor is there any known risk. Please do not include your name to ensure that all information will remain confidential. If you choose to participate in this study, please answer all questions as honestly as possible and submit the completed questionnaires promptly. Participation is strictly voluntary, and you may refuse to participate at any time. Thank you for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavors. Completing and returning the questionnaire indicate your willingness to participate in this study. If you require additional information or have questions, please get in touch with me at the number listed below.

Sincerely,

Zirak Yousif Hasan

Supervisor: Assist.Prof.Dr. Mehmet Murat TUNÇBİLEK

SECTION A: Background Information:

Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

Participant type: ☐ Academic staff ☐ Administrative staff. ☐

Student

Faculty:

Department:

Seniority (staff only): Less than 5 years ☐ – 10 years ☐ Over 10 ☐

years

Grade (Students only).



SECTION B: leadership Competency

Leadership Competency			Rating				
			Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Goal framing (GF)	1	University Management clarifies the benefits related to the goals					
	2	University Management has made a clear direction of how to achieve the goals					
	3	University management usually presents the rationale for the need for change					
	4	University Management tries to develop attainable goals					
	5	University Management uses every possible means to explain the change goals					
Capacity Building (CB)	6	University management provides training in monitoring among the staff					
	7	University Management provides training in coaching among the staff					
	8	University Management ensures to staff are able to perform the new task					
	9	University Management seeks ways to develop staff's competencies in teaching and learning					
	10	University Management exposes staff continually to the latest innovative ideas about how to be effective					
Defusing Resistance and Conflict (DRC)	11	University Management anticipates the resistance behavior that threatens the change effort					
	12	University Management identifies the root causes of staff resistance to change					
	13	University Management makes individuals who resist change feel confident					
	14	University Management manages change conflict efficiently by seeking an agreement from every party					
	15	University Management helps staff members to cope with their emotional reactions to change					
Institutionalizing (INS)	16	University Management ensures the sustainability of the system established					
	17	University Management ensures staff members continuing to contribute to changes that were made					
	18	University Management allocates sufficient time for maintain quality					
	19	University Management analyses objectively the final change outcomes					
	20	University Management Creates opportunities for sharing best practices among the department					

SECTION C: Organizational Effectiveness

Organizational Effectiveness			Rating				
			Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Student Education Satisfaction (SES)	1	Students enjoy their university life					
	2	Students maintain a good relationship with faculties					
	3	Students are highly satisfied with their programs of study					
	4	There is a high student drop-out rate					
Student Academic Development (SAD)	5	Students achieve a high level of academic attainment					
	6	Students only aim to get an academic qualification but not acquire knowledge					
	7	Students are self-directed learners					
Student Career Development (SCD)	8	Alumni are able to secure employment shortly after they graduate					
	9	Alumni are employed in their relevant fields of study					
	10	Alumni are highly commended by their employers					
	11	Alumni get good salaries in comparison to graduates from the same discipline in other local universities					
Student Personal Development (SPD)	12	Students are very civic-minded					
	13	Students are active in extracurricular activities					
	14	Students show high respect for teachers					
College Employment Satisfaction (FES)	15	Faculty's academic staff enjoy teaching					
	16	The faculty's academic staff enjoy conducting research					
	17	The faculty's academic staff is satisfied with their working environment					

	18	My university is a good employer					
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Organizational Effectiveness			Rating				
			Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Professional development and quality of the college Education (PDO)	19	My university ranks the highest in research and publication amongst all local universities in my field					
	20	Faculties have the best qualifications among all local universities					
	21	Faculties are held in high esteem in local academic circles					
	22	My university encourages and supports staff development					
System Openness and community interaction (SOC)	23	Faculties are active in various community services					
	24	University management emphasizes on meeting the needs of employers					
	25	Faculties enjoy a good reputation with the general public					
	26	University management maintains a good link with industry and other higher education institutions					
Ability to Acquire Resources (AAR)	27	My University can attract the best student applicants					
	28	My University can attract and retain good quality staff					
	29	My University outperforms other local universities in securing research funds					
	30	My university outperforms other local universities in securing financial sponsorships from the industry					

Turkish copy

Liderlik Yetkinliklerinin Örgütsel Etkililik Üzerindeki Etkisini Ölçmeye Yönelik Anket

Sayın Katılımcı:

Benim adım Zirak Yousif Hasan ve Karabük Üniversitesinde doktora öğrencisiyim. Doktora tezim için, Duhok Üniversitesinde liderlik yetkinliklerinin örgütsel etkililik üzerindeki etkisini araştırıyorum. Sizi ekteki anketleri doldurarak bu araştırma çalışmasına katılmaya davet ediyorum. Anketin doldurulması yaklaşık 10 dakika sürecektir. Verilen cevaplar karşılığında herhangi bir bedel veya risk yoktur. Tüm bilgilerin gizli kalmasını sağlamak için lütfen adınızı anketlere yazmayınız. Bu çalışmaya katılmayı tercih ederseniz, lütfen tüm soruları mümkün olduğunca dürüst bir şekilde yanıtlayınız ve doldurulmuş anketleri hemen gönderiniz. Katılım kesinlikle isteğe bağlıdır ve istediğiniz zaman katılmayı reddedebilirsiniz. Eğitim çalışmalarında bana yardımcı olduğunuz için teşekkür ederim. Anketi doldurup geri göndermeniz, bu çalışmaya katılmaya istekli olduğunuzu gösterecektir. Ek bilgiye ihtiyacınız veya sorularınız varsa, lütfen aşağıda listelenen numaradan benimle iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Zirak Yousif Hasan

Supervisor: Assist.Prof.Dr. Mehmet Murat TUNÇBİLEK

BÖLÜM A: Arka Plan Bilgileri:

Cinsiyet: Erkek ☐ Kadın ☐

Katılımcı Türü: Akademik Personel ☐ İdari personel. ☐
Öğrenci ☐

Fakülte:

Bölüm/Departman:

Kıdem (yalnızca personel): 5 yıldan az ☐ 5 – 10 yıl ☐ 10 dan fazla ☐

Sınıfı (Yalnızca Öğrenciler).....

BÖLÜM B: liderlik Yetkinliği

Liderlik Yetkinliği			Değerlendirme				
			Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Ne katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Goal framing (GF)	1	Üniversite Yönetimi, hedeflerle ilgili faydaları netleştirir					
	2	Üniversite Yönetimi, hedeflere nasıl ulaşılabileceği konusunda net bir talimat verir					
	3	Üniversite yönetimi genellikle değişim ihtiyacının rasyonelliğini sunar.					
	4	Üniversite Yönetimi ulaşılabilir hedefler geliştirmeye çalışır					
	5	Üniversite Yönetimi, değişim hedeflerini açıklamak için mümkün olan her yolu kullanır					
Capacity Building (CB)	6	Üniversite yönetimi, personeli gözlemlemede eğitim sağlar					
	7	Üniversite Yönetimi, personele koçluk eğitimi verir					
	8	Üniversite Yönetimi personelin yeni görevi yerine getirebilmesine imkân sağlar					
	9	Üniversite Yönetimi, öğretim ve öğrenimde personelin yetkinliklerini geliştirmenin yollarını arar					
	10	Üniversite Yönetimi, personeli sürekli olarak nasıl etkili olunacağına dair en son yenilikçi fikirlere maruz bırakır					
Defusing Resistance and Conflict (DRC)	11	Üniversite Yönetimi değişim çabasını tehdit eden direnç davranışını öngörür					
	12	Üniversite Yönetimi personelin değişime karşı direncinin kök sebeplerini belirler					
	13	Üniversite Yönetimi değişime direnen bireylerin kendilerine güven duymasını sağlar					
	14	Üniversite Yönetimi tarafların her birinden anlaşma zemini arayarak değişim çatışmasını etkili bir şekilde yönetir					
	15	Üniversite Yönetimi personelin değişime karşı duygusal tepkileriyle başa çıkmalarına yardımcı olur					
Institutionalizing (INS)	16	Üniversite Yönetimi kurulan sistemin sürdürülebilirliğini sağlar					
	17	Üniversite Yönetimi personelin yapılan değişikliklere katkıda bulunmaya devam etmesini sağlar					
	18	Üniversite Yönetimi kaliteyi korumak için yeterli zaman tahsis eder					
	19	Üniversite Yönetimi nihai değişim sonuçlarını objektif olarak analiz eder					
	20	Üniversite Yönetimi Bölüm arasında en iyi uygulamaları paylaşmak için fırsatlar yaratır					

BÖLÜM C: Örgütsel Etkinlik

Organizasyonel Etkinlik			Değerlendirme				
			Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Öğrenci Eğitim Memnuniyeti (SES)	1	Öğrenciler üniversite hayatının tadını çıkarır					
	2	Öğrenciler fakülteler ile iyi bir ilişki sürdürür					
	3	Öğrenciler eğitim programlarından son derece memnundur					
	4	Yüksek bir öğrenimi tamamlayamama oranı vardır					
Öğrenci Eğitim Memnuniyeti (SES)	5	Öğrenciler yüksek düzeyde akademik başarı elde ederler					
	6	Öğrenciler yalnızca akademik bir nitelik kazanmayı amaçlar, bilgi edinmezler					
	7	Öğrenci kendi kendini yönetebilen öğrenenlerdir					
Öğrenci Kariyer Gelişimi (SCD)	8	Mezunlar mezun olduktan kısa bir süre sonra iş bulabilirler					
	9	Mezunlar öğrenim gördüğü alanla ilgili istihdam edilirler					
	10	Mezunlar, işverenleri tarafından oldukça methedilir					
	11	Mezunlar diğer yerel üniversitelerdeki aynı disiplinden mezunlara kıyasla daha iyi ücret alırlar					
Öğrenci Kişisel Gelişimi (SPD)	12	Öğrenciler çok medeni düşüncelidirler					
	13	Öğrenciler ders dışı etkinliklerde aktiftir					
	14	Öğrenciler öğretmenlere çok saygı gösterir					
Fakülte İstihdam Memnuniyeti (FES)	15	Fakülte akademik personeli öğretmekten keyif alır					
	16	Fakülte akademik personeli araştırma yapmaktan keyif alır					
	17	Fakülte akademik personeli çalışma ortamından memnundur					

	18	Üniversitem iyi bir işverendir					
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Organizasyonel Etkinlik			Değerlendirme				
			Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Ne katılmıyorum ne katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Fakültemin mesleki gelişimi ve kalitesi Eğitimden Memnuniyet	19	Üniversitem, alanımdaki tüm yerel üniversiteler arasında araştırma ve yayında en üst sırada yer alır					
	20	Fakülteler, tüm yerel üniversiteler arasında en iyi niteliklere sahiptir					
	21	Fakülteler yerel akademik çevrelerde yüksek itibar görmektedir					
	22	Üniversitem personel gelişimini teşvik eder ve destekler					
Sistem Açıklığı ve topluluk etkileşimi (SOC)	23	Fakülteler çeşitli toplum hizmetlerinde aktiftir					
	24	Üniversite yönetimi işverenlerin ihtiyaçlarını karşılamaya önem verir					
	25	Fakülteler halk nezdinde iyi bir üne sahiptir					
	26	Üniversite yönetimi endüstri ve diğer yüksek öğretim kurumlarıyla iyi bir bağ kurar					
Kaynak Edinme Yeteneği (AAR)	27	Üniversitem en iyi öğrenci adaylarını çekebilir					
	28	Üniversitem kaliteli personeli çekebilir ve elinde tutabilir					
	29	Üniversitem araştırma fonları sağlamada diğer yerel üniversitelerden daha iyi performans gösterir					
	30	Üniversitem, endüstriden finansal sponsorluk sağlama konusunda diğer yerel üniversitelerden daha iyi performans gösterir					

Arabic copy

استبيان لتقييم تأثير الكفاءات القيادية على الفعالية التنظيمية

عزيزي المشارك:

اسمي زيرك يوسف حسن، انا طالب دكتوراه في جامعة كارابوك. أقوم في رسالة الدكتوراه بدراسة تأثير الكفاءات القيادية على الفعالية التنظيمية في جامعة دھوك. أدعوكم للمشاركة في هذه الدراسة البحثية من خلال استكمال الاستبيانات المرفقة. سيتطلب الاستبيان التالي حوالي 10 دقائق لإكماله. للتأكد من أن جميع المعلومات ستبقى سرية، يرجى عدم كتابة اسمك. إذا اخترت المشاركة في هذه الدراسة، يرجى الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة بأمانة وإرسال الاستبيانات المكتملة على الفور. المشاركة طوعية تمامًا، ويمكنك رفض المشاركة في أي وقت. شكرًا لك على الوقت الذي قضيناه في مساعدتي في مساري التعليمي. سيشير إكمال الاستبيان وإعادةه إلى رغبتك في المشاركة في هذه الدراسة. إذا كنت بحاجة إلى معلومات إضافية أو كانت لديك أسئلة، فيرجى الاتصال بي على الرقم والايمل المذكور أدناه.

بإخلاص

الباحث: زيرك يوسف حسن

المشرف: Assistant Prof. Mehmet Murat Tunçbilek

القسم أ: معلومات أساسية

الجنس: ☐ ذكر ☐ أنثى

نوع المشارك: ☐ لطاغم الأكاديمي ☐ طاغم الإدارة ☐ طالب علم ☐

الكلية:

قسم:

مدة الخدمة في الجامع

أقل من 5 سنوات. ☐ من 5-10 سن ☐ أكثر من 10 سنوات ☐

طلاب فقط (مرحلة التعليم):

تقييم					القسم ب: الكفاءة القيادية الكفاءة القيادي	
مُعَارَض شِدَّة	مُعَارَض	مُجَابِد	مُوَافَق	مُوَافَق شِدَّة		
					1 إدارة الجامعة يوضح الفوائد المتعلقة به	تشكيل الهدف (GF)
					2 حددت إدارة الجامعة اتجاهًا واضحًا لكيفية تحقيق الأهداف	
					3 عادة ما تقدم إدارة الجامعة الأساس المنطقي للحاجة إلى التغيير	
					4 تحاول إدارة الجامعة تطوير أهداف قابلة للتحقيق	
					5 (تستخدم إدارة الجامعة كل الوسائل الممكنة لشرح أهداف التغيير	
					6 توفر إدارة الجامعة التدريب على المراقبة بين الموظفين	بناء القدرات (CB)
					7 إدارة الجامعة توفر التدريب في التدريب بين أعضاء هيئة التدريس	
					8 إدارة الجامعة تضمن للموظفين القدرة على أداء المهمة الجديدة	
					9 تبحث إدارة الجامعة عن طرق لتطوير كفاءات أعضاء هيئة التدريس في التدريس والتعلم	
					10 إدارة الجامعة تعرض الموظفين باستمرار لأحدث الأفكار المبتكرة حول كيفية أن تكون فعالاً	
					11 إدارة الجامعة تتوقع سلوك المقاومة الذي يهدد جهود التغيير	زراعة قنبل المقاومة والصراع (DRC)
					12 إدارة الجامعة تحدد الأسباب الجذرية لمقاومة الموظفين للتغيير	
					13 إدارة الجامعة تجعل الأفراد الذين يقاومون التغيير يشعرون بالثقة	

					14	إدارة الجامعة تدير تغيير الصراع بكفاءة من خلال السعي للحصول على اتفاق من كل طرف	(INS) إصفاء الطابع المؤسسي
					15	إدارة الجامعة تساعد أعضاء هيئة التدريس على التعامل مع ردود أفعالهم العاطفية تجاه التغيير	
					16	إدارة الجامعة تضمن استدامة النظام المنشأ	
					17	إدارة الجامعة تضمن استمرار مساهمة الموظف في التغيير الذي تم إجراؤه	
					18	إدارة الجامعة تخصص الوقت الكافي للمحافظة على الجودة	
					19	تقوم إدارة الجامعة بتحليل نتائج التغيير النهائي بموضوعية	
					20	إدارة الجامعة تخلق فرصًا لتبادل أفضل الممارسات بين الأقسام .	

القسم ج: الفعالية التنظيمية

تقييم					الفعالية التنظيمية	
مُعارض بشدة	مُعارض	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة		
					1	الرضا عن تعليم الطلاب (SES)
					2	يستمتع الطلاب بحياتهم الجامعية
					3	يحافظ الطلاب على علاقة جيدة مع الكليات
					4	الطلاب راضون للغاية عن برامجهم الدراسية
					5	هناك نسبة عالية من تسرب الطلاب
					6	تحقيق الطلاب مستوى عالٍ من التحصيل الأكاديمي
					7	يهدف الطلاب فقط إلى الحصول على مؤهل أكاديمي ولكنهم لا يكتسبون المعرفة
					8	الطلاب هم متعلمون موجهون ذاتيًا
					9	الخريجين قادرين على تأمين وظيفة بعد وقت قصير من تخرجهم
					10	الخريجين عاملين في مجالات ذات الصلة بالدراسة
					11	الخريجين إشادة كبيرة من قبل أرباب العمل
					12	يحصل الخريجون على رواتب جيدة مقارنة بالخريجين من نفس التخصص في الجامعات المحلية الأخرى
					13	الطلاب يتمتعون بعقلية مدنية للغاية
					14	الطلاب ناشطون في الأنشطة اللامنهجية
					15	يظهر الطلاب احترامًا عاليًا للمعلمين

15	الرضا الوظيفي لأعضاء هيئة التدريس	يتمتع أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالكلية بالتدريس				
16		يتمتع أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالكلية بإجراء البحوث				
17		يلبي أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالكلية بيئة عملهم				
18	الرضا الوظيفي لأعضاء هيئة التدريس	جامعتي رب عمل جيد				

تقييم					الفعالية التنظيمية	
معارض بشدة	معارض	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة		
					19	التطوير التعليمي لأعضاء هيئة التدريس (PDQ)
					20	تحتل جامعتي المرتبة الأولى في مجال البحث والنشر بين جميع الجامعات المحلية في مجال تخصصي
					21	تتمتع الكليات بأفضل المؤهلات بين جميع الجامعات المحلية
					22	تحظى الكليات بتقدير كبير في الأوساط الأكاديمية المحلية
					23	جامعتي تشجع وتدعم تطوير الموظفين
					24	تنشط الكليات في مختلف الخدمات المجتمعية
					25	إدارة الجامعة تؤكد على تلبية احتياجات أرباب العمل
					26	تتمتع الكليات بسمعة طيبة لدى الجمهور
					27	إدارة الجامعة تحافظ على علاقة جيدة مع الصناعة ومؤسسات التعليم العالي الأخرى
					28	يمكن لجامعتي جذب أفضل الطلاب المتقدمين
					29	يمكن لجامعتي جذب موظفين ذوي كفاءة عالية والاحتفاظ بهم
					30	جامعتي تتفوق في الأداء على الجامعات المحلية الأخرى في تأمين التمويل البحثي
					30	تتفوق جامعتي في الأداء على الجامعات المحلية الأخرى في تأمين الرعايات المالية من الصناعة

CURRICULUM VITAE

My name is Zirak Y HASAN, I have received bachelor degree in management department from University of Duhok, Iraq in 2008, master degree in management from the University of Huddersfield, UK in 2012, and Ph.D from Karabuk University, Turkey in 2023. I work as a lecturer at the University of Duhok, Iraq.

