The impact of leadership types on the employee willing-cooperation "an applied study on the Egyptian customs sector"

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Abstract

There is redoubt that the organizational viability depends in part on effective leadership. Effective leaders engage in both professional and personal leadership behaviors and besides that impact employee willing-cooperation also (Masrranglo, et al, 2004). So, this study aims to investigate the impact of the personal and professional leadership on the employee willing-cooperation. The study conducted and applied on the employees who working in the Egyptian customs sector. Data collected and obtained by distributing a questionnaire on 150 employees in the Egyptian customs which measuring their opinions about their managerial leaders personal leadership indicators(e.g. building trust, caring for people, and acting morally)and professional leadership indicators (e.g. setting a mission , creating a process for achieving goals, aligning process and rules).Through data analysis it concluded that the personal leadership is a great mediator of the relationship between professional leadership and presences of willing-cooperation.the result discussion and point for future research presented also.

Keywords: Leadership, Professional leadership, personal leadership, willing co-operation.

1. **Introduction:**

There is no doubt that the success of any organization depends on its wise leadership and flexible management as (Angelo etal, 2004) pointed that Organizational viability depends in part on effective leadership. Effective leaders engage in both professional leadership behaviors (e.g. setting a mission, creating a process for achieving goals, aligning processes and procedures) and personal leadership behaviors (e.g. building trust, caring for people, acting morally). Interestingly, most of what we know about leadership comes from the examination of how employees relate to their immediate supervisors. However, examining individual perceptions of "leadership" at the organizational level is an interesting proposition. At first glance, it may seem that professional leadership behaviors such as aligning processes and procedures may be more easily conceptualized at the organizational level than personal leadership behaviors such as acting morally. However, recent events such as Enron and WorldCom suggest the important impact of personal leadership. In these cases, negative personal leadership behaviors were present throughout the organization and the consequences were dramatic.

Also, leadership has its behaviors and roles as in a previous study conducted by (Tricia etal, 2008) to investigate the leadership roles, the predictors of leadership effectiveness for Chinese manager, and the relative effects of gender and rater differences on perceived leadership roles, it founded that cultural and institutional differences do exert significant variation in leadership behavior associated with leadership effectiveness. The two groups differed with regard to the predictor of effectiveness: for the Chinese managers it was the developer and deliverer, and for the Australian managers the integrator. This result could also explain why the Chinese managers were not as effective as they might be, as the critical element for effectiveness is the ability to assimilate the environment (including matters cultural) and the ability to decide which role is the most appropriate and how it should be displayed. These requirements are met through the effective use of the Integrator role. The Chinese managers were focused mostly on getting the job done (deliverer) and looking after their staff (developer) and had significant preferences for some roles over others; for example the deliverer and developer were preferred, indicating that they were not able to move with ease between the roles. That is, they did not display behavioral complexity, which may limit their effectiveness. A common contributing factor may be that they were "over-raters" who in the past have been shown to be less effective.

So the study aims to investigate the impact of the personal and professional leadership on the employee willing-cooperation. The study conducted and applied on the employees who working in the Egyptian customs sector. Data collected and obtained by distributing a questionnaire on 150 employees in the Egyptian customs which measuring their opinions about their managerial leaders personal leadership indicators(e.g. building trust, caring for people, and acting morally)and professional leadership indicators (e.g. setting a mission , creating a process for achieving goals, aligning process and rules).

2. Theoretical Framework:

2.1 Leadership

Leadership has been studied from a variety of perspectives. From traits (Stogdill, 1948) and behaviors (Fleishman, 1953) through contingency theory (Fiedler, 1967) and situational theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977) to transformational and charismatic leadership (House, 1977), researchers have long attempted to understand the determinants of effective leadership.

One theme among much of this research is the idea that leadership behaviors and actions are important determinants of effectiveness. Some of the earliest research in this area suggested that leaders must be concerned with task-related issues and people-related issues. For example, the Ohio State studies explored initiating structure (i.e. defining and structuring the work) and consideration (i.e. respect for subordinates and sensitivity to subordinate feelings) (Fleishman, 1953). Michigan studies explored task-oriented and relation-oriented behaviors (Likert, 1961). Building on this initial research, Blake and Mouton (1964) suggested that managers could be placed on a "grid" based on their concern for production and concern for people. More recent theories of leadership continue to explore important leader behaviors and actions. For example, Fiedler's (1967) LPC model explores many factors, including leader-member relations and task structure. Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) situational theory of leadership suggests that the extent to which leaders engage in relationship behaviors and task behaviors depends on the maturity of the followers. These are just a few of the many theories that explore leader behaviors and actions. Although researchers use different terms, it seems reasonable to conclude from the extant literature that to be successful, leaders must be concerned with both task- and people-related issues in the workplace.

2.2 Approaches to Leadership

Several theories prevailed in the early days of leadership, but very few of them were subsequently applied in the study of entrepreneurship (Cogliser and Brigham, 2004). Indicatively, we should mention: the Traits Theory (Stogdill, 1948), the Managerial Motivation Theory (McClelland, 1965), the task-oriented/relations-oriented behavior (Likert, 1961), the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964), Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971) and the Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1971). Although some of these approaches have been applied in the study of entrepreneurship, they have not been used to investigate the leadership profile of the entrepreneur, but rather to answer questions of other Schools of Thought of Entrepreneurship, such as the Classic or the Psychological Characteristics School of Thought (Ratnatunga and Romano, 1997). For example, McClelland's Managerial Motivation Theory has been extensively used in Entrepreneurship, but mostly applying the motive imagery profile to explain the decision to "entreprendre" (Apospori et al., 2005). More recently, some later leadership theories have been applied more extensively in the study of entrepreneurial firms and, what is more, in agreement to the notion of the Leadership School of Entrepreneurship.

Such theories are the Charismatic Leadership (House, 1977; House et al., 2001b), Transformational Leadership (Bass, 1985), Visionary Leadership (Westley and Mintzberg, 1998), Authentic Leadership (Luthans and Avolio, 2003) and the Shared Leadership (Ensley et al., 2003) theory. We will develop in brief some of these theories and the way in which they have been applied in the study of entrepreneurship, as they help to shed some light in the topic under study.

Charismatic, transformational, and visionary leadership:

With the original work of House (1977), in the mid-1970's a new genre of leadership theory has emerged in the organizational literature, alternatively referred to as "charismatic", "transformational", "visionary" or "inspirational" (House and Shamir, 1993; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; House et al., 2001b; Shamir et al., 1993; Den Hartog et al., 1999; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Podsakoff et al., 1996). This set of theories focus on exceptional leaders who display extraordinary effects on their followers. Such leaders transform the values, needs, preferences and aspirations of followers from self-interests to collective interests, while at the same time, they cause high commitment of the followers to the leader's mission so that they "perform above and beyond the call of duty" (House and Shamir, 1993, p. 577).The connecting element of those leadership theories is the leader's vision and its adoption by followers. As Baum et al. (1998) have put it, all those approaches share three common components:

(1) Communicating a vision;

(2) Taking various actions to implement the vision; and

(3) Possessing a charismatic personality style.

In Charismatic Leadership, vision and its effective communication leads to its deeply held adoption by the followers. In Transformational Leadership, as opposed to transactional leadership, leaders and followers coordinate their efforts to reach higher level goals that result in major changes, dictated by vision (Ensley et al., 2006, Visser et al., 2005, Ardichvili, 2001). Transactional Leadership, on the other hand, is focused on exchange relationships between leaders and their followers: the leader clarifies expectations, administers rewards and punishments and closely monitors subordinates to ensure goals are met. Finally, visionary leadership is performed through the leader's vision. The concept of charismatic or transformational leadership has been used to investigate the success of entrepreneurs as leaders in diverse research settings. Indicatively, we mention studies and theoretical frameworks on the effect of transformational leadership on new venture, individual, and organization- level performance (Ensley et al., 2006; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Ardichvili, 2001). Vision, in particular, and vision communication at large, have been extensively studied as determining factors of the success of the entrepreneur as a leader (Baum and Locke, 2004; Baum et al., 1998; Tarabishy et al., 2005).

Shared leadership

The notion and importance of shared leadership, a new stream of leadership theory, emanated ironically from the critique on leadership theory and the belief that leadership may not have as much of an impact as all the interest in it would suggest (Ensley et al., 2003). Interest on shared leadership comes from the admission of the

role of teams and especially top management teams in entrepreneurial success (Ensley et al., 2000). Research on shared leadership in intrapreneurial teams and entrepreneurial teams (Ensley, 1999) suggests that shared leadership is more important for team effectiveness than the leadership exhibited by the team leader.

Entrepreneurial leadership

Finally, a new term, introduced in some studies is "Entrepreneurial leadership". One study worth mentioning was conducted by Gupta et al., in 2004 and it effectively introduced and defined the concept of entrepreneurial leadership. This study was based on Globe phase I data (therefore achieving globally useful conclusions) and proposed a construct for entrepreneurial leadership (Gupta et al., 2004). This construct consisted of two major functions of the entrepreneurial leader, i.e. scenario enactment and cast enactment. The former consists of framing the vision, absorbing uncertainty and clarifying the path for the followers, whereas the latter consists of building commitment and specifying the limits of follower's behavior. Importance of the CEO's leadership style. As shown from the above analysis, the leadership style of the entrepreneurial firm's leader has attracted the interest of numerous leadership and entrepreneurship researchers in the past. It has moreover been shown that the leadership style of the CEO on one hand (Hoffman and Hegarty, 1993; Waldman et al., 2001; Baum and Locke, 2004; Baum et al., 2001; Tarabishy et al., ,2005), as well as of the top management team (Hambrick and Mason, 1984; Ensley et al., 2000; Ensley et al., 2003), on the other, is pivotal for the organizational performance in total. This conception is in overall agreement with the classic Upper Echelons Theory (Hambrick and Mason, 1984). The effects of CEOs' leadership on organizational performance, although suggested in numerous studies (Podsakoff et al., 1996), have been studied in a very limited number of studies (Tarabishy et al., 2005). As a matter of fact, CEO leadership is important for two distinct effects that it bears on organizational performance:

(1) Effect on organizational performance, as a result of distant leadership, i.e. leadership bypassing middle levels of management and felt directly at lower echelons (Yammarino, 1994; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999).

(2) Effect on organizational performance as a result of the higher effectiveness of the top management team surrounding the CEO, due to the direct CEO leadership effects on top managers- members of the top management team.

2.3 <u>Leadership versus Management</u>

There are many diverse definitions of leadership. Stogdill concluded that "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept". While Peter Drucker sums up that: "The only definition of a leader is someone who has followers. To gain followers requires influence but doesn't exclude the lack of integrity in achieving this" (Yukl, 1989). Some theorists believe that leadership is no different from the social influence processes occurring among all members of a group and others believe that leadership is everything someone is doing in order to lead effective. The classic question if leaders are made or born is still

concerns many researchers. Is it a charisma or something that can be taught? The answer to this question varies. Although it is unexceptionable that leading isn't easy, leaders should have some essential attributes such as vision, integrity, trust, selflessness, commitment, creative ability, toughness, communication ability, risk taking and visibility (Capowski, 1994).

2.3.1 Management

Some would define management as an art, while others would define it as a science. Whether management is an art or a science isn't what is most important. Management is a process that is used to accomplish organizational goals. That is, a process that is used to achieve what an organization wants to achieve. But do leaders and managers have the same role? Can organizations have only leaders or only managers?

A well balanced organization should have a mix of leaders and managers to succeed, and in fact what they really need is a few great leaders and many first-class managers (Kotterman, 2006)

2.3.2 Managers and Leaders: Are they different?

Managers are the people to whom this management task is assigned, and it is generally thought that they achieve the desired goals through the key functions of planning and budgeting, organizing and staffing, problem solving and controlling. Leaders on the other hand set a direction, align people, motivate and inspire (Kotter, 2001). Other researchers consider that a leader has soul, the passion and the creativity while a manager has the mind, the rational and the persistence. A leader is flexible, innovative, inspiring, courageous and independent and at the same time a manager is consulting, analytical, deliberate, and authoritative and stabilizing (Capowski, 1994). The most important differences between leaders and managers concern the workplace and are concluded in table I:

Process	Management	Leadership
Vision Establishment	• Plans and budgets • Develops process steps and sets timelines • Displays impersonal attitude about the vision and goals	• Sets direction and develop the vision • Develops strategic plans and achieve the vision • Displays very passionate attitude about the vision and goals
Human Development and Networking	• Organizes and staffs • Maintains structure • Delegate responsibility • Delegates authority • Implements the vision • Establishes policy and procedures to implement vision • Displays low emotion • Limits employee choices	• Align organization • Communicates the vision, mission and direction • Influences creation of coalitions, teams and partnerships that understand and accept the vision • Displays driven, high emotion • Increases choices

Vision Execution	- Controls processes - Identifies problems - Solves problems - Monitor results - Takes low risk approach to problem solving	- Motivates and inspires - Energizes employees to overcome barriers to change - Satisfies basic human needs - Takes high risk approach to problem solving
Vision Outcome	- Managers vision order and predictability - Provides expected results consistently to leadership and other stakeholders	- Promotes useful and - dramatic changes, such as new products or approaches to improving labor relation

Table I: Comparison of Management and Leadership Process Differences in the workplace (Kotterman, 2006).

2.4 <u>Leadership and culture</u>

The study of leadership is deeply attached to culture. Both the leader's actions and followers' responses inevitably reflect the forms of behaviour which are regarded as legitimate and appropriate within their society. Owing to the crucial role played by culture, cross-cultural leadership studies have caught the attention of many researchers in the last 40 years. Nevertheless, most leadership theories are North American in origin. These theories might not be appropriate to be applied on a worldwide basis, especially in cultures, which differ significantly from the American culture. Studies of leadership styles have revealed that there are not only differences in the styles preferred by followers in different cultures, but the specific behaviours which reflect these styles may vary from culture to culture (Smith and Peterson, 1988). In a previous study conducted by (Amany and Peter, 2004) to illustrates the impact of culture on leadership styles. In particular it supports Bass's (1996) contention that Bass and Avolio's (1994) model of transformational and transactional leadership has universal potential, but may require adjustment as we move across culture. He further argued that such adjustment was more likely to be required in non-Western cultures.

2.5 <u>Leadership and Organizational culture</u>

Denison (1996, p. 654) asserts that culture is "the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by organizational members." In other words, when we speak of organizational culture, we refer to the meanings inherent in the actions, procedures, and protocols of organizational commerce and discourse. According to Beugelsdijk et al. (2006), organizational culture is specific to an organization (Smircich, 1983), is relatively constant (Christensen and Gordon, 1999), and can influence inter-organizational relations. This definition is pertinent to our discussion, as we propose that the underlying cultures of private enterprises are sufficiently different to those inNFP organizations towarrant

different paths of association between leadership and innovation in those organizations. Fishman and Kavanaugh (1989) suggested that the behaviors of leaders shape how people respond to change and innovation in organizational cultures. Similarly, Schein (1992) and Kavanagh and Ashkanasy (2006, p. S82) claim that organizational leaders are a key source of influence on organizational culture. It follows that different organizational cultures respond to and are the result of different leadership approaches. For instance, research by Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001, 2002, 2005) and Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe (2007) found that public sector leadership was more akin to Greenleaf's (1970)servant leadership model compared with the heroic leadership of CEOs in large contemporary American multinational corporations. In other words, this leadership was more about the leadership of others than about leadership per se.

There are two schools of thought about leaders and culture. The functionalist school claims that leaders are the architects of culture change (Schein, 1992; Trice and Beyer, 1993) either through substantive, visible actions or through the symbolic roles they play (Meindl et al., 1985). On the other hand, the anthropological view questions the capacity of leaders being able to create culture (Meek, 1988; Smircich, 1983); that is, leaders are part of culture, not apart from it. Nonetheless, the body of evidence is heavily weighted in favour of the functionalist perspective, where leaders are in a strategic position better able to shape organization culture (Denison andMishra, 1995; Schein, 1992). Schneider et al. (1995) state that organizational managers and executives "make" the environment.

Although the relationship between leadership and organizational culture is assumed to be bi-directional (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Schein, 1992), we propose that the top echelons of leaders are in a position to significantly influence cultural identity and change (Barlow et al., 2003; Katz and Kahn, 1978). In many instances, the type of leadership required to change culture is transformational, because culture change needs enormous energy and commitment to achieve outcomes. Bass (1999, p. 16) has stated that "for an organizational culture to become more transformational, top management must articulate the changes that are required [. . .] The behaviors of top level leaders become symbols of the organization's new culture." Through transformational leadership we believe managers can help build a strong organizational culture and thereby contribute to a positive climate for organizational innovation and subsequently influence innovative behavior (Elenkov and Manev, 2005; Jung et al., 2003).

2.6 Elements of Leadership model

Willing cooperators who are engaged in the common purpose do more than follow – they willingly contribute their efforts. A lack of willing cooperation implies that other means of facilitating "cooperation" (e.g. coercion, material exchange) will have to be implemented to move the organization forward. Research has shown that the use of

such forceful and/or transactional methods to achieve cooperation are less successful in the long term than methods that achieve willing cooperation (Yukl, 1998).

A key element in obtaining willing cooperation is engaging members by creating a "benefit" for cooperation. According to Barnard (1938), "benefit" is the synergistic effect that results in an output that is greater than the sum of individual efforts. Synergy alone, however, is not a sufficient "benefit" to engage members in willing cooperation. What is also critical to willing cooperation is a win/win philosophy. A win/win philosophy ensures that as the organization performs well, individuals benefit from organizational success. Win/win goals and outcomes have been shown to reduce conflict (Covey, 1989; Hill, 1994; Katz and Kahn, 1966) and increase motivation (Covey, 1989; Katz and Kahn, 1966).

2.6.1Professional leadership

Developing willing cooperation begins with professional leadership – providing direction, process, and coordination to the members of an organization for the purpose of attaining the organization's goals. This encompasses the "formal" part of leadership – setting the vision and mission for the organization, creating a process for achieving organizational goals, and aligning processes and procedures, people and infrastructure, to achieve organizational goals. The focus of professional leadership is truly at the organizational, rather than the dyadic, level. Direction. A main part of leading is being out front and providing direction. Perhaps, the most important direction leaders provide is the function of defining a common purpose (Barnard, 1938). It is this desirable and attainable common purpose that engages members (Burns, 1978). Since organizations are cooperative and coordinated systems (Barnard, 1938), it is direction that defines "common purpose" which provides a nucleus for an effective system. It is also essential to success because it begins the leadership process with an end in mind (Covey, 1989, 1990). Some current terms for common purpose include "mission", "vision", and "philosophy". An organization's "mission statement" should communicate the organization's primary reason to exist. Effective "vision" provides a simple and idealistic goal, presents a desirable future (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Kouzes and Posner, 1995), and creates a "stretch" (Hamel and Prahalad, 1994). Forward-looking (visionary) was selected by 71 percent of the respondents in Kouzes and Posner's (1993) poll of characteristics of admired leaders. This is consistent with prior research that suggests that vision is a critical element for organizations that have a passion for excellence (Peters and Austin, 1985). In order for philosophy to be inspiring and engaging it must be perceived to be mutually beneficial and effective from a strategic focus (Katz and Kahn, 1966). Such approaches where individuals see both individual and organizational gains are more likely to lead to willing cooperation. Process. Critical to the success of leader direction is providing, implementing and managing a systematic process. Most important is that the process has, as its goal, the attainment of the common purpose of the organization (Beer et al., 1995). Creating a "constancy of purpose", is the first of Deming's (1982) 14 points for the transformation of western management, in which he stresses consistent,

persistent, and effective implementation of process designed to attain an organization's stated common purpose. There are three special critical elements of an effective systematic process: members must have confidence that the process provided by leaders is effective in attaining the "common purpose" of an organization (Barnard, 1938), each member should understand how his job contributes to this effort, and the process should be focused on continuous improvement. Deming makes this point by emphasizing the importance of improving constantly and forever the system of production and service to improve quality and productivity. If through the actions of an organization's leaders, members are confident in the organization's ability to achieve its purpose, are confident in the process for achieving that purpose, and feel their organization is interested in continuous improvement, it seems reasonable that those members are more likely to willingly cooperate with their leaders.
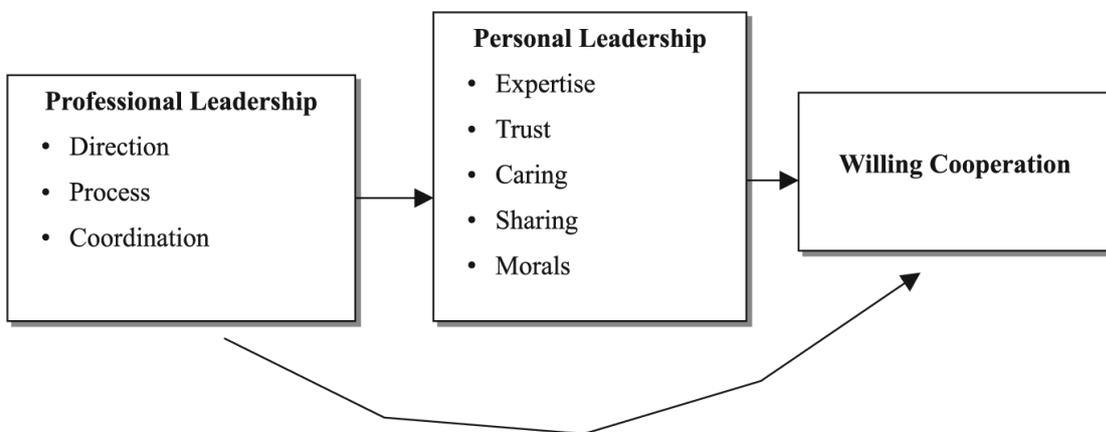

Figure 1.
Personal leadership as a mediator of professional leadership and willing cooperation
(Masrranglo, et al, 2004)

2.6.2 Personal leadership

Personal leadership can be thought of as the personal behavior of leaders in performing the responsibilities of professional leadership, including expertise, trust, caring, sharing and morals. It can be thought of as the "people" side of leadership. It is through these personal behaviors that leaders ensure the success of the professional leadership. In essence, personal leadership "carries" the professional message to the organization.

Expertise. It is the perceived ability and competence of leaders. Competence has been found to be a key element of positive perception of leaders by members (Kouzes and Posner, 1993) as well as an important characteristic in effective leaders (Kouzes and Posner, 1993; Yukl, 1998). Further, expertise is a major source and method of obtaining power (French and Raven, 1959). Referent power accrues to leaders as a result of identification or admiration of the leader by employees (French and Raven,

1959). Expert and referent powers also have additional benefits in that they can be substituted for other powers (Katz and Kahn, 1966). It seems reasonable that employees who are confident in the expertise of their organization's leadership will be more likely to willingly cooperate with their leaders' goals and objectives.

Trust. Trust is the perceived honesty, sincerity and dependability of leaders. It is a natural and essential component of relationships (Gabarro, 1978; Rempel et al., 1985). Trust is also a powerful force; Covey (1989) considers trust to be the currency for his "emotional bank account". The first element of trust is honesty, the number one response (87 percent) in Kouzes and Posner's (1993, p. 14) poll of characteristics of admired leaders. Honesty not only occupies the number one spot but also has consistently been the leading response in their polls. The "willingness to rely on another" has also been found to be an important factor in establishing trust (Rousseau et al., 1998). Trust in this perspective has as its basis reliability, which is enhanced consistency and predictability (Cook and Campbell, 1979; Deming, 1982; Kerlinger, 1986). It seems likely that the more trust the organization members have in their leaders, the more likely they will be to willingly cooperate.

Caring. Caring is defined as empathy, listening, and politeness to employees regardless of the employee's position in an organization. Caring is similar to consideration, an outcome measure used in countless leadership studies (Bass, 1990; Fisher and Edwards, 1988; Yukl, 1998), but more comprehensive. Consideration has empirical support when correlated with job satisfaction (Yukl, 1998). Supportive behavior, another construct similar to caring although also not as comprehensive, is the core of considerate behavior (Bowers and Seashore, 1966; Fleishman, 1953; House and Mitchell, 1974; Stogdill, 1974). Greenleaf (1996) explains that most caring in the past was viewed as person to person. At present, most caring is institutional. The key to the perception of "organizational caring" by the members of the organization is establishing a collective, systematic attitude of caring (Covey, 1990). We feel that an organization's members are more likely to willingly cooperate when they perceive that the leadership truly cares about them.

Sharing. It is defined as sharing authority and information. The sharing of authority is the basis for empowerment, a key component of participative leadership, which has been found to be related to effective leadership (Likert, 1961). Empowerment is effective in that it is the utilization of referent and expert power of members (Katz and Kahn, 1966). The failure to share authority can be very damaging to employee morale. In this regard, it is responsible for a sense of powerlessness and helplessness in American employees (Ashforth, 1989). Sharing pertinent information is an effective tool in communication (Barnard, 1938; Stinchcombe, 1990) since the control of information is considered to be a basis for power (Yukl, 1998). It is also seen as an important aspect of control in the "leader member relationship" (Stinchcombe, 1990). Put simply, if organization members believe that relevant information is being shared with them, they are more likely to cooperate. Alternatively, employees who feel kept in the dark are less likely to willingly cooperate.

Morals. Moral behavior is defined as providing a moral code that is a guide for the behavior of leaders and members in performing their responsibilities in an

organization. An effective moral code is based on generally accepted principles such as treating others the way one would like to be treated, integrity, fairness, and justice. In the case of this research, we focus on principles generally accepted by employees. Principles are essential to enduring leadership, because they provide a compass for moral behavior (Covey, 1990). The morals of leaders suddenly have become a "hot" topic as a result of recent scandals (e.g. Enron, WorldCom). It is most significant for this research that current events have provided empirical and pragmatic support for the relationship between the moral code of leaders and organizational performance in the field of business. The moral code of the leaders involved in the current scandals impacted all of the stakeholders of their organizations by destroying their credibility and their organization's credibility. So powerful was the impact of the moral code of these leaders that it had a negative impact on the entire stock market.

2.6.3 The relationship between professional and personal leadership

A great deal of research has examined (in one form or another) these two broad categories of leader behavior (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin and Winer, 1957; Hemphill and Coons, 1957; Likert, 1961) with mostly controversial and inconclusive results. One consistent and moderately strong finding is that considerate leaders have more satisfied employees (Yukl, 1998). Additionally, Likert (1961) found that effective managers focus on both of these factors rather than one exclusively. Blake and Mouton (1964) proposed that effective leaders have a high concern for both, and recent research suggests that effective leaders have at least a moderate level of both (Yukl, 1998). Given that managers should focus on both factors (i.e. the professional and personal relationship), we wanted to further explore how these two factors relate to each other. As discussed earlier, past research on additive and multiplicative models has been inconclusive (Yukl, 1998), providing even more reason to further examine the relationship between the two factors.

3. Research design and methodology:

3.1 Data Collection Methods

One of the most famous and frequently used methods of data collection is "Questionnaire". In the current study, a questionnaire was used to collect data, which was divided into four parts. The first part was concerned with personal information of employees responding to questionnaire. Second part was concerned with Employees willing of cooperation measurements which in turn consist of 2 statements covering their wills. The statements are assessed by Likert-measure of five points scale ranging from (1)"Highly disagree" to (5)"Highly agree". The third part of the questionnaire was conducted to test the professional leadership regarding how is the leaders direction and the process they follow. This part is assessed by using Likert scale of five points scale ranging from 1"highly disagree" to 5"highly agree". The fourth part is mainly concerned with testing personal leadership including expertise, caring, sharing and morale.

3.2 Sample:

The selected sample was a convenience sample of 150 employees working in the Egyptian custom sector in administrative work. The population age range as follow:2%(21-26)years,14%(26-30)years,12%(36-40)years,10%(31 35)years,16%(41 45)years,22%(46-50)years,24%(more than 5o years).Work experience:30%(1-5)years,20%(6-10)years,4%(11-15)years,20%(16-20)years,26% more than 20 years. Marital status: 72%married, 28% single.Education:40% intermediate education, 38%bachalors degree, and 22%high graduates.

3.3 Data Analysis Technique:

Data was analyzed by using SPSS 16 software package. For assuring the accuracy of the analysis, several ways of analysis will be used which are; Descriptive analysis, Chi-square test, and Regression Analysis.

4.   Findings:
4.1 Analysis using Frequency Tables:

A frequency table is obtained for each variable. This will help to describe the data and be able to put a hand on its nature.

When observing table 4.1, it could be found that the greatest percentage of employees lies in the last age group (more than 50), and the next percentage is found for the age group between 46 and 50. This means that almost half of the sample is older than 45 years old, which reflect a certain age group that may have a great experience and valid opinion.

Table 4.1   Frequency Table for Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	21-26	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	26-30	21	14.0	14.0	16.0
	31-35	18	12.0	12.0	28.0
	36-40	15	10.0	10.0	38.0
	41-45	24	16.0	16.0	54.0
	46-50	33	22.0	22.0	76.0
	More than 50	36	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

When observing table 4.2, it could be found that more than 50% of the sample have a full time job, which may reflect stability in work and getting more contact with leaders.

Table 4.2   Frequency Table for Job

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	fulltime	96	64.0	64.0	64.0
	parttime	42	28.0	28.0	92.0
	4	9	6.0	6.0	98.0
	5	3	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Regarding table 4.3, it is found that around 50% of the sample has an experience which is more than 10 years. Of course this result match with what was observed in the frequency table of age, as it was found that a great percentage of the sample lies in the older age groups.

Table 4.3   Frequency Table for Experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-5	45	30.0	30.0	30.0
	6-10	30	20.0	20.0	50.0
	11-15	6	4.0	4.0	54.0
	16-20	30	20.0	20.0	74.0
	more tnan 20	39	26.0	26.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Regarding table 4.4, it is found that around 72% of employees under study are married. This result also seems reasonable with what was found with the age group and experience rates found for the employees under study.

Table 4.4   Frequency Table for Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	married	108	72.0	72.0	72.0
	single	42	28.0	28.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

In table 4.5, it could be observed that almost half of the sample have an intermediate level of education.

Table 4.5   Frequency Table for Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	intermediate	60	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Bc	51	34.0	34.0	74.0
	other	24	16.0	16.0	90.0
	4	9	6.0	6.0	96.0
	5	6	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.6 shows that more than 50% are willing to cooperate with their leaders to achieve the organization goals and objectives and satisfy their leaders in their direction and process. This percentage is found when merging both percentages corresponding to the degrees "4" and "5". Of course, it is not a great percentage as it is supposed that almost all employees have to cooperate to achieve the organization goals.

Table 4.6   Frequency Table for Willing of Cooperation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	15	10.0	10.0	10.0
	2	30	20.0	20.0	30.0
	3	21	14.0	14.0	44.0
	4	45	30.0	30.0	74.0
	5	39	26.0	26.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.7 shows that almost 50% agree that leaders are clear in the organization goals and have a wide explanation.

Table 4.7   Frequency Table for Direction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	27	18.0	18.0	18.0
	2	24	16.0	16.0	34.0
	3	30	20.0	20.0	54.0
	4	42	28.0	28.0	82.0
	5	27	18.0	18.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Checking table 4.8, it is found that almost half the employees are satisfied with the leaders' clarification towards their process of managing the organization goals and objectives.

Table 4.8   Frequency Table for Process

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	21	14.0	14.0	14.0
	2	24	16.0	16.0	30.0
	3	33	22.0	22.0	52.0
	4	45	30.0	30.0	82.0
	5	27	18.0	18.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Regarding table 4.9, it is found that almost half the employees are satisfied with the professional leadership they found from their leaders. This result match with what is observed in the above tables of leader's direction and process, as both of them together explains the degree of professional leadership.

Table 4.9   Frequency Table for Professional Leadership

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	24	16.0	16.0	16.0
	2	27	18.0	18.0	34.0
	3	27	18.0	18.0	52.0
	4	41	34.0	34.0	86.0
	5	41	14.0	14.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

When observing table 4.10, it can be found that only around 40% of employees agree with the degree of experience of leaders relative to their work.

Table 4.10   Frequency Table for Expertise

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	24	16.0	16.0	16.0
	2	30	20.0	20.0	36.0
	3	33	22.0	22.0	58.0
	4	51	34.0	34.0	92.0
	5	12	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Checking table 4.11, it could be found that only 40% agree that leaders care to understand the employees ideas and problems.

Table 4.11   Frequency Table for Caring

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	18	12.0	12.0	12.0
	2	39	26.0	26.0	38.0
	3	33	22.0	22.0	60.0
	4	39	26.0	26.0	86.0
	5	21	14.0	14.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Checking table 4.12, it could be found that only 34% agree that leaders share authorities and ideas with employees.

Table 4.12   Frequency Table for Sharing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	45	30.0	30.0	30.0
	2	21	14.0	14.0	44.0
	3	33	22.0	22.0	66.0
	4	30	20.0	20.0	86.0
	5	21	14.0	14.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.13 shows that around 46% of employees agree that leaders achieve morale in all situations.

Table 4.13   Frequency Table for Morale

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	33	22.0	22.0	22.0
	2	24	16.0	16.0	38.0
	3	24	16.0	16.0	54.0
	4	36	24.0	24.0	78.0
	5	33	22.0	22.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.14 confirms what was found in the above tables regarding leaders experience, caring, sharing and morale as all these topics together explains the personal leadership.

Table 4.14   Frequency Table for Personal Leadership

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	24	16.0	16.0	16.0
	2	39	26.0	26.0	42.0
	3	36	24.0	24.0	66.0
	4	42	28.0	28.0	94.0
	5	9	6.0	6.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

4.2 Regression Analysis:

"Multiple Regressions" is a statistical technique that allows us to predict someone's score on one variable on the basis of their scores on several other variables. When using Multiple Regression in psychology, many researchers use the term "independent variables" to identify those variables that they think will influence some other "dependent variable". It is preferred to use the term "predictor variables" for those variables that may be useful in predicting the scores on another variable that is called the "criterion variable".

In the current study, it is assumed that both personal leadership as well as professional leadership affect employees willing to cooperate with their leaders. To check this assumption a regression analysis is done as shown in the tables below. This leads to the following equation:

$$\text{Estimated } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$$

Where Y refers to Willing Cooperation

X_1 refers to Personal Leadership

X_2 refers to Professional Leadership

β_0 refers to a constant value

β_0 refers to the effect of personal leadership on willing cooperation

β_0 refers to the effect of professional leadership on willing cooperation

Observing tables below, it could be found that this equation is:

$$\text{Estimated } Y = 0.792 + 0.635 \, X_1 + 0.229 \, X_2$$

This equation can be interpreted as the change that happens in personal leadership causes a change in employees willing of cooperation by a 63.5%. While, the change that happens in professional leadership causes a change in employees willing of cooperation by 22.9%. Also, it can be observed that both variables (personal leadership and professional leadership) have a significant effect on employees willing of cooperation.

Table 4.15   Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Personal Leadership, Professional Leadership[a]		. Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Willing of Cooperation

Table 4.16   Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.789[a]	.623	.607	.84077

a. Predictors: (Constant), Personal Leadership, Professional

Leadership

Table 4.17   ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	54.956	2	27.478	38.872	.000[a]
	Residual	33.224	47	.707		
	Total	88.180	49			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Personal Leadership, Professional Leadership

b. Dependent Variable: Willing of Cooperation

Table 4.18   Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.792	.326		2.430	.019
	Professional Leadership	.635	.139	.625	4.576	.000
	Personal Leadership	.229	.154	.203	1.486	.144

a. Dependent Variable: Willing of Cooperation

4.3 Test Statistics – Chi-square test:

Testing the variables under study can be done using several tools, depending on the nature of the data under study. In this paper, testing will be done using Chi-square and ANOVA tests.

The Chi-square test is shown in the following tables. When observing the value of Chi-square for the variable of "Willing of Cooperation", it was found that this value is 6.8. This value is really an insignificant one. This means that employees are not really willing to cooperate as might be expected in any organization. Of course, this result matches with the case found in the above descriptive analysis. Also, it matches with what was found in the regression analysis, as willing of cooperation is significantly affected by both personal and professional leadership, which are not highly satisfying for employees in the case under study.

Table 4.19   Test Statistics

	Willing of Cooperation
Chi-Square	6.800^a
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.147

When observing the value of Chi-square for the variable of "Professional Leadership", it was found that this value is 6.4, which is an insignificant value. This means that employees are not significantly satisfied with the degree of professional leadership their leaders have. This result matches with the case found in the above descriptive analysis.

Table 4.20   Test Statistics

	Professional Leadership
Chi-Square	6.400[a]
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.171

Regarding Chi-square for the variable of "Personal Leadership", it was found that this value is 8.2. This value is also an insignificant one. This means that employees are not significantly satisfied with the leader's personal leadership. This result matches as well with the case found in the descriptive analysis done above.

Table 4.21   Test Statistics

	Personal Leadership
Chi-Square	8.200[a]
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.085

5. Results and conclusions:

From the data analysis, it found that the employees in the organization understudy are not really willing to cooperate in the organization. Also, the employees are not satisfied with the personal and professional leadership of their manager which affected negatively on the willing to cooperation level.

So, the study recommends that there is a must for improving the personal and professional leadership of their managers, parallel with motivitating their employees to enhance the willing of cooperation level in visible and invisible ways.

For future research point it suggested to doing training needs assessment for their leadership skills and measures the level of improvement periodically to develop the organization's recent leader's leadership style.

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