

**Leadership Style and its Influence on Job
Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment**
A Study Encompassing the Construction Industry of Dubai,
United Arab Emirates

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ABSTRACT

Dubai is one of the United Arab Emirates leading emirate in terms of infrastructure development and other industries such as tourism, and real estate. The novelty of the industry and its rapid progression persuades one to assess the factors influencing the construction industry. Due to the competitive market, project management area has gained undisputable importance in the construction projects. Construction firms are now seeking professionals with better management and leadership skills rather than technical skills (Dulaimi, 2005). Employees are an important part of any industry and their job satisfaction and organisational commitment affects the turnover rate and productivity of a company (Benkhoff, 1997; Randeree and Chaudhry, pending). Leadership has a strong influence on employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Lok and Crawford, 1999). Thus, it is vital to examine leadership styles in a rapidly growing industry in a cosmopolitan city. Hence, the research undertaken aims to study leadership styles and its influence on the employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the construction industry of Dubai.

Earlier research has contented that leadership behaviour is determined culturally and hence varies markedly from culture to culture (e.g. Aram and Piriano, 1978; Burger and Bass, 1979; Wright, 1981; Adler, 1991; Muna, 1980; Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983; Ali, 1993; Ali *et al.*, 1997). Yousef (2000) has examined the relationship between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and performance in the UAE and found significant results. To attain the research aim, different theories on Leadership styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been explored. The limitations of the study are that it focuses on office employees because of time constraints and the level of education of the workforce on site. A qualitative survey investigates existing leadership styles, preferred leadership styles by the employees, and the influence of leadership styles on employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The study also evaluates the extent of various other factors influencing the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees.

The findings show that employees feel that Consensus and Team Management leadership styles are predominantly prevalent in the industry and employees have shown preference of working under these leadership styles. Furthermore, a strong influence is found between leadership style, employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Some of factors strongly affecting job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in the industry are nature of work, salary received, job flexibility, job security, direct manager's behaviour, company leadership, and company culture. Major conclusions are job satisfaction and organisational commitment are influenced with respect to culture, age, and work groups.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents Abdul Haq Fateh Ali Chaudhry and Azeeza Begum for their invaluable encouragement and support throughout my life.

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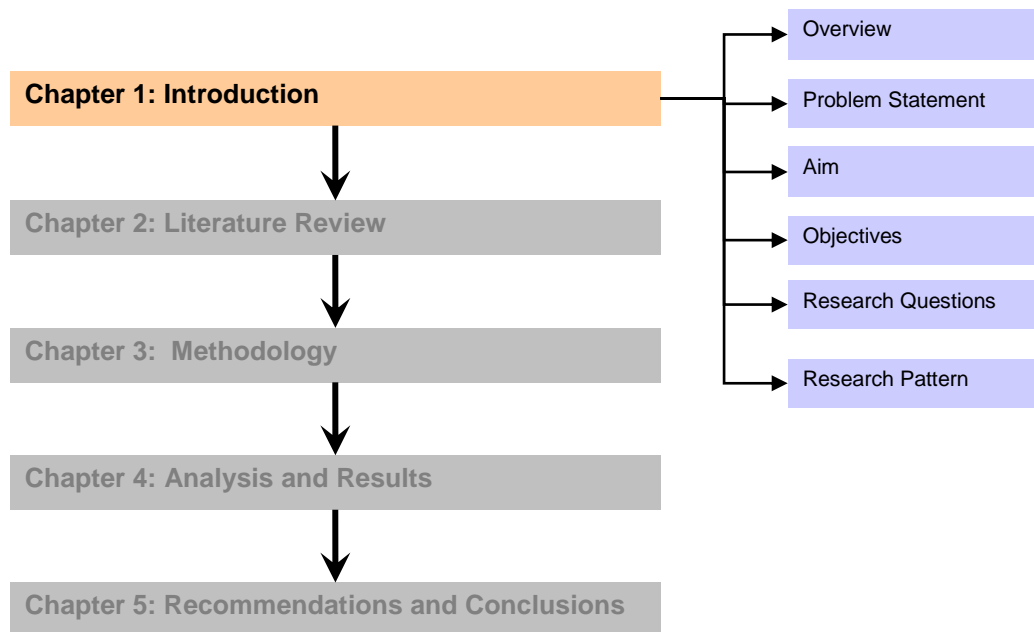
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Chapter 1

1 INTRODUCTION

The following chapter introduces research concerning the influence of leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment of office employees in the construction industry in Dubai, United Arab Emirates. This chapter will provide an overview of the region, show the importance of research in the construction industry, document the aim and objectives of the research undertaken along with research questions.



1.1 Overview

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is a federation of seven emirates located in Arabian Peninsula formed in 1971 by the then Trucial States after independence from Britain. The UAE comprises of seven emirates which are: Abu Dhabi (Capital), Dubai, Ajman, Fujairah, Ras-al-Khaimah, Sharjah and Umm-al-Quwain. Each emirate maintains a large degree of independence and the UAE is governed by a Supreme Council of Rulers made up of the seven Emirs, who appoint the Prime Minister and the Cabinet.



Figure 1.1: Location Map of UAE (BBC, 2006)

The UAE is an oil producing country covering an area of 82,880 square kilometres (Ministry of Planning, 2005). The total population of the country is 3.1 million, out of which approximately 85% are expatriates. The majority of these workers come from the Indian subcontinent (51.3 per cent), Arab region (37.4 per cent), Eastern and Western Europe, North America, and Australia and New Zealand (2.2 per cent) (Ministry of Planning, 2003).

The UAE economy is a high growth economy (Ministry of Planning, 2005) and it is rapidly diversifying into areas of tourism, manufacturing, logistics, banking and finance. To promote all these industries a huge construction boom is being witnessed. The country's construction industry is valued at \$221 billion (about Dh811.73 billion) - the highest in the region. This highlights the fact that planned construction is the focus of the Emirates, particularly in Dubai.



Figure 1.2: Dubai – Middle East City of the Future (fDi, 2006)

Dubai, being a highly metropolitan city of UAE, accommodates the largest population of the country which is approximately 1,321,453 (Census, 2005) out of 3.1 Million. The construction industry in Dubai employs approximately 393,535 numbers of individuals, which makes construction industry the largest employing industry of the emirate (Census, 2005). The emirate's ambitions continue to grow with over \$100bn worth of projects in the pipeline. Large property developers, such as Nakheel, Emaar, Dubai Properties and Dubai International Properties, have announced projects worth \$26 billion (about Dh95.49 billion), while Dubai Municipality, DEWA and the Department of Civil Aviation are planning projects costing another \$20 billion (about Dh73.46 billion) (Mathias, 2006). Some of the main development activities underway in Dubai are world's biggest man-made islands (Palm Islands), the world's tallest building (Burj Dubai), Dubailand city, Arabian Canal, Waterfront, Jumairah Towers, and a world's high-tech metro network in the city.

The shortage of indigenous manpower in the construction industry has attracted large influx of the foreign workers. The neighbouring Arab countries, apart from Gulf Council Countries (GCC) nations are contributing effectively towards the shortage of resources in the local market. This is due to the political stability of UAE as compared to other countries in the Middle-East. The construction industry is mostly dependent on the foreign workers from South-Asia (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka), other Arab countries, and European nations.

Thus, leading and managing of such a multinational workforce in a vibrant city is a critical factor in the success of any country.

1.2 Problem Statement

As the UAE's construction industry has recently begun to develop it has limited academic research in the field of leadership styles in the industry and its influence on job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees. Thus, it is important to explore the prevailing leadership styles in the construction industry and their influences on the employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

1.3 Aim

The aim of the research undertaken is to determine the influence of leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees in the construction industry of Dubai.

1.4 Objectives

The objectives are developed to achieve the aim of the research and they are listed as follows:

- Investigate the prevailing Leadership styles in the construction industry of Dubai.
- Examine influence of leadership style on the organisational commitment and job satisfaction of the office workers in the construction industry of Dubai.
- Explore preferred leadership styles by the workforce of the industry.
- Determine the factors and their extent contributing towards organisational commitment and job satisfaction of the workforce in a cosmopolitan city.

1.5 Research Questions

The objectives of the research are formulated in the form of research questions to make the research process easier and these questions are:

1. What are the prevailing Leadership styles in the construction industry of Dubai?
2. To what extent the leadership style affects the office employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment?
3. What are the types of leadership styles preferred by the employees in the construction industry of Dubai?
4. What other factors are contributing towards job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the office employees in the industry?
5. How demographic factors in this multi-cultural environment affect the employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment in relation to the leadership style?

1.6 Research Pattern

The dissertation comprises of five chapters, which help in addressing the defined objectives of the research. The five chapters are as follows,

Chapter 1 – Introduction: The introductory chapter lays down a platform by providing an overview about the UAE, the emirate of Dubai, and its construction industry. The research is focused by developing an aim and objectives. The aim of the research is to examine the influence of Leadership style on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment among the office employees in the construction industry of Dubai. The objectives of the research are then translated into research questions.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review: This chapter is a review of the prevailing theories related to leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment among the employees. The chapter explores the subject of leadership style by defining the term leadership; analysing factors influencing leadership style; and examining different type of leadership styles; under the context of national cultures; and especially in the Gulf countries. The chapter further investigates the existing literature related to job satisfaction, effect of leadership style and culture on job satisfaction. Organisational commitment is then analysed in the context of leadership styles and national culture. At the end of the chapter, the theories inter-relating the leadership styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are examined. It has been found that lot of work has been done in the above mentioned areas at a global scale (Hofstede, 1983, 1991; Bass, 1985, Blake and Mouton, 1985; Tayeb, 1988; Avolio, 1994; Dubrin, 2004); however limited literature is noted for the employee performance, job satisfaction (Yousef, 1998a and 2000), job security, managerial decision styles (Ali *et al.* 1995) in the UAE.

Chapter 3 – Methodology: The chapter describes the method adopted to achieve the set objectives of the research. Firstly, a quantitative questionnaire was designed based on the research questions and the literature study carried out. Secondly, a pilot study was carried to evaluate the questionnaire. Thirdly, three organisations were selected from the vast construction industry of the Dubai. The companies selected from the market were from three main groups such as Clients, Consultants, and Contractors. Lastly, a survey was carried out based on the pick and drop method.

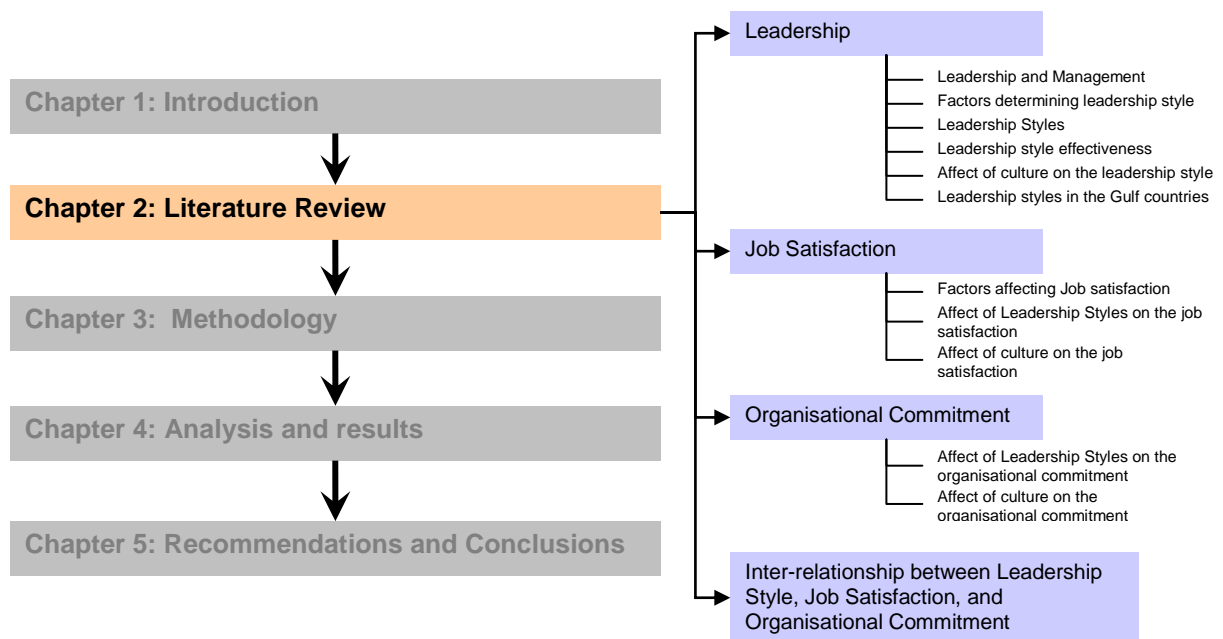
Chapter 4 – Analysis and Results: The fourth chapter of the research documents covers the analysis and results of the survey. An overall response rate for the survey was 41.83 %, which is reasonably satisfactory for the construction industry. The analysis of the data is carried out in two forms, first in the light of the research questions (i.e. longitudinally) and secondly, under the context of demographic factors (i.e. cross-dimensionally). The longitudinal analysis of the data evaluates the responses to discover general characteristics of the survey; prevailing leadership style; preferred leadership style; and finally, extent of leadership style and other factors influencing the job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The cross-dimensional analysis of the data cross-examines the responses under the context of nationality groups, genders, age groups, and work groups. Then, under each of the groups four things were examined and these are: the preferred leadership style; the extent of factors influencing the job satisfaction; the organisational commitment; and ultimately the influence of leadership on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Chapter 5 – Recommendations and Conclusions: The last chapter presents recommendations based on the literature review and the survey analysis. The recommendations section document significant findings of the study by adding light to organisations' leadership, and employees' job satisfaction and their organisational commitment. Then the conclusions part is details answers for each research questions, presents shortcomings in the research, and future research areas. The five research questions are answered in the light of literature review in number of places and the survey results are validated by earlier studies. However, at the end is concluded that the research has provided a platform for further studies in the area of leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment in the emerging construction industry of Dubai.

Chapter 2

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides thorough research of current literature to explore the subject of leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The term 'leadership' and different leadership styles are explained earlier theories. Following this research about employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment is examined along with different factors that influence them. At the end of the chapter, an inter-relationship between leadership style, job satisfaction and organisational commitment is highlighted.



2.1 Leadership

Prior to analysing the impact of leadership style over job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees, it is worth defining the terms leadership and its styles. The literature is rich with the definitions of a leadership as indicated in a study by Dubrin (2004), which reveals that about 40,000 research articles, magazine articles, and books have been written about leadership. As a consequence, leadership has been defined in many ways. Some of definitions of leadership are as follows:

- Interpersonal influence, directed through communication towards goal attainment.
- The influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with directions and orders.
- An act that causes others to act or respond in a shared direction.
- The art of influencing people by persuasion or example to follow a line of action.
- The principal dynamic force that motivates and coordinates the organisation in the accomplishment of its objectives. (Bass, 1990a)
- A willingness to take the blame. (as defined by legendary football quarterback Joe Montana (Zaslow, 1998)

The most effective definition of the leadership is presented by Kim and Maubourgne (1992), which states that ***leadership** is the ability to inspire confidence and support among the people who are needed to achieve organisational goals.*

A major point in leadership is that it is not found only among people in high-level positions. Leadership is needed at all levels in an organisation and can be practiced to some extent even by a person not assigned to a formal leadership position (Dubrin, 2004). An example of the importance of workers exercising leadership is Roadway Express, Inc. After implementing a programme of employee involvement in productivity improvement, Roadway Management concluded that to compete in an industry in which net profit margins are less than 5 percent in a good year, every one of its 28,000 employees must be a leader (Hammonds, 2001).

2.1.1 Leadership and Management

In order to understand leadership, it is important to make distinction between leadership and management. Managers ensure that organisations achieve particular objectives. Managers concern themselves with getting a job done in an effective and efficient manner with the resources available. In general, managers focus on day-to-day or week-to-week goals. They

do not necessarily aspire to leadership roles: Instead, they focus on simply doing their jobs correctly.

In contrast, leaders often put many of the same skills and interests to good use but often to better effect because they focus on areas such as discovering solutions (not problems), managing changing conditions; excelling in spite of organisational structure; and inspiring personnel to achieve their goals. Leaders achieve objectives through energized and excited subordinates who share their passion, vision, and direction. Good leaders feel comfortable challenging the status quo and finding efficient - as well as long term - solutions to challenges. (Mawson, 2001)

According to John P. Kotter, a prominent leadership theorist, managers must know how to lead as well as manage. Without being led as well as managed, organisations face the threat of extinction. Some of the key distinctions between management and leadership found in literature (Dubrin, 2004; Leonard, 1999; Locke, 1991; Kotter, 1990) are as follows:

- Management is more formal and scientific than leadership. It relies on universal skills such as planning, budgeting, and controlling. Management is an explicit set of tools and techniques, based on reasoning and testing that can be used in a variety of situations.
- Leadership, in contrast to management, involves having a vision of what the organisation can become and mobilizing people to accomplish it.
- Leadership requires eliciting cooperation and teamwork from a large network of people and keeping the key people in that network motivated, using every manner of persuasion.
- Leadership produces change, often to a dramatic degree, such as by spearheading the launch of a new product or opening a new market for an old product. Management is more likely to produce a degree of predictability and order.
- Top-level leaders are likely to transform their organisations, whereas top-level managers just manage (or maintain) organisations.
- A leader creates a vision (lofty goal) to direct the organisation. In contrast, the key function of the manager is to implement the vision. The manager and his or her team thus choose the means to achieve the end that the leader formulates.

The views described above do not down play the importance of management, it is important to realise that effective leaders have to be good managers themselves, or be supported by

effective managers. A common stereotype of the differences between management and leadership found in literature (Dubrin, 2004) are indicated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Differences between Leaders and Managers (Dubrin, 2004)

Leader	Manager
Visionary	Rational
Passionate	Business-like
Creative	Persistent
Inspiring	Tough-minded
Innovative	Analytical
Courageous	Structured
Imaginative	Deliberative
Experimental	Authoritative
Independent	Stabilising
Shares knowledge	Centralises knowledge
Trusting	Guarded
Warm and radiant	Cool and reserved
Express humility	Rarely admits to being wrong
Initiator	Implementer
Acts as coach, consultant, teacher	Acts as boss
Does the right things	Does things right

2.1.2 Factors Determining Leadership Style

The literature is rich in determining the factors affecting the choice of leadership style and their development. However, in the real world it has been noted that no particular leadership style is exerted by a manager but is a combination of leadership styles. There are many factors which determine/affect the application of a leadership, as described below.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) have long maintained that three forces affect the choice of the appropriate leadership style. These are forces in the leader himself, those in the subordinates and those in the situation. Yukl (1981, 1994) lists the following factors as determinants of leadership style: level in the authority hierarchy, function of the organisational unit, size of the organisational unit, task characteristics and technology, lateral interdependence, crisis situation, stages in the organisation life cycle and, finally, subordinates' competence and performance.

On the other hand, Herbert (1981) argues that leadership style is a function of the need for participation, the result of commitment, and closeness of supervision required. Maheshwari (1980) argues that the style of decision making in an organisation is the result of a complex

interaction of several factors, including the context and characteristics of the organisation, the nature of the decisions and the attributes and preferences of the decision makers. Blanchard and Wakin (1991) point out that the degree of difficulty of the task plays a significant role in determining the right leadership style. Whyte (1988) argues that the choice of leadership style depends on the nature of the task, the power available to the leader, the experience of the subordinates, the culture of the organisation, the preferred style of the leader, the style preferred by subordinates and time available for task completion.

Flowers *et al.*, (1975) divided human values categorically into two general categories, each consisting of three values. The first is the “outer-directed” with tribalistic, conformist and sociocentric values. The outer-directed manager is adaptive to his/her situation in life, likes structure and accepts rules, policies and group norms. The outer-directed manager prefers a stable environment and job and tends not to set goals, but also tends to live according to someone else’s plan. The second category is “inner-directed” with egocentric, manipulative and existential values. Managers in this category tend to be assertive and expressive, bending the rules to accomplish what they want. The inner-directed person is always attempting to influence his or her environment and make change to it. To achieve this, the inner directed manager sets goals and pursues them energetically (Hughes and Flowers, 1978). The values are briefly defined as follows:

- **Tribalistic:** a submissiveness to authority and/or tradition
- **Conformist:** has a low tolerance for ambiguity, adheres to prevailing norms and values and needs structure and rules to follow.
- **Sociocentric:** a high need for affiliation and little concern.
- **Egocentric:** aggressive, selfish, restless, impulsive, and in general, not inclined to live within the limits and constraints of society’s norms.
- **Manipulative:** materialistic, expressive, and self-calculating to achieve an end.
- **Existential:** a high tolerance for ambiguity and for those who have different values, usually expresses self but not at the expense of others.

2.1.3 Leadership Styles

After describing the different factors contributing towards the development of a leadership style, it is appropriate to define the term ‘Leadership Style’. The leadership style is a leader's combination of attitude and behaviour which leads to certain regularity and predictability in dealing with group members (Dubrin, 2004). Leadership style is the relatively consistent pattern of behaviour that characterizes a leader. The study of leadership style is an extension

of understanding leadership behaviours and attitude. Most classifications of leadership style are based on the dimensions of initiating structure and consideration (Dubrin, 2004).

There are several styles of leadership such as: autocratic, bureaucratic, laissez-faire, charismatic, democratic, participative, situational, transactional, and transformational leadership (Mosadeghrad 2003b). Not everyone agrees that a particular style of leadership will result in the most effective form of organisational behaviour. Different styles are needed for different situations and each leader needs to know when to exhibit a particular approach. No one leadership style is ideal for every situation, since a leader may have knowledge and skills to act effectively in one situation but may not emerge as effective in a different situation (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006).

Organisational success in obtaining its goals and objectives depends on managers and their leadership style. By using appropriate leadership styles, managers can affect employee job satisfaction, commitment and productivity. Leadership style can be viewed as a series of managerial attitudes, behaviours, characteristics and skills based on individual and organisational values, leadership interests and reliability of employees in different situations (Mosadeghrad, 2003a). It is the ability of a leader to influence subordinates to perform at their highest capability. This factor captures the extent to which management respects workers, operates with honesty and integrity, promotes efficiency, and has open lines of communication with employees (Aronson *et al.*, 2003).

Thus, the most commonly used leadership styles are autocratic leadership, participative leadership styles, the Leadership Grid styles, and Transformational Leadership. Hence, the research is going to explore each of these styles in detail to analyse their pros and cons.

2.1.3.1 Autocratic Leadership Style

Autocratic leadership is an old form of style, which basically transcends from the military sector. The leaders are known to be Autocratic when they retain most of the authority. They make decisions confidently, assume that group members will comply, and are not overly concerned with group members' attitudes towards a decision (Dubrin, 2004). Autocratic leaders are considered task-oriented because they place heavy emphasis on getting tasks accomplished. Typical autocratic behaviours include telling people what to do, asserting themselves, and serving as a model for team members.

Mary Parker Follett stated that the common view of leadership (with which she disagreed) was that “pugnacity” and “self-assertion” were necessary in order “to make others do what he

(sic) wants done” (Follett, 1949). Being assertive, controlling, and task- oriented have been viewed as male leadership characteristics; showing consideration and being relationship-oriented as female (Eagly *et al.*, 1992; Coppolino and Seath, 1987; Porter *et al.*, 1985; Vroom and Jago, 1982). Their assertive and autocratic leadership behaviour is then labelled as “masculine” rather than “power- based” (Simkins- Bullock and Wild man, 1991; Appelbaum and Shapiro, 1993).

In the past several decades, management experts have undergone a revolution in how they define leadership and their attitudes toward it. They have gone from a very classical autocratic approach to a very creative and participative approach. Ideas about management and leadership have changed considerably in recent years. People today are better-educated and more articulate. They can no longer be commanded in the same way as before. There needs to be much more involvement and participation at work (Stewart, 1994).

2.1.3.2 Participative Leadership Styles

In the modern markets, where organisations are facing high competitions, the leadership can survive by sharing decision making process with the group members and working side by side. Participative Leadership is one of the styles which share decision making process with group members (Dubrin, 2004). Dubrin (2004) reckons that the participative leadership encompasses so many behaviours that it can be divided into three subtypes:

1. **Consultative leadership** confer with group members before making a decision. However, this style retains the final authority with the leader to make decisions. This type of leaders tends to consult with their subordinates/colleagues to get an idea and in the light of this response he/she makes a decision(s). However, it is not necessary that the decision made will reflect the agreement of all the subordinates/colleagues.
2. **Consensus leadership** styles strive for consensus. Such leaders encourage group discussion about an issue and then make a decision that reflects general agreement and that will be supported by group members. All workers who will be involved in the consequences of a decision have an opportunity to provide input. A decision is not considered final until it appears that all parties involved will at least support the decision.
3. **Democratic leadership** styles confer final authority on the group. A leader adopting this style function as collectors of group opinion and take a vote before making a decision.

The participative style has also been referred to as trickle-up leadership because the leader accepts suggestions for managing the operation from group members. Welcoming ideas from below is considered crucial because as technology evolves and organisations decentralize, front-line workers have more independence and responsibility. These workers are closer to the market, closer to seeing how the product is used, and closer to many human resource problems. Front-line knowledge can provide useful input to leader for such purposes as developing marketing strategy and retaining employees (Breen, 2001).

In recent years Bill Gates (his official title at Microsoft Corporation is chief software architect, not chairman and CEO) has intensified his trickle-up style. By 2002 he was devoting most of his time to communing with the information technology specialists who build Microsoft products. He collects input so he can understand how new products can be woven into industry standard products (Dubrin, 2004).

The following statements seem to encapsulate the essence of participative leadership. The participative style is often conceived largely in terms of a 'system of values' governing behaviour, with a commitment to full and free communication, a reliance on consensus rather than on the more customary forms of coercion or compromise to tackle and manage conflict, and an atmosphere that permits and encourages emotional expression as well as a healthy attitude to work (Bennis, 1966).

It is argued that, as the individual moves from the infant end of a personality continuum (basically dependent and submissive, with few and shallow abilities and a short time perspective) to the adult end (endowed with relative independence, autonomy, self-control, many abilities and a few in depth, and a long time perspective), then we have to create conditions to permit self-regulation, self-evaluation, self-adjustment, and participation in the setting of goals. By doing so, it is alleged, we bring about an improvement in productivity and attitudes (Argyris, 1973). Dubrin (2004) further adds that the participative style encompasses the teamwork approach. Predominant behaviours of participative leaders include coaching team members, negotiating their demands and collaborating with others. This style is well suited to managing competent people who are eager to assume responsibility. Such people want to get decision making, participative leadership works well with the new breed of managers and professionals.

Critics of the participative leadership school (Crozier, 1964; Struass, 1968; Stace and Dunphy, 2001) present number of reservations:

- There is a tendency to place overwhelming emphasis on personal coordination and control to the detriment of bureaucratic or impersonal control techniques.
- The important role played by bargaining and the use of power in interpersonal relationships is overlooked.
- The democratic or participative style is conceived largely in terms of group harmony and compatibility between personal goals and organisational goals, but the importance of organisation structure is neglected.
- Although generally people would like to exercise some degree of control over their own environment, they may fear the participation process because it threatens their integrity and independence, or they believe they will be controlled to some extent by other participants.
- It often results in extensive and time-consuming team meetings and committee work. Sometimes participative leadership is carried to extremes. Team members are consulted about trivial things that management could easily handle independently.

2.1.3.3 Leadership Grid Styles

A classic method of classifying leadership styles suggests that the best way to achieve effective leadership is to integrate the task and relationship orientations. The Leadership Grid is a framework developed by Blake and Mouton (1985) for a simultaneously specifying style is based on the extent of a person's concern for a production and people.

In this framework, leadership style is not shown as a point on a leadership continuum but rather as a point on a two-dimensional grid. In Figure 2.2, the horizontal dimension of the grid represents the individual's concern for production, and the vertical dimension represents his or her concern for people. In the leadership grid the individual can score anything between the maximum number (9,9) or the minimum number (1,1) on either dimension. The ideal of the leadership grid is to move towards the (9,9) style (team management) where there is an integrative maximum concern for both production and people; this appears to be in the mould of participative leadership. The benchmark styles on the Leadership Grid as follows:

- **Authority-Compliance (9,1)** The authority-compliance style is characterized by a maximum concern for production combined with a minimum concern for people. A

leader with this orientation concentrates on maximizing production by exercising power and authority and by dictating to people.

- **Country Club Management (1,9)** The "country club" style shows a minimum concern for production and a maximum concern for people. Such a leader does only the minimum required to remain a member of the firm. (According to the current definition of leadership, this type of manager does not qualify as a leader.
- **Middle-of-the-Road Management (5,5)** In the centre is the 5,5 orientation. Leaders with this middle-of-the-road style do their job but avoid making waves and conform to the status quo.
- **Team Management (9,9)** The team management style integrates concern for production and people. It is a goal-directed team approach that seeks to gain optimum results through participation, involvement, and commitment.

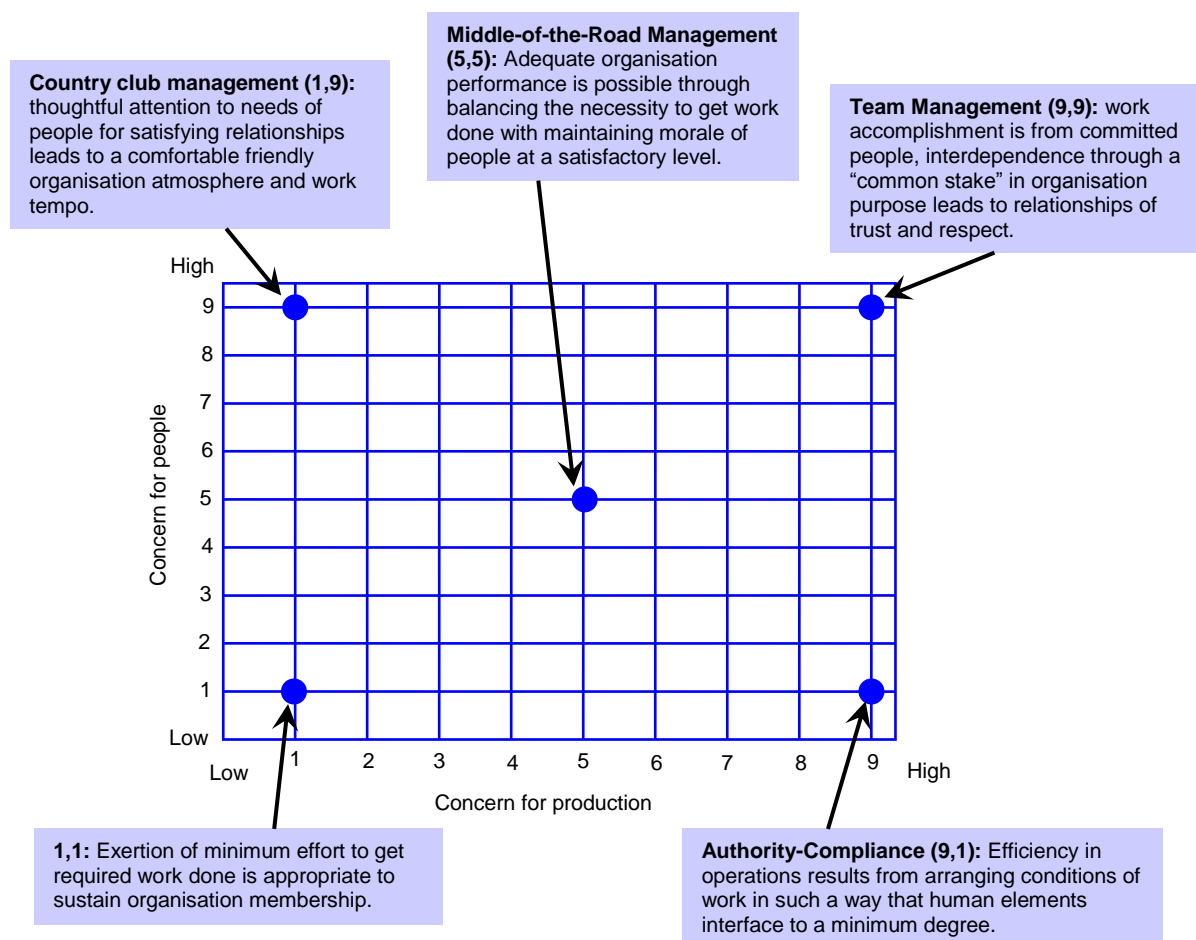


Figure 2.1: The Leadership Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1985)

Management generally has one dominant leadership style and a backup style. Leaders tend to use the backup style when the dominant style does not achieve the desired results. For instance, you might use the 9,9 approach, only to find that most team members are

unenthusiastic about implement a total quality program. It might then be necessary to shift to a 9, 1 approach.

Blake and Mouton strongly for the value of team management (9,9). They present evidence that the team management orientation usually results in improved performance, low absenteeism and turnover, and high employee satisfaction. A synthesis of a number of studies indicates that effective leaders score highly on concern for both people and production. The researchers who analyzed the studies caution, however, that one should investigate each leadership situation before prescribing the best leadership style. Similarly, the Leadership Grid does not dictate that the manager mechanically use one style in trying to lead very different groups. Instead, he or she should use principles of human behaviour to size up the situation.

2.1.3.4 Transformational Leadership

During the recent years, the transformational leadership theory has gained popularity. Accumulating empirical evidence that transformational leadership substantially influences employee's performance and organisational level outcomes (Avolio *et al.*, 1999, Lowe *et al.*, 1996) has stimulated engagement with the theoretical underpinnings of transformational leadership.

Recent developments in leadership theory have shifted interest from earlier theories of charismatic leadership, that viewed the leader as extraordinary and the followers as dependent on the leader (Yukl, 1998), to neo-charismatic theories (Conger and Kanungo, 1998; Shamir *et al.*, 1993) and transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985), which are concerned with the development and empowerment of followers to function independently.

The focus on transformational leadership is on what the leader accomplishes, rather than on the leader's personal characteristics and his or her relationship with group members. The transformational leader moves group members beyond their self-interests for the good of the group, organisation, or society. In contrast, the transactional leader focuses on more routine transactions with an emphasis on rewarding group members for meeting standards (contingent reinforcement). Extensive research has been carried by Bernard. M Bass (1985) as he describes the transformational leader as one who empowers followers, and motivates them to perform beyond their expectations and work on transcendental planes and collective goals instead of focusing solely on immediate personal interests.

Shahin, Amany and Wright (2004) states that Transformational leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation. The concepts of transformational and transactional leadership were later applied to organisational leadership by Bass (1985). However, Bass took a different view from Burns concerning the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership. Whereas Burns saw transformational and transactional leadership as two mutually exclusive forms of leadership, Bass argued that the same leader could exhibit both patterns of leadership.

In the initial version of his theory, Bass (1985) identified two types of transactional leadership (contingent reward and management-by-exception) and three forms of transformational leadership (charisma, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation). This theory was later revised by Avolio *et al.* (1991) who identified four aspects of transformational leadership, which they called the four I's. The concepts of individualised consideration and inspirational motivation were retained, but the concept of charisma was replaced by the concepts of idealised influence and inspirational motivation. The theory was further modified by Bass and Avolio (1993), who identified seven leadership factors based on a higher order factor analysis of the earlier version of their multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). These seven factors were categorised into active and passive categories. The active dimension included the four I's of transformational leadership and contingent reward, whilst the passive dimension consisted of management-by-exception and laissez-faire. However, Bass and Avolio (1994) distinguished between active and passive forms of management-by-exception, making eight factors in all. Definitions of these eight factors are given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Factors of Transactional and Transformational Leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1994)

Transactional leadership	Transformational leadership
Contingent reward Leaders assign or get agreement on what needs to be done and promise rewards or actually reward others in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment	Idealised influence Leaders become role models for their followers. They are admired, respected and trusted. They consider the needs of others over their own personal needs, share risks with followers, are consistent rather than arbitrary, demonstrate high standards of ethical and moral conduct and avoid using power for personal gain
Active management-by-exception Leaders actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes and errors in followers' assignments and take corrective action as necessary	Inspirational motivation Leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work
Passive management-by-exception Leaders wait passively for deviances, mistakes and errors to occur and then take corrective action	Intellectual stimulation Leaders stimulate followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways
	Individualised consideration Leaders treat each subordinate differently according to his or her particular needs and capabilities
Non-leadership: Laissez-faire The laissez-faire style is the avoidance or absence of leadership. As opposed to transactional leadership, the laissez-faire style represents a non transaction	

Carless *et al.*, (2000) further summarised the attributes of a Transformational Leadership as follows;

- **Charismatic:** Above all, the transformational leaders are charismatic. Two key personality factors enhancing their charisma are agreeableness and extraversion, which combine to enhance their interpersonal relationships. They have respect, confidence, and loyalty of group members.
- **Vision:** Transformational leader creates a vision by communicating a set of values that guide and motivate their employees.
- **Encourage the personal development of their staff:** Leaders of this type are often heavily concerned with organisational survival; they also take the time to encourage the personal development of their staff.
- **Supportive Leadership:** Transformational leaders are supportive because they give positive feedback to group members and recognize individual achievements.

- **Empowerment:** They practice empowerment by involving team members in decision making, as do most effective leaders and managers.
- **Innovative thinking:** This helps transformational leaders achieve their goals, such as developing ways to raise cash and cut costs quickly. They further encourage innovative thinking among their employees.
- **Lead by example:** Last but not least, the transformational leaders lead by example. That means they are the first one to practice their developed strategies.

2.1.4 Leadership Style Effectiveness

There is wide disagreement among scholars with regard to effective leadership style. For instance, Brozik (1994) argues that no one type of management style is best in all situations and that the leader, the subordinates and the environment or the task determine the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of each style. Kur (1995) believes that effectiveness in leading is directly related to the leader's way of thinking about himself, subordinates, organisation and environment. Likert and Likert (1976) argue that the participative style is more productive in any culture. Al-Jafary and Hollingworth (1983) also find a significant correlation between the facets of the management system (e.g. support, team building, goal emphasis, help with work, involvement) and that of the measures of organisations' effectiveness. However, the review of literature reveals disagreement among researchers with regard to what makes leaders choose certain leadership style. Obviously, there is a paucity of empirical research studying the correlates of leaders' and subordinates' personal attributes and organisational factors simultaneously with leadership style particularly in a non-Western culturally mixed setting. Kumar and Yauger (1995) stress that "research on the impact of cultural diversity on ... leadership... is still lacking". Furthermore, Dorfman (1996) states that only a few studies out of hundreds have been concerned with the impact of cultural influences on leadership.

A recent study with 3,000 executives revealed that leaders who get the best results do not rely on one style. Instead, they use several different styles in one week, such as by being autocratic in some situation and democratic in others (Goleman, 2000). Another consideration is the culture in which the leadership takes place. For example, an effective leadership style for most German workers would be a high performance (task) orientation and a modest amount of compassion (consideration) (Brodbeck *et al.*, 2002). Thirty years ago pioneering researcher Ralph Stogdill (1974) made a statement about selecting a leadership style that still holds today: "The most effective leaders appear to exhibit a degree of versatility and flexibility that

enables them to adapt their behaviour to the changing and contradictory demands made on them.

Dubrin (2004) presented useful information for choosing between the participative and autocratic styles, depending on the needs of the group members and others forces in the situation. The most successful leaders typically find the right blend of task and relationship orientations.

Table 2.3: Choosing a Leadership Style to fit the Situation (Dubrin, 2004)

Consider being participative under these conditions:	
Leader/manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has limited power and limited authority to use it • Needs input from valuable employees • Risks rejection of his or her authority • Has few existing time pressures • Has limited sanctions that he or she can exert
Group members	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expect to have some control over methods used • Have predominantly middle-class values • Possess relatively scarce skills • Like the system, but not authority
Work situation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourages consensus building • Is characterized by overall organisational objectives • Involves shared responsibility for control • Has some time pressures • Consists of gradual changes or regularly spaced changes • Occasionally involves actual or potential hazards • Values teamwork skills
Consider being autocratic under these conditions:	
Leader/manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has lots of power and limited restraints on its use • Has a way of saving matters in an emergency • Has some unique knowledge useful to the group • Is firmly entrenched in his or her position
Group members	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are dependent on the leader • Are rarely asked for an opinion • Are readily replaced by other workers • Recognise emergencies • Are autocrats themselves • Have little need for independence
Work situation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires a clear direction • Requires a new vision because of changes • Is characterised by strong controls • Is marked by low profit margins or tight cost controls • Includes physical dangers • Requires low-level skills from workers • Requires that changes be made frequently and quickly

Many leadership theorists and practitioners take the position that the most effective leadership style is the one that fits a specific situation. For Hersey and Blanchard, the key variable is subordinate maturity, a focus that distinguishes their leadership model from all others. Hersey and Blanchard define maturity as a person's willingness and ability to take responsibility for directing his or her behaviour. They also hold that maturity should be considered only in relation to a specific task (Gumpert, 1979).

2.1.5 Affect of Culture on Leadership Styles

In this section, the leadership style will be viewed from the angle of multi-cultural environment. In the last decade the development of global markets has created numerous cross-cultural teams and the ensuing dialogue has formed the basis for transacting global business (Adler, 2002). Literature has contented that leadership behaviour is culturally determined and hence varies markedly from culture to culture (e.g. Aram and Piriano, 1978; Burger and Bass, 1979; Wright, 1981; Adler, 1991). Robbins (1993) suggests that national culture plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of leadership style. Similarly, Adler (1991), Badawy (1980) and Bass *et al.* (1979) have all argued that national boundaries make considerable differences in leadership style. Bass (1990a) also concludes that culture does influence leadership.

In some cultures leaders are respected when they take strong decisive action, whereas in other cultures consultative and participative decision making approaches are more valued. According to Den Hartog *et al.* (1999), in a culture where authoritarian leadership is valued it would be pointless acting in a way more characteristic of a participative or democratic leader. But in a culture that endorses a more nurturing and humanistic leadership style, being sensitive and considerate as a leader could be functional. Table 2.3 shows a four dimensional framework submitted by Hofstede (1983) in which national cultures vary and eventually affects the selection of leadership style in one way or another (McKenna, 2006).

Table 2.4: Four Dimensions on which National Cultures vary (Hofstede, 1983)

Dimension	Low	High
Power distance dimension (POW)	(Australia, Israel, Denmark, Sweden) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less centralisation • Flatter organisation pyramids • Smaller wage differentials • Structure in which manual and clerical work are equal jobs 	(Philippines, Mexico, Venezuela, India, Brazil) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater centralisation • Tall organisation pyramids • More supervisory personnel • Structure in which white-collar jobs are valued more than blue-collar jobs
Masculinity-femininity dimension (MAS)	(Sweden, Denmark, Thailand, Finland, Yugoslavia) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sex roles are minimised • Organisations do not interfere with people's private lives • More women in more qualified jobs • Soft, yielding, intuitive skills are rewarded • Social rewards are valued 	(Japan, Australia, Venezuela, Italy, Mexico) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sex roles are clearly differentiated • Organisations may interfere to protect their interests • Fewer women are in qualified jobs • Aggression, competition, and justice are rewarded • Work is valued as a central life interest
Individualism-collectivism dimension (IND)	(Venezuela, Columbia, Taiwan, Mexico, Greece) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisation as 'family' • Organisation defends employee interests • Practices are based on loyalty, a sense of duty, and group participation 	(United States, Australia, Great Britain, Canada, The Netherlands) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisation is more impersonal • Employees defend their own self-interests • Practices encourage individual initiative
Uncertainty avoidance dimension (UNC)	(Denmark, Sweden, Great Britain, United States, India) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less structuring of activities • Fewer written rules • More generalists • Variability • Greater willingness to take risks • Less ritualistic behaviour 	(Greece, Portugal, Japan, Peru, France) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More structuring activities • More written rules • More specialists • Standardisation • Less willingness to take risks • More realistic behaviour

Most recent research in cross-cultural studies of management maintains that managers adopt different decision styles, depending on the pattern of organisation, their individual characteristics (Ali, 1989a; Blyton, 1984; Tayeb, 1988).

Furthermore, Ali (1989b) finds that leadership decision style differs significantly by country. Al-Faleh (1987) points out that Arab culture has certain distinctive characteristics that dominate managerial thinking and behaviour. Evans *et al.* (1989) have argued that leadership style is a function of the level of industrialization, but cultural characteristics play a significant role in tempering its effects. Likewise, Morris and Pavett (1992) examine the differences in management style between a Mexican maquiladora operation and its US parent

plant. They note significant differences in management styles between the two nations. Such differences were attributed to differences in national cultures.

Campbell *et al.* (1993) note that leadership style itself and eventual task outcome had a strong impact on perceptions of appropriateness of leadership style, whereas gender and organisational setting had no substantive impact. Buckham (1990) argues that the type of industry sector (private or public) and an organisation's size play important roles in the determination of the effectiveness of management style.

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). Cultural differences may also limit the universality of the new leadership paradigms, such as the theory of transactional and transformation leadership introduced by Bass (1985) and later revised by Bass and Avolio (1994). Bass (1996) stated that this theory has some degree of universality, as it holds up considerable universal potential.

The influence of culture in the multinational companies working globally can be investigated at different levels of analysis. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) differentiated between three levels of culture. At the highest is the culture of a national or regional society. The way in which attitudes are expressed within specific organisation is described as a corporate or organisational culture. At a narrower level there is the professional culture where people with certain functions will tend to share certain professional and ethical orientations.

National culture could be considered the culture which differentiates one society from another. According to Erez and Early (1993) members of the same culture are more likely to interpret and evaluate situational events in a similar way than those from different cultures. The national culture could be considered from a social perspective, a historical perspective and an individual perspective. The social perspective considers culture from a social point of view. Culture here is a feature of social life (Geertz, 1973). The historical perspective refers to the values, which are inherited in the population of a particular nation. The individual perspective takes a view of culture in which the values and norms of individuals are highlighted. Triandis (1972) defined culture as cultural group characteristics and considered it as a way of perceiving man-made parts of its environment. Hofstede (1991) defined culture as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another.

2.1.6 Leadership Styles in Arabian Gulf Countries

A number of previous studies have examined leadership style in the Arab world. For example, Ali *et al.* (1995) investigated the decision-making styles of UAE national managers and Arab and foreign expatriates. The results suggest that the consultative style was predominant. Similarly, Ali (1993) examined the decision styles of Arab Gulf executives. The results also point to a strong preference for the consultative style. Furthermore, Ali (1989b); Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth (1983) and Muna (1980) examined the decision-making styles of Arab executives. They report that Arab executives are highly committed to the consultative style.

Dahhan (1988) studied the decision styles of Jordanian top managers. She found that Jordanian top managers follow an authoritative management style, a finding that is also reported by Badaway (1980) for Mideastern managers. However, Kaur (1993) reports that the autocratic style prevails among Indian managers.

The findings shows that employees in the investigated organisations are highly committed to their organisations, highly satisfied with their jobs, and their performance is high and indicates that these employees perceive their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership behaviour (Yousef, 2000). A number of studies have been carried out in the Arab world which suggest that the leadership in the Arab culture nurtures consultative and participative tendencies (e.g. Muna, 1980; Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983; Ali, 1993; Ali *et al.*, 1997). This preference demonstrates the influence of Islamic and tribalistic values and beliefs, since both Islamic and tribal law reinforce consultation in all aspects of life (Ali, 1989a).

2.2 Job Satisfaction

Overall job satisfaction has been defined as “a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one’s job and what one perceives it as offering” (Locke, 1969). Furthermore, Mosadeghrad (2003a) defined employee job satisfaction as an attitude that people have about their jobs and the organisations in which they perform these jobs. Methodologically, we can define job satisfaction as an employee’s affective reaction to a job, based on a comparison between actual outcomes and desired outcomes (Mosadeghrad, 2003b).

Job satisfaction is generally recognised as a multifaceted construct that includes employee feelings about a variety of both intrinsic and extrinsic job elements. It encompasses specific aspects of satisfaction related to pay, benefits, promotion, work conditions, supervision, organisational practices and relationships with co-workers (Misener *et al.*, 1996).

Literature suggests that numerous factors influence employee job satisfaction, including: salaries, fringe benefits, achievement, autonomy, recognition, communication, working conditions, job importance, co workers, degree of professionalism, organisational climate, interpersonal relationships, working for a reputable agency, supervisory support, positive affectivity, job security, workplace flexibility, working within a team environment and genetic factors. Sources of low satisfaction are associated with working with unskilled or inappropriately trained staff; laborious tasks such as documentation; repetition of duties; tensions within role expectations; role ambiguity; role conflict; job/patient care; feeling overloaded; the increasing need to be available for overtime; relations with co-workers; personal factors and organisational factors (Navaie-Waliser *et al.*, 2004; Koustelios *et al.*, 2003; De Loach, 2003; Ilies and Judg, 2003; Gigantesco *et al.*, 2003; Blegen, 1993; Chu *et al.*, 2003; McNeese-Smith, 1999; Thyer, 2003).

Irvine and Evans (1995) have also underlined the importance of work characteristics (routine, autonomy and feedback), characteristics of how the work role is defined (role conflict and role ambiguity) and characteristics of the work environment (leadership, stress, advancement opportunities and participation) in relation to job satisfaction.

Justification for the need to investigate job satisfaction is exemplified in the seemingly observed relationship between the levels of job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, grievance expression, tardiness, low morale and high turnover. Job satisfaction is an immediate antecedent of intention to leave the workplace and turnover. Unsatisfied workers will leave

their jobs more than their satisfied colleagues (Padilla-Vellez, 1993; Gangadhraiah *et al.*, 1990; Martin, 1990). Employees who experience job satisfaction are more likely to be productive and stay on the job (McNeese-Smith 1997; Irvine and Evans, 1995). Furthermore, more satisfied employees have more innovative activities in continuous quality improvement and more participation in decision-making in organisations (Kivimaki and Kalimo, 1994).

Among determinants of job satisfaction, leadership is viewed as an important predictor and plays a central role. Leadership is a management function, which is mostly directed towards people and social interaction, as well as the process of influencing people so that they will achieve the goals of the organisation (Skansi, 2000).

Job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which a worker feels positively or negatively about his or her job (Locke, 1976; Odom *et al.*, 1990). It can be conceptualised in a variety of ways, such as intrinsic, extrinsic or general satisfaction.

2.2.1 Intrinsic Satisfaction

Intrinsic satisfaction refers to actually performing the work and experiencing feelings of accomplishment and self actualisation, e.g. career opportunity, advancement. The intrinsic satisfaction is further influenced by the national culture of an employee, as Redding (1990) notes that employees' expectations; behaviour and performance may be different with various national cultures.

2.2.2 Extrinsic Satisfaction

Extrinsic satisfaction is derived from the rewards given to an individual by the organisation, peers, or superiors that can include compensation and job security. Meltz (1989) defines job security broadly as "an individual remains employed with the same organisation with no diminution of seniority, pay, pension rights, etc". Similarly, Herzberg (1968) defines job security as the extent to which an organisation provides stable employment for the employees.

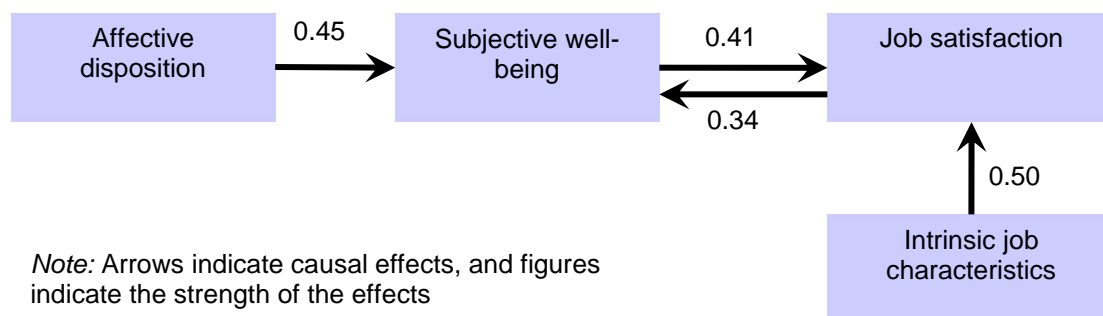


Figure 2.2: A causal model of job satisfaction (Arnold *et al.*, 2005)

2.2.3 Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction straddles several related attitudes. For example, people experience fairly strong affective or emotional responses to such things as remuneration, promotion opportunities, relations with superiors and colleagues, and the work itself (McKenna, 2006). The following are some organisational and external factors one might consider in attempts to establish the causes of job satisfaction (Hodgetts, 1991):

- **Pay and benefits:** The importance of equitable reward is a factor to consider here. One could add fair promotion policies and practices concerning fair pay (Witt and Nye, 1992).
- **Promotion:** The level of satisfaction will depend on the acceptability of the system in operation, be it a system based on merit, or seniority, or whatever combination of the two.
- **Job:** This would embrace (a) skills variety-the extent to which the job allows a worker to use a number of different skills and abilities in executing his or her duties (Glisson and Durick, 1988); (b) interest and challenge derived from the job, in particular moderate challenge (Katzel *et al.*, 1992); and (c) lack of role ambiguity – how clearly the individual understands the job (Glisson and Durick, 1988).
- **Leadership:** There has been endorsement of people-centred or participative leadership as a determinant of job satisfaction (Miller and Monge, 1986)
- **Work group:** It would appear that good intra-group working and supportive colleagues have value in not permitting job dissatisfaction to surface, rather than in promoting job satisfaction.
- **Working conditions:** Where working conditions are good, comfortable, and safe, the setting appears to be appropriate for reasonable job satisfaction, though not necessarily high job satisfaction. The situation with respect to job satisfaction would be bleaker if working conditions were poor.

To these factors can be added personality – job fit as a factor influencing job satisfaction. This arises when there is congruence between personality type and the demands of the job. Initially this could be expressed as successful job performance, eventually leading to high job satisfaction (Feldman and Arnold, 1985).

2.2.4 Affect of a Leadership Style on the Job Satisfaction

Substantial research indicates that a leader and his style being perceived as trustworthy leads to positive outcomes for the organisation, which eventually affects the job satisfaction. Kurt T. Dirks and Donald L. Ferrin (2002) examined the findings and implications of the research that has been conducted during last four decades about trust in leadership. The review involved 106 studies and 27,103 individuals. The meta-analysis (quantitative synthesis of studies) emphasized supervisory leadership based on the importance of trust in day-to-day interactions with group members. Trusting a leader was more highly associated with a variety of work attitudes of group members. The highest specific relationships ('r' shown below) with trust were as follows;

- Job satisfaction ($r = .51$)
- Organisational commitment ($r = .49$)
- Turnover intentions ($r = -.40$) (If you trust your leader, you are less likely to intend to leave)
- Belief information provided by the leader ($r = .35$)
- Commitment to decisions ($r = .24$)
- Satisfaction with the leader ($r = .73$)
- LMX ($r = .69$) (LMX refers to favourable exchanges with the leader)

2.2.5 Affect of a Culture on the Job Satisfaction

A number of researchers have observed that individuals from different cultures have fairly dissimilar levels of job satisfaction (Kanungo *et al.* 1976; Azumi and Macmillan, 1976, Jain *et al.*, 1979; Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1985; Griffeth and Hom, 1987; Yavas *et al.*, 1990), organisational commitment (e.g. Near, 1989; Al-Meer, 1989, 1995); and performance (Al-Otaibi, 1993).

Bhuian and Islam (1996) examined the extent to which expatriate employees in Saudi Arabia are satisfied with the security of their jobs and the relationship between satisfaction with job security and continuance commitment. They found that expatriate employees in Saudi Arabia do not strongly express that they are satisfied with their job security. Furthermore, expatriate employees' satisfaction with job security is significantly correlated with continuance commitment. A recent case study by Randeree and Chaudhry (pending) concludes that job satisfaction affect productivity of employees in a culturally diversified environment.

The influence of national culture on individual behaviour is well established and the differences between eastern and western cultures are rather significant (Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998). The differences in national cultures are reflected in how organisations are structured and managed (Chen, 2001; Cheng, 1995; Hofstede, 1991; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998). For example, firms in South Korea and Chinese firms in Taiwan tend to be owned by founders and families. They tend to be paternalistic, promote values of high power distance and collectivism, and have bureaucratic control and centralised decision making with little worker empowerment. Promotion is often associated with family ties and networks (Chen, 2001; El Kahal, 2002; Somers, 1995; Sommer *et al.*, 1996). By contrast, Western firms tend to be owned by public shareholder and run by a professional manager. They are flatter in structure, less bureaucratic, promote individualism, decentralised decision making and more empowering to their workers. Promotion is often linked with personal competencies and merits (Chen, 2001; El Kahal, 2002).

2.3 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has received substantial attention in past research due to its significant impact on work attitudes such as job satisfaction, performance, absenteeism, and turnover intentions. Porter *et al.* (1974) and Al-Meer (1989) elaborated organisational commitment as the relative strength of the identification of the individual and his involvement with his particular organisation. According to the definition, organisational commitment has three basic components: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values (identification); willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation (involvement); and a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation (loyalty).

Similar to above definition, Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualised three components of organisational commitment:

- **Affective commitment:** essentially concerns the person's emotional attachment to his or her organisation.
- **Continuance commitment:** a person's perception of the costs and risks associated with leaving his or her current organisation. There is considerable evidence that there are two aspects of continuance commitment: the personal sacrifice that leaving would involve, and a lack of alternatives available to the person.
- **Normative commitment:** a moral dimension, based on a person's felt obligation and responsibility to his or her employing organisation.

There is a good evidence for the distinctions between these forms of commitment (Dunham *et al.*, 1994). Interestingly, they approximate respectively to the affective, behavioural and cognitive components of attitudes.

Schappe and Doran (1997) illustrate organisational commitment as employees with strong affective commitment remain with the organisation because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to. In another definition, Meyer and Allen (1997) summarised that Organisational commitment is a psychological state that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organisation. This has implications in terms of continuing his or her membership in the organisation. A committed employee is one who stays with the organisation under any favourable or unfavourable circumstances affecting the organisation.

Other observers have pointed out that people feel multiple commitments at work – not only to their organisation, but also perhaps to their location, department, work group or trade union (Reichers, 1985; Barling *et al.*, 1990). Arnold *et al.* (2005) feels that there is also a wider issue here: what exactly is the organisation? Complexities such as parent and franchises can make it difficult to identify exactly which organisation one belongs to. But more than that, some psychologists (e.g. Coopey and Hartley, 1991) have been critical of the whole notion of organisational commitment because it implies that the organisation is unitarist – that is, it is one single entity with a united goal. A moment's thought reveals that most organisations consist of various factions with somewhat different and possibly even contradictory goals. Faced with these ambiguities, it seems that most people think of the term organisation as meaning top management. This is clearly different from commitment to (for example) one's supervisor or work group, which employees may also feel (Becker and Billings, 1993).

As the underlying component of commitment in various definitions pertains to the desire of employees to remain in their organisations or to their unwillingness to change organisations for moderate personal advantage (Joseph and Deshpande, 1996), greater job satisfaction is expected to lead to stronger organisational commitment. This is consistent with Porter *et al.*'s (1974) suggestion that organisational commitment is much less specific and more stable than job satisfaction and thus the latter is expected to affect the former. Similarly, Steers (1977) suggested that employees whose needs are satisfied by an organisation would likely be more committed to it. Past research has shown that job satisfaction is a determinant of organisational commitment (e.g., Barling *et al.*, 1990; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1998; Mannheim *et al.*, 1997).

Kotter and Heskett (1992), for example, believe that corporate culture has a long-term impact on the performance of the organisation. Denison (1990) found that certain types of culture could enhance organisational performance, while Van der Post *et al.* (1998) found significant relationships between organisational culture and performance. It is also believed that corporate culture is related to organisational strategy, particularly in the implementation of a selected strategy in an organisation (Schwartz and Davis, 1981; Scholz, 1987; Choe, 1993; Rashid and Anantharaman, 1997). Deshpande and Farley (1999) found that the corporate culture of successful Indian and Japanese firms were quite different in their marketing orientation.

Some studies have reported strong correlations of organisational commitment and job satisfaction with turnover (Benkhoff, 1997). When employees are dissatisfied at work, they are less committed and will look for other opportunities to quit. If opportunities are unavailable, they may emotionally or mentally “withdraw” from the organisation. Thus, organisational commitment and job satisfaction are important attitudes in assessing employees’ intention to quit and the overall contribution of the employee to the organisation. Numerous antecedents of job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been suggested in the earlier studies (Chen and Francesco, 2000; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Williams and Hazer, 1986). For example, leadership (Williams and Hazer, 1986) and organisational culture (Trice and Beyer, 1993) were shown to have significant impact on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Lok and Crawford, 1999, 2001).

The affect of leadership style on organisational commitment is important to investigate because it has been found that organisational commitment affect other organisational outcomes, including turnover intentions (Lum *et al.*, 1998; Sims and Kroeck, 1994) and company sales and profitability (Benkhoff, 1997; Brett *et al.*, 1995).

A research conducted by Waldman *et al.* (2001) on relating the leadership style with organisational performance. It states that a team of researchers investigated the impact of transactional (routine) and charismatic (inspirational) leadership on financial performance. The researchers analysed 210 surveys completed by senior managers from 131 Fortune 500 firms. Transactional and charismatic leadership styles were measured with a leadership questionnaire. Each participant was asked to think about the CEO of his or her company and rate the individual on the leadership scale. Participants also completed a questionnaire that measured perceived environmental uncertainty because an uncertain environment often makes having a strong leader more important. Organisational performance was measured as net profit margin (NPM) computed as net income divided by net sales. The performance data were gathered from public information about the companies.

The results of the study disclosed that:-

1. transactional leadership was not significantly related to performance;
2. charismatic leadership showed a slight positive relationship with performance; and
3. when the environment is uncertain, charismatic leadership is more strongly related to performance.

The idea that a charismatic leader can influence the financial performance of a firm during uncertain times is supported by the experience of J.C. Penney Company, Inc. The retailing industry has faced a turbulent environment for many years. In 2001, J.C. Penney brought in Allen Questrom, an experienced and charismatic retail executive, to help revitalize the retail chain. Questrom quickly spearheaded efforts to close poorly performing stores, redecorate existing stores, enhance the merchandise, and centralize merchandise buying to bring about consistency in store offerings. Within one year, the venerable retail chain had regained market share and had become more profitable (Anderson, 2001).

Psychoanalyst Michael Maccoby (1979) conducted in-depth interviews with business executives twenty-five years ago. He concluded that organisations required a higher level of leadership than ever before to survive and prosper. Among the challenges Maccoby saw confronting organisations were increasing competition, technological advances, changing governmental regulations, and changing worker attitudes. These observations are relevant because they persist today (Dubrin, 2004).

Gary Yulk (1994) explains that organisations are complex social systems of patterned interactions among people. In their efforts to understand (and simplify) organisational events, people interpret these events in simple human terms. One especially strong and prevalent explanation of organisational events is to attribute causality to leaders. They are viewed as heroes and heroines who determine the fates of their organisations. The extraordinary success of Southwest Airlines Co. during the 1990s is thus attributed to Herb Kelleher, its flamboyant chief executive. Kelleher initiated no-frills, low-cost air service and built South-west into a highly profitable airline. If we accept the logic of attribution theory in a positive way, most organisational successes are attributed to heroic leaders (Dubrin, 2004).

2.3.2 Affect of Culture on Organisational Commitment

Al-Meer (1989) reported that Westerners, Asians, and Saudis differed significantly with respect to their commitment towards their respective organisations. Likewise, Yavas *et al.*, (1990) found that expatriates and Saudis shared similar work values. Finally, Ben-Bakr *et al.* (1994) concluded that organisational commitment was a predictor of turnover.

2.4 Inter-relationship of Leadership Style, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Several researchers have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Agho *et al.*, 1993; Brooke *et al.*, 1988; Cramer, 1996; Currivan, 1999; Glisson and Durick, 1988; Lance, 1991; Lok and Crawford, 1999; Mowday *et al.*, 1979; Vandenberg and Lance, 1992).

Vandenberg and Lance (1992) examined the casual order of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. They found that organisational commitment causes job satisfaction. Russ and McNeily (1995) looked into the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction using experience, gender and performance as moderators. They discovered that experience and performance moderate the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction dimensions. The common denominator of all the above conceptualisations of organisational commitment is that organisational commitment is a strong desire to remain a member of the particular organisation, given opportunities to change jobs (Hunt, Chonko, and Wood, 1985).

Numerous studies have established job satisfaction as a significant predictor of employee turnover (Griffeth *et al.*, 2000; Hom *et al.*, 1992). Job satisfaction can enhance organisational commitment and reduce an employee's intention to leave a firm (Murphy and Gorchels, 1996). Those businesses that do not offer attractive career development programs can lose good workers to competitors offering job opportunities (Rita and Kirschenbaum, 1999).

Although approaches to the study of turnover differ, most include the possibility that turnover is motivated by the disaffection of the individual with some aspect of the work environment (including the job, co-workers or organisation), or the organisation with some aspect of the individual, such as poor performance or attendance. Even if some forms of turnover are desirable (e.g. losing poorly performing employees), most researchers use this term to refer to the loss of valued employees, and thus, as a negative index of organisational effectiveness (Staw, 1980).

Many factors have often been used to explain turnover among engineers (Baugh and Roberts, 1994; Igbaria *et al.*, 1992). Some unique factors may exist in the engineering context (Robinson *et al.*, 2005). Engineers, in fact, form a distinct occupational group because, while engineering does not fit classic definition of a profession, there are many elements of professionalism within the field. Engineers have a strong need for growth and personal development compared to professionals in other occupations. They possess a high need for

learning and have a strong aspiration to be challenged (Allen and Katz, 1995; Gordon and Bal, 2001). As a result of changes in economic, social and technological conditions, engineering managers are increasingly facing problems in retaining engineers. This, coupled with engineers' orientations and expectations to be treated as professionals, has caused considerable tensions and strains in the engineer-management relationship. This calls for changes in engineering management styles to maintain motivation and productivity.

Kerr *et al.* (1977) have revealed that the relationship between organisational and professional commitment for engineers may be complementary rather than conflicting or mutually exclusive. Engineers high on both these factors are more likely to stay current in their profession and therefore more capable of job contributions. This suggests that it is particularly wise for an organisation to encourage engineers to be both organisationally and professionally committed, and that the organisation should have a process for encouraging and planning the engineers' professional development, while removing all obstacle for their sound integration within the organisation.

Furthermore, research has found that engineers have diverse career aspirations that, in turn, may impact on job commitment and satisfaction (Allen and Katz, 1986, 1992; Goldberg and Shenav, 1984; Igbaria *et al.*, 1999).

Ostroff (1992) demonstrated the close association between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and reduced turnover, and the clear influence that job satisfaction had on the turnover intentions of engineering staff. Shaw *et al.* (1998) confirmed that direct human resource management investment strategies (pay and benefits) and indirect human resource management investment strategies (job stability, training and procedural justice) were negative correlated to voluntary turnover at an organisational level. Lee and Mitchell (1994) proposed an “unfolding” model utilizing constructs from Beach's (1990) “generic decision-making” model and image theory as a means of gaining an understanding of the specific issues behind employee's decisions to leave their jobs. Lee *et al.* (1999) went on to argue that people compare shocks, as well as the surrounding circumstances, to their own images – i.e. their values, goals and plans for goal attainment- and, if the two are incompatible, thoughts of leaving their job will occur. A reasonable assumption, therefore, is that employees will generally strive to fulfill their obligations, by showing greater organisational commitment, higher productivity levels, higher job satisfaction and lower turnover levels, if they perceive that the company is fulfilling its obligations through suitable career development practices, promotion, training and support and so on. Contrarily, a greater awareness of the gap between

career development programs and career needs in each type would help to effectively explain the factors behind job satisfaction which can ultimately lead to an employee's resignation.

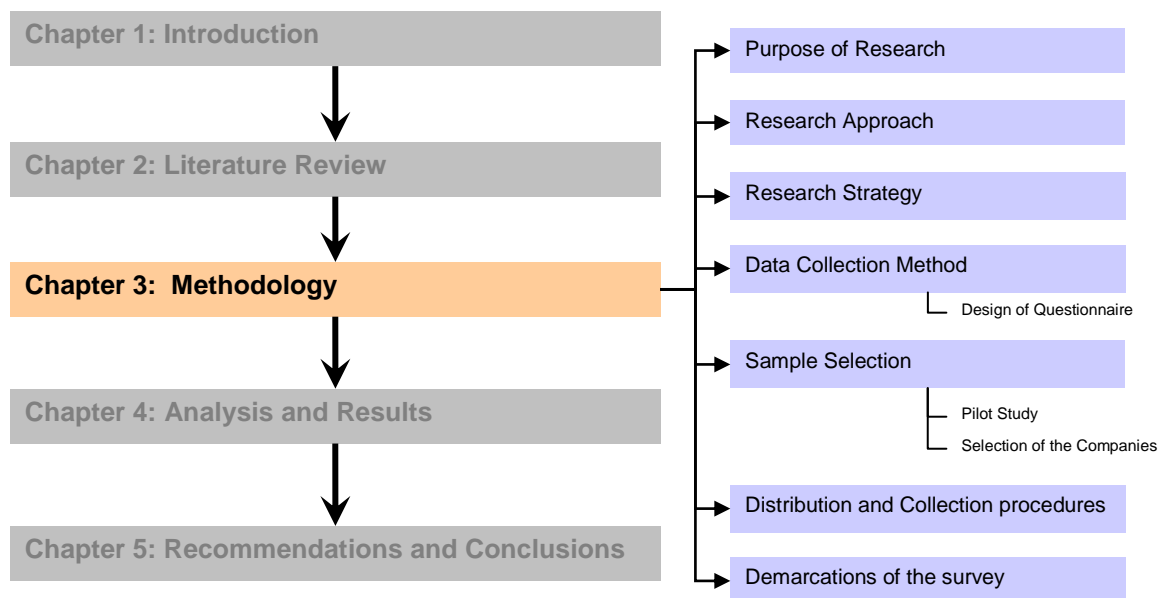
Yousef (2000) studied the relationship between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and performance in the UAE and found significant positive results. However, his study reveals moderating effects of national culture on the relationships of leadership behaviour with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and performance.

A study by Lok and Crawford (1999) confirmed earlier findings (e.g. Mowday *et al.*, 1979; Bateman and Strasser, 1984; DeCotiis and Summers, 1987; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Vandenberg and Lance, 1992; Iverson and Roy, 1994) that the leadership style consideration variable had a stronger influence on commitment than the leadership style structure variable. Also, there is a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Chapter 3

3 METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, theories relating to each research question were presented. This chapter details the planned methodology followed to achieve the aim of this research. Beginning with the purpose of this research, then describing the applied research strategy, the method and tools used in the research will be presented. To conclude this chapter, demarcations of the survey and study are documented.



3.1 Purpose of Research

According to Yin (1994), there are three different ways of approaching the research namely: through descriptive, exploratory, or explanatory research. The goal of descriptive research is to develop and explain empirical generalizations (Yin, 1994). This type of research includes a complete description of a phenomenon with its context (Saunders *et al.* 2000) and is based on already existing theories and hypotheses (Yin, 1994). The second type, explorative research is particularly used when a problem is difficult to limit and when there is little or restricted research available on the topic (Wiedersheim-Paul and Eriksson, 1997). Explanatory research, explains causal relationships between cause and effect (Yin 1994) and the purpose with this research is to prove or disapprove that a relation takes place or has a certain characteristic (Wiedersheim-Paul and Eriksson, 1998; Yin, 1994).

The purpose and aim of this dissertation is to gain a deeper knowledge of the leadership styles and its influence on job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the construction industry of Dubai. In order to reach this deeper understanding, the term leadership and various theories on leadership styles are described. A further description of leadership style effectiveness and the affect of culture on the leadership style is documented. Similarly, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are described in general, and under the context of cultures. Then earlier theories showing affect of leadership styles on job satisfaction and organisational commitment are examined. For this reason, this thesis can be seen as mainly descriptive. However as this study is being carried out in a new region and industry, it can be considered to be exploratory as well.

3.2 Research Approach

There are two type of methodological research approaches within social science namely qualitative and quantitative (Holme and Solvang, 1991; Wiedersheim-Paul and Eriksson, 1998; Yin, 1994). The purpose of the latter approach, quantitative research, is to gather, analyse, and measure statistical data from a large sample selection to see if there is a connection between the different variables (Holme and Solvang, 1991). On the other hand, the purpose of qualitative research is to gain a deeper understanding and description of a problem (Holme and Solvang, 1991), through gathering and analysis of detailed data of ideas, feelings and attitudes. It is conducted through meaningful interviews in one or a limited number of companies in order to obtain comprehensive information (Tull and Hawkins, 1990), while it at the same time enables the author to have a overall view (Saunders *et al.* 2000).

In the light of above discussion, the aim and the basis of the research questions of this dissertation being descriptive cum exploratory, the selected approach for this thesis was a qualitative approach. This method is appropriate since the aim is to describe and gain a deeper understanding of the leadership style and its influence on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the construction industry of Dubai.

3.3 Research Strategy

The research strategy is the plan of how the author should carry out the answering of the research questions previously stated (Saunders et al, 2000). When performing a study there are five major research strategies that the author can choose among, namely experiments, surveys, archival analysis, histories, and case studies (Yin, 1994). The selection depends, as depicted in Table 3.1, on three conditions: the type of research question posed; the extent of control the investigator has over actual behavioural events; and the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events (Yin, 1994).

Table 3.1: Relevant Situations for Different Research Strategies (Yin, 1994)

Research Strategy	Form of Research Question	Requires control over Behavioural Events	Focuses on Contemporary Events
Experiment	how, why	yes	yes
Survey	who, what, where, how many, how much	no	yes
Archival Analysis	who, what, where, how many, how much	no	yes/ no
History	how, why	no	no
Case Study	how, why	no	yes

In this study the research strategy is survey as four research questions begin with ‘what’ and one question queries the ‘how much’ of the factors are influencing. This choice of strategy is further supported by the fact that no control is required over behavioural events; instead the focus is on contemporary events.

3.4 Method of Data Collection

3.4.1 Design of a Questionnaire

To achieve the aim and objectives of the research, a questionnaire (as shown in Appendix A) was designed based on the research questions and the literature review. The questionnaire was aimed to collect mainly qualitative data, so that the impact of leadership style on job

satisfaction and organisational commitment can be determined more accurately. However, the questionnaire was kept flexible enough to receive comments from the respondents.

The questionnaire was aimed at office workers in the construction industry of Dubai, because they are the most direct employees which are affected from the top management's leadership style through a trickle down effect. The workers at sites seldom get a chance to know the leadership style of the company and hence are least concerned about its affect on their job satisfaction.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections that are;

- A) Personal Information
- B) Leadership style
- C) Factors affecting your job satisfaction
- D) Factors affecting your organisational commitment

3.4.1.1 Personal Information

First section of the questionnaire required only necessary personal information from the respondents. The questionnaire was drafted as a multiple choice format so that the time required to complete the form would be kept to a minimum. Furthermore, the questionnaire was kept anonymous as people in the UAE and most of the Middle East countries are reluctant to share their personal information, and this could have an impact on a response rate. The personal information thought to be influencing the job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the light of literature review were included in the questionnaire as shown in Figure 3.1.

A - Personal Information					
Nationality group:	<input type="checkbox"/> UAE National	<input type="checkbox"/> Arab National	<input type="checkbox"/> Indian sub-continent	<input type="checkbox"/> European	
	<input type="checkbox"/> American	<input type="checkbox"/> Far East Asia	<input type="checkbox"/> Other		
Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Female			
Age:	<input type="checkbox"/> 21-25	<input type="checkbox"/> 26-30	<input type="checkbox"/> 31-35	<input type="checkbox"/> 36-45	<input type="checkbox"/> 46-55
	<input type="checkbox"/> >55				
Marital Status:	<input type="checkbox"/> Single	<input type="checkbox"/> Married	<input type="checkbox"/> Divorced		
Education:	<input type="checkbox"/> High School	<input type="checkbox"/> Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/> Graduate	<input type="checkbox"/> Post Graduate	<input type="checkbox"/> PhD
Professional Experience:	<input type="checkbox"/> 0-3 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 4-5 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 10-15 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 years
	<input type="checkbox"/> 20-30 years	<input type="checkbox"/> >30 years			
No. of previous employers:	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
	<input type="checkbox"/> 6-8 <input type="checkbox"/> 8-10 <input type="checkbox"/> >10				
Job description in the company:					

Figure 3.1: A preview of Section 'A' from the questionnaire

3.4.1.2 Leadership Style

The second section of the questionnaire was tailored to inquire the prevailing leadership style in the department/organisation, the impact of the leadership style on a respondent's job satisfaction; and organisational commitment. At the end of this section, the respondents were asked to rank the different leadership styles, that they will like to see/experience in their department or company in an order of preference.

Firstly, a respondent was provided with a list of ten leadership styles (commonly used) deduced from the literature review as shown in Figure 3.2.

B – Leadership Style		
B.1: What type of leadership style prevails in your department/company?		
Leadership styles	Description	Circle one from each row (wherever applicable)
Autocratic	In this style leader retain most of the authority. He/She make decisions, assuming that group members will comply with it.	1 2 3 4 5
Consultative	Leader confers with group members before making decision. However they retain final authority to make decisions.	1 2 3 4 5
Consensus	Leader encourages group discussion about an issue and then makes a decision that reflects general agreement. A decision is not considered final until it appears that all parties involved will at least support the decision.	1 2 3 4 5
Democratic	In this style, a leader confers final authority on the group. The leader functions as collector of a group opinion and takes a vote before making a decision.	1 2 3 4 5
Authority-Compliance	A Leader with this orientation concentrates on maximising production while giving less concern for the people.	1 2 3 4 5
Country Club Management	In this style, a leader shows a minimum concern for production and a maximum concern for people. Primary attention is placed on good feelings among group members, at the expense of achieving results.	1 2 3 4 5
Impoverished Management	This style shows a minimum concern for both production and people. Such a leader does only the minimum required to remain a member of the firm.	1 2 3 4 5
Middle-of-the-Road Management	Leaders with this middle-of-the-road style do their job but avoid making waves and conform to the status quo. In short, they give approximately same importance to the work and concerns of the group members.	1 2 3 4 5
Team Management	This style integrates concerns for production and group members. It is goal-directed team approach that seeks to gain optimum results through participation, involvement, and commitment.	1 2 3 4 5
Transformational Leadership	This style mainly focuses on what leader accomplishes, rather than on the leader's personal characteristics and his or her relationship with group members. The transformational leader moves group members beyond their self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society.	1 2 3 4 5

Note: If leadership style prevailing in your company does not match with above mentioned categories then please describe it in comments box,

Figure 3.2: A preview of Section 'B' from the questionnaire

Figure 3.3 indicate that each leadership style was listed with a brief description for the respondents, so that he/she can differentiate between different leadership styles. This also helped in educating the respondents about the different leadership styles. The presence of applicable leadership styles had to be informed on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represented "Rarely present", 2; "Occasionally present", 3; "Moderately present", 4; "Noticeably present" and 5 denoted "Highly present". The questionnaire provided an additional space for the respondents to describe any additional leadership styles prevailing in his/her department, in case it did not match with the above listed leadership styles.

Secondly, section 'B' of the questionnaire further evaluated the influence of leadership style on the respondent; their job satisfaction, and their organisational commitment by three direct questions. Once more the responses were required on the scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represented

“Very little influence”, 2; “Little influence”, 3; “Moderate influence”, 4; “Strong influence”, and 5; “Very strong influence”. Lastly in this section, the respondents were asked to rank the above mentioned leadership styles that he/she would like to have in their department/organisation from 1 to 10, where “1” being most preferred one and “10” being least preferred”.

3.4.1.3 Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

The third section of the questionnaire required the respondents’ input, to determine influence of different factors on the job satisfaction. In order to determine the extent of influence on the respondents, a scale of 1 to 5 was provided, where 1 represented “Very little influence”, 2; “Little influence”, 3; “Moderate influence”, 4; “Strong influence”, and 5 denoted “Very strong influence”. In the light of literature research, it was deduced that the job satisfaction is more or less affected by some common factors, which were listed in the questionnaire as shown in Figure 3.3.

C – Factors affecting your Job Satisfaction					
C.1: How much does following factors influence your Job Satisfaction?					
Description	Circle one				
Salary	1	2	3	4	5
Other benefits such as bonuses, awards, etc	1	2	3	4	5
Nature of work	1	2	3	4	5
Flexibility in work	1	2	3	4	5
Job Security	1	2	3	4	5
Job timing	1	2	3	4	5
Company culture	1	2	3	4	5
Direct Manager behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
Company Leadership	1	2	3	4	5
Name of the Company	1	2	3	4	5
Place of work (area, region, emirate, etc)	1	2	3	4	5
Living environment	1	2	3	4	5
Inflation	1	2	3	4	5
Traffic	1	2	3	4	5

Any other factors influencing your Job Satisfaction?

Figure 3.3: A preview of Section ‘C’ from the questionnaire

The questionnaire also provided an additional space for a respondent to record any additional factors influencing his/her job satisfaction.

3.4.1.4 Factors Affecting Organisational Commitment

The earlier studies on organisational commitment and job satisfaction have contented that an employee’s job satisfaction leads to his/her organisational commitment (Vandenberg and Lance; 1992, Russ and McNeily; 1995). Thus, the factors mentioned for the job satisfaction were listed for organisational commitment too, in order to measure their influence on the

respondents. A scale similar to job satisfaction was provided as shown in Figure 3.4. However, there remains a difference between the job satisfaction and organisational commitment as described in the previous chapter.

D – Factors affecting your Organisational Commitment					
D.1: How much does following factors influence your Organisational Commitment?					
Description	Circle one				
Salary	1	2	3	4	5
Other benefits such as bonuses, awards, etc	1	2	3	4	5
Nature of work	1	2	3	4	5
Flexibility in work	1	2	3	4	5
Job Security	1	2	3	4	5
Job timing	1	2	3	4	5
Company culture	1	2	3	4	5
Direct Manager behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
Company Leadership	1	2	3	4	5
Name of the Company	1	2	3	4	5
Place of work (area, region, emirate, etc)	1	2	3	4	5
Living Environment	1	2	3	4	5
Inflation	1	2	3	4	5
Traffic	1	2	3	4	5
Any other factors influencing your Organisational Commitment?					

Figure 3.4: A preview of Section ‘D’ from the questionnaire

3.5 Sample Selection

3.5.1 Pilot Study

Thus once the questionnaire was developed for analysing the impact of leadership style on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in the construction industry of Dubai, U.A.E, it was important to carry out a pilot study before distributing the questionnaires on a wider scale. Hence, A few construction industry professionals were randomly selected to comment on the questionnaire. The professionals selected ranged from a draftsman to a project manager and department heads. This cross-section was to gauge whether my questionnaire was understandable to all the office workers in the construction industry. Their comments were very beneficial in fine tuning the questionnaire: Some of their major comments were as follows:-

- More guidance at the top of each column was required
- External environment factors that contribute to job satisfaction, such as inflation, traffic, and place of work should be included.

Hence, the above comments were incorporated in the questionnaire before circulating to the companies.

3.5.2 Selection of Organisations

The construction industry of Dubai is vast and growing on daily basis due to the construction boom in the country. Thus, it is difficult to determine the total number of office workers in the construction industry and then to define the sample population. Therefore, considering the time constraints for the dissertation, a different strategy was selected to achieve a reasonable result from the industry. A categorical division of the construction industry in Dubai was used and this was,

- **Clients** (Municipality, Private developers)
- **Consultants** (Architects, Engineers, specialised engineering firms provide design and supervising expertise)
- **Contractors**

However, recently more specialised firms have started entering the construction market as the construction boom continues to flourish. Some examples of such specialised firms are, project management companies, quantity surveying, contract law firms, etc. Hence, to achieve a better consensus from the market three typical firms from each of the above categories were selected. These companies are larger in magnitude in terms of their employees and work being undertaken and are the key role players in the construction industry of Dubai. Thus these companies would be the best representation of the industry.

(Disclaimer: Due to the anonymity reasons, name of the companies cannot be disclosed, so they will be called by their area of specialisation. i.e. a Client, a Consultant, and a Contractor)

3.5.2.1 The Client

The selected company for the Client is a leading player in the property development sector of Dubai. The company has around 700 employees and constitutes in-house expertise in following major departments of the company:

- Business Development (Master planning department)
- Marketing
- Engineering and project management
- Infrastructure management
- Asset/Facilities management

3.5.2.2 The Consultant

The selected consultant is a multinational company having more than 70 offices around the world. In the Middle East, the Consultant provides engineering consultancy services across a

geographic region extending from North Africa to Dubai in the areas of Transport, Water, Property Development, Environmental and Energy.

The Consultant has played a leading role in the development of UAE since 1955 and currently employs 1000 staff across all the Emirates. It has permanent offices in Dubai, Abu Dhabi, and Sharjah in the UAE.

3.5.2.3 The Contractor

The company selected for the Contractors survey is the oldest and one of the leading contractor in Dubai. It employs around 250 staff members in its different offices and has labour force in excess of 2500 individuals. The contractor's diversified activities include:

- Quarrying
- Asphalt
- Readymix and precast concrete
- Building services and facilities management
- Joinery
- Building products and systems
- Protective coatings
- Metal fabrications

3.6 Distribution and Collection Procedures

The survey to study the impact of leadership style on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees in the construction industry of Dubai was carried out by pick and drop method. Thus, 600 hard copies of the questionnaires were distributed to the three selected companies. 150 questionnaires were distributed in the Client organisation, 250 questionnaires were circulated in the Consultant's company, and 200 questionnaires were distributed in the Contractor firm. Then, the completed questionnaires were collected by visiting the companies a month after the delivery.

3.7 Demarcations of the Survey

Given the limited time-period for completion of the dissertation the construction industry was categorical divided and the survey was restricted to the office employees of the industry. Another reason, for limiting the questionnaire to the office workers was that the leadership styles are better appreciated by the employees in the office rather than the site workers because of education level of the workforce at site.

Section B-5 of the questionnaire posed some problems during the reviewing of the survey results. This was due to a number of the respondents not being able to rank the leadership styles and leaving the section uncompleted. Although during the pilot study this issue was not highlighted and the pilot sample of employees understood the questions well.

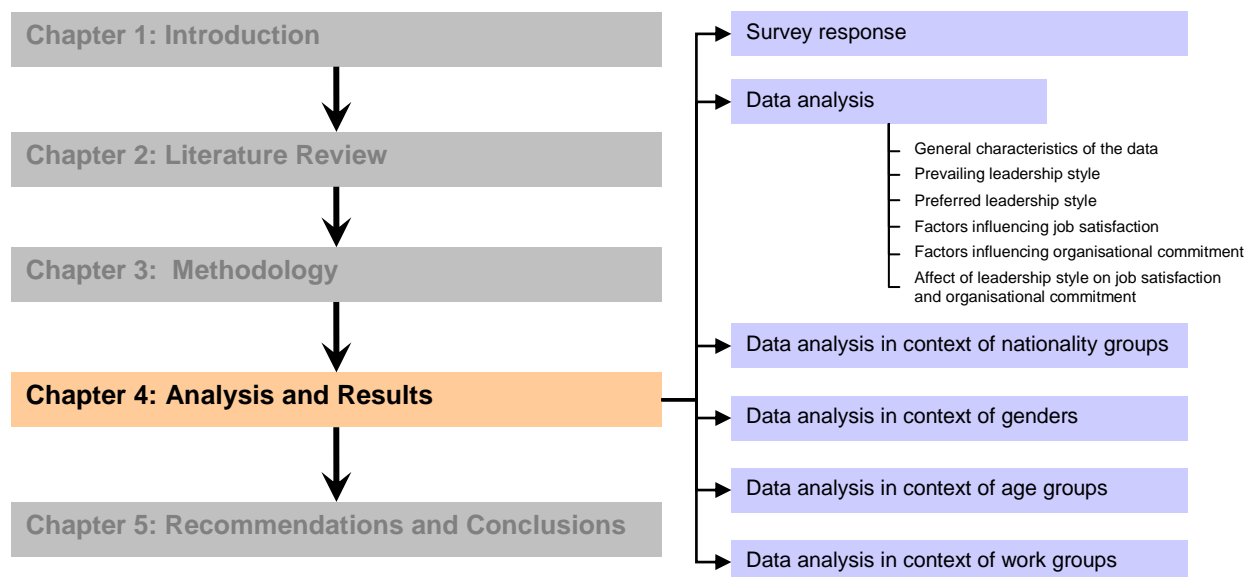
Chapter 4

4 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the analysis and results deduced from the survey data. The data of the survey can be analysed in a variety of ways but considering the research questions, the findings will be grouped in the following, six categories before proceeding with a cross-dimensional analysis of the data including contexts such as culture, gender, age, and work groups.

- *General characteristics of the survey*
- *Prevailing leadership style*
- *Preferred leadership style*
- *Factors influencing job satisfaction*
- *Factors influencing organisational commitment*
- *Affect of leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment*

In addition to this, it is worth individually analysing each organisation, so as to develop an understanding of how the different factors are affected by the type of industry. Therefore, individual analyses for the Client, Consultant, and Contractor's organisations are documented in Appendices B, C, and D respectively.



4.1 Survey Response

The useable survey forms received back were 251 out of 600 distributed, thus giving an overall response rate of 41.83%. The response rate of 41.83% is satisfactory in the Middle East region and especially in a construction industry. The current survey response was achieved by the help of colleagues and friends in the organisations, who managed to chase the respondents. Figures 4.1(a) and (b) illustrates the number of respondents and percentage of response from the three companies.

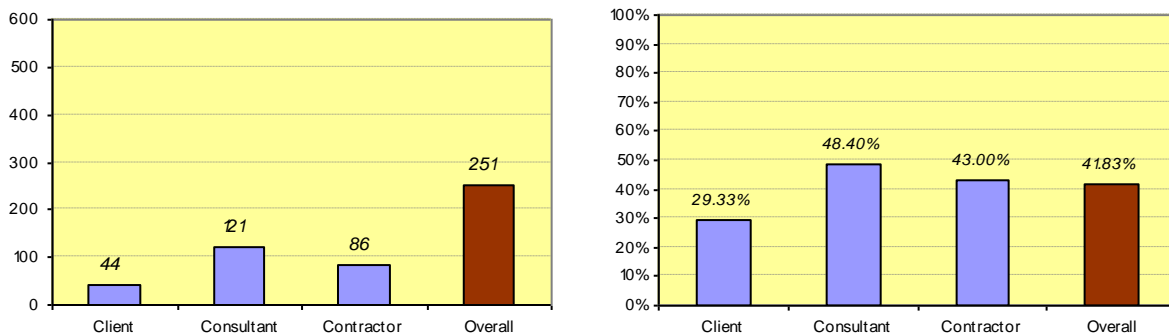


Figure 4.1: (a) Number of Useable Forms received from the Three Organisations, (b) Survey Response Rate from the Three Organisations

4.2 Data Analysis

The data was analysed longitudinally as that is the way questionnaire was designed and requested the responses of the employees. This will help in exploring some answers to our research questions.

4.2.1 General Characteristics of Data

The general characteristics of the survey are illustrated in the Table 4.1. Some of the major findings noted in the general characteristics of the construction industry in Dubai are as follows:-

- The results indicate that nationals from the Indian Sub-continent (South Asia) make it a largest employee group in the office environment of the industry.
- Male gender seems to dominate the construction industry in the office too.
- In the age group category, a moderate mix of employees is found.
- Majority of the office employees have their education to a graduation level.
- The survey results indicate that about 39% of the office employees have not changed their jobs frequently.

Table 4.1: General Characteristics of the Survey

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Nationality Group		
UAE National	17	6.8%
Arab National	40	15.9%
Indian Sub-continent	129	51.4%
European	44	17.5%
American	2	0.8%
Canadian	1	0.4%
Far East Asian	18	7.2%
Gender		
Male	217	86.5%
Female	34	13.5%
Age Group		
21-25	29	11.6%
26-30	90	35.9%
31-35	59	23.5%
36-45	62	24.7%
46-55	8	3.2%
>55	3	1.2%
Marital Status		
Single	70	27.9%
Married	179	71.3%
Divorced	1	0.4%
Educational Status		
High School	0	0.0%
Diploma	57	22.7%
Graduate	158	62.9%
Post Graduate	34	13.5%
PhD	1	0.4%
Years of professional experience		
0-3	42	16.7%
4-5	61	24.3%
6-10	56	22.3%
10-15	63	25.1%
16-20	19	7.6%
20-30	8	3.2%
>30	2	0.8%
Number of previous employers		
1	98	39.0%
2	46	18.3%
3	48	19.1%
4	25	10.0%
5	31	12.4%
6-8	3	1.2%
8-10	0	0.0%
>10	0	0.0%

4.2.2 Prevailing Leadership Styles

The second section of the questionnaire inquired about the existing leadership style in the organisations and their extent. Respondents were asked to mark the extent of the leadership styles on a scale of 1 to 5, only if it was present. Thus, Table 4.2 summarises the percentage and mean of the responses.

Table 4.2: Results illustrating Prevailing Leadership Styles

Leadership styles	1=Rarely present		2=Occasionally present		3=Moderately present		4=Noticeably present		5=Highly present		Mean	SD
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
<i>Autocratic</i>	80	31.9%	32	12.7%	84	33.5%	45	17.9%	6	2.4%	2.5	1.19
<i>Consultative</i>	8	3.2%	47	18.7%	57	22.7%	104	41.4%	31	12.4%	3.4	1.04
<i>Consensus</i>	8	3.2%	19	7.6%	56	22.3%	125	49.8%	33	13.1%	3.6	0.93
<i>Democratic</i>	23	9.2%	96	38.2%	68	27.1%	25	10.0%	34	13.5%	2.8	1.18
<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	78	31.1%	44	17.5%	55	21.9%	64	25.5%	3	1.2%	2.5	1.22
<i>Country Club Management</i>	68	27.1%	38	15.1%	87	34.7%	44	17.5%	2	0.8%	2.5	1.11
<i>Impoverished Management</i>	129	51.4%	29	11.6%	48	19.1%	26	10.4%	7	2.8%	2.0	1.20
<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	90	35.9%	48	19.1%	64	25.5%	32	12.7%	5	2.0%	2.2	1.15
<i>Team Management</i>	8	3.2%	20	8.0%	97	38.6%	46	18.3%	76	30.3%	3.7	1.10
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	18	7.2%	33	13.1%	92	36.7%	73	29.1%	20	8.0%	3.2	1.03

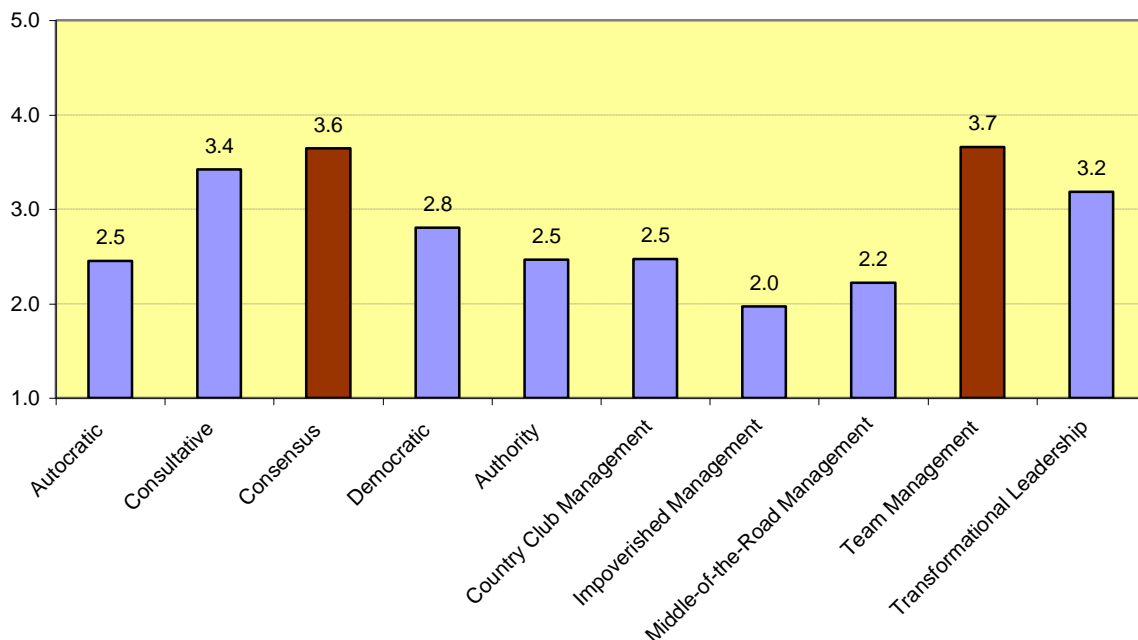


Figure 4.2: Extent of each Leadership Style in the Industry

The mean analysis of the survey, graphically represented in Figure 4.2 reveals that mostly Consensus and Team management leadership style is moderate to noticeably present in the office environment of the construction industry.

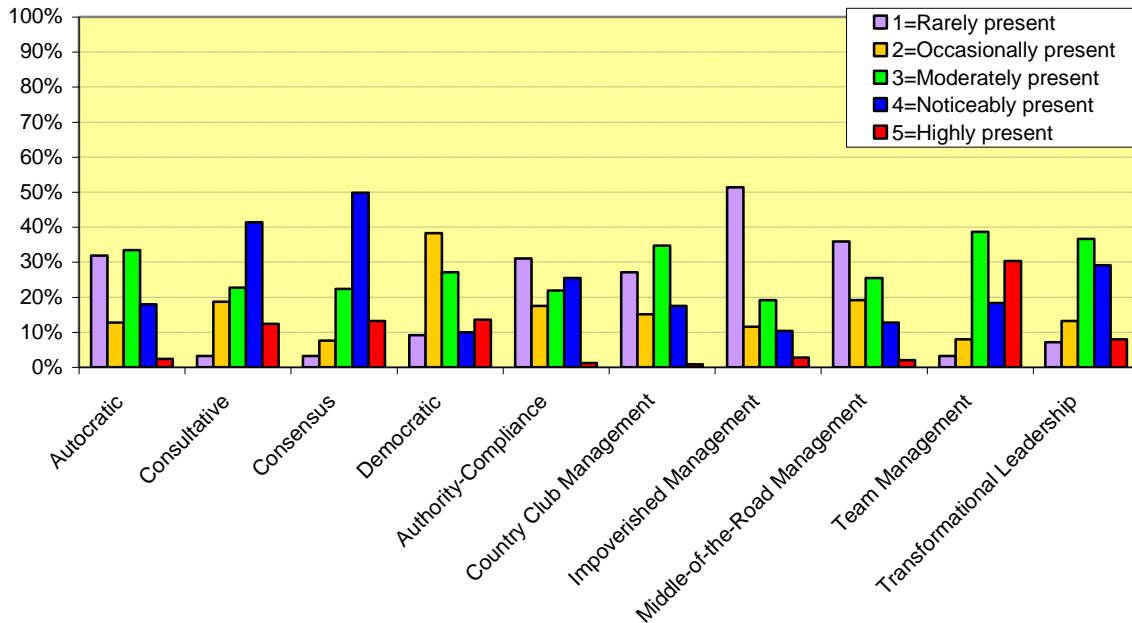


Figure 4.3: Response Rate to Show Extent of each Leadership Style

The graphical illustration in Figure 4.3 indicates that almost 40% respondents feel that Consultative leadership style, while about 50% of the respondents believe Consensus leadership style are noticeably prevalent. However, about 30% respondents are of the opinion that Team management leadership style is highly present in the office environment of the construction industry in Dubai.

4.2.3 Preferred Leadership Styles

The results received regarding the preferred leadership style indicate that the top three leadership styles are Democratic, Consensus and Team management as listed in ascending order in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Assorted Leadership Styles in terms of Preference by the Employees

Leadership styles assorted by the ranks	Mean of the Ranks
<i>Democratic</i>	3.11
<i>Consensus</i>	3.41
Team Management	3.46
<i>Consultative</i>	4.07
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	5.48
<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	5.62
<i>Country Club Management</i>	6.80
<i>Autocratic</i>	6.87
Middle-of-the-Road Management	7.29
<i>Impoverished Management</i>	7.98

4.2.4 Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction

The factors determined by the literature review were listed in the questionnaire to analyse their affect on an employee's job satisfaction in comparison with the leadership style. Table 4.4 summarises the responses received for each of those listed factors.

Table 4.4: Results showing Influence of the Different Factors on Employees' Job Satisfaction

Factors	1=Very Little Influence		2=Little Influence		3=Moderate Influence		4=Strong Influence		5= Very Strong Influence		Mean	SD
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
Salary	1	0.4%	16	6.4%	30	12.0%	120	47.8%	83	33.1%	4.1	0.86
Other Benefits	3	1.2%	17	6.8%	48	19.1%	113	45.0%	69	27.5%	3.9	0.92
Nature of work	1	0.4%	16	6.4%	28	11.2%	84	33.5%	121	48.2%	4.2	0.92
Job Flexibility	0	0.0%	16	6.4%	39	15.5%	107	42.6%	88	35.1%	4.1	0.87
Job Security	1	0.4%	1	0.4%	56	22.3%	117	46.6%	75	29.9%	4.1	0.76
Job Timing	0	0.0%	15	6.0%	91	36.3%	103	41.0%	41	16.3%	3.7	0.82
Company Culture	0	0.0%	43	17.1%	45	17.9%	80	31.9%	82	32.7%	3.8	1.08
Direct Manager behaviour	0	0.0%	10	4.0%	60	23.9%	83	33.1%	97	38.6%	4.1	0.89
Company leadership	1	0.4%	3	1.2%	54	21.5%	132	52.6%	60	23.9%	4.0	0.74
Name of company	43	17.1%	50	19.9%	55	21.9%	78	31.1%	24	9.6%	3.0	1.26
Place of work	3	1.2%	28	11.2%	75	29.9%	72	28.7%	71	28.3%	3.7	1.04
Living environment	5	2.0%	24	9.6%	59	23.5%	81	32.3%	69	27.5%	3.8	1.04
Inflation	2	0.8%	30	12.0%	120	47.8%	45	17.9%	52	20.7%	3.5	0.98
Traffic	9	3.6%	59	23.5%	113	45.0%	22	8.8%	47	18.7%	3.2	1.10

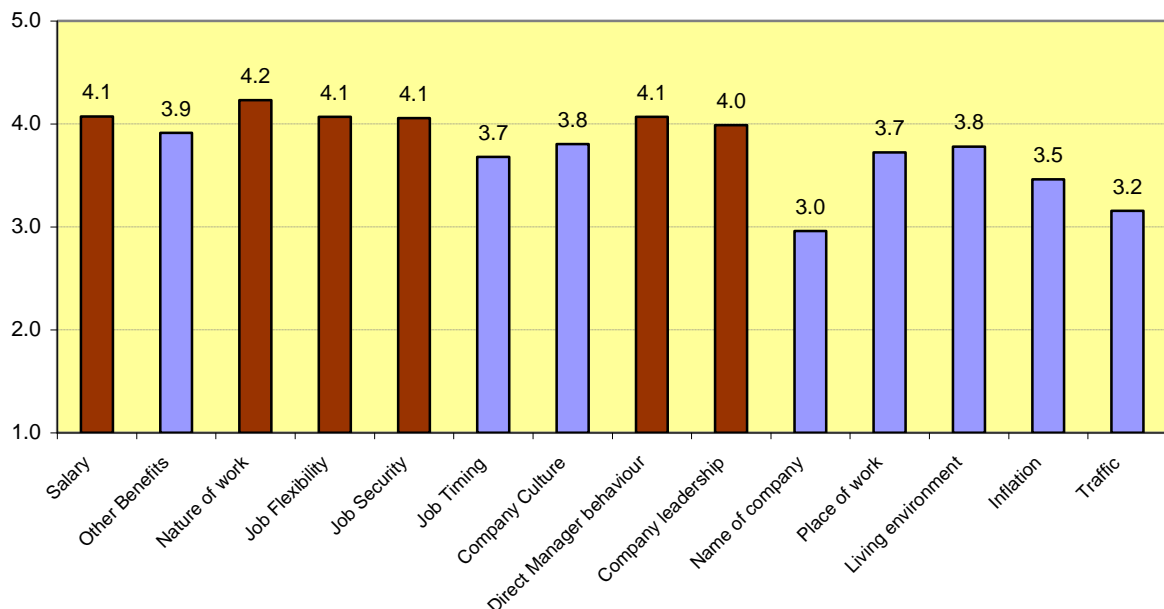


Figure 4.4: Extent of Influence of each Factor on Job Satisfaction of the Employees

The mean analysis of the responses indicate that six strongly influencing factors are Salary, Nature of work, Job flexibility, Job Security, Direct manager's behaviour, and Company leadership as represented in Figure 4.4.

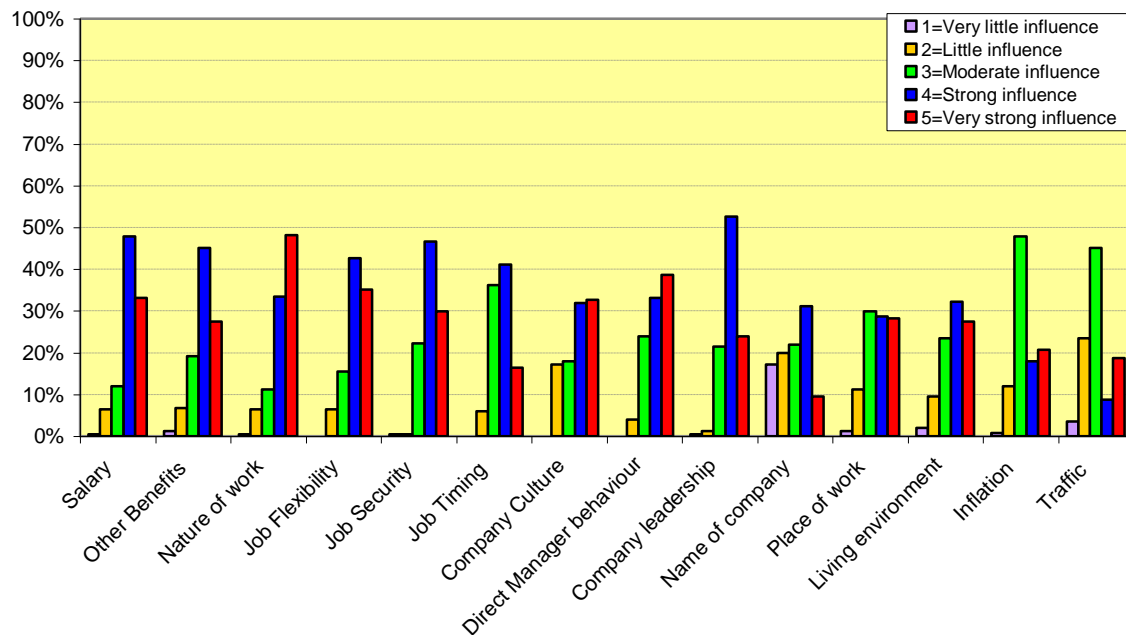


Figure 4.5: Response Rate to show Influence of each Factor on Job Satisfaction of the Employees

The percentage response shown in the Figure 4.5 for each factor indicates that approximately 50% respondents believe that Nature of Work; 40% respondents feel that Direct Manager's behaviour, very strongly influence their job satisfaction. However, around 50% responses say that Salary, Job Security, and Company Leadership strongly influence the job satisfaction.

4.2.5 Factors Influencing Organisational Commitment

Furthermore, analysis of the factors in relation to their affect on the organisational commitment of the employees is presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Results showing Influence of Different Factors on Employees' Organisational Commitment

Factors	1=Very Little Influence		2=Little Influence		3=Moderate Influence		4=Strong Influence		5= Very Strong Influence		Mean	SD
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
Salary	3	1.2%	27	10.8%	39	15.5%	91	36.3%	90	35.9%	4.0	1.03
Other Benefits	4	1.6%	23	9.2%	77	30.7%	120	47.8%	26	10.4%	3.6	0.86
Nature of work	1	0.4%	1	0.4%	31	12.4%	132	52.6%	85	33.9%	4.2	0.69
Job Flexibility	1	0.4%	36	14.3%	42	16.7%	122	48.6%	49	19.5%	3.7	0.95
Job Security	0	0.0%	15	6.0%	89	35.5%	75	29.9%	71	28.3%	3.8	0.92
Job Timing	0	0.0%	21	8.4%	71	28.3%	107	42.6%	50	19.9%	3.7	0.87
Company Culture	0	0.0%	20	8.0%	35	13.9%	111	44.2%	84	33.5%	4.0	0.89
Direct Manager behaviour	0	0.0%	4	1.6%	38	15.1%	85	33.9%	123	49.0%	4.3	0.78
Company leadership	1	0.4%	5	2.0%	66	26.3%	112	44.6%	66	26.3%	3.9	0.80
Name of company	27	10.8%	64	25.5%	49	19.5%	91	36.3%	19	7.6%	3.0	1.17
Place of work	13	5.2%	31	12.4%	111	44.2%	49	19.5%	46	18.3%	3.3	1.08
Living environment	4	1.6%	23	9.2%	132	52.6%	63	25.1%	16	6.4%	3.3	0.79
Inflation	3	1.2%	91	36.3%	105	41.8%	35	13.9%	16	6.4%	2.9	0.89
Traffic	34	13.5%	76	30.3%	66	26.3%	22	8.8%	52	20.7%	2.9	1.33

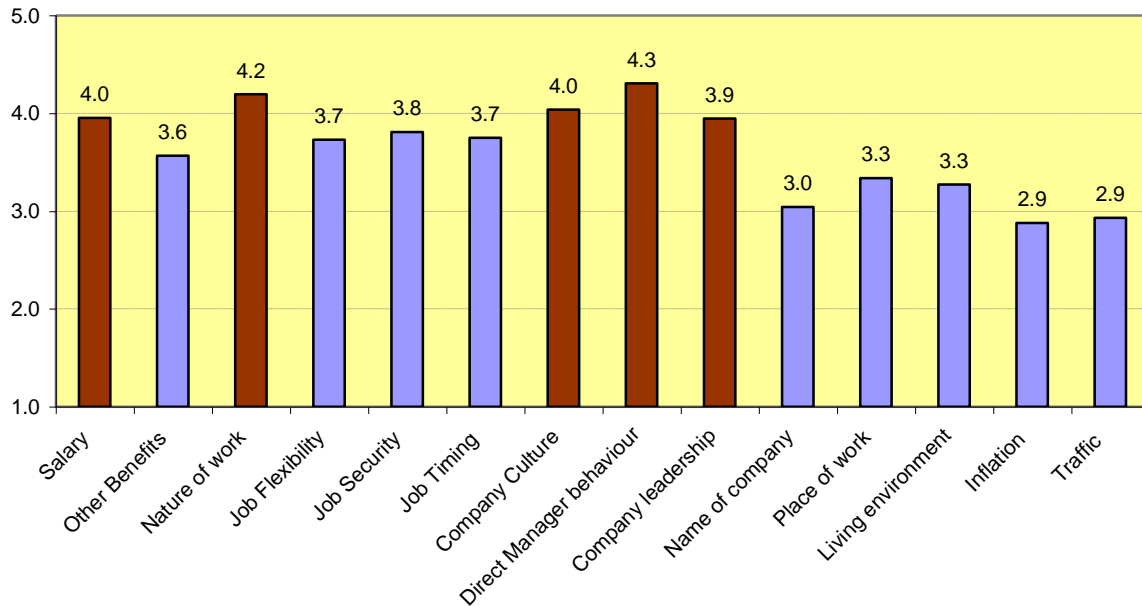


Figure 4.6: Extent of Influence of each Factor on the Organisational Commitment of the Employees

Figure 4.6 indicates that organisational commitment of the employees is strongly influenced by Salary, Nature of Work, Company Culture, Direct Manager's behaviour, and Company Leadership.

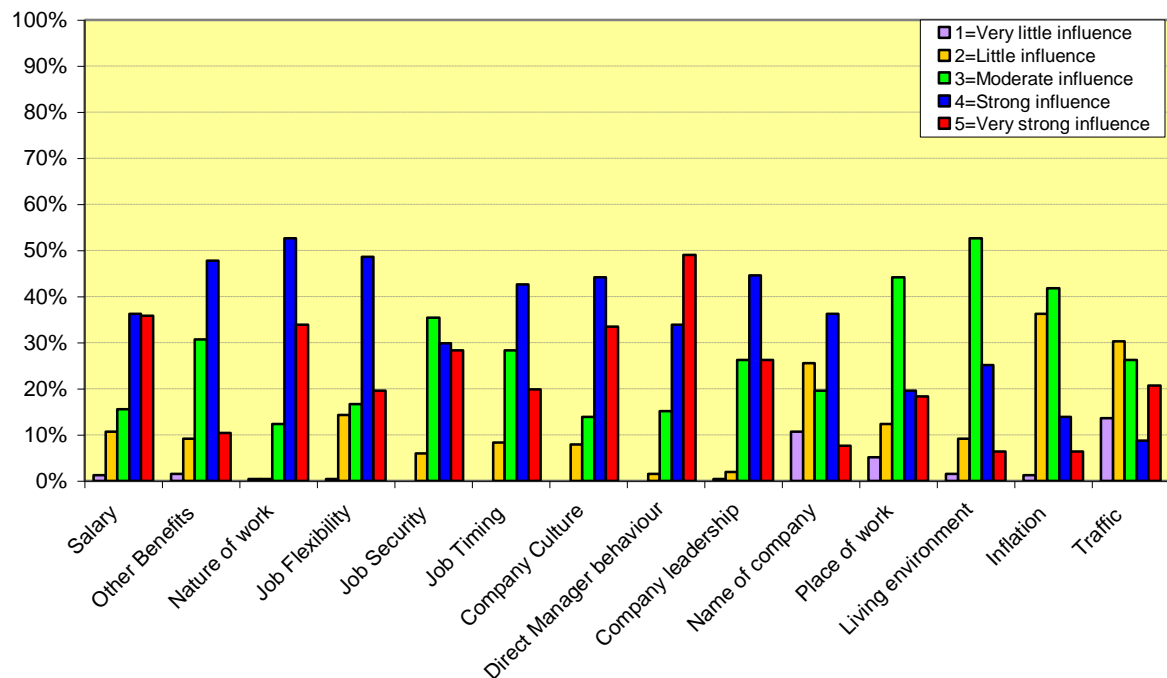


Figure 4.7: Response rate to show Influence of each Factor on the Organisational Commitment of the Employees

The response rate in Figure 4.7 for each factor reveals that around 50% respondents' organisational commitment is very strongly influenced by Direct manager's behaviour. Furthermore, more than 40% of the respondents feel that their organisational commitment is

strongly affected by Other benefits, Nature of work, Job flexibility, Job timing, Company culture, and leadership.

4.2.6 Affect of Leadership Style on Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

The three general queries in the questionnaire regarding the influence of Leadership style on a an employee's job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and in general on a scale of 1 to 5 reveals that company's/department's leadership style strongly influence the employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the office employees in the construction industry.

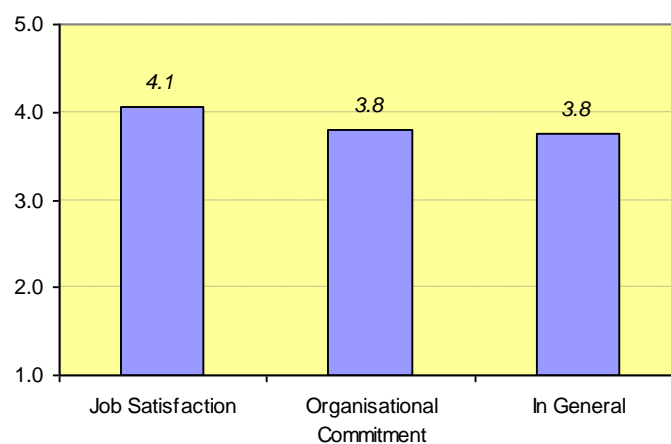


Figure 4.8: Affect of Leadership Style on Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment of the Employees

4.3 Data Analysis in Context of Nationality Groups

This and forthcoming sections of the chapter will analyse the survey data cross-dimensionally, in order to validate the responses, however, it should be noted that detailed discussion of the findings will be carried out in the next chapter. The results of cross-dimensional analysis will be presented in following four categories,

- Preferred leadership styles
- Extent of factors affecting job satisfaction
- Extent of factors affecting organisational commitment
- Influence of leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment

4.3.1 Preferred Leadership Styles

A cross-cultural analysis of the data (as shown in Table 4.6) reveals that the leadership styles preference of majority of the nationality groups revolves around following leadership styles,

- Team management,
- Democratic,
- Consensus, and
- Consultative.

Table 4.6: Assorted Leadership Styles in terms of Preference by Major Nationality Groups

UAE Nationals	Other Arab Nationals	South Asians	Europeans	Far East Asians
<i>n=17</i>	<i>n=40</i>	<i>n=129</i>	<i>n=129</i>	<i>n=18</i>
Team Management	<i>Democratic</i>	<i>Democratic</i>	Team Management	<i>Democratic</i>
<i>Democratic</i>	Team Management	<i>Consensus</i>	<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Consensus</i>
<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Consensus</i>	<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Consensus</i>	Team Management
<i>Consensus</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Team Management</i>	<i>Democratic</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>
<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>
<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>
<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Consultative</i>
<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>
<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>

4.3.2 Extent of Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

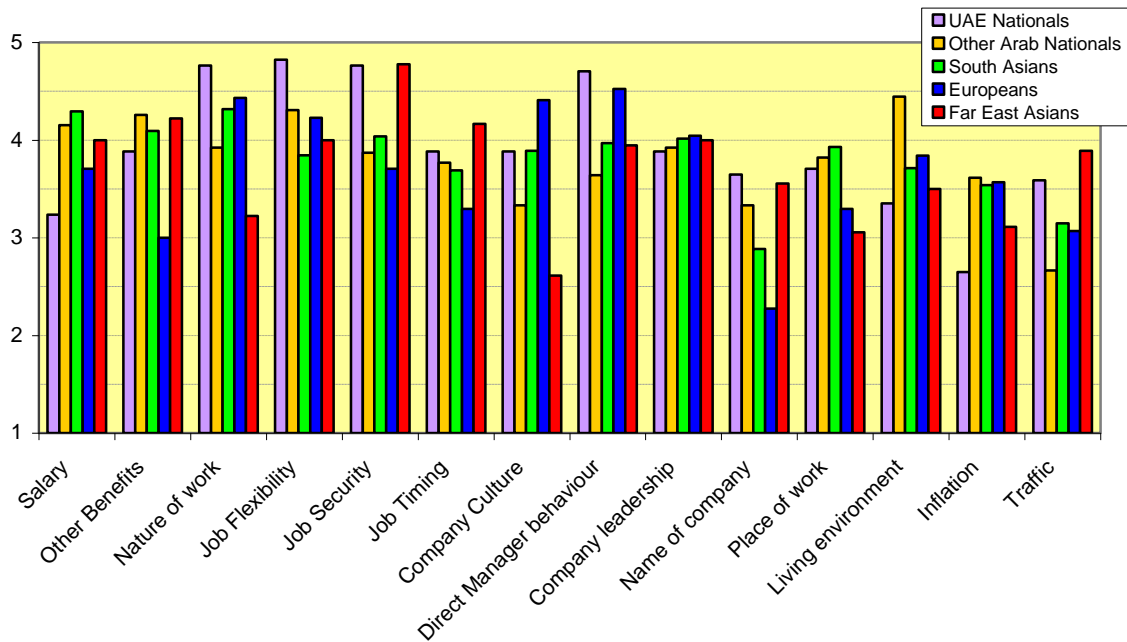


Figure 4.9: Extent of factors Influencing Job Satisfaction according to Nationality Groups

The mean analysis of the responses for each factor is indicated in Figure 4.9. It indicates that almost all the factors do have some influence on employees' job satisfaction. However, some of the interesting findings noted are that European national's job satisfaction is strongly influenced by company culture and direct manager's behaviour; where as Far East Asian's job satisfaction is very strongly influenced by the extrinsic factors such as job security, salary and other benefits. On the other hand UAE nationals feel that salary moderately affect their job satisfaction but nature of work, job flexibility, and job security are strongly influencing factors.

4.3.3 Extent of Factors Affecting Organisational Commitment

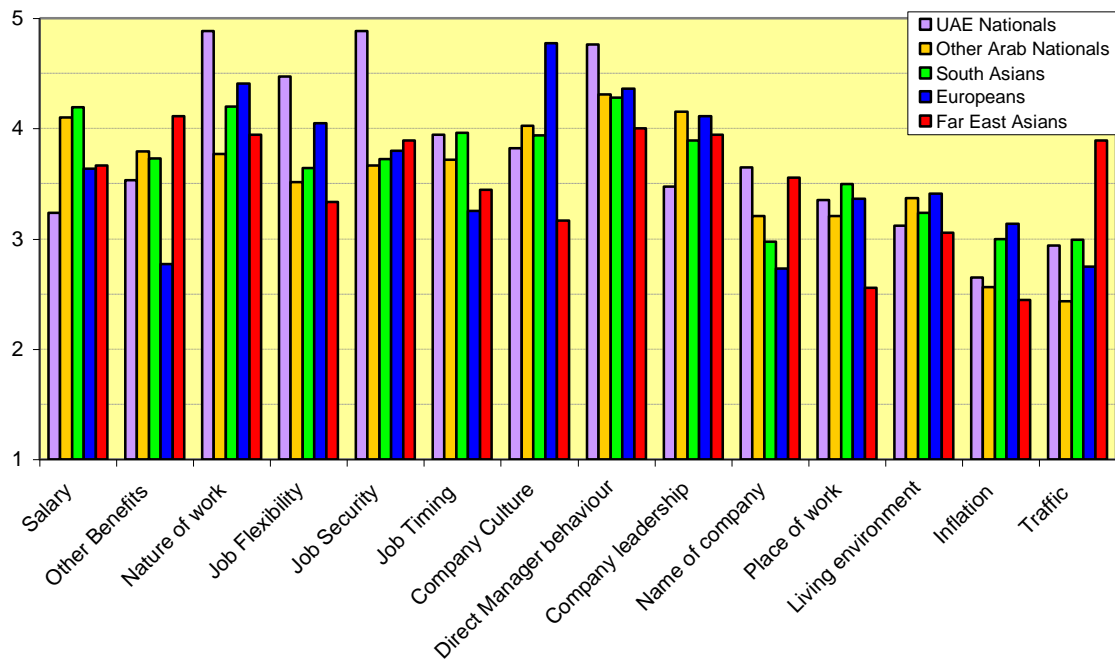


Figure 4.10: Extent of Factors Influencing Organisational Commitment according to the Nationality Groups

Furthermore, Figure 4.10 elaborates the influence of the factors on organisational commitment of the employees in the industry. As it can be noted that a trend similar to job satisfaction follows here and Europeans' organisational commitment is very strongly affected by the company culture and nature of work. South Asian nationals value direct manager's behaviour, salary, nature of work more than other factors. Similarly, the organisational commitment of UAE nationals is strongly affected by the nature of work, job security, and direct manager's behaviour. It is clearly evident that most of the nationality groups' organisational commitment is strongly affected by the Direct manager's behaviour.

4.3.4 Influence of Leadership Style on Job satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

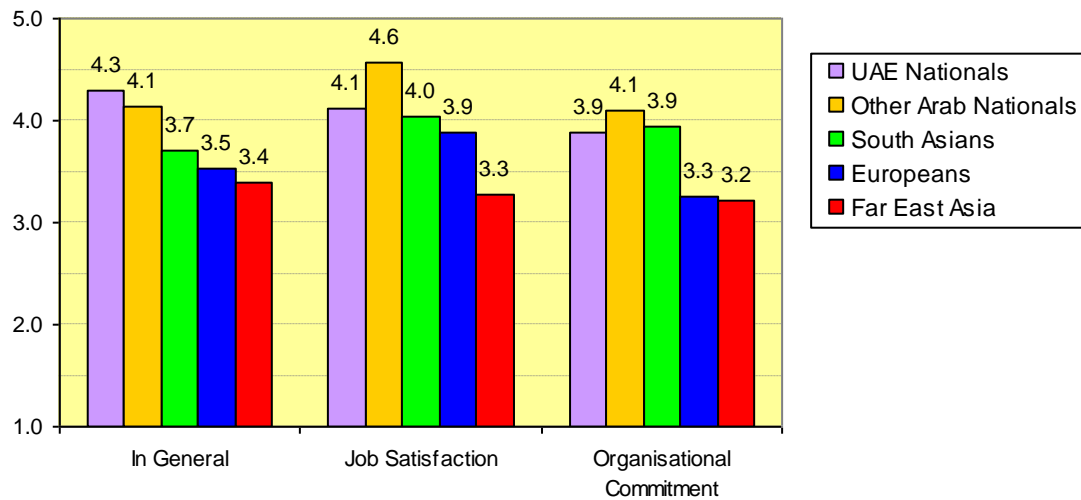


Figure 4.11: Influence of Leadership style on Employees Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment as per the Nationality Groups

The direct queries of influence of leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment show that it does affect strongly on all the nationality groups apart from Far East Asians.

4.4 Data Analysis in Context of Genders

The second dimension of the analysis chosen was according to the respondents' gender, although the ratio of female respondents in respect to male is very low, which is expected in the construction industry.

4.4.1 Preferred Leadership Styles

In terms of preference of the leadership styles, both the genders tend to value Democratic and Team management leadership styles as indicated in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Assorted Leadership styles in terms of Preference by Gender Groups

Male <i>n</i> =217	Female <i>n</i> =34
<i>Democratic</i>	<i>Democratic</i>
<i>Consensus</i>	<i>Team Management</i>
<i>Team Management</i>	<i>Consultative</i>
<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Consensus</i>
<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>
<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>
<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>
<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>
<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>

4.4.2 Extent of Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

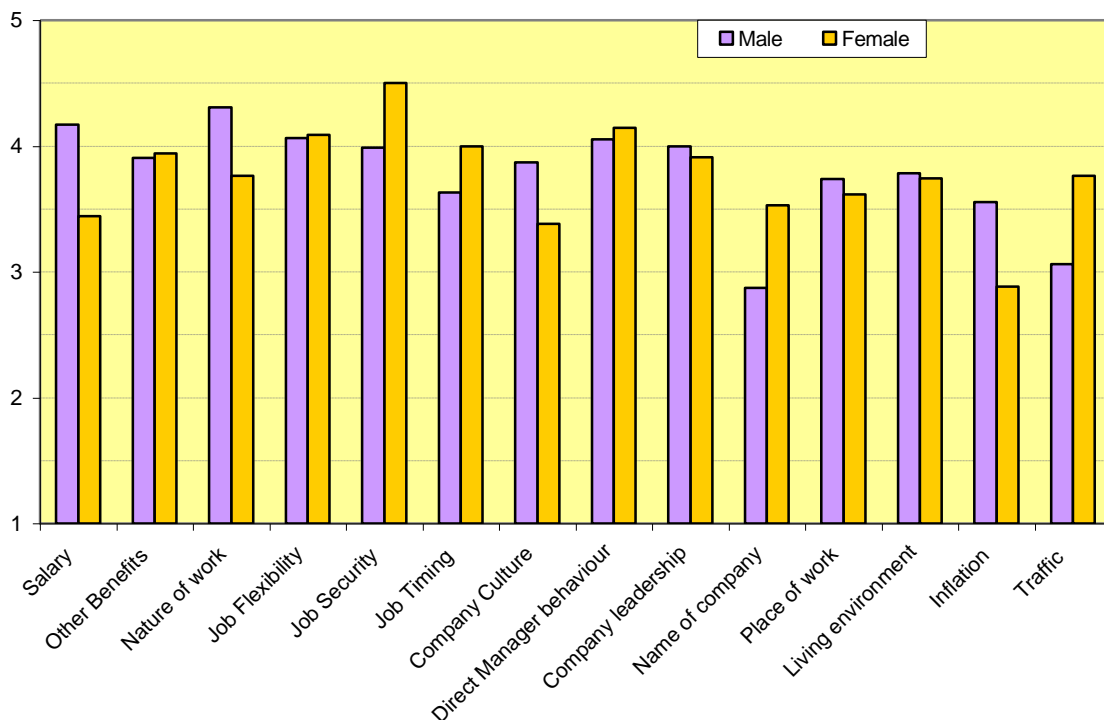


Figure 4.12: Extent of Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction in the light of Gender Responses

The mean analysis of the factors influencing the job satisfaction according to the gender responses is shown in the Figure 4.12. It can be noted that both genders show almost similar influences apart from few, such as male gender considers salary factor more influential than their female counterparts whereas job security in female employees is seen as of higher importance than male workers.

4.4.3 Extent of Factors Affecting Organisational Commitment

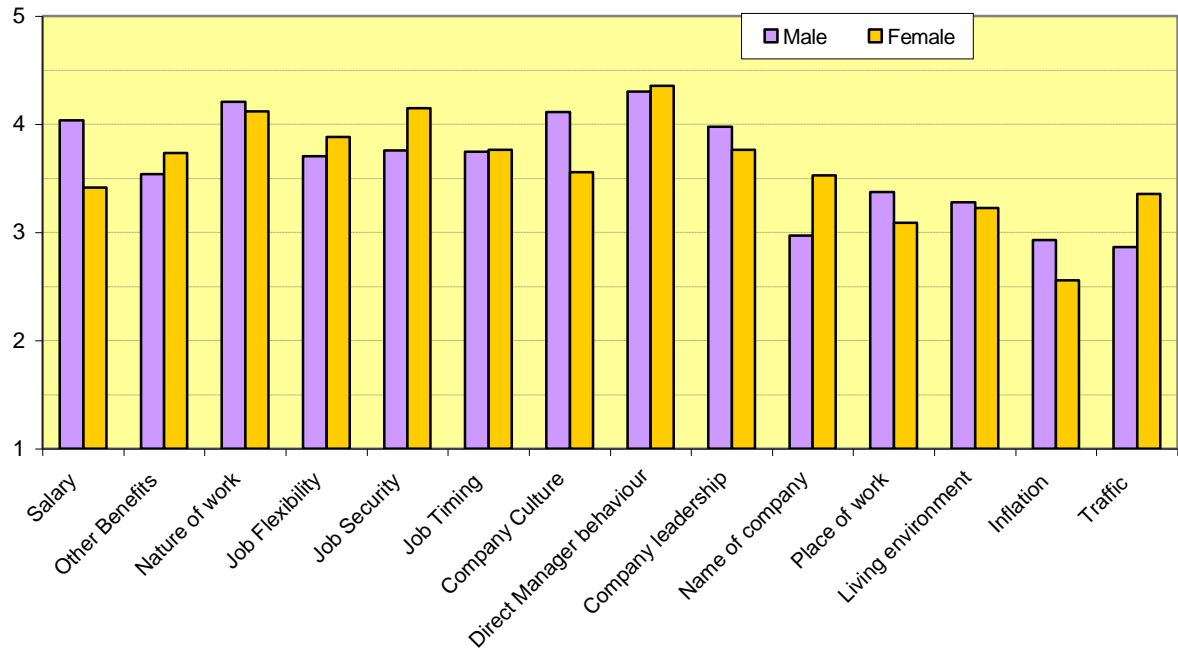


Figure 4.13: Extent of Factors Influencing Organisational Commitment according to Gender Responses

The Figure 4.13 indicates the influence of different factors on the organisational commitment of the respondents. It can be seen that direct manager's behaviour strongly affects the organisational commitment of both the genders.

4.4.4 Influence of Leadership Style on Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

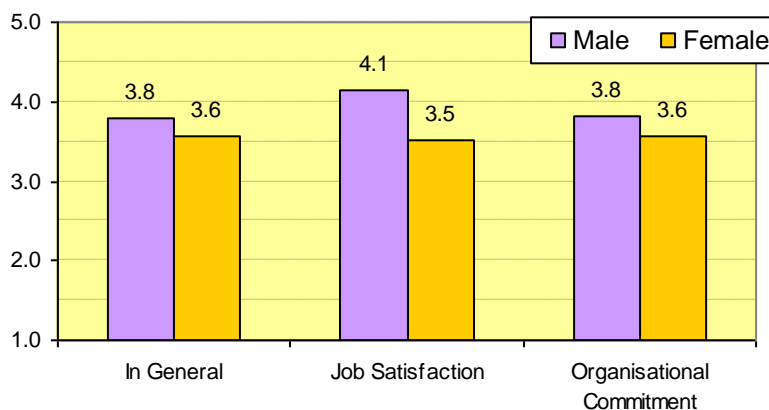


Figure 4.14: Influence of Leadership Style on Employees Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment according to their Gender

The influence of leadership style strongly affects the job satisfaction of the male as compared to their female counterparts as indicated in Figure 4.14.

4.5 Data Analysis in Context of Age Groups

The third dimension of the analysis is to view the responses according to the age groups as noted in the questionnaire. In light of the literature review, age plays a vital role in influencing the leadership styles (Oshagbemi, 2004) and Kakabadse *et al.* (1998) found that age has powerful effect in shaping the attitudes.

4.5.1 Preferred Leadership Styles

In terms of preference of the leadership styles, a trend is noted that democratic leadership style is preferred through the age group. However, an assorted list of the leadership styles in terms of preference is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Assorted Leadership styles in terms of preference analysed by age groups

Age 21-25 years <i>n=29</i>	Age 26-30 years <i>n=90</i>	Age 31-35 years <i>n=59</i>	Age 36-45 years <i>n=62</i>	Age 46-55 years <i>n=8</i>
Consensus	Consultative	Democratic	Team Management	Democratic
Team Management	Democratic	Consensus	Democratic	Consensus
Democratic	Team Management	Consultative	Consensus	Transformational Leadership
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Consensus</i>	<i>Team Management</i>	<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Team Management</i>
<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>
<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Consultative</i>
<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>
<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>
<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>
<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>

4.5.2 Extent of Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

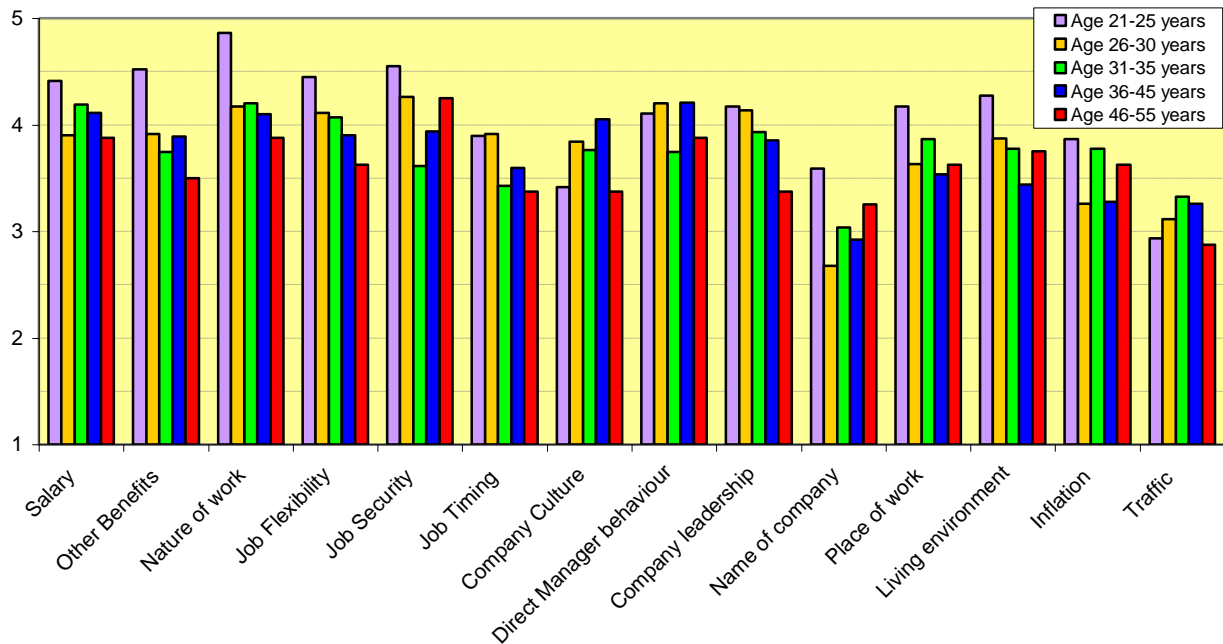


Figure 4.15: Extent of Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction as per the Age Groups

The mean analysis of the responses received for the job satisfaction shows that younger employees' (21-30 years) job satisfaction is strongly influenced by the extrinsic factors, such as salary, other benefits, nature of work, etc. whereas, older employees' (46-55 years) job satisfaction is strongly influenced by job security as shown in Figure 4.15. Employees between the age group of 26-35 years feel that their job satisfaction is more strongly influenced by the salary, nature of work, and job flexibility.

4.5.3 Extent of Factors Affecting Organisational Commitment

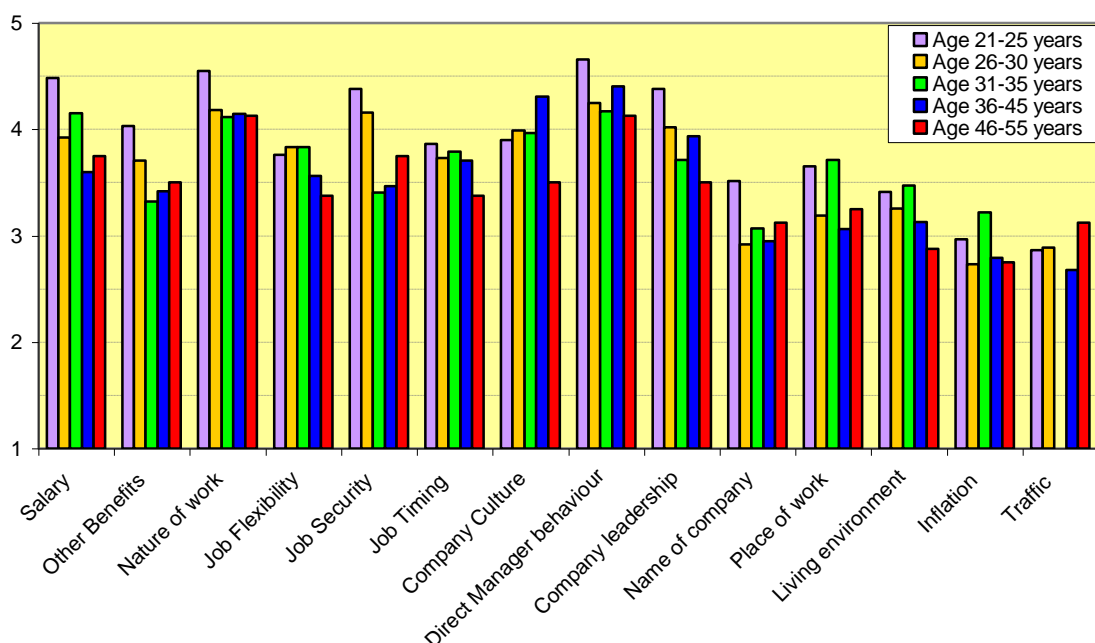


Figure 4.16: Extent of Factors Influencing Organisational Commitment as per the Age Groups

A analysis of the factors for the organisational commitment shows a trend similar to the job satisfaction and it is indicative that almost employees of each age group feel that their organisational commitment is strongly affected by the nature of work and their direct manager's behaviour as shown in Figure 4.16.

4.5.4 Influence of Leadership Style on Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

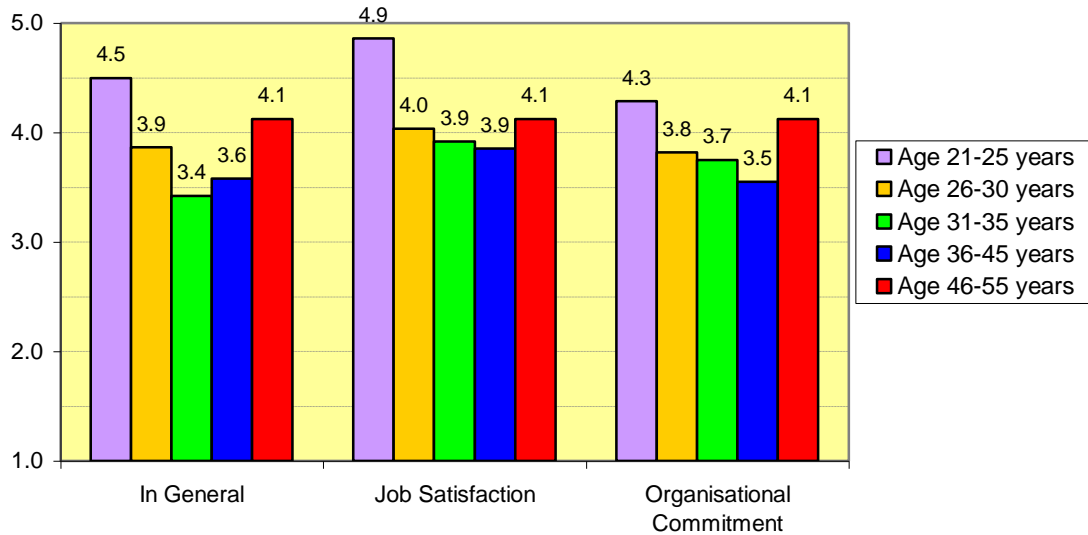


Figure 4.17: Influence of Leadership style on Employees Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment according to the Age Groups

Figure 4.17 show that the leadership style strongly influences the job satisfaction for all the age groups.

4.6 Data Analysis in Context of Work Groups

The fourth and last dimension for the analysis of the data is according to employees work groups. The work groups are created from the job description of the respondents provided in the questionnaires. Thus, the four work groups formed from the questionnaires were,

- Senior Managers
- Junior Managers
- Engineers
- Draftsmen
- Administrators

All the responses were organised in above four work groups and then analysed, results of which are presented in this section.

4.6.1 Preferred Leadership Styles

The most preferred leadership styles by most of the work groups are Democratic, Team management, Consultative and Consensus leadership styles as indicated in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Preferred Leadership Styles according to the Work Groups

Senior Managers <i>n=5</i>	Junior Managers <i>n=64</i>	Engineers <i>n=113</i>	Draftsmen <i>n=41</i>	Administrators <i>n=31</i>
Team Management	<i>Democratic</i>	<i>Consensus</i>	<i>Consultative</i>	Team Management
<i>Consultative</i>	Team Management	<i>Democratic</i>	<i>Democratic</i>	<i>Consultative</i>
<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Consensus</i>	Team Management	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Consensus</i>
<i>Consensus</i>	<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Consultative</i>	<i>Consensus</i>	<i>Democratic</i>
<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>
<i>Democratic</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	Team Management	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>
<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Country Club Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>
<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Authority-Compliance</i>	<i>Autocratic</i>
<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Middle-of-the-Road Management</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>	<i>Impoverished Management</i>

4.6.2 Extent of Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

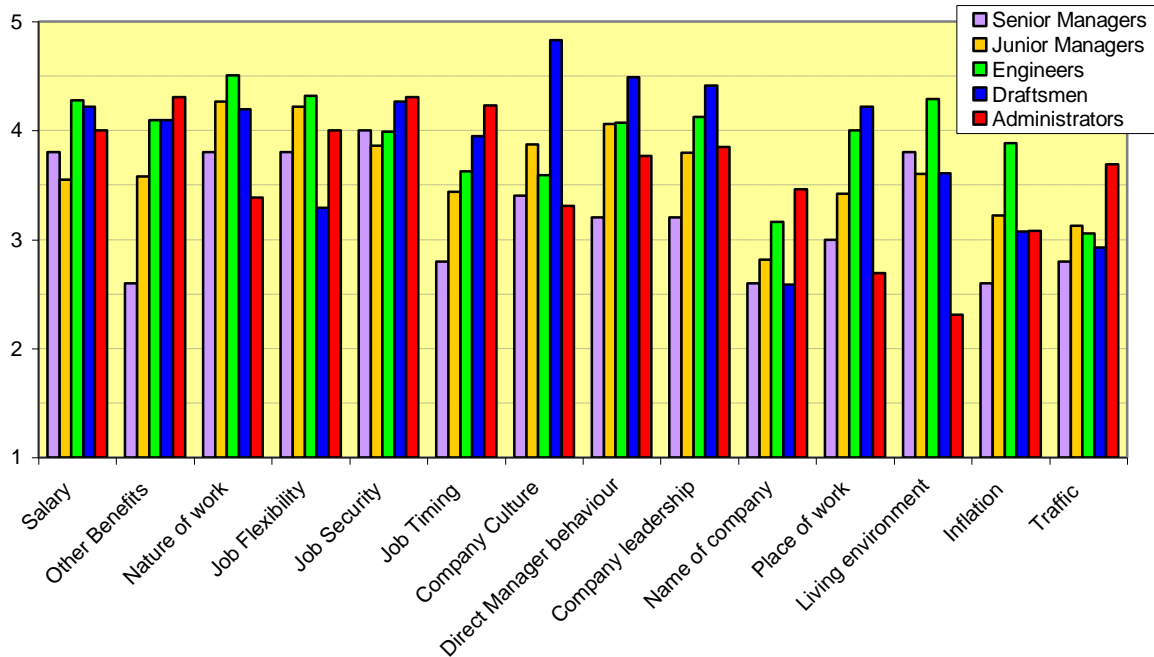


Figure 4.18: Extent of Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction as per the Work Groups

The mean analysis of the responses shown in Figure 4.18 indicate that managers' job satisfaction is strongly influenced by the Nature of Work, Job Flexibility, and Direct Manager's behaviour; whereas engineers have feeling that their job satisfaction is also strongly influenced by salary, other benefits, living environment in addition to above mentioned factors.

4.6.3 Extent of Factors Affecting Organisational Commitment

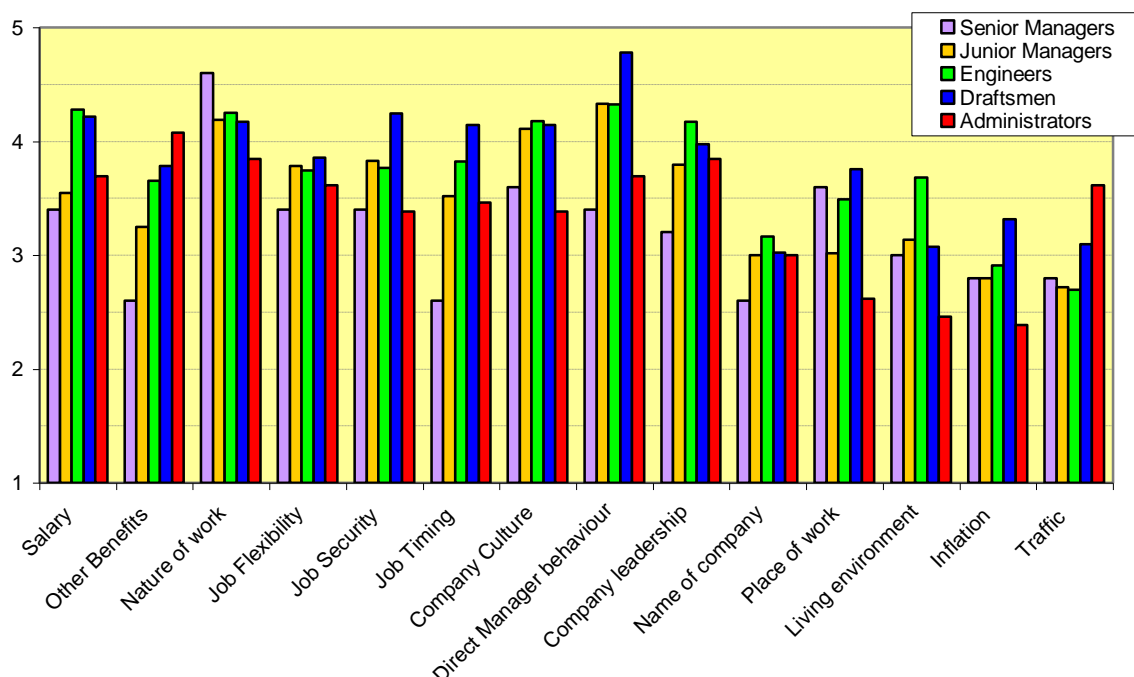


Figure 4.19: Extent of Factors Influencing Organisational Commitment as per the Work Groups

Figure 4.19 indicates the influence of factors on the organisational commitment for the different work groups. The results indicate that senior managers' organisational commitment is strongly affected by the nature of work, whereas engineers and draftsmen's feel that salary is much stronger factor influencing their organisational commitment. However, direct manager's behaviour is noted to be strongly influencing the organisational commitment of majority of the work groups.

4.6.4 Influence of Leadership Style on Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

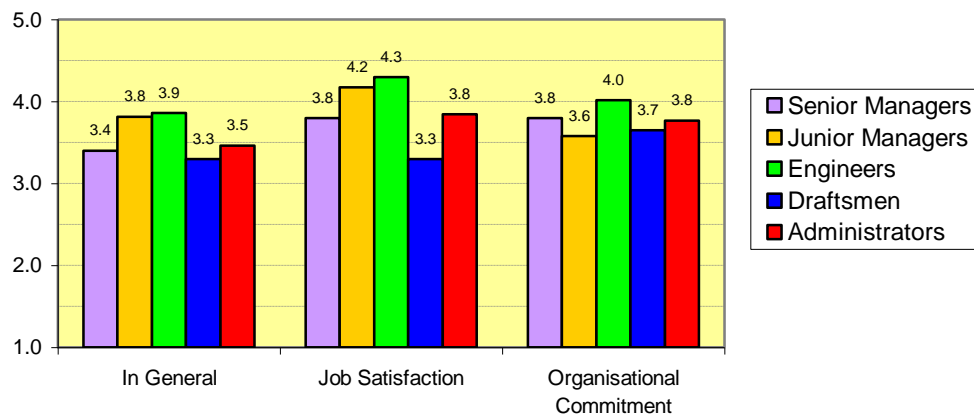


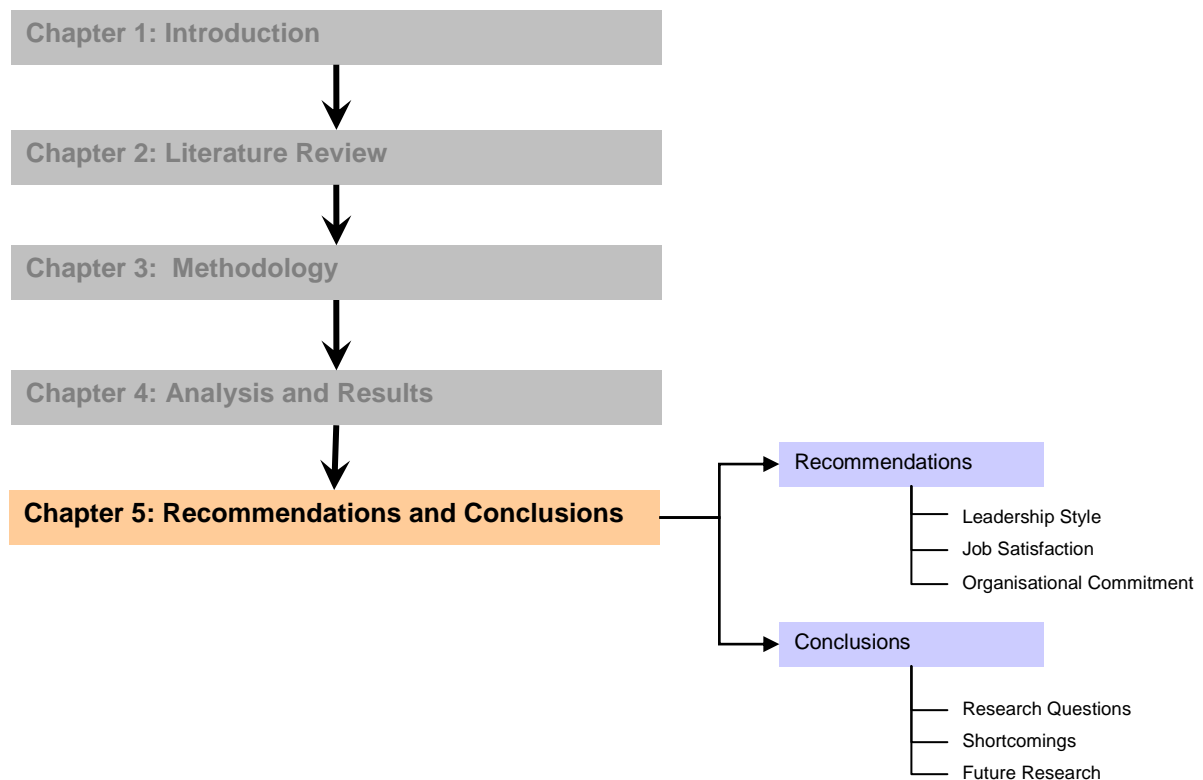
Figure 4.20: Influence of Leadership Style on Employees Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment according to the Work Groups

The extent of influence of the leadership style on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment shown in Figure 4.20 shows that for junior managers and engineer the leadership style strongly affects, whereas draftsmen believe that leadership style moderately influences their job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Chapter 5

5 RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This last chapter shows the aim and objectives that were to be met and highlights the research findings in recommendations section. The findings are grouped in three categories, which are Leadership Style, Job Satisfaction, and Organisational Commitment. These explorations will help leaders in determining an effective leadership style and assist organisations in formulating their personnel policies. The final section of the chapter concludes the dissertation by providing answers to the five research questions posed in the chapter one while documenting some shortcomings in the research and determining a basis for future research.



5.1 Recommendations

The success in achieving organisation's goals and objectives depends on managers and their leadership style (Mosadeghard, 2003c). Managers can affect employee job satisfaction, commitment and productivity by using appropriate leadership styles. Thus, it is vital to address the problem statement of the thesis by understanding the influence of leadership style on employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment. There are several styles of leadership such as: autocratic, participative, transactional and transformational but not everyone agrees that a particular style of leadership will result in the most effective form of organisational behaviour.

Thus, the recommendation section adds light to the subject of leadership style, job satisfaction and organisational commitment by summarising the research findings and analysing in regards to earlier researches.

5.1.1 Leadership Style

The dissertation has explored earlier researches in the field of leadership styles (Stewart; 1994; Blake and Mouton, 1985; Bass, 1985), which is defined by Dubrin (2004) as leader's combination of attitude and behaviour which leads to certain regularity and predictability in dealing with group members. There are number of previous studies which have examined leadership style in the Arab world (Ali *et al.*, 1995, Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983; Muna, 1980, Yousef, 2000), which suggest that the Arab culture nurtures consultative and participative styles. Preference for these type of leadership styles in the Arab world is associated to influence of Islamic and tribalistic values and beliefs by some researchers (Ali, 1989a; Yousef, 2000), since both Islamic and tribal law reinforce consultation in all aspects of life.

The analysis indicates that the industry have Democratic, Consensus, and Team Management type of leadership styles, a reason is the multicultural workforce in the industry, due to which leaders tend to lead by mutual consultation and try to integrate concerns for production and people at the same time. As there is no one type of the leadership style that is best in all situations and it all depends on leader, its subordinates, work environment, and the task (Brozik, 1994; Kur, 1995). Therefore, the cultural aspect (environment) plays a decisive role in determining effective leadership for the construction organisations in Dubai. As previous researchers confirm that leadership styles differs significantly by country and also different decision styles are adopted based on the pattern of organisation, their individual characteristics (Blyton, 1984; Tayeb, 1988 Ali, 1989; Evans *et al.* 1989).

Whilst reviewing the available literature and results from the survey it is recommended that employees in the construction industry of Dubai would prefer to have Consensus and Team Management leadership styles.

5.1.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been defined as “a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one’s job and what one perceives it as offering” (Locke, 1969). Literature review suggests that numerous factors influence job satisfaction, which can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors basically reflect the nature of work, feelings of accomplishment and self actualisation; whereas Extrinsic factors consist of physical rewards such as benefits, superiors’ behaviour, job security etc.

The analysis of the survey reveals that employees’ job satisfaction is strongly affected by following factors: Salary, Nature of work, Job Flexibility, Job Security, Direct Manager behaviour and Company Leadership. The response rate shows that more than 50% respondents feel that Company leadership strongly influences their job satisfaction, which validates earlier findings (Miller and Monge, 1986; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002), stating that people-centered or participative leadership style is a determinant of job satisfaction. McKenna (2006) further confirms the findings by exploring that job satisfaction straddles several related attitudes, for example people experience fairly strong affective or emotional responses to such things as remuneration, promotion opportunities, relations with superiors and colleagues, and the work itself.

Job satisfaction is also found to be culturally affected in previous studies (Kanungo *et al.* 1976; Azumi and Macmillan, 1976, Jain *et al.*, 1979; Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1985; Griffeth and Hom, 1987; Yavas *et al.*, 1990). However, the present study finds relatively small relations that job satisfaction gets affected culturally. For example, it is found that European national’s job satisfaction is strongly influenced by company culture and direct manager’s behaviour, whereas Far East Asian’s job satisfaction is very strongly influenced by extrinsic factors such as job security, salary, and other benefits. Most of the expatriates prefer working in UAE because of its tax-free policies and due to which employees are able to save part of their salary for back home remittances. Although the recent increase in living cost in Dubai has affected salaried employees of all sectors but still it remains comparably better place to live and work.

It is also found that job satisfaction differs within genders such as the results show that male employees consider salary factor more influential than their female counterparts whereas female employees rate job security as more influencing factor on their job satisfaction. It can be due to the dominance of Asian culture, where men are responsible for bringing income into the household and women are seldom encouraged to work.

The analysis under the context of different age groups reveal that job satisfaction is affected by the employee's age. It is found that job satisfaction of young employees (21-30 years) is strongly influenced by the factors such as salary, other benefits, and nature of work; whereas older employees' (46-55) job satisfaction is more influenced by job security.

The thesis also examined the factors affecting job satisfaction of employees under the light of different work groups and it suggests that the managers job satisfaction is more strongly influenced by the nature of work, job flexibility, and direct manager's behaviour; however employees a level below management such as Engineers feel that in addition to above factors their job satisfaction is strongly affected by the salary, other benefits, and living environment.

At the end of the analysis, it is found that leadership style strongly affects the job satisfaction of the employees in the industry irrespective of culture, gender, age, and work group.

5.1.3 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is explained as relative strength of the identification of the individual and his involvement with his particular organisation (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Al-Meer, 1989). Literature review proves that a strong correlation exists between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, many researchers believe that latter affect the former (Porter *et al.* 1974; Barling *et al.*, 1990; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1998; Mannheim *et al.*, 1997). Thus, the undertaken study evaluated the factors listed for job satisfaction against organisational commitment.

The study explores that organisational commitment of employees in the industry is strongly influenced by salary, nature of work, company culture, direct manager's behaviour, and company leadership. The findings validate exploration of earlier researchers (Reichers, 1985; Barling *et al.*, 1990; Kotter and Heskett, 1992). In light of the survey response rate it is found that around 50% respondents believe that their organisational commitment is very strongly influenced by direct manager's behaviour and more than 40% respondents' organisational commitment is strongly affected by other benefits, nature of work, job flexibility, job timing, company culture and its leadership.

Organisational commitment of employees differs based on their national cultures such as study finds that European nationals' organisational commitment is very strongly affected by the company culture and nature of work whereas South Asian nationals value direct manager's behaviour, salary, nature of work more than others. Similarly, the organisational commitment of UAE nationals is strongly influenced by the nature of work, job security, and direct manager's behaviour. The findings are similar to the results found by Al-Meer (1989) in the region, which are that Westerners, Asian, and Saudis differ significantly with respect to their commitment towards their respective organisations. However, an overall consensus is found between different nationalities that their organisational commitment is strongly influenced by their manager's behaviour.

A response analysis as per genders show that extent of the factors influencing organisational commitment is similar to the job satisfaction, which highlights the correlation between them. However, both male and female employees feel that direct manager's behaviour is the most influencing factor on their organisational commitment.

Age has powerful effect in shaping the attitudes of employees (Kakabadse *et al.*, 1998). The undertaken study also reveals that age groups do make a difference. It is found that young employees' (21-25 years) organisational commitment is very strongly affected by salary, nature of work, and direct manager's behaviour; whereas employees in the age group of 36-45 years believe their organisational commitment is influenced by their manager's behaviour, company culture and nature of work.

The study has further examined the responses in light of work groups, and it is explored that extent of factors influencing organisational commitment differs between different work groups. For example, employees at technical level feel that their organisational commitment is strongly influenced by salary, nature of work, job security, work timing, company culture, and most importantly direct manager's behaviour. On the other hand, employees in managerial level believe that their organisational commitment is strongly affected by nature of work, company culture, and company leadership.

A final analysis recommends that leadership style affects moderate to strongly on organisational commitment of employees in the industry.

5.2 Conclusions

The aim of this dissertation was to analyse the influence of leadership styles on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in the construction industry of

Dubai. To achieve the aim of the research following research questions were formulated, which are answered hereby.

5.2.1 Research Questions

Q1) What are the prevailing Leadership styles in the construction industry of Dubai?

The literature research to determine the leadership styles in Dubai and/or its construction industry has not revealed any specific results. However, the investigation of Ali *et al.* (1995) and Yousef (2000) indicate that most predominant leadership styles in UAE are consultative and participative styles, which validates the studies of Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth (1983) and Muna (1980) in the Arab world. The results of the present study indicate that office employees in the construction industry feel that Consensus and Team Management leadership styles are predominantly prevalent in the industry, which are similar to the earlier findings. It implies that leaders in the industry encourage participation, involvement, and commitment before making decisions. They facilitate group discussions and decisions are made on general agreement of employees. A reason could be that since the industry in the Dubai is a mix of multicultural employees, the leaders prefer to have general consensus before reaching a decision. Further analysis of the results indicates the prevailing leadership styles in Client, Consultant, and Contractor's organisation as summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Prevailing Leadership Styles according to the Type of Organisation

Type of Organisation	Prevailing Leadership styles
Client (Private Developers)	Consensus, Team Management, Transformational leadership
Consultant (Engineering Design organisations)	Consultative, Consensus, Team Management
Contractor (Engineering construction)	Consensus

Q2) To what extent the leadership style affects the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees in the industry?

Numerous researches have been carried to determine the relationship between the leadership style, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. For example, a study by Lok and Crawford (1999) confirmed earlier findings (Mowday *et al.*, 1979; Bateman and Strasser, 1984; DeCotiis and Summers, 1987; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Vandenberg and Lance, 1992; Iverson and Roy, 1994) that leadership style has a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Recently, Yousef (2000) studied the relationship

between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and performance in the UAE and found significant results.

The present study inquired responses on the questionnaire on a scale of 1 to 5 (where '1' being very little influence and '5' representing very strong influence) which revealed that company's leadership style strongly influence the employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the office employees in the construction industry. The mean analysis of the responses for each organisation is represented in the Figure 5.2.

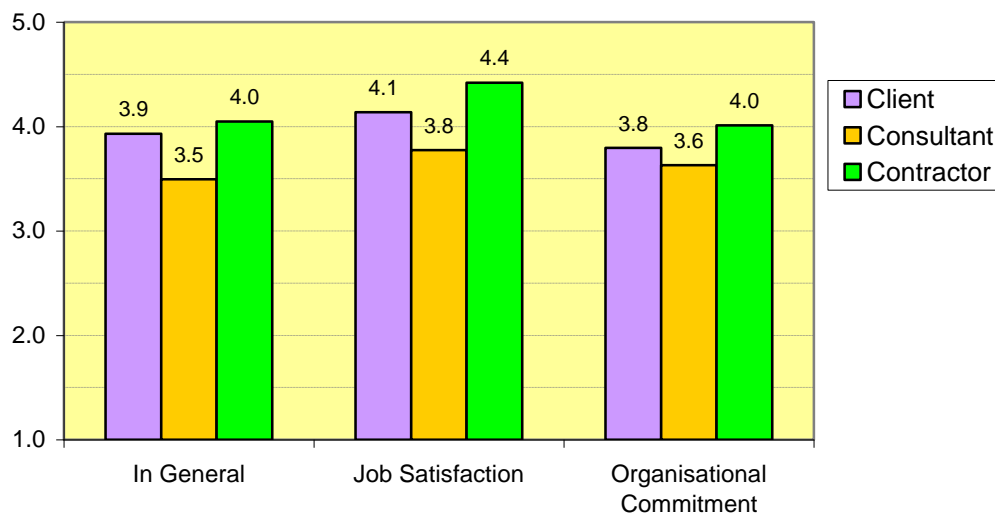


Figure 5.1: Influence of Leadership Style on Employees Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Q3) What are the types of leadership styles preferred by the employees in the construction industry of Dubai?

The literature review explore that there is wide disagreement among scholars with regard to effective leadership style. For instance, Brozik (1994) argues that no one type of management style is best in all situations and that the leader, the subordinates and the environment or the task determine the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of each style. Likert and Likert (1976) argue that the participative style is more productive in any culture. Al-Jafary and Hollingworth (1983) also found a significant correlation between the facets of the management system (e.g. support, team building, goal emphasis, help with work, involvement) and that of the measures of organisations' effectiveness.

Latest research by Toor and Ofori (2006) concludes that there is no one leadership style which can be claimed as all time best and this correlates to earlier research studies. The uniqueness of the construction projects and distinct critical factors on every project makes it difficult to determine the best leadership style (Toor and Ofori, 2006). The authors state that

most of the leadership styles are self-centered, task-centered, relationship-centered, or change-centered. These styles do not tell if the effort behind the leadership is genuine, authentic, reliable, and truthful. These styles can be faked like a “chameleon” for certain personal purposes. Therefore, there is need for a leadership which is selfless, altruistic, future oriented, self-regulated, and more simply, authentic.

The employees are the major part of any organisation and will affect the organisation’s performance and competitiveness and it is important to understand their preferred leadership style in their workplace. Therefore, this present study posed the question and the responses received are shown in Table 5.2. The results indicate that in general, employees prefer Democratic, Consensus, and Team Management type of leadership styles.

Table 5.2: Top Three Leadership Styles preferred by Employees in each Type of Organisation

Overall	Client organisation	Consultant organisation	Contractor organisation
Democratic	Team Management	Consultative	Democratic
Consensus	Democratic	Consensus	Transformational
Team Management	Consultative	Team Management	Consensus

Q4) What other factors are contributing towards job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the office employees in the industry?

The literature review is rich with the analysis of factors affecting job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Numerous factors influence employee job satisfaction, including: salaries, fringe benefits, achievement, autonomy, recognition, communication, working conditions, job importance, co workers, degree of professionalism, organisational climate, interpersonal relationships, working for a reputable agency, supervisory support, positive affectivity, job security, workplace flexibility, working within a team environment and genetic factors. Sources of low satisfaction are associated with working with unskilled or inappropriately trained staff, laborious tasks such as documentation, repetition of duties, tensions within role expectations, role ambiguity, role conflict, job/patient care, feeling overloaded, the increasing need to be available for overtime, relations with co-workers, personal factors and organisational factors (Navaie-Waliser *et al.*, 2004; Koustelios *et al.*, 2003; De Loach, 2003; Ilies and Judg, 2003; Gigantesco *et al.*, 2003; Blegen, 1993; Chu *et al.*, 2003; McNeese-Smith, 1999; Thyer, 2003).

The study on employees of the construction industry in Dubai reveals that their job satisfaction and organisational commitment are strongly influenced by nature of work, salary

received, job flexibility, job security, direct manager's behaviour, company leadership and company culture. Thus, the findings of the study suggest that employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment gets affected by a common list of factors, irrespective of the industry as contented in the existing literature.

Q5) How much the demographic factors in this multi-cultural environment affect the employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment in relation to the leadership style?

Literature has contented that leadership behaviour is culturally determined and hence varies markedly from culture to culture (e.g. Aram and Piriano, 1978; Burger and Bass, 1979; Wright, 1981; Bass, 1990; Adler, 1991). Robbins (1993) suggests that national culture plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of leadership style. Campbell *et al.* (1993) note that leadership style itself and eventual task outcome had a strong impact on perceptions of appropriateness of leadership style, whereas gender and organisational setting had no substantive impact. Buckham (1990) argues that the type of industry sector (private or public) and an organisation's size play important roles in the determination of the effectiveness of management style.

The influence of national culture on an employee's job satisfaction and organisational commitment is well established and the differences between eastern and western cultures are rather significant (Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998). Al-Meer (1989) reported that Westerners, Asians, and Saudis differed significantly with respect to their commitment towards their respective organisations. A recent study by Yousef (2000) reveals moderating effects of national culture on the relationships of leadership behaviour with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and performance.

The study under this dissertation has examined the responses received from the three construction organisations under the context of nationality, gender, age and work groups. The study shows that there is a difference in extent of the factors influencing the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees based on their national groups. For example, European national's job satisfaction and organisational commitment are strongly influenced by company culture and direct manager's behaviour; where as Far East Asian's job satisfaction and organisational commitment are very strongly influenced by the extrinsic factors such as job security, salary and other benefits. On the other hand UAE nationals feel that salary moderately affect their job satisfaction and organisational commitment but nature of work, job flexibility, and job security are strongly influencing factors.

However, the analysis under the context of gender reveals moderate differences for the extent of the factors affecting. It is noted that male employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment is more affected by the salary as compared to female employees, who value the job security factor more influencing.

The response analysis in light of the age groups reveals that younger employees' (21-30 years) job satisfaction is strongly influenced by the extrinsic factors, such as salary, other benefits, and nature of work; whereas, older employees' (46-55 years) job satisfaction and organisational commitment are strongly influenced by job security. Employees between the age group of 26-35 years feel that their job satisfaction is more strongly influenced by the salary, nature of work, and job flexibility. A common trend noted in almost all age groups is that their organisational commitment is strongly affected by the nature of work and their direct manager's behaviour.

The study of responses under the context of work groups indicate that senior and junior managers' job satisfaction and organisational commitment are strongly influenced by the nature of work; whereas engineers and draftsmen's feel that salary is much stronger factor influencing their job satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, direct manager's behaviour is noted to be strongly influencing the organisational commitment and job satisfaction of all the work groups.

5.2.2 Shortcomings

The undertaken research does have following shortcomings;

- The study could have extended its survey scope to site workers but it is foreseen that a little effect will be noted due to the education level of site workers and another reason being that they are more concerned about their wages, living conditions and the labour laws of the country.
- Due to time constraints and permission restrictions, I could not carry out interviews with top management of companies, which would have helped me in analysing the prevailing leadership styles more deeply.

5.2.3 Future Research

The research process has highlighted some interesting areas for future researches, which are as follows;

- Employees' job satisfaction for different type of construction organisations can be studied deeply by focusing survey to consultants.
- Reward and recognition schemes play vital role in lifting job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees, however in the construction industry such schemes are to a minimal level. Thus, this area is worth investigation.
- Influence of work ethics on employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the construction would be worth while to examine due to recent site worker's strikes at some construction sites.

Chapter 6

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