

**Curtin Business School**

**UAE Work Environment:  
Examining the Influences of Culture, Gender and Sector on  
Managerial Leadership Competencies, Job Satisfaction and  
Organizational Commitment**

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## **Declaration**

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made. This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

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## Abstract

The research explored the influences of culture (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western group), gender, and organization sector (private and public) on managerial-leadership competencies and the influences of the managerial competencies and sector on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the multicultural and multinational UAE work environment. The two sample groups examined were: managers (self rated;  $N=145$ ) and employees (employees rating their managers;  $N=365$ ).

The results brought forth only a six-role model (Team builder, Result oriented, Mentor, Monitor, Broker, and Innovator) of managerial competencies for the managers' sample and only a three-role model (Facilitator, Result oriented, and Broker) for the employees' sample as against the eight-role managerial competency model in the original Competing Value Framework (Quinn, 1988). Significant differences were observed on the extracted Broker, Result oriented, Monitor, and Mentor roles for the four cultural groups (managers' sample). The Affective organizational commitment was positively associated with the Team builder and the Monitor roles (managers' sample) and with the Facilitator role (employees' sample). Significant positive correlations were observed between the Continuance organizational commitment of the employees and the Facilitator and the Result-oriented roles of their managers. Significant positive correlations were also observed between the Normative organizational commitment of the employees and the Result-oriented and the Broker skills of their managers.

Significant positive correlations were observed between Internal job satisfaction and the Team builder and the Result-oriented roles; the External job satisfaction and the Result-oriented, Innovator, Monitor, Broker, and the Mentor roles (managers' sample). The Internal and the External job satisfaction were positively associated with the Result-oriented and the Broker roles (employees' sample).

Significant differences were observed based on sector for all three extracted roles (employees' sample). Significant differences were observed for the Normative organizational commitment (both samples) and the Continuance organizational commitment (employees' sample). The External job satisfaction of the employees

from the private sector was observed as higher than the public sector employees for the employees' sample. The female managers (employees' sample) ranked higher for the Broker competency than their male counterparts.

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# Chapter One---Introduction

## Introduction

This research examined the influences of culture, sector, and gender on managerial leadership competencies in a multicultural and multinational work environment. Additionally, the research also attempted to understand the correlations between managerial-leadership competencies—job satisfaction; managerial-leadership competencies—organizational commitment; sector—managerial-leadership competencies; sector—organizational commitment; and sector—job satisfaction in a multicultural, multinational UAE work environment.

Belonging to a country that relies heavily on the expatriate workforce, the author experienced huge differences in managerial practices and approaches in a multicultural and multinational environment. The UAE work environment may be considered unique in many ways because: many organizations in the UAE follow Westernized business models (Alyousif, Naoum, Atkinson, & Robinson, 2010) in fusion with Arabic socio-cultural values (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993); it has a multicultural and multinational workforce (UAE Government Portal: Labour and Employment, 2010); and possesses a proactive, achievement-oriented, creative, responsible and accountable multicultural and multinational team (Klein, Waxin, & Radnell, 2009). Having said that, the current business environment and the UAE society is also marked with inherent characteristics like taboo, tribal values, submission, fatalism, reluctance to accept imported values and standards as well (Ali, 1987), while acknowledging the positive accomplishment of modern civilization and Western-style education to bridge the gap between the Middle Eastern cultural values and the Western culture (Branine, 2004, 2010). There is an urgency to develop a management culture incorporating a blend of Islamic management principles and theories and practices of Western management in a complementary manner (Branine & Pollard, 2010). This research tries to make a significant contribution in meeting the urgent demand.

The communication gaps and differences in approaches of a manager in the UAE multicultural workplace always interested the author. The initial research and

relevant brief literature review was undertaken with a specific question in mind: How and to what extent does culture influence managerial competencies? A literature review relevant to this topic only aroused the author's curiosity further as he understood that cultural practices were not the only predictor of managerial-leadership competencies, but there were many other predictors too; gender, education, age, sector, experience, work environment, to name a few. Understanding the influences of culture, gender, and sector on managerial-leadership competencies, thus formed the central aim of this research.

The research, using a mixed methodology (quantitative and qualitative methods), tested various hypotheses to understand the influences and correlations among culture, sector, gender, and managerial-leadership competencies while also investigating the correlations among managerial-leadership competencies, sector, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Exploring the managerial-leadership competencies as influenced by culture, sector and gender in the UAE work environment (multicultural and multinational) would help the managers and the organizational policy makers develop managerial-leadership competencies of their workforce, as well as assisting in improving their performance through better analyses of their weaknesses and strengths as managers, and also analysing the predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

This chapter begins with a brief overview of the research background, which is later expanded substantially in the second chapter (Literature Review), followed by the purpose of the research, the problem statement, research questions, significance of the research, methodology adopted, and the structure of the dissertation.

### **Background of the Research**

The current global economy demands organizations to have global leaders-managers as a source of competitive advantage. "The managers of the 21st century will have to excel as never before to meet the expectations held of them and of the organizations they lead" (Schermerhorn, 2001: p. 20). Global leadership should not be just customized to multinational, multicultural, and multilingual business environments but should also be smart enough to recognize the needs for adaptation,

relate favourably with its employees, be capable of removing apprehensions of its followers by determining their true needs, aspirations, interests and create a sense of trust among people they lead (Bonnstetter, 1999). Managerial-leadership competencies may be viewed as a function of variables such as culture, gender, sector, management level, experience, educational background, academic achievement, and so on (Boyne, 2002; Bozeman, 2000; Bryans & Mavin, 2003; McGregor & Tweed, 2001; Nicholson, 2000).

Various competency-based approaches, which are critical tools in organization performance measurement through a measurable framework for identification of skills, knowledge, behaviours, and people's capabilities for a job, are used for measuring a manager's competencies (Draganidis & Mentzas, 2006; Grzeda, 2005; Lange, Fourie, & Vuuren, 2003; Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, & McGrath, 2003; Viitala, 2005). However, there can be no resolute adoption of any management model for assessing the efficiency of a manager because application and integration of anthropological concepts in the discipline of management is necessary to make any management model locally effective (Hofstede, 2010).

Cultural norms and values affect employee motivation, performance, and stress levels (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Hofstede, 2010; Klein, 2003). Culture has been known to influence managerial competencies; with different cultures holding different perceptions of a competent manager (Brett, Behfar, & Kern, 2006; Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 2004; Hunt, 2002; Lin & Miller, 2003). Applying cultural dimensions to management is crucial because management effectiveness is a combination of people, economical and technical resources to achieve the desired ends. And since all these three interact, it is almost impossible to imagine any management activity free of cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2010; House et al., 2004). Culture was selected as an important independent variable for analysis in this research; the impact of cultural values of four groups (UAE nationals; other Arabs, Sub-continent and Western) on managerial-leadership competencies were analysed.

Managerial competencies and leadership styles predict job satisfaction and organizational commitment as well. For instance, research has indicated positive correlations between the transformational leadership style and the affective, normative and the continuance organizational commitment (Liu, 2006); conflict with



supervisors negatively affects organizational commitment of the employees working with them (Janssen, 2004); team-building skills of a manager positively influence the organizational commitment of employees (Matin, Jandaghi, Karimi, & Hamidizadeh, 2010) and so on.

Managerial-leadership competencies are also impacted by gender because men and women score differently on managerial competencies (Bryans & Mavin, 2003; McGregor & Tweed, 2001; Nicholson, 2000), with women being better at dealing with detail, budgets and environment (McGregor & Tweed, 2001). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as affected by managerial-leadership competencies and sectors were used as the dependent variables in this study.

Additionally, sector is also known to impact managerial competencies because the public and private sector organizations differ from each other in ownership, funding and control (Bozeman, 2000). While the private sector owners, shareholders, and managers have direct monetary incentives such as improved performance and financial success linked to better pay, on the contrary, the public sector managers and shareholders have diffuse and vague property rights, and the pay of managers is not directly linked to the financial success of the organization (Boyne, 2002). This research analysed the role of sector in relation to managerial-leadership competencies, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

To sum up, this research attempted to understand the influences of culture, sector, and gender on managerial competencies and the influences of the managerial-leadership competencies and sector on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the UAE work environment, which is highly multicultural and multinational.

### **Purpose of the Research**

Arab leaders and managers value relationship greatly and the relationship between the leaders and the people of the UAE is one of the secrets behind their success as a nation. Leaders are responsible for acting as family heads with the same obligations towards its employees as towards its family members. This emotional attachment allows greater commitment and loyalty from both leaders and those being

led (Scott-Jackson, 2010). However, the Arab countries also suffer from extreme superficial Islamic knowledge (their knowledge of Islam does not exceed beyond basic obligations of praying five times) which hinders development of an Islamic management system, besides having a damaging effect on the management organizations (Branine & Pollard, 2010). Inability to adhere to Western professional norms due to the influence of Arab socio-cultural factors (Altarawneh, 2010) may be responsible for friction and misunderstandings (Ali, 1998: p.13).

Thus, the Emiratis (UAE nationals) in the UAE work environment face dilemmas in meeting the demands of a competitive, western multinational business environment and the fast economic growth that followed the discovery of oil, compared to their traditional Arab culture (Klein et al., 2009). The competency of UAE nationals are affected, rather negatively, by a desire for higher salaries and perks, gender inequality, and cultural dispositions (Al Ali, 2008) highlighting a conflict between the business environment and the traditional UAE culture.

Therefore, it is important that the UAE's management practices are studied in its own right as espoused by Weir (2001) --- the diversity of the management practices of the Arab world should be viewed from the perspective of cultural and traditional roots. There is a need to develop a management system that incorporates management skills and knowledge customised to meet the local culture and values similar to what the Japanese, Chinese and South Koreans have done (Branine & Pollard, 2010).

The results of this study would offer assistance to human resource practitioners in planning development programs for the various cultural groups studied. There are aspiring UAE nationals who would like to succeed in the business environment against the negative stereotypes about themselves and participate actively in the development of the nation. Though not the primary goal, this research attempts to highlight strengths and weaknesses of the UAE national managers in comparison to the expatriate managers working in UAE, keeping in mind the cultural norms of the Arab world. The UAE being a rentier state, the government is definitely trying to make the life of its citizens very comfortable through privileges such as subsidized health care, housing, and utilities for its citizens (UAE nationals). In reciprocity, it is expected that the UAE citizens will develop their competencies and

skills on par with expatriates so as to ensure greater levels of accountability and responsibility. This research is an attempt towards that endeavour.

The study is significant because there exists a need to develop the UAE managers who are experiencing the gaps and tensions existing between the dominant Western perspectives on leadership and local needs and realities (Al Dabbagh & Assaad, 2010). The next section explains the necessity to analyse the UAE work environment from its own perspectives.

### **Problem Statement**

The UAE is a multicultural society where more than 200 nationalities live and work together (UAE Government Portal: Labour and Employment, 2010). A manager in a multicultural environment faces greater challenges than a manager working with a team of culturally homogenous people. Cultural differences can cause conflicts due to different methods of communication style, different accents and fluency, difference in attitudes towards hierarchy, and conflicting decision-making norms; these differences could be destructive to the progress and performance of the team (Brett et al., 2006).

The guest-worker model policy of the UAE, due to a large number of expatriate workers, has led to the development of a transitional organizational culture in the private sector resulting in a high turnover rate (Abdelkarim, 2001). The UAE labour force is approximately 4.111 million, of which expatriates account for 85% of the workforce whereas the UAE nationals account for the remaining 15% (UAE National Bureau of Statistics, 2012).

Besides the demographic imbalance between the citizens and the expatriate population ({~30% and 70% respectively}, (Knapman, 2013)), the UAE nationals face two contradictory environments at home and work. While at home they are raised in an environment that is traditional, conservative and based on tribal social ethics, but need to deal with a multicultural society outside their home, at work places, and at public places that have values and ethics quite contrary to their beliefs. They are a minority in their own country, required to adapt to a work culture that is quite different to their cultural values. Additionally, being citizens of a wealthy

rentier state, they are accustomed to privileges from the government that encourages irrational and unjustified distribution of rewards (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010). Given that in a rentier state, the citizens are not taxed, but provided with subsidized health care, housing, and utilities, such states are noted for an imbalance between spending habits and generosity as opposed to accountability of its population (Luciani, 1995: p. 91). The UAE being one such rentier state, the welfare measures determine the performance of its citizens in workplaces rather than their skills and capabilities (Abdalla, Al Waqfi, Harb, Hijazi, & Zoubeydi, 2010, Forstenlechner, 2010).

In such a scenario, it was significant to examine the influences that the cultural predispositions, gender and sector may have on the managerial-leadership competencies of the managers belonging to two major sections of the multicultural society (expatriates and citizens) besides exploring the influences of gender and sector on managerial-leadership competencies. Furthermore, correlations between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and the managerial-leadership competencies and sector in a multicultural and multinational environment, where the rentier and privileged citizens are also part of the workforce, merited deeper examination. This leads us to the main research questions that were answered through this research.

### **Research Questions**

The following research questions were framed to analyse the influences of culture, gender, and sector on managerial-leadership competencies and to explore the relationships between the managerial-leadership competencies, sector, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in the UAE multicultural and multinational working environment.

- **Research question 1:** Does national culture affect managerial-leadership competencies significantly?
- **Research question 2:** Are there any positive correlations between managerial-leadership competencies, job satisfaction and organizational commitment?

- **Research question 3:** How do gender differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?
- **Research question 4:** How do sector differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?
- **Research question 5:** How do sector differences affect the organizational commitment and job satisfaction?

### **Significance of the Research**

The five questions listed above were important because:

- By identifying the factors that are necessary for managerial-leadership competencies in the UAE work environment, precursors for developing an Arab (people belonging to the Arab League nations) managerial-leadership competency model can be identified.
- The UAE is a multicultural and multinational society, so understanding the influences that culture, gender and sector could have on managerial-leadership competencies of a manager is the first step towards developing its managers.
- By comparing different cultural groups, their strengths and weaknesses can be identified and this may serve as the basis for their training and needs analysis program.
- By analysing the correlations between managerial-leadership competencies, sector, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, strategies to improve the relationship could be worked out which would lead to better organizational performance and efficiency.
- The private sector of the UAE is mostly dominated by the expatriate workforce and the results of this research could be used to identify the reasons for the poor representation of the UAE national managers in the private sector. The identified reasons can thus form the basis for developing training needs for the UAE national managers.
- This research would contribute further to the literature on the influences of culture, gender, and sector on managerial competencies, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The research contributed to the literature on managerial-leadership competencies and the following methodology was adopted to synthesise the interaction among managerial-leadership competencies, culture, gender, sector, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

### **Methodology**

The research used both primary and secondary research methodologies. Secondary research involved the collection of information through articles, publications, web sources, newspapers, books, journals, theses, dissertations, and blogs.

The primary research used a positivist philosophy, a deductive approach, mixed-method survey strategy (both qualitative and quantitative) and a cross-sectional approach to examine the relationships between the dependent and the independent variables.

The dependent variables in this study were job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the managers and employees. Job satisfaction was measured using a 14-point questionnaire proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975), whereas the organizational commitment was measured on a 24-scale questionnaire developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) that measured the affective, normative and continuance commitment of the respondents. There were two sets of independent variables used in this study. The first set of independent variables was the eight managerial-leadership competencies identified by Quinn (1988) in his Competency Value Framework (CVF). The leadership roles were: innovator, facilitator, mentor, and director; and the managerial roles were: producer, monitor, coordinator, and broker. The managerial-leadership competency roles were treated as the independent variables when assessing the correlation between managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction and organizational commitment; however, they were treated as the dependent variables when analysing the influences of culture, sector and gender on managerial-leadership roles. The Competing Values Instrument developed by Quinn et al. (2003) had these eight roles measured through 32 items. The second set of independent variables included the cultural groups (UAE

nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western), the industrial sectors (private sector and public sector), and gender (male and female).

Three questionnaires were used (Appendices A--C) in the present study. The questionnaires were translated into Arabic by professional translators (Appendix C) because its sample belonged to both private and public sectors. The sample for the research in total was 850 (comprising 350 managers and 500 employees) participants.

The sample was split into two groups, managers and employees, because the subordinates who rated their managers were not the same managers as the managers of the managers' sample group. It was also believed that the managers' perceptions of the managerial roles would be different from an employee's (subordinate) perceptions of the roles of a manager.

A 360° feedback analysis could not be used because it involves using a manager-employee pair and it was not possible to obtain a large number of matched pairs when a large sample size is necessary to produce statistically significant results (Hair, Black, Babbitt, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Furthermore, in the UAE work environment displaying protective traits of an Arab culture and owing to the huge sample size ( $N=850$ ), it would have been difficult to keep an accurate track of an employee's reporting line to the manager and vice-versa. Thus, although the managers and the employees of the sample may belong to the same organization, the analysis, however, could not be categorised as the 360° feedback.

The sample size for the semi-structured interviews was 22 and it was a purposeful sample that included experienced managers and employees.

Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used as the data collection tools for this research. The translated Arabic questionnaires and the English version questionnaires were piloted to a small sample ( $N=50$ ; 25 English and 25 Arabic) to check the face and content validity of the questionnaire.

The data collection process involved two sequential phases. Phase 1 comprised the collection of quantitative data through the above-mentioned three questionnaires. Phase 2 comprised collating these data for a meaningful discussion through semi-structured interviews. The probe questions for the semi-structured

interviews were framed based on the results of the quantitative data collected through the questionnaire survey (Appendix D) and were held two months after the data were collected and results interpreted.

Quantitative data analysis was done with the help of SPSS program (SPSS version 19). The data were analysed further through exploratory factor analysis using principal component extraction method, correlation analysis through Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r$ ), Linear regression analysis,  $t$ -Test (independent) for gender and sector differences, and ANOVA to explore the occurrences of differences among the ethnic groups studied (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western) and its effect on managerial-leadership roles.

Qualitative data analysis was done through thematic analysis which is a process of analysing and interpreting the data by identifying patterns (themes) within the data set (Boyatzis, 1982).

### **Ethical Considerations**

The present research followed the below-mentioned ethical considerations:

1. *Ethics Committee Approval:* A request letter to the Curtin University as well as the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, UAE was sent seeking permission to conduct the present research.
2. *Participant's Consent:* All the participants were sent a letter seeking their willingness and permission to participate in the survey. They were informed about the purpose of the study, data to be collected, confidentiality and responsible handling of data.
3. *Promised Anonymity and Confidentiality:* The sample was promised confidentiality and anonymity under all circumstances.
4. Provisions were made to retain all data, including documents and questionnaires by the Curtin University in a secure facility for at least five years.



### **Location of the Research**

Organizations (both public and private sector) located in the UAE were part of this study.

### **Structure of the Thesis**

The present dissertation is about the influences of culture, gender, and sector on managerial-leadership competencies in the UAE multicultural and multinational environment, examining the correlations between the managerial-leadership competencies, sector, organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The whole dissertation is divided into six chapters, followed by References and Appendices.

*Chapter 1—Introduction:* This chapter sets the stage for the research, providing a brief background and the rationale for undertaking the study, the problem statement, aims and objectives and the research questions. This chapter also explains briefly the methodology adopted for the research, ethical considerations, significance and contribution of this research, and the dissertation structure.

*Chapter 2—Literature Review:* This chapter provides the theoretical background of the research and draws upon various works done previously. This chapter is divided further into three main sections; Part 1: details about the location of the research—UAE, the political, geographical, and economical facts, its society, workforce and the business environment. Part 2: deals with leadership and management theories, overlaps and gaps, competencies (concept, definitions, types), and various competencies models and their role in competency evaluation. Part 3: deals with culture (concept, definition, various theories and models), culture and competency interplay, organizational commitment (concept and correlation with managerial-leadership competencies), job satisfaction (concept and correlation with managerial-leadership competencies), gender and correlation with managerial-leadership competencies and industrial sector and managerial-leadership competencies correlation. Finally, the research model for the present research and the 14 hypotheses being tested in this research are presented at the end of the chapter.

*Chapter 3—Methodology:* explains the epistemological, ontological and axiological underpinnings of the research. It explains the approaches adopted for the present

research and the reasons for adopting the methodologies. The chapter provides details about the dependent and the independent variables, the sample size and their selection, questionnaires used, their distribution, collection, coding and analysis. The chapter also explains briefly about various statistical tools and techniques used for analysing the data.

*Chapter 4—Data Analysis:* presents the results obtained and the analysis of the data through the SPSS software. The results are stated and explained with the help of tables, charts and diagrams. This chapter also discusses the hypotheses and its results.

*Chapter 5—Discussion:* This chapter discusses the results obtained, its agreement or disagreement with the previous researches. The chapter records arguments for the present study results based on the previous research.

*Chapter 6—Conclusion:* This chapter presents the conclusion of the research, recommendations to improve the managerial-leadership competencies of the cultural groups studied, limitations of the research, contribution of the research, and areas of future research relevant to this study.

## **Chapter Two---Literature Review**

### **Introduction**

My journey through the literature review commenced with gathering enough information about what a literature review is, how it should be phased, its importance and contribution to the research study and the points to be kept in mind while conducting a literature review. Secondary research through literature review involves synthesis of the relationship between the studies of the past and the current research problem. A review of literature helps a researcher understand and distinguish what has been done in the past and what needs to be done, helps in identifying important variables relevant to the topic and helps in identifying the relationships between ideas and practice (Hart, 2007: p. 27). A literature review also serves to establish the context of the research problem, rationalize the significance of the research problem, relate ideas and theory to practical applications and helps in understanding the structure of the subjects. Besides, literature review is undertaken by a researcher to identify the main methodologies and research techniques used in previous studies. It also helps in placing the current research in a historical context to show familiarity with the progress and state-of-the-art developments (Hart, 2007: p. 27).

Any good literature review should:

- Demonstrate technical competencies in searching and selecting items.
- Have writing and arrangement in a logical and coherent manner.
- Be used to structure the reasons for research under study (Hart, 2007).

Also of importance, a quality literature review chapter should avoid the following pitfalls:

- Exclusion of landmark studies.
- Selection of outdated materials.
- Adopting a narrow-minded approach.
- Absence of a critical approach.
- No proper discrimination between relevant and irrelevant material.
- Lacking coherency and synthesis (Afolabi, 1992).

The literature was reviewed based on the recommendations of Hart (2007). Various secondary sources such as encyclopaedias, websites, books, articles, theses, working papers, conference proceedings, etcetera, were analysed to draw relevant contents for the thesis.

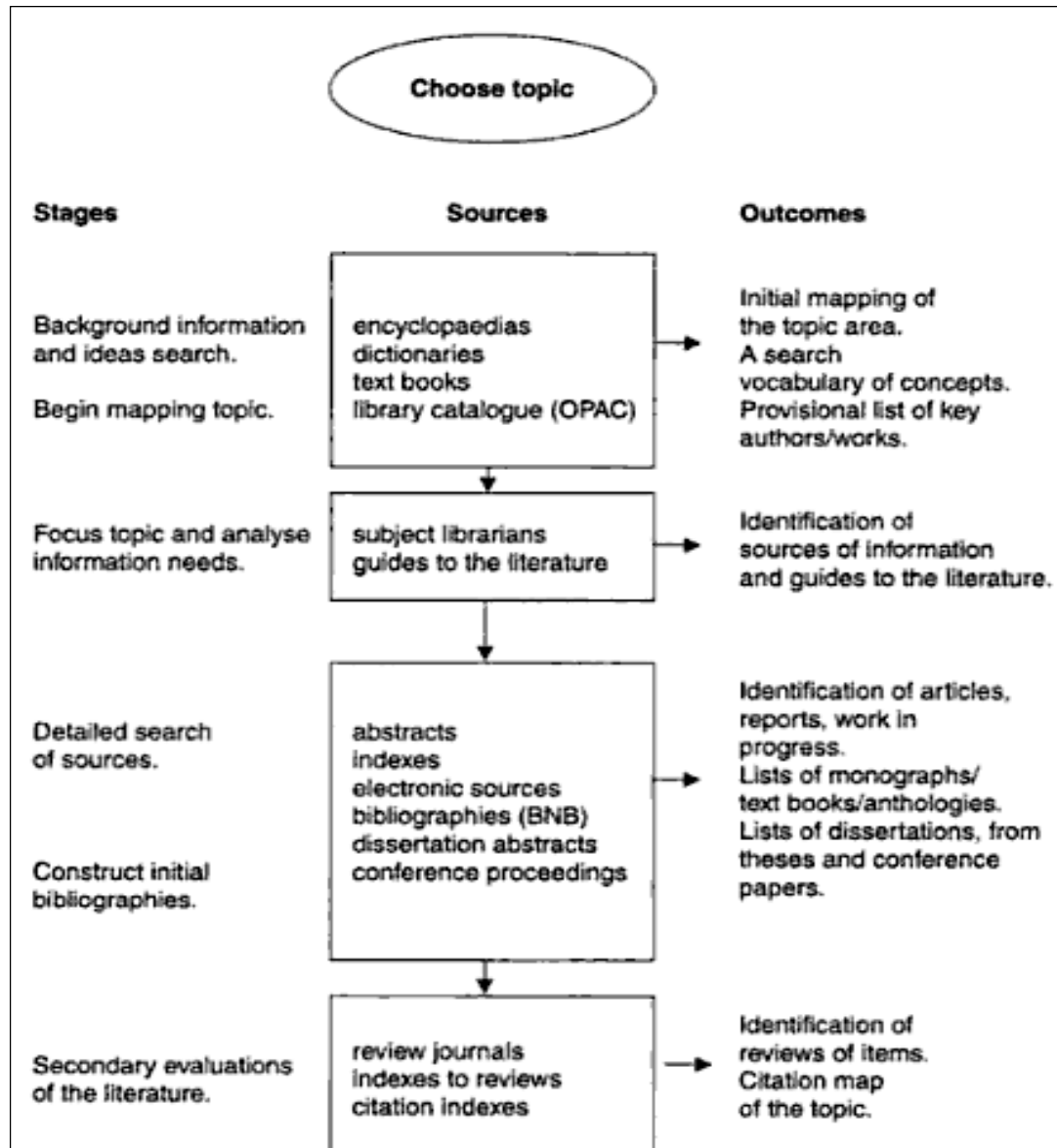


Figure 1. Flow chart of literature research used in this study. Adapted from Hart (2007: p. 34).

This research adopted a comprehensive literature review approach with the above-mentioned points as the guiding criteria. Since the primary aim of the research was to examine the influences of culture, gender and sector on managerial-leadership competencies and also to analyse the correlations between managerial-leadership competencies, sector, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment of a manager

in the multicultural and multinational UAE work environment; the main themes for which the literature was reviewed included:

- Country background---UAE social, economical, educational, workforce, sector-based facts;
- Managerial and leadership competencies;
- Managerial-leadership competencies and models;
- Organizational commitment—theoretical perspectives and its relation to managerial-leadership competencies;
- Job satisfaction—theoretical perspectives and its correlation to managerial-leadership competencies;
- Culture and cultural theories mapped to organizational work culture;
- Influences of culture on managerial-leadership competencies;
- Gender and its influence on managerial-leadership competencies;
- Sector and its influence on managerial-leadership competencies, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

For enhanced understanding, this chapter was further divided into six main sections that were grouped under three parts. Part 1 provided a brief background about the UAE as a country (UAE Country—Facts and Figures), segmentation of industries into public and private sector (UAE Labour Market), its labour market conditions, the government policies for the labour force, and the organization culture. The review of literature on the above-mentioned aspects was important for setting the scene for the main research topic—managerial-leadership competencies as influenced by culture, industrial sectors, and gender.

The second part of the literature review (Part 2) dealt with competencies in general, managerial-leadership competencies, competencies models, and model selection for the current research.

The third part of this chapter (Part 3) reviewed the concept of culture, cultural dimensions, cultural influence on managerial-leadership competencies, concept of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, correlations between managerial-leadership competencies, organizational commitment and job satisfaction, conceptual framework, and hypotheses tested in this research.

## Part 1

### UAE Country—Facts and Figures

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is a constitutional federation of seven emirates: Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm al-Qaiwain, Ra's al-Khaimah and Fujairah, formally established on 2 December 1971. The capital of UAE is Abu Dhabi, which is the largest city accounting for about 86.7% of the total land area of the country and is also the political hub. Dubai, the second largest Emirate is the industrial and trading hub of the country. Sharjah, another important emirate of the UAE, was declared as the Cultural capital of the country by UNESCO in recognition of the efforts by its ruler, His Highness Sheikh Dr. Sultan bin Mohammed Al Qasimi (Abu Dhabi Chamber, 2014).



Figure 2. Map of UAE. Adapted from The World Factbook (2012).

Smaller emirates like Ajman, Umm al-Qaiwain, Ra's al-Khaimah and Fujairah are known for their beaches, date cultivation, and oases. The country is located in the Middle East bordering the Gulf of Oman and the Persian Gulf, between Oman and Saudi Arabia. It has a strategic location along the southern approaches to the Strait of Hormuz (Held, 2006).

The UAE is a highly developed country with per capita GDP on par with leading west European nations. The oil reserves and the global finances are the main drivers of the UAE economy (The World Factbook, 2012).

## Social Factors

United Arab Emirates is a stable, secure, open and progressive society known for its cultural values of tolerance, humanity and compassion. It is known to be a diverse and multicultural, multinational society. The UAE population was estimated to be 5.32 million (July 2012) showing an annual growth of around 3.1%. Among the population of five million, the UAE nationals or Emiratis account for just 30% of the total population while the expatriate population account for 70% of the total population. The number of local population has more than doubled in the last 15 years. The country's net migration rate is estimated to be 16.82, which is among one of the world's highest migration rates (Knapman, 2013; UAE National Bureau of Statistics, 2012) (Figure 3).

Number and Percent of Migrants to Total Population, UAE 1990-2010		
Year	Number of Migrants (Million)	% of Total Population
1990	1.330	71.3
1995	1.716	70.6
2000	2.286	70.6
2005	2.863	70.0
2010	3.293	70.0

Figure 3: Number and percent of migrants. Source: Knapman (2012)

Table 1

*The Demography of UAE by Age*

Age group	Percentage	Male	Female	Sex ratio
0-14 years	20.5%	557,603	532,303	1.05 males/female
15-64 years	78.5%	3,060,518	1,113,867	2.75 males/female
65 years and over	0.9%	31,942	18,084	1.8 males/females

Source: UAE National Bureau of Statistics (2012)

**Ethnic Groups:** The ethnic groups comprising 70% of the UAE population include 50% South Asian, 23% other Arab and Iranian, 8% Europeans and East Asians. As per the latest estimates of migrants by the World Bank in 2010, 66.4% of the immigrants are Indians, 13.8% are Pakistanis, 4.9% from Sri Lanka, 4.3% from Egypt, 3.7% from the Phillipines, 3.1% from Bangladesh and yet another 4% from other countries (Knapman, 2013). The UAE population has skewed sex distribution with twice as many males as females. The sex ratio in 15--65 age group is 2.75. Arabic is the official language of the UAE but English is widely spoken (UAE National Bureau of Statistics, 2012).

Country of Origin	Number of migrants	Percent to Total Migrants
India	2,185,919	66.4
Pakistan	453,005	13.8
Sri Lanka	161,068	4.9
Egypt	140,935	4.3
Philippines	120,801	3.7
Bangladesh	100,668	3.1
Other Countries	130,868	4.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,293,264</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 4: Non-emiratis in UAE in 2010. Source: Knapman (2013).

**Education:** Education has been the top priority of the government and towards that end the government has decentralised education authority from the federal Ministry of Education to local education bodies in each emirate. The government is committed to providing free universal access to primary, secondary and higher education to all UAE citizens. The Ministry of Education is set up with a vision to create an “educational system that harmonizes with the best universal educational standards, prepares the student for a beneficial and productive life, develop his ability for continuous learning to deal with the era’s facts and to contribute to achieving enduring development for the community” (UAE National Bureau of Statistics, 2012).

The Ministry of Education monitors the education system. The public schools are government funded and curriculum created to match the development and needs of the nationals, keeping in mind the UAE tradition and culture. English is taught as a second language in these schools and the main instruction medium is Arabic.



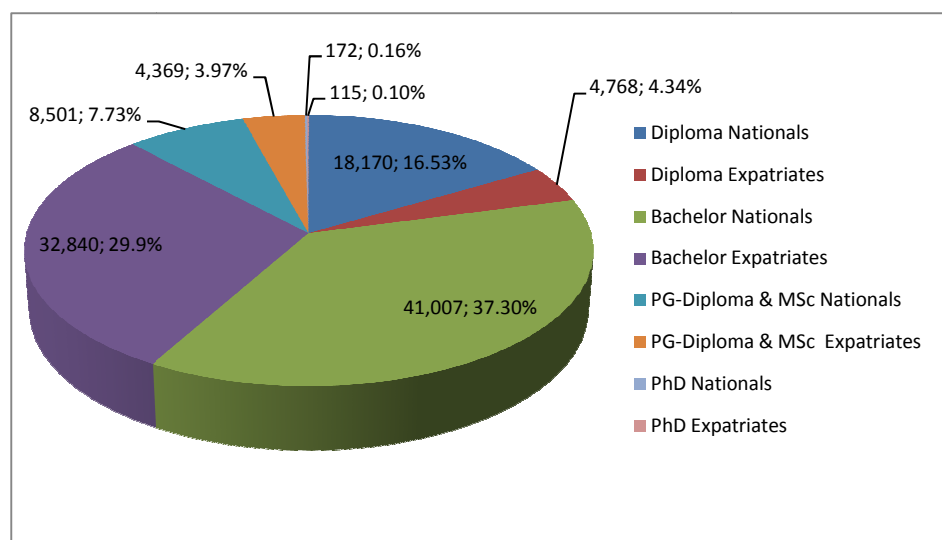
Education is a high priority for the country and its vision is to align the curriculum with the aid of science and technology developments. The educational system emphasises the development of information technology, eradication of computer illiteracy, and promotes traditional values besides preserving social values and ethics (UAE Ministry of Education, 2010).

As per the latest data available from the Centre for Higher Education Data and Statistics, the enrolments for the year 2011—2012 for higher education indicated 21% students enrolled in Diploma and Higher Diploma programs, 67% in Bachelor's programs, 11.3% in Postgraduate Diploma and Master's programs and 0.3% students in PhD programs (Centre for Higher Education Data and Statistics, 2012).

Table 2

*Enrolments for the year 2011—2012 in the UAE*

	Diploma		Bachelor		PG-Diploma & MSc		PhD	
Nationality	Nationals	Expat	Nationals	Expat	Nationals	Expat	Nationals	Expat
Federal Institutions	12,192	226	19,667	2,731	5,331	167	61	58
Private Institutions	5,978	4,542	21,340	30,109	3,170	4,202	111	57
Total	18,170	4,768	41,007	32,840	8,501	4,369	172	115



*Figure 5: Graphical representation of enrolments segregated by nationalities and level of studies. Source: Centre for Higher Education Data and Statistics (2012).*

Religion: Islam is the official state religion of the country though the government follows a policy of tolerance towards other religions. Religion-wise, the UAE population can be segmented as 76% Muslims, 9% Christians, and 15% others (Hindus and Buddhists) (UAE National Bureau of Statistics, 2012).

### **Political Information**

The UAE follows a federal, presidential, elective and monarchical form of government, the federation being a union of seven monarchies—the emirates of Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Fujairah, Dubai, Ras-al-Khaimah, and Umm-al-Qaiwain. The President of UAE is the head of the state while the Prime minister is its head of government (Shihab, 2001).

The UAE government has comparatively liberal laws compared to other Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. Sharia (Islamic law) is applicable to family law, inheritance, and certain criminal acts. All emirates have secular courts to govern criminal, civil and commercial matters while Islamic courts review family and religious disputes (Shihab, 2001).

The UAE constitution guarantees equality, liberty, rule of law, presumption of innocence in legal procedures, freedom of movement, opinion and speech, communication, council and association, occupation, and freedom to be elected to office and others onto all citizens, within the limit of the law (UAE: Ministry of State for Federal National Council Affairs, 2010).

### **Economical Background**

The UAE is known for its open economy and a country with one of the highest per capita income. The country is also known for its annual trade surplus. Though the economic boom was initially attributed to oil and gas revenue, the economic diversification strategies adopted later reduced the oil- and gas-based GDP contribution to 25% (Schiliro, 2012). The discovery of oil transformed the small desert state into a modern state with standards of living comparable to the most developed countries of the West. The GDP per capita of the country stands twelfth in the world (Schiliro, 2012). The GDP in terms of the purchasing power parity was estimated to be \$256.5 billion in 2011 (estimated).

Indicators	Figures	Country comparison to the world
GDP (purchasing power parity): note: data are in 2011 US dollars	\$256.5 billion (2011 est.)	50
GDP - per capita (PPP): note: data are in 2011 US dollars	\$47,700 (2011 est.)	12
GDP – composition by sector:	Agriculture: 0.8%; industry: 59.1%; services: 40.1% (2011 est.)	
Investment (gross fixed):	27.4% of GDP (2011 est.)	30
Budget:	revenues: \$119.8 billion; expenditures: \$109.3 billion (2011 est.)	
Public debt:	45.9% of GDP (2011 est.)	66

Source: CIA The World Factbook (2012).

The country offers 100% foreign ownership and zero taxes in the Free Trade Zones. The economy diversified with a boom in construction industry owing to many ambitious projects and rapid development in infrastructure (Moore, 2004). The no-tax policy, relaxed rules for foreigners in this zone and strategic location of the UAE make it a business hub for trade and export. The economic strategy of the UAE is based on trade partnerships and free trade agreements with countries across the globe (UAEInteract: The Economy, 2006). The World Bank Report has identified UAE as a country with least cumbersome procedures to be followed while setting up the business and also the cost of setting up a new business is comparatively lower compared to other countries of the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region (Al Abed, Vine, & Hellyer, 2005).

### **UAE Labour Market**

The UAE's labour market is known to attract the finest talent due to fulfilling employment conditions, and also because the country is a relatively crime-free place to live. Capable Emiratis generally attain the highest ranks in offices, although expatriates may hold senior public offices based on their talent and expertise. More than 200 nationalities live harmoniously (UAEInteract: Society, 2013) in a multicultural society and the government is committed to equitable rights both for employees and employers. Trade unions do not exist in the UAE, but such

formations are given due consideration to protect labour rights (UAE Government Portal: Labour and Employment, 2010).

Years	Population	Labour Force (15 years and above)	Employed
2008	4.765	3.043	2.930
2007	4.488	2.840	2.742
2006	4.229	2.647	2.563
2005 (Census)	4.106	2.560	2.480

Figure 6. UAE labour force and employment (millions) between 2005 and 2008. Adapted from RAK Free Trade Zone (2010).

The UAE labour force is approximately 4.111 million, of which expatriates account for 85% of the workforce whereas the UAE nationals account for the remaining 15% (Schiliro, 2012). Women account for about 14.84% of the total workforce as per the latest census taken in 2010 (Schiliro, 2012). The latest data as per the Ministry of Labour indicate an increase in the number of employed expatriate workers from 2.84 million in 2007 to 3.04 million in 2008 (31% annual increase). A total of 1.51 million new labour cards were issued in 2008 (983,000 cards in 2007), whereas 543,000 labour cards were cancelled in 2008 (376,000 in 2006) (Schiliro, 2012).

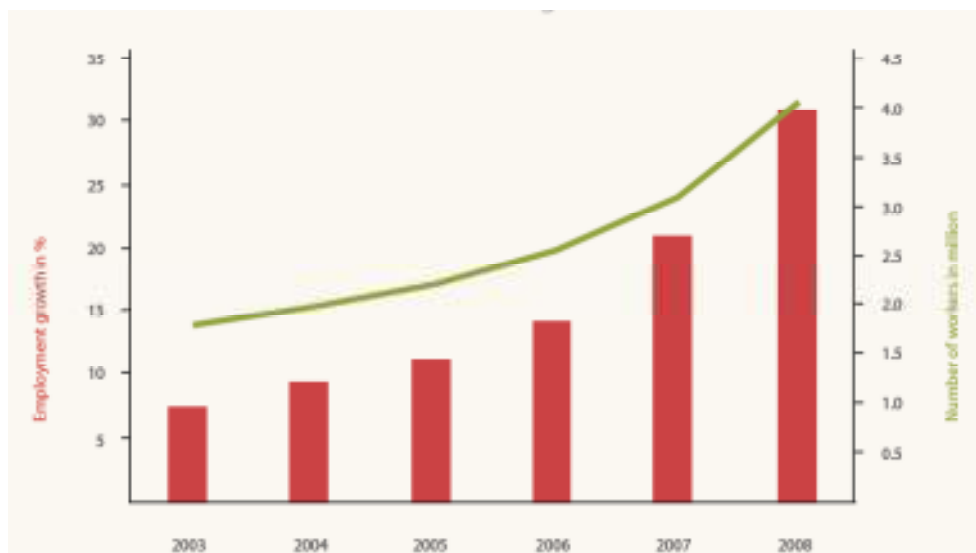


Figure 7. Employment growth in UAE between 2003 and 2008. Adapted from UAE Year Book, 2010.

The workforce accounted for 64.4% of the population of approximately 5.06 million in 2009. The federal public sector employed 45% of the total local manpower in the country in 2007 as per the Ministry of Economy, UAE. The latest report released by the Ministry of Economy, UAE observed that 45.8% of nationals were employed in the federal government departments while 39.1% were employed in local public establishments in 2009. The private sector accounted for nearly 64.6% of the total workforce in 2009. The percentage of economically active nationals was 45% as per the 2009 Labour Force Survey conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics (2010). It was also observed that the male nationals were primarily employed in military services (25.6%) followed by services and sales (24.3%), and technical and scientific occupations (17%) in the order mentioned. On the contrary, female nationals had the highest employment rate in technical and scientific occupations (33.8%), clerical occupations was the second highest (27.7%), while as technicians in scientific and technical field was third highest (21.3%) (National Bureau of Statistics, UAE 2009, 2010). There are no minimum salary rules set by the government for any occupation (excluding teachers, maids and nannies). Even after the crisis, the country saw salary increases in the range of 7—7.5% in 2010 (RAK Free Trade Zone, 2010). The UAE Salary Guide 2013 by Dubai-based Morgan McKinley projected a rise in the average salaries of professionals by 5% to 6% percent (Arabian Business.com, 2013).

The UAE labour market is segmented based on ownership (private and public) and on the workforce it employs (nationals and non-nationals) (Abdalla et al., 2010). Government sectors are the industries and services that are fully owned and controlled by the government and are fully financed by the government budget for any purposes that serve its facilities (Abu Dhabi Retirement Pensions and Benefits Fund: Entity Information, 2010). As a part of the economic diversification policy to make the UAE economy less dependent on oil and gas revenue, the government adopted a policy of encouraging the development of the private sector. Privatization in the UAE has been conducted in business sectors that include real estate, industry, logistics, information technology, banking, contracting, services industry, media and publishing, tourism, health, education, and telecommunication (Federation of UAE: Chambers of Commerce and Industry, 2010).

The private sector of UAE includes public and private shareholding companies, besides the joint venture and partnership companies. There are seven types of business organizations that can be established: general partnership company, partnership-en-commendam, joint-venture company, public shareholding company, private shareholding company, limited liability company and share partnership company. While general partnership companies are restricted to the UAE nationals only, the partnership-en-commendam and share partnership companies do not exist. Public and private shareholding companies are represented by law, banking, insurance, and financial activities. The chairman and a majority of the directors are required to be UAE nationals. In joint ventures, though the UAE local has 51% ownership of the company, the foreign party manages all interaction with third parties under the name of the local partners and is responsible for all the liabilities (Trade Policy Reviews, 2010). The private sector industry of the UAE creates about 800,000 jobs each year. Emiratis hold about 15,000 of these jobs (UAE Year Book: Labour, 2010).

### **Labour Law Regulations**

The labour policy in the UAE follows a “guest-worker” model whereby foreign workers are hired for jobs on a contractual and temporary basis because the local workers either lacked the required skills or found the work unattractive. The labor market in the UAE is based upon the Kafala system wherein each employee is supposed to have a sponsor or *kafeel* and this forms the legal entry basis for any expatriate worker in the UAE (Shah, 2006). The UAE follows a federal government system and in accordance to that the labour laws of the country are governed by a tripartite legislation system: the Federal government labour law, the local government labour law and the laws applicable to the private sector. Civil Service Law covers the federal government employees whereas the local government employees are covered by labour legislations of each Emirate. The labour law at the federal and the local level govern initiation and termination of employment relationship, wages, minimum work hours, job profile, employee benefits and salary structures. On the other hand, the laws governing the private sector are less detailed in employee relationship and salary structure and much of this is determined at the individual employer level. Moreover, the regulations for the private sector are in

favour of employers who can bring in foreign workers and restrict their mobility within the local labour markets (Abdalla et al., 2010).

### Business Environment and Culture

The UAE offers advantages of a highly developed economy with infrastructure and services of international standards. The UAE business environment boasts of a free enterprise system, highly developed transportation and communication technology, sophisticated and transparent financial and services sectors, reliable power and utilities besides quality office and residential accommodation and a cosmopolitan lifestyle (UAE Year Book: Doing Business, 2010).

The UAE has the advantages of a multicultural and multinational pool of talent, a westernized organization culture (contractive) with the multicultural and multinational team geared to be proactive, achievement oriented, creative, responsible and accountable (Klein et al., 2009). A synchronic work culture, as is the case with the UAE work culture, allows parallel activities and places more emphasis on effectiveness rather than efficiency (Anwar & Chaker, 2003).

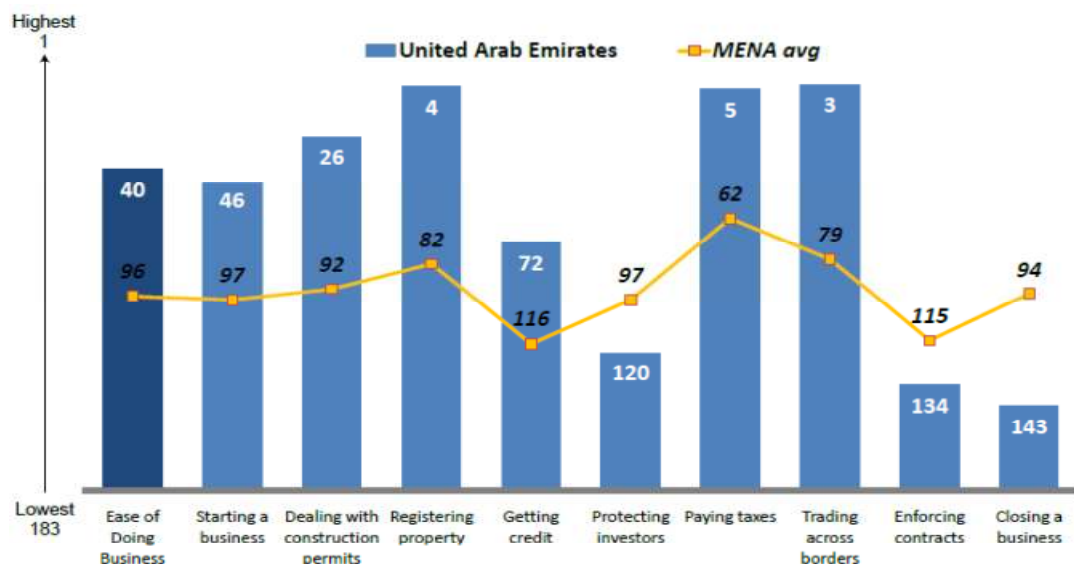


Figure 8. UAE outperforms the region in most areas in DB2011. Adapted from Khalifa (2010).

The ease of doing business in UAE, measured and based on pre-defined characteristics like starting a business, dealing with construction permits, registering property, getting credit, protecting investors, paying taxes, trading across borders,

enforcing contracts and closing a business, showed that the UAE performed well in most of these regions (Khalifa, 2010).

The guest-worker model policy of the UAE, due to a large number of expatriate workers, has led to the development of a transitional organizational culture in the private sector resulting in high turnover rates (Abdelkarim, 2001). Monetary reward culture, often a policy to motivate employees in the private sector, makes it difficult to implement a supportive corporate culture with emphasis on long-term career development (Al Ali, 2008). The high turnover rate in the private sector, in particular among the UAE nationals, is due to the lack of a well-defined career development system and the transitional organizational culture of the private sector work force (Abdelkarim, 2001, Freek, 2004).

### **Emiratization.**

As seen in earlier paragraphs, the UAE being a business hub and a melting pot of more than 200 nationalities working for numerous businesses, the country faces immense diverse demographic challenges. The local population of the UAE is marginalised; Emiratis account for about 15,000 jobs in the private sector and about 10% of the employed UAE nationals resign each year due to various adverse conditions like low wages, lack of training and development opportunities, and negative stereotyping (Al Ali, 2008). If the attrition of the local population from the workforce continues at this rate, they will be less than 4% of the total workforce in 2020 (UAE Year Book: Labour, 2010). Besides this, the education system in UAE produces graduates whose skill levels do not match the requirements of the labour market. There is an apparent mismatch between the demands of the labour markets and the vocational courses offered by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education institutes (Abdalla et al., 2010; Forstenlechner, 2008).

Thus, the government faces two main challenges in empowering the national citizens of the UAE: development of necessary skills among the UAE nationals and to increase their participation in the private sector (Forstenlechner, 2008). To this end, the federal and local authorities are continuously working towards strategies that support the policy of expanding participation of the country's citizens in the



workforce. Also referred to as Emiratization, this forms a crucial item on the government agenda (Jarrah, 2006; UAE Year Book: Labour, 2010).

Emiratization aims for “the total integration of UAE national workforce in the UAE labor market in support of the growth and development of the UAE economy” (Al-Zaabi, 2004). Emiratization allows the government to develop policies at the organization level that promotes development of the UAE national workforce within the organization by attracting, recruiting, and retaining UAE nationals (Al-Zaabi, 2004). There are many establishments aided by the government to help in the Emiratization process: the National Human Resource Development and Employment Authority – TANMIA, the Abu Dhabi Emiratization Council, the Dubai-based Emirates National Development Programme and the Department for Human Resources Development in Sharjah. These organizations were established to create a balance in the labour market by developing the capabilities and skills of nationals (UAE Year Book: Labour, 2010: p. 156; Forstenlechner, 2008).

Emiratization is necessary because the UAE nationals comprise less than 9% of the total labour force and approximately 81% of them are employed mainly in the government sector, at both the federal and local levels. Although the private sector is the major employer in the UAE (52%), the representation of the UAE nationals in these industries is less than 2%. Emiratization as a rule has been made mandatory because private sector employers make the easier choice of hiring expatriates as they are less costly to the company than a UAE national; UAE nationals are paid higher salaries than the expatriates (Askari, Bazzari, & Tyler, 1998; Abdel Rahman, Elamin, & Aboelmaged, 2012). Also, the government policies of recruiting UAE nationals are limited to only a few economic sectors (Al-Zaabi, 2004).

### **Labour laws and emiratization.**

Hiring of the UAE nationals by the private sector is mandatory, especially in certain industries like banking and public relations. Other sectors are also required to follow this rule, but it is neither implemented strictly nor monitored closely. However, the national population may not be sufficient to shoulder all the responsibilities of the growing private sector economy (Golawala, Ganesh, Grant, & McKechnie, 2006). Although Emiratization policies benefit UAE nationals, it may

lead to changes in organization management and in some instances may pose challenges. For example, work hours, compensation, benefit plans, promotions and growth strategies may need to be altered to suit the increasing number of national employees. The preferential treatment of the UAE nationals on these grounds may hamper productivity and competitive spirits of both the expatriates and the UAE nationals (Toledo, 2006, p. 25). The government is taking measures to institute laws on par with labour laws worldwide; for example, the cabinet in 2004 approved a memo allowing initial set-up of labour unions besides introducing new wage standards of equal pay for nationals and non-nationals (government workers) with the exception that the nationals will be entitled to receive special allowances (Constantine & Al Lawati, 2007).

Recently, in 2010, the Ministry of Labour drafted a bill granting the private sector UAE national employees privileges similar to the public sector employees with an aim to reduce the gap between the two sectors in terms of incentives and also to attract more employees to the private sector (Arafa, 2010).

## **PART 2**

### **Leadership and Management**

Management and leadership provide indispensable competitive advantages to a firm. Most often, leadership is treated as an integral part of classical management because leadership tasks like coordination and command are essential attributes of a manager also, and the two terms are used interchangeably (Kent, Crotts, & Azziz, 2001, Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999). Hooper and Potter (2000) have argued that if an organization wants to be successful in an unstable environment, it is imperative that a person in the role of the manager should be capable of performing both the leader's and the manager's role besides maintaining a balance between both the roles; such a person will have a clear vision, innovation and original thinking quintessential for today's organization.

Rather than dichotomising the leadership skills and the managerial practices, trying to explain the two as different competencies altogether, the need for current business practices and environment is to understand the process-perspective and sense-making of managerial work and leadership in contemporary organizations (Holmberg & Tyrstrup, 2010). A few authors distinguish between management and leadership (Armandi, Oppedisano, & Sherman, 2003; Kent et al., 2001), whereas there are other researchers who agree with the classical management school of thought and consider leadership as an essential attribute of effective management (Ulrich et al., 1999, Wren, 2005).

### **Management and Leadership — Overlaps and Gaps**

Management and leadership are transposable (Kent et al., 2001, Ulrich et al., 1999). There are many similarities between leadership and management, for example, both of them involve working with people, influencing, effective goal management (Bass, 2010; Kent, 2005; Kent et al., 2001), though both the activities may not be synonymous and there may be disagreement over the degree of overlap (Yukl, 2010). In contrast, the two differ on many aspects: management is primarily limited to accomplishing tasks and mastering routines whereas influencing and leading people to a vision is leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1986; Reese & Porter,

2008; Storey & Salaman, 2005; Zhao & Xu, 2012). A manager epitomizes rationality and control through “persistence, hard work, intelligence, analytical ability, and perhaps most important, tolerance and goodwill” (Zaleznik, 1992, reprint 2001: p. 3). The roles of a manager and a leader are more than often identical (Zhao & Xu, 2012) or “inextricably interwoven” (Nienaber, 2010: p. 670) and these similarities have led to development of what is called a leader-manager (Hitt, 1988; Marquis & Huston, 2009), managerial-leadership concept (Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990; Zlate, 2004) or a manager-leader (Fletcher, 2002). It may be argued that the roles of a manager and leader often overlap. Buckingham (2005a) has analyzed and aptly differentiated between the virtues that make a great leader and a great manager. He says that a great leader is one who taps the universal needs and fears of people and rallies them towards a common cause whereas a great manager is one who knows the individual differences of each person and works by discovering, developing and celebrating this difference. Great managers appreciate individuality, have the ability to hire well, set expectations, and interact with their own bosses productively. They have the ability to cut across race, culture, sex and age and bring out the essential uniqueness of each individual. And in doing so, they challenge each staff to excel in one’s own way by understanding one’s subtleties, and guiding their actions so that there are better outcomes consistently. A manager seeks rapid resolution to conflicts and problems whereas a leader tolerates chaos and lack of structure, takes a personal and active outlook, is instrumental in setting the direction of the company, seeks risk, options and fresh ideas and is emotionally attached to its followers (Daft & Marcic, 2008; Reese & Porter, 2008; Storey & Salaman, 2005; Wren, 2005; Zaleznik, 1992).

There exists a fine line between leadership and management and both are critical to the success of an organization. While successful leadership helps an organization to innovate and transform, successful management aids an organization through effective and efficient utilization of resources (Jefferson & Rogers, 2010). Embracing all similarities and differences leads to managerial leaders who highlight their leadership skills when they influence a group of employees towards goal achievement. The managers and their leadership style in obtaining its goals and objectives determine the success of an organization. Management with leadership included can motivate people, encourage initiatives and innovations, and draw out their contributions and commitment with staff taking responsibility for their actions,

contributions, making them proactive in ensuring that organizations run successfully (Nienaber & Roodt, 2008). There has been a lot of emphasis on leadership dimension of managerial work; leadership in this case being defined as presenting compelling goals and visions grounded in the values of the organization (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Holmberg & Akerblom, 2001; Lado & Wilson, 1994). Leadership is one of the distinctive competencies of a manager (Camisón, 2005). The leadership skills of a manager are demonstrated in effective collaboration of a strategic mission, its formulation and implementation, and in their support to all other organizational competencies (Lado & Wilson, 1994). The leadership skills of a manager do not end with formulating, implementing a strategic mission or supporting competencies necessary for an organization's success but also in effective communication of the strategy to the rest of the organization (Bart & Baetz, 1998; Westley & Mintzberg, 1989). Managers, by virtue of appropriate and effective leadership style, can contribute positively to employee job satisfaction, commitment and productivity. In such cases, it will be best to conceptualize leadership style "as a series of managerial attitudes, behaviours, characteristics and skills based on individual and organizational values, leadership interests and reliability of employees in different situations" (Mosadeghrad, 2003, quoted in Randeree & Chaudhry, 2007, p. 221).

Camisón (2005, p. 30) sums up managerial leadership as "the acquisition, development, and deployment of resources and capabilities, their conversion into valuable products, and the creation of value for all stakeholders". Rather than bifurcating the leadership skills and managerial practices, trying to explain the two as different competencies altogether, it is necessary that the process-perspective and sense-making of managerial work and leadership in contemporary organizations is understood in the right perspective (Holmberg & Tyrstrup, 2010). In the case of managerial leaders, it is the sequence of tasks or things that a manager does that distinguishes one from just being a manager. A manager-leader will "do things at the present that will have consequences in future because others (those who are led) carry out activities as a consequence of leadership" (Holmberg & Tyrstrup, 2010, p. 371). In this context, it can be said that a manager with essential leadership skills is at the centre of the sense-making process because leadership in this case is a relationship between activities of today and the consequences it will have in the future.

A person can be a great leader or a manager or both, but one definitely requires mastery of competencies, both leadership and management, which are slightly different from one another and which overlap also (Northouse, 2007, p. 10).

Management Produces Order & Consistency	Leadership Produces Change & Movement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Planning and Budgeting</li> <li>• Establishing agendas</li> <li>• Setting timetables</li> <li>• Allocating resources</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establishing Direction</li> <li>• Creating a vision</li> <li>• Clarifying the big picture</li> <li>• Setting strategies</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organizing and Staffing</li> <li>• Provide structure</li> <li>• Making job placements</li> <li>• Establishing rules and procedures</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aligning People</li> <li>• Communicating goals</li> <li>• Seeking commitment</li> <li>• Building teams and coalitions</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Controlling and Problem Solving</li> <li>• Developing incentives</li> <li>• Generating creative solutions</li> <li>• Taking corrective action</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivating and Inspiring</li> <li>• Inspiring and energize</li> <li>• Empowering subordinates</li> <li>• Satisfying unmet needs</li> </ul>

Figure 9. Differences between a manager and a leader. Adapted from Northouse (2007, p. 10)

Nienaber and Roodt (2008) used an exploratory-descriptive approach to understand the concept of manager-leadership. Their observations were congruent with the classical management theory that includes leadership as an important attribute of management (Figure 10).

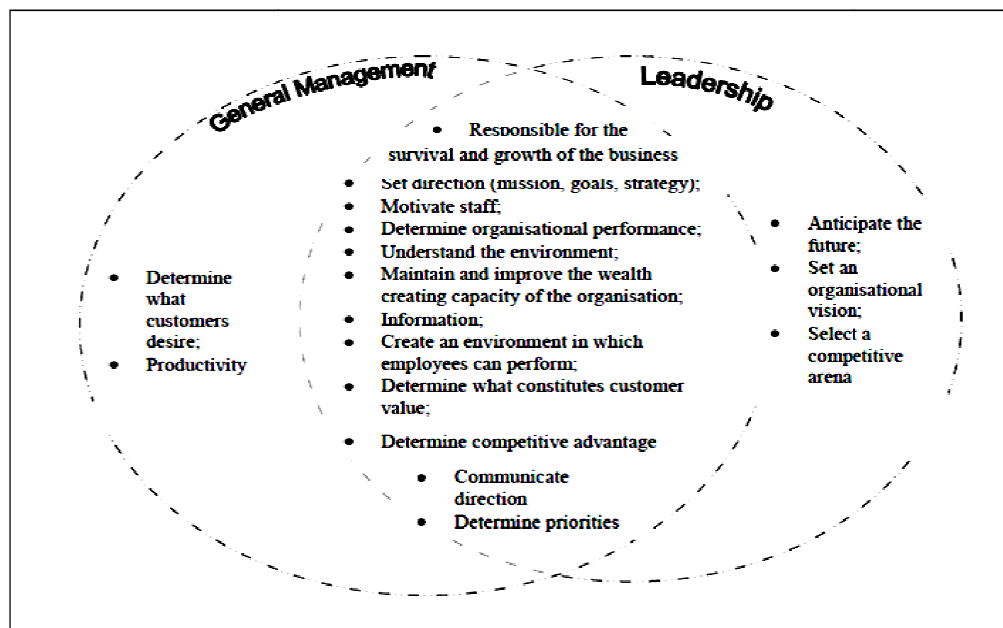


Figure 10. Tasks carried out by managers and leaders. Adapted from Nienaber and Roodt (2008).

The authors concluded that the classical management theory still holds ground, modified by the fact that leadership is beyond the traditionally held view of control and command, extending to strategic planning in a competitive arena ensuring that the organization's vision matches customers' desires and adds to the competitive advantage of the organization (Nienaber & Roodt, 2008).

The debate regarding the role of leadership in managerial work is never going to end and against the backdrop of globalization, global economy, deregulation of financial markets, cut-throat competition to attain sustainable competitive advantage, and ever increasing innovations (Castells, 1998), it seems all the more plausible that leadership and management are treated as complementary faces rather than placing them against each other. Leadership and management are mutually dependent; leadership provides management with an environment that helps it to maximize human capital in ways that it produces profitable results for its shareholders and community. Leadership has prospective while management is guided by perspective. Managers provide steady balance of operations and leaders provide and establish new methodologies and new areas to explore (Jefferson & Rogers, 2010). Together, the organization is set to achieve more and win much more than anticipated because "leaders optimize the upside; managers minimize the downside" (Bruce Lynn, Microsoft Server Director in the United Kingdom, quoted in Jefferson & Rogers, 2010, p. 157). Leadership and management are balancing because while one envisions possibilities, focuses on ends, generates energy, amplifies strength and seizes opportunities (leader), the other calculates probabilities, focuses on means, preserves energy, reduces weaknesses and averts threats.

In today's global economy, it is essential that an organization has global leaders-managers as a source of competitive advantage. Global leadership of an organization should be customized to a multinational, multicultural, and multilingual business environment. The leader-managers should be smart enough to recognize the needs for adaptations and relate with their staff and subordinates with ease. A manager-leader should be capable of first removing fear, and apprehensions of its followers by determining the true needs, aspirations, interest of their people and create a sense of trust among people they lead (Bonnstetter, 1999).

The list of skills that a manager-leader needs may be ever-growing with changing business environments and practices. Quinn et al. (2003) have worked extensively on paradoxes involved in management and leadership. They proposed the *Competing Value Framework* focussing on the demands and tensions faced by managers of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. According to them, a manager is required to take up eight important conflicting roles: director, producer, monitor, coordinator, facilitator, mentor, innovator and broker at any point in time. A manager as a director is required to lead the team through processes such as planning, setting goals, as a decisive initiator who helps in solving problems, identifying alternatives, and giving instructions. In short, he makes people clearly understand that he is in-charge of the team. As a producer, the manager-leader is task-oriented, responsible, highly interested, motivated, energetic and driven personally to achieve a set goal. As a monitor and coordinator, the manager-leader is expected to be aware of all facts, details and be good at analysis besides maintaining the structure and flow of the system by being reliable and dependable. As a facilitator, the manager-leader is expected to build up the teamwork through collective efforts and manage interpersonal conflicts among team members. As a mentor, the manager-leader is supposed to develop people through caring and emphatic orientation.

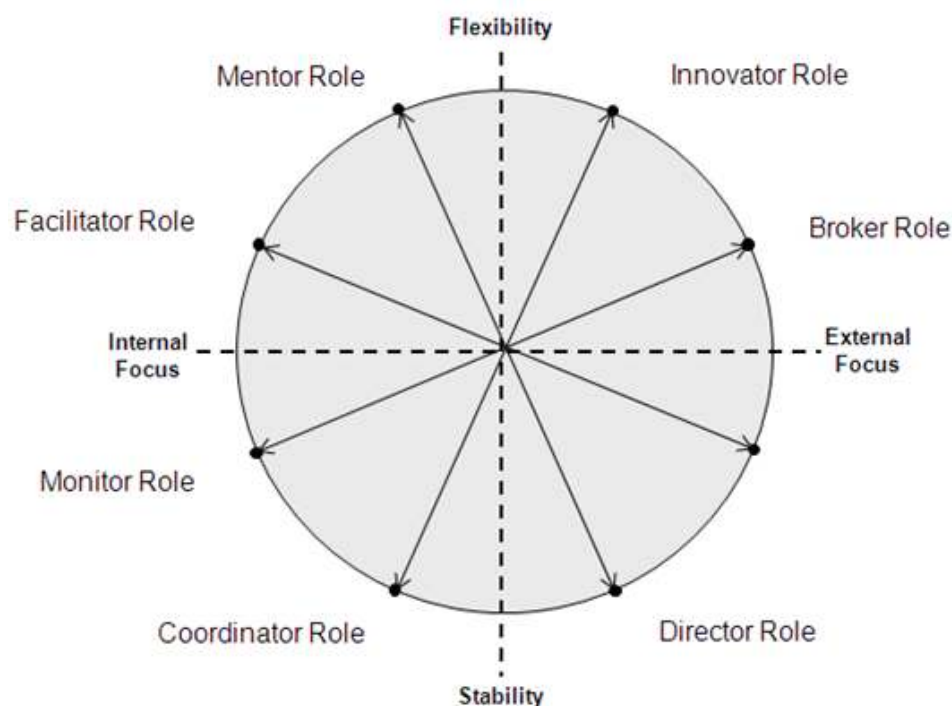


Figure 11. The eight roles of a manager-leader. Adapted from Quinn et al. (2003: p. 16)



Finally, as an innovator the manager-leader is required to make adaptations and change very easy and smooth using induction, ideas and intuitive insights. In a broker's role, a manager-leader is expected to effectively maintain external legitimacy and external resources by being politically astute, persuasive, influential and powerful (Quinn et al., 2003, pp. 16-19). This framework presents a combination of leadership roles (visioning, facilitating, mentoring, and stewarding) and management roles (monitoring, achieving, brokering and directing) that are not in contrast to one another but rather allows us to view a manager-leader in any or many roles.

Before identifying the roles and competencies of an effective manager-leader, it is pertinent that various competencies associated with a manager and a leader are discussed and understood. This leads us to a discussion on the concept of competencies first followed by competencies, roles and responsibilities of a manager-leader.

## **Competencies**

### **Concept**

The competency approach is one of the most suitable approaches for focussing on organization performance through developing the right behaviour and skills for the job (Antonacopoulou & Fitzgerald, 1996). The credit for competency-based approaches within the corporate environment goes to David McClelland, who suggested tests such as interpersonal sensitivity, cross-cultural positive regards and management skills to judge the performance of officers, and differentiate superior officers from average officers (Draganidis & Mentzas, 2006).

### **Definitions**

Many definitions have been proposed throughout the literature in trying to explain what competency is and what its attributes are. Boyatzis (1982) defined competency as underlying characteristics of an individual that are causally related to effective job performance. He argues that competency is a set of related but different sets of behaviour organized around "intent". Performance and measurable performance forms the basis for the concept of competency and it is believed that the

performance is optimum when a person's capability is in agreement with the demands of job and business environment. *Competency is thus the interplay between a person's values, job demands and business environment.* The capability of a person is described by his or her values, vision and personal philosophy combined with knowledge, competencies, life and career stage, interests and style whereas job demands represent role responsibilities and tasks requirements. The final element, the business environment includes culture and climate, structure and systems, industry maturity and strategic positioning, and larger context of the business atmosphere like the economic, political, social, environmental, and religious values (Boyatzis, 1982; 2008).

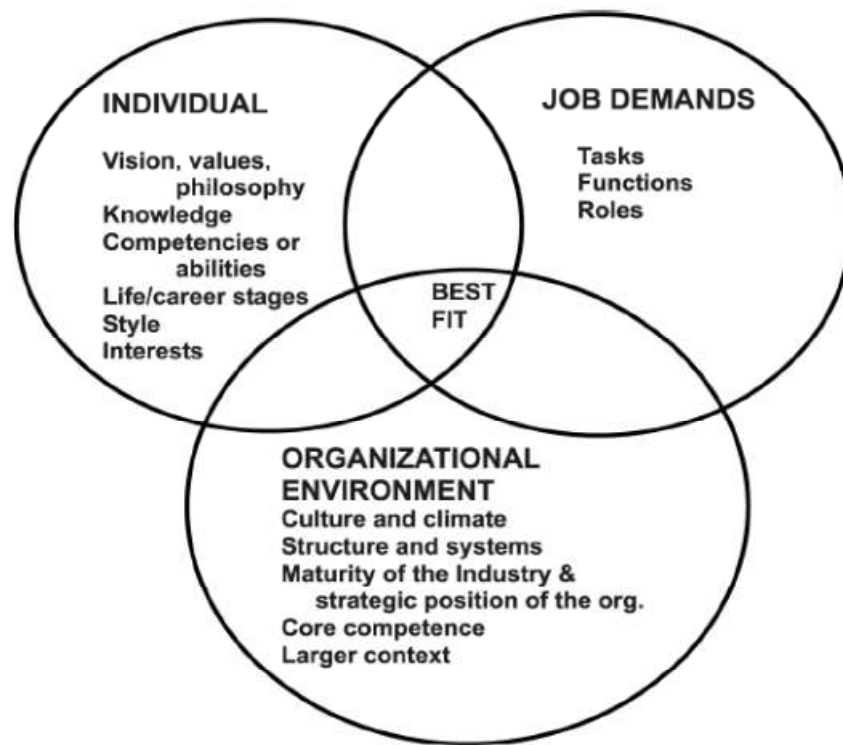


Figure 12. Competency as interplay between a person's values, job demands and business environment. Adapted from Boyatzis (2008: p. 7).

While competence and/or competency assessment systems are fundamental tools for the success and effectiveness of any organization, most of the modern organizations differentiate between these two concepts (Cheng, Dainty, & Moore, 2005). Woodruffe (1993) agrees that competency often concerns the behaviour of people—dimension of behaviour relevant to performance of a job that a few people carry out better than others. According to Marrelli (1998), competencies are those

human capabilities that can be measured and which are necessary for effective performance of a task; whereas Dubois (1998) defines competency as characteristics, knowledge, skills, mindsets, and thought-patterns that result in successful performance of a task. Iverson (2000) adopted “approach” as a variable to classify competencies as behavioural, standards and situational. He has also differentiated between the terms competence and competency; the former refers to the technical aspects related to job (technical skills, knowledge and abilities) and the latter term is more related to behaviours people need to display to carry out a job effectively. Thus, in simple words competencies are “about what people *are and can do*, not what *they do*” (Palani, 2003: p. 6), whereas competence refers to “what individuals *do in their job*, and not what they are in terms of what drives them” (Palani, 2003: p.14).

### **Types of Competencies**

There are different types of competencies. Competencies can be classified as threshold and performance competencies based on the behavioural traits and ability to perform a job (Boyatzis, 1982). Threshold competencies are defined by generic knowledge, motive, trait, self image, social role, and the way a job is performed (examples: expertise and experience, declarative, procedural, and functional knowledge, memory and deductive reasoning) (Boyatzis, 1982, p. 23). Performance competencies, on the other hand, are those competencies that distinguish an average performer from a superior performer. Examples of performance competencies include cognitive (systems thinking and pattern recognition), emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, self-control), and social competencies (social awareness and relationship management) (Boyatzis, 1982, p. 24). Various other researchers have acknowledged performance competencies as the criteria for differentiating an outstanding performer from an average performer (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Kotter, 2001; Luthans, Hodgetts, & Rosenkrantz, 1988).

Competencies can be also distinguished based on functionalities, for example, *managerial-leadership competencies* — skills, knowledge, abilities and personal characteristics required for effective managerial performance (Albanese, 1989, p. 66). McLagan (1997) viewed competencies as a combination of attitudes, skills,

knowledge, tasks, outputs, and results; and distinguished five different types of competencies:

- *Task competencies*—competencies required for manageable tasks thereby eliminating performance variability and spreading best practices.
- *Result competencies*--relate competencies required by an employee's ability to obtain a specific result.
- *Output competencies*—individual or group competencies required to deliver a service or product.
- *Knowledge, skills, and attitude competencies*—competencies referring to attitudes, values, orientations, specific subject matter, and process abilities.
- *Superior performance competencies* refer to qualities of a superior performer and help to distinguish between an average performer and a superior performer (McLagan, 1997).

*Competencies serve to link perceived performance, anticipated future performance and expected performance* (Antonacopoulou & Fitzgerald, 1996).

### **Can Competencies Be Developed?**

Competencies, a domain of human talent, can be developed in adulthood or for that matter at any stage of human growth as evidenced in the literature (Hubble, Duncan, & Miller, 1999 (effects of psychotherapy), Kanfer & Goldstein, 1991 (self-help programs), Barlow, 1988 (cognitive behaviour therapy), Morrow, Jarrett, & Rupinski, 1997 (training programs). A series of longitudinal studies carried out by the Weatherhead School of Management of Case Western Reserve University have shown that changes can be brought in people with regard to a complex set of competencies often referred to as emotional and social intelligence competencies—these are the competencies that distinguish exceptional performers in management and professions (Boyatzis, Stubbs, & Taylor, 2002).

Thus, competencies are not a measure of competence but the foundation for building assessment of abilities. However, competencies are not a description of the levels at which individuals are expected to perform. It is very critical to understand the difference between competence and competency to understand the role of the competency framework which represents an integrated whole relying on the

interaction of individual competency. Competency is measured as “the outcome of the judgments made in each situation based on the ability to integrate knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values shaping judgments” (Canadian Interprofessional Health Collaborative, 2010: p. 31).

## **Competency Models**

### **Concept and Significance**

There have been several studies and research on competency modelling spanning various functional areas and industries including nursing, management, hospitality, accounting, to name a few (Ennis, 2008; Jirasinghe & Lyons, 1995; McLagan, 1997; McLean & McLean, 2001; Prahlad & Hamel, 1994; Rothwell & Lindholm, 1999). Lucia and Lepsinger (1999) define a competency model as “a descriptive tool that identifies the knowledge, skills, abilities, and behaviour needed to perform effectively in an organization”. A competency model can comprise a number of individual competencies depending upon the work and organizational environment and it is important that the distinction between job analysis and competency modelling is understood clearly (Schippmann et al., 2000). The authors identified nine criteria to compare competency modelling with job analysis and emphasised that competency modelling focuses on organization in larger context by linking the competencies to organization context. Competency models help in planning and development of human resources activities, performance evaluation, training and development, selection, career development and succession planning (Viitala, 2005). A competency model helps to organize individual competencies and enables people to understand, discuss, and apply competencies in a way that benefits an organization’s performance (Hoge, Tondora, & Marrelli, 2005). Competency models enable a business or organization to clearly articulate their workforce needs, define job requirements of employees at different levels, share an understanding of performance appraisal systems, help to develop knowledge, skills, and abilities in line with the organizational values and vision, manage changing industry trends, communicate effectively about training and retraining needs and assist employees in matching their skills with the employer work environments, provide a common language to measure skills, and help to link development activities to goals (Ennis, 2008: pp. 5—7; Fulmer & Conger, 2004: p. 111).

## **Types of Competencies Models**

There are many formats and ways of organizing a competency model—based on core competencies, types of competencies like leadership, personal effectiveness, technical capacity, or based on job level (Marrelli, Tondora, & Hoge, 2005).

The first competency model was developed by David McClelland (1994) along with his associates while working for McBer and Company. The model provided insights about focusing on outstanding performers, use of behavioural event interview and thematic analysis of data. Mansfield (1996) reviewed the approaches for building competency models from a human resource point of view. The author analysed the most commonly used approaches to competency model building before suggesting a “multiple-job approach” to competency model building. Single-job competency model is a way to improve and develop a job that is critical for success of the organization while one-size fits all competency models describe simple and unifying frameworks. The multiple-job approach for developing competency model allows incorporation of common conceptual framework and customization for individual jobs. The multiple-job approach competency model also facilitates comparison of employee profiles with multiple jobs while also allowing comparison of competency models with each other (Mansfield, 1996).

The American context of competency model identifies seven content or knowledge skills along with eight personal characteristics competencies like oral communication and self objectivity (Albanese, 1989). It is largely based on the works of McClelland (1973), Boyatzis (1982), and Spencer and Spencer (1993), and focuses on five thematic clusters (motives, traits, self-concept, knowledge, and skill) containing approximately 18 competencies, linking competence with a deeper underlying structure (Iles, 1993).

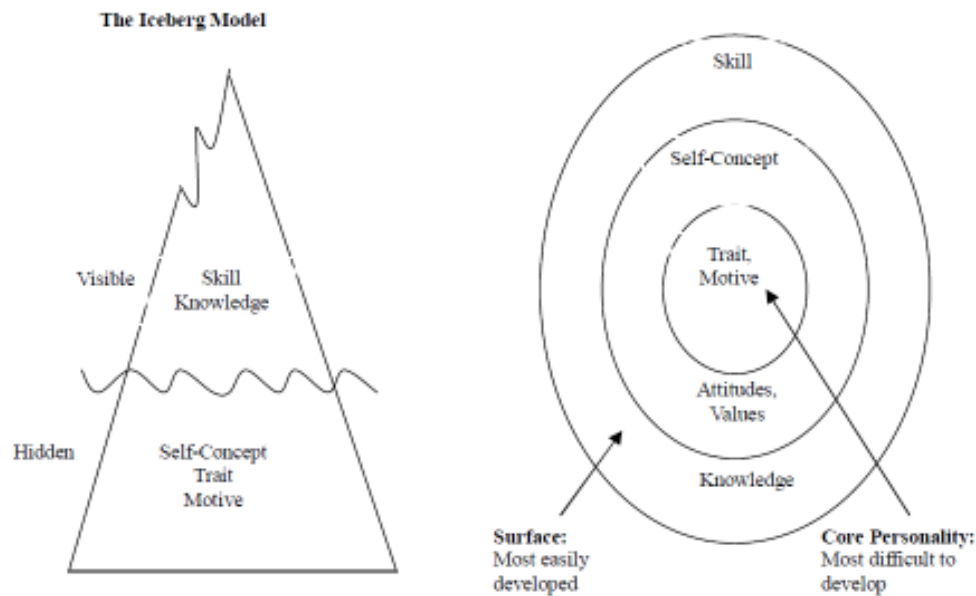


Figure 13. The Iceberg model and the central-surface competencies. Adapted from Spencer and Spencer (1993: p. 11).

Widely known as the “Iceberg Model”, the five competency clusters help to develop a person’s orientation towards efficiency. Motives are the things a person wants and drives behaviour and action towards the goal a person wants to achieve. Traits are physical characteristics and developed in response to situations, information and context. Self-concept is about a person’s self-image, attitudes, values and qualities. Knowledge is what a person perceives and the information gathered while skills represent the ability to perform a task or job. Among these five thematic clusters, only knowledge and skills are visible and represent relatively surface characteristics of people whereas self-concept, trait, and motive competencies are hidden, not easily discernible, deeper and central to a person’s personality.

Spencer and Spencer (1993) argue that surface knowledge and skills can be easily developed through training, but core motives and traits of a person are the most difficult to assess and develop. Attitudes, values and self-concept of a person can be changed through training and positive developmental exercises though this may require longer time and could be quite challenging.

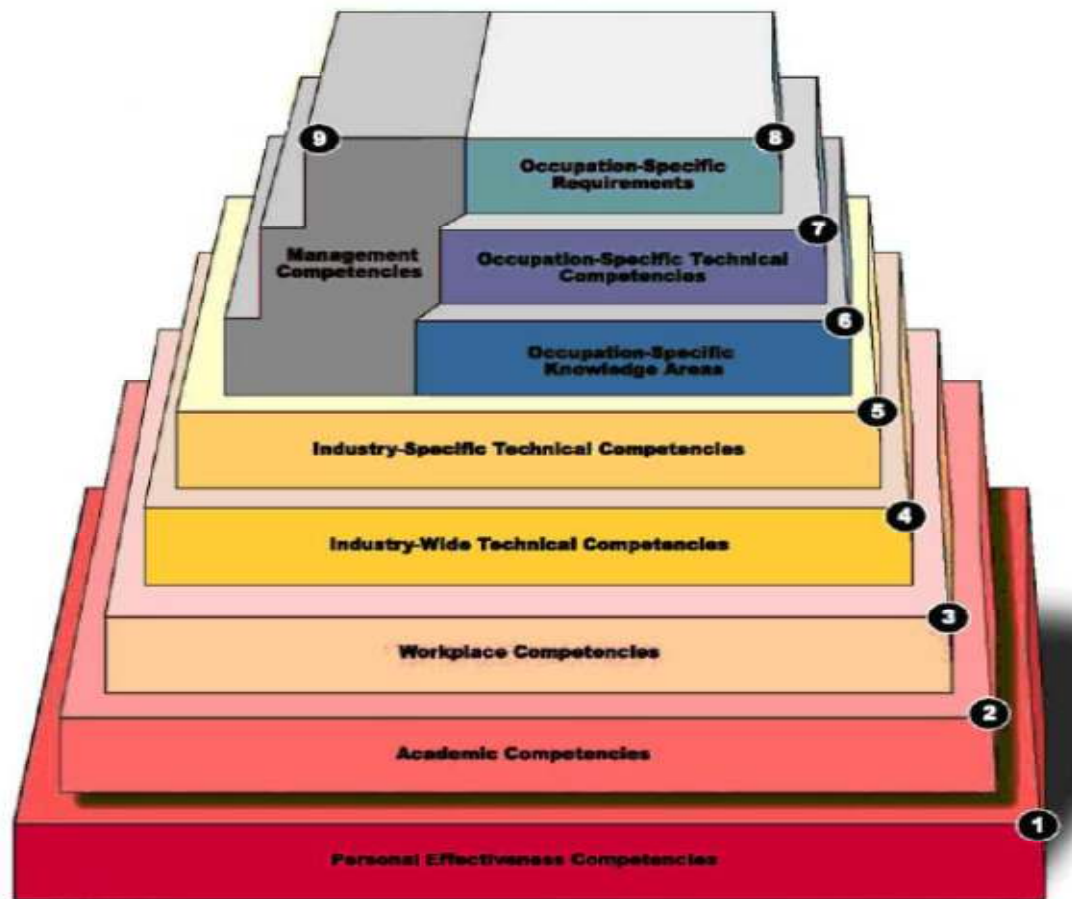


Figure 14. The nine tiers of a competency model. Adapted from Ennis (2008).

A generic and effective competency model as the one developed by the Employment and Training Administration (ETA), USA, consists of nine tiers with the lower tiers serving as the building blocks for higher tiers.

The lower tiers represent basic foundational competencies like personal effectiveness (interpersonal skills, integrity, professionalism, initiative, dependability and reliability, and willingness to learn), academic competencies (reading, writing, general mathematical ability, science and technology, communication, critical and analytical thinking, active learning at the workplace) and workplace competencies (teamwork, flexibility, adaptability, customer focus, planning and organizing, creative thinking and problem solving, decision-making, using technology). These three competencies arranged in tiers are joined by industry-related competencies (industry-wide technical competencies and industry-specific technical competencies) and the occupation-related competencies (occupation-specific knowledge competencies, occupation-specific technical competencies, occupation-specific



requirement competencies, and management competencies) (Ennis, 2008). The management competencies as identified by the ETA, USA includes principal activities like staffing, information dissemination, delegation, networking, monitoring, entrepreneurship, motivation and inspiration to team members and subordinates, development and mentoring of staff, strategic planning and action, budget preparation and evaluation, role and objectives clarification to team members and subordinates, conflict resolution and team-building exercises, developing organization vision and developing strategies to achieve that vision, monitoring, controlling and allocating resources (Ennis, 2008).

There are two major categories of competency modelling: identifying individual competencies like knowledge, skills, and abilities required for a job and core competencies of an organization (Nair & Egan, 2010). These authors argue that though there has been an established strong link between competency modelling and organizational context, none of the definitions of competency includes the organizational aspect. They have defined competency as “knowledge, skills, personal attributes and organizational context needed for successful performance in an organization”. Personal attributes include attitudes, personal values, motives, and personality factors while the organizational context include an individual’s perception about mission, vision, goals and values of the organization and the alignment of the individual’s goals and values with the organization’s mission, vision, goals and values (Nair & Egan, 2010: p. 182). They proposed a four-domain competency model—the knowledge domain, skills and abilities domain, personal attributes and organizational context.

Competency models can also be classified into three types based on the approach adopted to develop them: a research-based approach, a strategy-based approach, and a value-based approach (Briscoe & Hall, 1999). The research-based approach focuses on behavioural research and is developed by interviewing high-performer executives and identifying behavioural examples indicators of their success. These are then grouped into primary competencies, secondary competencies, and indicators, which together constitute a competency model (Briscoe & Hall, 1999; Emiliani, 2003). The strategy-based approach focuses on the strategic direction of the organization as the driver and is future oriented. It

emphasises learning new skills and can help organizations in transformation (Briscoe & Hall, 1999). When a competency model is based on the cultural values of the organization, it is called a value-based approach. This approach has benefits like “company values may provide stability and a consistent approach to conducting business, learning, meeting customer needs, and leading that is able to weather and even proactively shape trends in the business environment” (Briscoe & Hall, 1999: p. 44).

### **Management-Leadership Competencies**

Management is a highly complex process including job criteria that is extremely ambiguous at the managerial level and is marked by a clear absence of standardization (Dowd, 2000; Olshfski & Cunningham, 1986). It has also been difficult to measure the performance of a manager and establish relationships between managerial performance and knowledge acquired through training or through exposure to work practices (Whitley, 1989). However, the basic idea of a competence framework, behaviours, skills, and how knowledge applicable to a given job can be identified and quantified, holds good for managerial positions as well. Though there may be limitations to extrapolating a competency-based framework for management because of complex functions, non-linear, and non-transitive skills (Olshfski & Cunningham, 1986), the competence framework helps to produce greater standardization in training as it links acquired competence and performance, with few exceptions (Winterton & Winterton, 1997).

The central theme of this thesis is to examine the managerial-leadership competencies of the managers in the UAE multinational and multicultural organizational environment influenced by culture, gender, and sector. To that end, it is imperative that before delving into what are the typical managerial-leadership competencies, it is necessary that the job responsibilities and tasks associated with managers be understood clearly. A manager, originally, was considered from the perspective of a general manager and was expected to carry out tasks related to planning, organizing, command, coordination and control (Fayol, 1916 quoted in Nienaber, 2010). Besides these primary tasks, a manager was also expected to undertake secondary management tasks like communicating, motivating and decision making (Nienaber, 2010). Although these are the classical views about the

roles and responsibilities of a manager, the reality is far beyond this and in the current scenario a manager is expected to do much more than the classically defined framework for a manager (Mintzberg, 1990). The sections below are a comprehensive account of various schools of thought about a manager, his/her profile and responsibilities.

### **Manager-Leader—Definition, concepts, responsibilities, and roles.**

Henri Fayol (1916) was first to conceptualize that a manager's job is to plan, organize, coordinate and control. But these four words are in no way all the work a manager does; at the best it is only an indication of vague objectives of a manager at work (Mintzberg, 1990: Reprint of original article that appeared in 1975). Mintzberg studied the daily activities of managers at work from various backgrounds like foremen, factory supervisors, staff managers, field sales managers, hospital administrators, presidents of companies and nations and many more, from the United States, Canada, Sweden, and Great Britain (Mintzberg, 1990). His observations were quite contrary to popular myths about a manager's job. He observed that quite contrary to the generally held notion that a manager is a reflective and systematic planner, a manager is in fact "strongly oriented to action and dislikes reflective activities" (Mintzberg, 1990: p. 164).

An effective manager definitely has regular duties to perform quite opposite to popularly held beliefs about managerial work. A manager is often required to plan, delegate, and orchestrate everything in advance to promote his/her business. He is also expected to participate in rituals and ceremonies, and process soft information which acts as a vital link between the organization and its environment (Mintzberg, 1990). It is not true that a manager's requirement of aggregated information about a particular job or business can be met by information readily available on management information system (MIS). While a manager may depend upon the details and figures provided by the MIS to base his/her calculations and plan, he places equal emphasis on verbal media, phone calls, and meetings. Yet another misconception about management is that it is a science and a profession. However, on the contrary, Mintzberg (1990) argues that "the managers' program to schedule time, process information, make decisions and so on remain locked deep inside their brains." In fact, these programs work, based on judgement and intuition.

Having contradicted and clearly differentiated the myths and realities about a manager's role through his study, the author observes that a manager is best described by the roles he/she performs and he classified these roles into ten roles that were grouped as three interpersonal roles, three informational roles and four decisional roles. Thus, a manager in any capacity (foreman, president, business head) performs the figurehead roles when attending to ceremonial duties; a leader's role when being responsible for the work of the people in his/her unit (hiring and training their own staff, motivating and encouraging employees); and a liaison role when as a manager he/she makes contacts outside the vertical chain of command. A manager is also expected to perform informational roles by virtue of his/her interpersonal contacts. Thus, as a manager he/she has to perform like a monitor, "perpetually scanning the environment for information, interrogating liaison contacts and subordinates, and receiving unsolicited information, much of it as a result of the network of personal contacts" (Mintzberg, 1990: p. 169). The manager performs the role of a disseminator when he/she passes some privileged information to subordinates who would have no access to such information otherwise; and acts as a spokesperson when he/she sends some information outside the unit. A manager has four decisional roles to perform: as an entrepreneur, he/she initiates changes in an organization to improve it and make it adaptable to an ever-changing environment; as a disturbance handler, responds to pressure, unforeseen events like strike, a cancelled contract, an associate going bankrupt, and so on; as a resource allocator, manages the distribution of resources among the staff and also is largely responsible for a pattern of formal relationship among the employees; and finally as a negotiator, spends considerable time in negotiating, be it negotiating between conflicting employees or departments or negotiating with the management (Mintzberg, 1990).

The author concludes that these ten roles are just a guideline and the performance of a manager regarding as an effective manager is more influenced by his/her insight into the work more than anything else. To sum up, a manager's job includes reactivity, brevity, face-to-face interaction and fragmentation. This was one of the earliest comprehensive works on a manager's role and remains relevant in today's context. Much of the development on competencies of a manager was predominantly based on his work.

Kotter (1982) also worked on the job profile of managers and observed that effective managers are those that are able to overcome the two basic dilemmas: “figuring out what to do” against great uncertainty and information overload, and “getting things done” against a gap between the limited authority they possess and the expected authority needed to fulfil the responsibilities. An effective manager uses his/her planning skills to develop agendas and goals and networks with people and relationship opportunistically to implement the agendas while establishing a track record of success and using intelligent facts about the organization.

Hales (1986; p. 95) critically reviewed the work of six researchers (Hemphill, Mintzberg, Pheysey, Sayles, Kotter and Stewart) and put up a list of elements that form the managerial work attributes. He concluded that managers perform both technical and administrative functions, which can be summarised as acting as a figurehead and leader of the unit; liaison through formation and maintenance of contacts; monitoring, filtering and disseminating the information; resource allocation, maintaining workflows and addressing problems and concerns at work; negotiation; innovation; planning; and controlling, co-ordinating and directing subordinates.

Contributing to the existing literature on successful and effective managers, Luthans (1990) opines that a successful manager is one who gets promoted rapidly, whereas an effective manager is one who heads high-performing units with satisfied and committed subordinates. However, both groups of managers perform the following activities: communication, traditional management, human resource management, and networking. Communication includes exchanging information and paperwork either through receiving and disseminating requested information, processing mail, and general deskwork. Traditional management includes activities like planning, decision-making, controlling and coordinating through setting goals and objectives, scheduling employees, defining problems and managing day to day operational crises, inspectional work, and preventive maintenance. Human resource management consists of “motivating/reinforcing, managing conflict, staffing, and training/developing” (p. 129) through allocation of formal rewards, listening to suggestions, conveying appreciation, group support, conflict management, coaching, mentoring, training and development, clarifying job descriptions, creating a positive

work environment and liaising with higher authorities for support. Networking is another important activity of a manager and it includes socializing, politicking, and interacting with others with an aim to work for the betterment of the organization through non-work-related chats, participating in and discussing rumours, and hearsay on the grapevine and at times politicking and gamesmanship.

Each of the researcher's observations has overlapping ideas and it may not be possible at the outset to conclude that a set of activities or qualities described by one researcher is more apt than the other. While all of them definitely contribute to the management literature, each of them also has limitations. Both Kotter and Mintzberg rejected the classical management theory about the role of a manager put forth by Fayol. Mintzberg failed to address the relationship between managerial behaviour and managerial effectiveness whereas Kotter studied a small sample of effective managers who were not compared with ineffective managers (Lipshitz & Nevo, 1992). Thus, there may be no general answer describing a manager's work, role, responsibilities and accountabilities. It may be context specific and in many cases depend upon the situation (Boyatzis, 1982; Yukl et al., 1990).

Easterby-Smith (1994: p. 10) drew upon contemporary research on managerial work and suggested the following summary of key managerial responsibilities and aspects. According to him, the managerial work is complex and variable and the most dominating role of a manager is to deal with unprogrammed problems. Furthermore, managerial skills involve ordering, co-ordinating through creation of a similar order and co-ordination among peers. Finally, a manager should be able to move rapidly, adapt quickly and have the agility to move and work across technical, cultural, and functional boundaries with equal ease and poise.

Mintzberg (1994: p. 22) has noted that an effective manager follows the "think-link-lead-do" model, which includes various roles and styles a manager may adopt suiting the context and personal style. He observed that depending upon the roles or aspects of the job, a manager can follow a *conceptual style of management* where the main focus is on the development of a frame for the job; an *administrative style of management* when the main focus is on controlling; an *interpersonal management style* when the primary concern is leading on the inside or linking on the outside; an *action style management* when the focus is mainly tangible results-

oriented (Mintzberg, 1994: p. 24). The authors further suggest that a management style may be managing up (cerebral and deductive—maintaining good relations with superiors of the hierarchy, less of doing and more of leading) or managing down (maintaining the internal operation by a certain amount of doing along with a good deal of leading and controlling bound commonly by “spirit of hive”—involved and insightful).

Schermerhorn (2001) commented on the requirements of managers of this century, saying “The managers of the 21<sup>st</sup> century will have to excel as never before to meet the expectations held of them and of the organizations they lead”. For a manager to attain sustained success, knowledge of right tactics and its employability is desirable. A manager needs to use strategies and tactics to move to the top irrespective of talent, skill and intelligence. As a manager, one should be able to identify one’s flaws and fix them, and beyond that, discover one’s strength and cultivate them. In order to excel, a manager as a person, needs to have talents and skills of both leaders and managers. He/she needs to select good people, define and communicate his/her expectations clearly to people, recognize and praise excellence whenever due, and show care for the people (Buckingham, 2005b).

Just as in the past, in today’s context communicating ideas, information and decision making is still considered important managerial tasks (Gentry, Harris, Baker, & Leslie, 2008). In addition, what is more relevant today is maintaining relationships and inter-personal skills (Gentry et al., 2008), focussing less time on administrative duties due to advances in technology, and flattening of hierarchies in organizations (Tengblad, 2006). Time management is presumably more important in today’s business environment than it was some 15 years ago (Gentry et al., 2008).

Managerial-leadership roles and responsibilities are management-level specific also (Lussier, 2008: p. 15). Top managers, representing people in executive positions like the chief executive officer, president or vice-president, are accountable for managing the entire organization or a large part of it, and are responsible for developing and defining purpose, objectives, long-term plans, and strategies—they provide strategic direction to the organization. Mostly reporting to the board of directors, they supervise the activities of middle managers (Lussier, 2008: p. 15). Middle level managers are mostly responsible for developing short-term operating

plans to implement the strategy provided by the top-level managers. Reporting to the top-level managers, the middle level managers supervise the work of first-line managers (Lussier, 2008: p. 16). These managers are characterized by a strong understanding of the overall strategy of the organization with a commitment to implement strategies given by the top-level managers. In fact, these managers serve as a link between the first-line managers and the top managers. First-line managers are the ones who are usually one-on-one with the subordinates. These managers are responsible for communicating and implementing the operational plans of the middle level managers. They mostly report to middle managers and are responsible for the supervisory work of the operative employees (Lussier, 2008). These managers have the primary responsibility of producing the products and ensuring smooth delivery of the products and services to the customers on a daily basis.

To conclude, it can be said that a manager-leader is one “who uses authority and reason for efficient and effective problem solving and to mobilize, coordinate, and control organizational resources by the use of standardized procedures that are a part of organizational policy (Prevodnik & Biloslavo, 2009). Additionally, future managers will have to be global strategists, masters of technology, consummate politicians and leaders/motivators. Lussier (2008: p. 6) puts it succinctly; a manager is “the individual responsible for achieving organizational objectives through efficient and effective utilization of resources”. He uses human, financial, physical, and informational resources to achieve the same. Therefore, to be a successful manager, one needs to have management skills, which are primarily an amalgamation of technical skills, decision-making skills, and interpersonal skills.

### **Manager-Leader—Competencies types.**

Wexley and Klimoski (1984) have defined managerial competence as “a characteristic of an individual that leads to behaviours that meet the job demands within the parameters of the organizational environment and that, in turn, bring about desired results” (p. 79). Competence, performance, effectiveness, and capabilities are conceptually closely linked, and are also linked to the ability of a manager to perform effectively in different situations and environmental settings (Sims & Sauser, 1985). Managerial-leadership competencies are a representation of skills, knowledge and behaviours shown at a specific level of proficiency by managers



(Evers, Rush, & Berdrow, 1998); in various positions and various kinds of organizations (Hellriegel, Jackson, & Slocum, 2009). A management competency framework is a tool that distinguishes individual and organizational competencies from the mission and vision of the organization and also assists the organization in selection, management development, career planning of employees, performance measurement and succession planning (Antonacopoulou & Fitzgerald, 1996).

Boyatzis (1982) identified several traits of a good manager in his book “The Competent Manager”. According to him a competent and effective manager should have:

- *Efficiency orientation*: a concern for doing something better. A good manager should play the role of an innovator, set challenging and realistic goals, plan and organize efficiently while expressing concern for doing things better.
- *Proactivity*: Disposition towards taking action to accomplish the set goal or task, will be proactive in taking action rather than waiting for development of a situation and initiating action, communication, proposals and directives to complete the task.
- *Diagnostic use of concepts*: Ability of a manager to figure out things, analyse situations, establish patterns through application of concepts and theoretical principles.
- *Concern with impact*: Ability of a manager to influence others through deeds and speech. He should have orientation for power status not just for oneself but also for one's unit and organization.
- *Self-confidence*: Exhibit self-confidence through being forceful, unhesitating and being impressive. His/her decisions and actions should speak for clarity of mind and thought processes without being arrogant and defensive.
- *Effective communicator*: Highly effective and convincing presentation skills.
- *Use of socialized power*: A good manager should use the position's power and influence to develop social contacts, network, alliances, coalitions, and political networks. He/she should be able to relate well to superiors and set an

example for his/her subordinates while showcasing his/her ability to gain co-operation and support from his/her team members.

- *Managing group process*: A competent manager should motivate others to work as a team. He should be the focal point of communicating to the group the need of cooperation and instilling values such as group identity, pride and trust. He should be able to resolve any conflicting situation by involving all members involved in the conflict and providing an unbiased and fair solution to the conflict.
- *Accurate self-assessment*: Possess a realistic view about oneself and aptly acknowledge both strengths and weaknesses. Besides, he should be free from egoistic inclinations and be willing to admit error and seek help (Boyatzis, 1982).

These traits are further grouped into three main clusters and a manager's competencies are interaction between these three clusters—the goal and action management centre, the leadership cluster and the human resource management centre. The goal and action management centre which includes efficiency orientation, proactivity, diagnostic use of concepts and concern with impact is mostly associated with middle and top level management while directing the subordinate cluster, which includes competencies like use of unilateral power, spontaneity, and developing others and is mostly shown by top management (Boyatzis, 1982).

Yukl et al. (1990) suggest 11 categories of best practices as a guideline for effective managers:

- *Informing*: disseminating relevant information as and when needed, answering queries and requests for technical information and keeping the team updated about any organizational event that affects the stake of the organization positively.
- *Consulting and delegating*: An effective manager is a team player and checks with people before making any changes, seeks their suggestions and ideas while giving them the space for their own discretionary power.

- *Planning and organizing*: All researchers studying management tasks have agreed to this role of a manager, though in different degrees. A good manager should be able to plan for long-term objectives and strategies, determine and allocate resources efficiently and effectively, working towards improving the performance and productivity of the organization, and coordinating with other parts of the organization.
- *Problem solving*: A manager's effectiveness lies in identifying work-related problems, analysing them and providing a systematic solution to the problems.
- *Clarifying roles and objectives*: A good manager should be efficient in assigning tasks, providing instructions and directions about how the work can be done, communicating the job role and responsibilities clearly, setting clear task objectives, deadlines and performance expectations.
- *Monitoring operations and environment*: A manager should be proactive in gathering information about work activities, monitoring the progress of work, anticipating problems and providing solutions, evaluating the performance of workers and detect threats and opportunities to the business.
- *Motivating*: A manager should use motivating techniques like emotion, values and logic to motivate the employees and generate enthusiasm for the work and commitment to task objectives. He should also comply with requests for cooperation, assistance, support and resources from the team members.
- *Recognizing and rewarding*: A manager should provide unbiased praise, recognition, acknowledgement for effective performance and achievements.
- *Supporting and mentoring*: An effective manager is expected to act in a friendly and consistent manner, showing sympathy and support to workers and team members.
- *Managing conflict and team building*: A good manager should encourage and facilitate constructive resolution of any conflict and should promote co-operation, teamwork and good organization culture practices.

- *Networking*: An efficient manager should socialize informally and place emphasis on developing contacts with people who could be a good source of information. They are also required to maintain contacts through social visits, telephone calls, ceremonial gatherings not just with contemporaries but also with subordinates (Yukl et al., 1990).

Lipshitz and Nevo (1992) studied attributes of an efficient manager and concluded that a good manager should keep promises, be honest, reliable, dependable, be willing to invest personal effort to advance any task or project, set a personal example, motivate subordinates to follow, be a team player, understand the appropriateness and suitability of delegation, set appropriate priorities for action, formulate clear and unambiguous policies that are realistic also, understand the difference between essential and non-essential aspects of an issue. In addition, a manager should essentially think in a business-like fashion, and be capable of identifying potential economic opportunities. He should also be capable of identifying future trends and developments and promote exchange of information (Lipshitz & Nevo, 1992).

Hunt and Wallace (1997) conducted a meta-analysis (24 studies) of the managerial and leadership competencies models and identified 91 competencies related to modern managerial and leadership practices, which were later grouped under six units: future orientation and strategic management; administrative and operations management; leadership and team building; problem solving, decision making and self management; political skills - persuasion and influence; and organizational and environmental awareness. These skills are important for today's managers also and hold true irrespective of any cultural context.

Lange et al. (2003) identified the following ten competencies directly related to the successful managerial performance based on input from human resource managers, industrial psychologists, senior management consultants, and various focus groups managers: developing and empowering others; teamwork; building and maintaining relationship; objective setting and management control; judgment; analysis; commercial orientation; concern for excellence; customer service orientation; and decisiveness and execution. The authors argue that "the reliability, validity, and usefulness of performance assessment procedures could be enhanced by

the use of competency-based approach to defining performance criteria and by the use of multi-dimensional and multiple-rater techniques such as 360 degree performance assessment method” (p. 41).

Quinn et al. (2003) have identified eight managerial-leadership roles and 24 competencies associated with them. The 24 competencies of a managerial-leader are:

- Mentor role:
  - Understanding self and others,
  - Effective communication,
  - Employee development
- Facilitator role
  - Team building
  - Participative decision making
  - Conflict resolution
- Monitor role
  - Individual performance monitoring
  - Managing and maintaining collective performance and processes
  - Information analysis
- Coordinator role
  - Project management
  - Work designing
  - Cross-functions management
- Director role
  - Vision development and communication
  - Objective setting
  - Designing and organizing
- Producer role
  - Productive working
  - Maintaining a productive work environment
  - Effective management of time and stress
- Broker role
  - Presenting ideas
  - Power base maintenance
  - Negotiating
- Innovator role
  - Creative thinking

- Change management
- Living with change

An effective manager-leader is one who is able to perform multiple roles in a given environmental context.

Further adding to the importance of a competence-based approach to evaluate a successful manager, Grzeda (2005) contends that competence “adds an additional conceptual layer to the dynamics of the managerial process” (p. 531) and notes that there are two dimensions to competence models: competence may be dependent or independent to managerial behaviour, and the other dimension being that competence may be generic or organic. When competency is treated as an independent variable of the managerial behaviour, then it is expressed variously and interchangeably using terms like skill (Carroll & Gillen, 1987), self-concept and knowledge (Spencer & Spencer, 1993), and ability to do a job (manage) (Iles, 1993), or task competence (Price & Garland, 1981). Managerial competencies are considered generic when the identified competencies (relatively a small number) can be applied to all managerial positions (Evarts, 1988; Parry, 1998) whereas they are considered organic when competencies are regarded as unique virtues aided by social interactions (Antonacopoulou & FitzGerald, 1996). Some of the generic managerial competencies include six recurring managerial competencies (Akin, 1987), threshold competencies (Boyatzis, 1982), core leadership competencies (Conger, 1993; Scholtes, 1999), androgynous management style competencies (Sargent & Stupak, 1989). Organic competencies are seen in unique to specific types of organizations and more often influenced by social constructions.

The organic competencies represent a source of competitive advantage (Lado & Wilson, 1994) and a strong source of interpersonal networks (Nordhaug, 1998). Grzeda (2005) argues that an organization needs a balanced mix of generic and organic managerial competencies to succeed. While organic competencies provide competitive advantage to the organization, generic competencies supported by management education definitely add to the basic foundation for a managerial task. Further, the author strongly advocates that moving beyond competence and focusing on elements that directly contribute to managerial behaviour is more important. Trying to explain competence in terms of standards and performances as done earlier

(Antonacopoulou & Fitzgerald, 1996) have diluted the significance of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and underlying characteristics (Grzeda, 2005). The organizations can focus on managerial learning, which is highly individualized and depends on the capacity of managers to apply learning to constantly changing conditions, and career development of managers to obtain and sustain competitive advantage (Grzeda, 2005).

Taking the importance of managerial-leadership competencies further, Camisón (2005) measured managerial capabilities based on distinctive competencies defined as the strategically relevant assets necessary for attainment and conservation of competitive advantage by any organization. Distinctive competencies are organized into two levels: functional competencies reflecting the use of management skills in different functions of value chain like marketing, operations, and finance; and inter-functional, and coordination competencies that include capabilities linked to integration of various functional activities of the organization (Fuchs, Mifflin, Miller, & Whitney, 2000; Lawson & Samson, 2001). The strategic importance of these competencies is due to their scarcity, durability, non-substitutability, inimitability, and rent appropriability (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Grant, 1991; Peteraf, 1993) and their ability to combine in various propositions to withstand any erosion of their values in the face of challenges from competitors (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997).

The distinctive competencies for managers include technical skills in context of managerial know-how and cognitive abilities of a manager guided by one's personal attributes, values, and personality traits (Nonaka & Konno, 1998, p. 42). This broad classification of managerial distinctive competencies is further differentiated into various distinct units like skills and knowledge required for top managers, problem solving capacity, resource allocation through creativity, creation of opportunities, situation-based advantageous decisions, manager's leadership qualities, stimulating change, innovation, learning and development of competencies. A manager's leadership qualities determine effective acquisition, exploitation and development of resources and capabilities within the organization and the business environment, transformation of resources and capabilities into valuable products and value creation for all stakeholders (Lado, Boyd, & Wright, 1992). Camisón (2005)

argues that a distinct set of managerial competencies is a source of sustainable competitive advantage and is possessed by a manager on an individual basis.

Viitala (2005) drew upon work of various researchers and identified six clusters of managerial competencies: technical competencies; business competencies; knowledge management competencies; leadership competencies; social competencies; and intrapersonal competencies.

Viitala (2005) drew upon the work of Hogan and Warrenfeltz (2003) to define technical competencies as those competencies that a manager needs to handle job processes and functions effectively. He defined business competencies based on the work of Scholtes (1999) as the generic competencies that are needed for management-related work in any business and include strategic perception, decision making, board management, fair knowledge of systems, providing vision, mission and direction to the organization.

Knowledge management competencies highlight special current and future demands of managers because a manager was required to be proficient in not just handling the information efficiently at the personal level but also to be equally effective in information processing and learning and development at both the group and organizational level (Ellinger & Bostrom, 1999; Viitala, 2002). A few examples of knowledge management strategies are concept formation and conceptual flexibility, analytical understanding, problem solving and solution-finding skills (Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, & Marks, 2000; Viitala, 2005), learning, development and improvement skills (Scholtes, 1999).

The next competency, leadership, refers to the ability to lead people, showing a degree of power (Stogdill, 1974), capability to direct, support and involvement of people (House & Mitchell, 1974), empowering people besides managing diversity, supporting creativity and creating community feeling (Rosen, 1996). The leadership competencies overlap knowledge management and social competencies; a more closer relationship between subordinates and managers in an organization than seen in social competencies and when contrasted with knowledge management competencies, the leadership competencies focuses more on people issues (Viitala, 2005).



Social competencies or interpersonal competencies are a measure of a manager's social relations (Hogan & Warrenfeltz, 2003) and besides including a manager's ability to deal with people efficiently by understanding them (Scholtes, 1999), social judgement skills (Mumford et al., 2000), communication (Institute of Directors, 1995), people motivation, conflicts handling and resolving (Morse & Wagner, 1978), also include core areas of leadership and are therefore very important in achieving group or organizational goals.

Intrapersonal competencies are closely associated with the trait approach to leadership and include traits, social role, self-image, motives and values. There are three main components of intrapersonal competencies: core self-esteem, outlook towards authority, and self-control (Hogan & Warrenfeltz, 2003).

These six competencies help to identify and differentiate an efficient manager from an inefficient one. Viitala (2005) believed that a manager's own perception and intentions about one's development and growth is crucial to improve one's efficiency. With this central theme, the author studied the above mentioned six competencies as viewed by managers themselves and reported that managers perceived leadership and supervisory activities as the most urgent development areas among the managers. They also felt a strong need to develop general business skills such as strategic management, accounting, logistics, developing processes and functions and so on. Though interpersonal competencies and social competencies have been argued as highly important attributes of a successful manager, the managers studied did not think so.

Managerial-leadership competencies can be management level specific. Top level managers should have strong conceptual skills as the role demands processing of a tremendous amount of information about internal and external environments, link these two for the benefit of the organization, understand the functioning of the organization as a whole, as well as individual departments and branches and interrelationship among these departments and the effect it has on the organization as a whole. A strong conceptual skill is recommended for top level managers as they are trendsetters of a distinct personality or culture for their organizations. With the need for enhanced conceptual abilities, top level managers also need to be imbued with human and technical skills (Lewis, Goodman, Fandt, & Michlitsch, 2006).

The middle level managers need to have essentially strong human resource skills as their primary responsibility lies in planning and allocating resources, coordinating among various groups to get the task completed, and managing group performances through conflict resolution, communicating the needs of the group, liaising with other groups and the management; besides these, a middle level manager is also expected to possess technical and conceptual skills but not as high as human resource management skills (Lewis et al., 2006).

The first line managers need to have high levels of technical skills (knowledge of tools, techniques, processes of a particular product or service) besides having human resource skills because their work also involves working with others, managing individual performance and instructing operatives through training, coaching and guiding them as to how to complete their task. They also need conceptual skills to analyze complex situations and may do little planning, scheduling and related tasks. However, among the three skills necessary for a manager, technical skills is the most essential skill for a first line manager followed by human resource management and conceptual skills (Lewis et al., 2006).

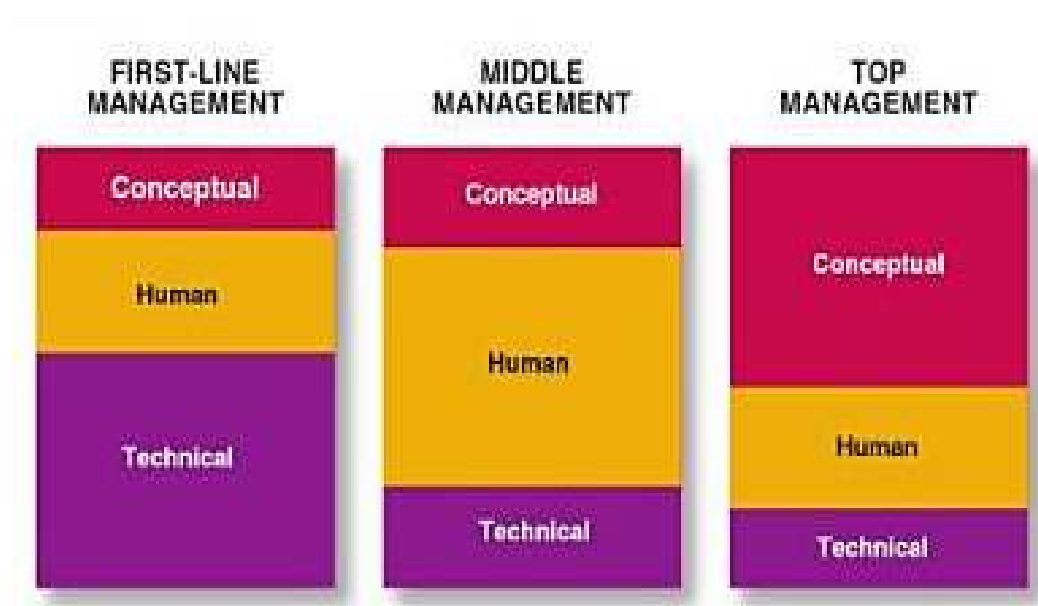


Figure 15. Skills needed for different management levels. Adapted from Lewis et al. (2006).

It is important that role perceptions of managers at each level of management are very clear for coordinating work effectively, communicating expectations, planning, training and career development activities (Kraut, Pedigo, McKenna, &

Dunnette, 1989). A first-line manager places more importance on instructing the subordinates and managing individual importance. Middle level managers place more importance on linking groups through resource planning and allocation, managing group performance and coordinating among independent groups. The executive or top managers are mostly associated with monitoring the business, economic and social environment. The common thread among all these levels of management was the importance they placed on representation of their staff (Kraut et al., 1989).

Gentry et al. (2008) observed that the importance of “Influencing, leadership, and power; and Risk-taking and innovation” increased as managerial levels increased. They also noted that managerial skills and tasks differ depending on the specific functions of the manager.

### **Managerial-leadership competency models.**

There are various ways to organize management competency models; based on skills it may be a two-skills competency model, three-skills competency model, four competency domains, six-skills competencies model, or ten-skills competency model (Carrington, 1994, Viitala, 2005) just to name a few, besides there are other criteria also for classifying competencies model. Whatever the model and the number of skills, all models are based on three competency clusters: knowledge, skills and values.

One of the earliest known competency models in management, The American Management Association (AMA)--the largest management association of the United States -- identified a group of managerial behaviours associated with superior performance. Their competency model identified 18 competencies groups that were further grouped under four large clusters (Power, 1987: p. 8). The four major clusters were:

- Goal and action management cluster
  - *efficiency orientation*: a concern to do something better than one’s own performance, or others or set the benchmark for excellence;
  - *proactivity*: an inclination towards taking action to accomplish the goal or any specific aim;
  - *concern with impact*: ability to impact others through symbols and implements of power;

- *diagnostic use of concepts*: ability to use experience and concepts knowledge to explain and interpret situations.
- Directing subordinates cluster
  - *Unilateral power use*: using various forms of influence to get people to agree with or comply with one's ideas;
  - *developing others*: ability to develop people through performance feedback and mentoring;
  - *spontaneity*: a trait marked by free and easy expression of one's views in any given situation.
- Human resources management cluster
  - *accurate self-assessment*: ability to view oneself objectively and realistically;
  - *self-control*: ability to restrain personal needs in service of organizational goals;
  - *stamina and adaptability*: strength to sustain physical and mental hard work and easy adaptability to changes in life and the organizational environment;
  - *perceptual objectivity*: objective focus on any issues and not being influenced by subjective biases;
  - *positive regard*: ability to view oneself and others positively even in challenging situations;
  - *managing group process*: bring in effective teamwork and harmonious relations in a team;
  - *use of socialised power*: ability to use networking and social influences to build alliances, networks, and coalitions.
- Leadership cluster
  - *self-confidence*: consistent decisiveness and confidence in self judgement;
  - *conceptualisation*: ability to use fresh concepts, identify patterns;
  - *logical thought*: ability to process events in a causal sequence;
  - *use of oral presentations*: effective oral communication to convey one's thoughts and ideas clearly.

The management competency model thus developed had the ability to relate these eighteen generic competencies to the specific characteristics of organizational culture and environment, and also to job-specific skills. The model was applicable to managers at various organizational levels, both in private and public companies (Powers, 1987). The competency model of the AMA was developed by applying a behaviourally specific model; assessments based on the recognition of the model's and one's own competency profile; result coding by professionals, a strong group role and involvement; inclusion of learning; and development of customised action/learning plans (Powers, 1987).

In taking a step further, Mullins and Aldrich (1988) suggested an integrated model of management and managerial development emphasising that “managers need a balance of technical, social and conceptual knowledge and skills” (p. 29) and these attributes can be acquired through education and experience. They constructed a generic model of management and development based on basic management and behavioural theories, situational demands and its adaptations. According to this model, *past knowledge and experiences* which may be theoretical or practical affect *the manager as an individual* (assessed in terms of behavioural and social variables) *within any organization* (consisting of five main interrelated sub-systems: task, technology, structure, people and management) when attempting to perform *managerial activities* (fundamental, substantive and related) and negotiating *other variables* (demands, constraints, choices, and context) using *behavioural roles and styles* (interpersonal, informational and decisional) to provide efficient and effective management (Mullins & Aldrich, 1988).

With evolving managerial roles and changing business environment, Holmes and Joyce (1993) proposed measuring the managerial performance (competence) based on job, role and person context. The job-focused approach is based on identification of key managerial tasks and the standard competencies developed are irrespective of the person performing the job. These are also called micro competencies (Elkin, 1990) and correspond to functionalist approaches of European competence which emphasises competence as an occupational ability restrained by defined sets of actions, behaviours and outcomes (Training Agency, 1988, p. 5). This

approach promotes skill in job performance and sidelines learning and training linked to improving output (Burgoyne, 1993).

This approach may not be suitable for management positions at higher levels due to its rigid standards which may not be suitable for all situations. Management is complex and dynamic and therefore cannot be limited by the inflexibility of a job-focused approach to managerial performance (Cole, 2002). There are other limitations to this approach also. This approach does not take into account the creativity associated with managerial tasks and may not be able to face the challenges arising from new job demands in the future. While this approach may be applicable to lower levels of management that are bound by higher technical competencies, it is totally inappropriate for top management (Cheng, Dainty, & Moore, 2003; Cheng et al., 2005).

The person-focused approach is based on “macro competencies” which are not task-specific, rather they are measurement of a manager’s performance in terms of attributes like personal background, values, motivation, and personality (Holmes & Joyce, 1993). Macro competencies are indispensable traits of a manager and enable a manager to deal effectively with non-routine and complex situations (Brown, 1993). These macro-competencies correspond to intangible and dynamic attributes (Fowler, King, March, & Victor, 2000) and failure to recognize and address them effectively may hamper the growth of an organization (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990). The person-focused approach underpins the importance of personal qualities of a manager and views managerial competencies as actions enabling people to carry out a task effectively (Cheng et al., 2005).

The third approach, role-focused approach, measures the performance of a manager in relation to the social context. Job performance is viewed as an enactment of a role emerging through interaction between the role holder and others in a social situation. In this approach, demands made on an individual manager by himself/herself and others and his/her response to these demands are examined by taking into account the extent to which the manager’s performance meets the demands (Holmes & Joyce, 1993). Thus, a role-focused approach is grounded in the reality of a manager’s situation.

Handy (1999) notes that a manager may have several roles and may use all three roles described above depending upon the primary function, which may be situation- and context-specific. Managers may use the job-focused approach by themselves and others to judge their performance in the primary role; may use person-focused approach to perceive their primary role in context of their personal experience, training, values and beliefs; may use role-focused approach to view their performance against the background of interaction between the individual, their colleagues and team members and the environment as perceived by all involved.

Quinn (1988, instrument developed by Quinn, Faerman, McGrath, & Thompson, 2003) proposed a Competing Values Framework that integrates four management models (rational goal, internal process, human relations, and open systems) into a single framework (Figure 16).

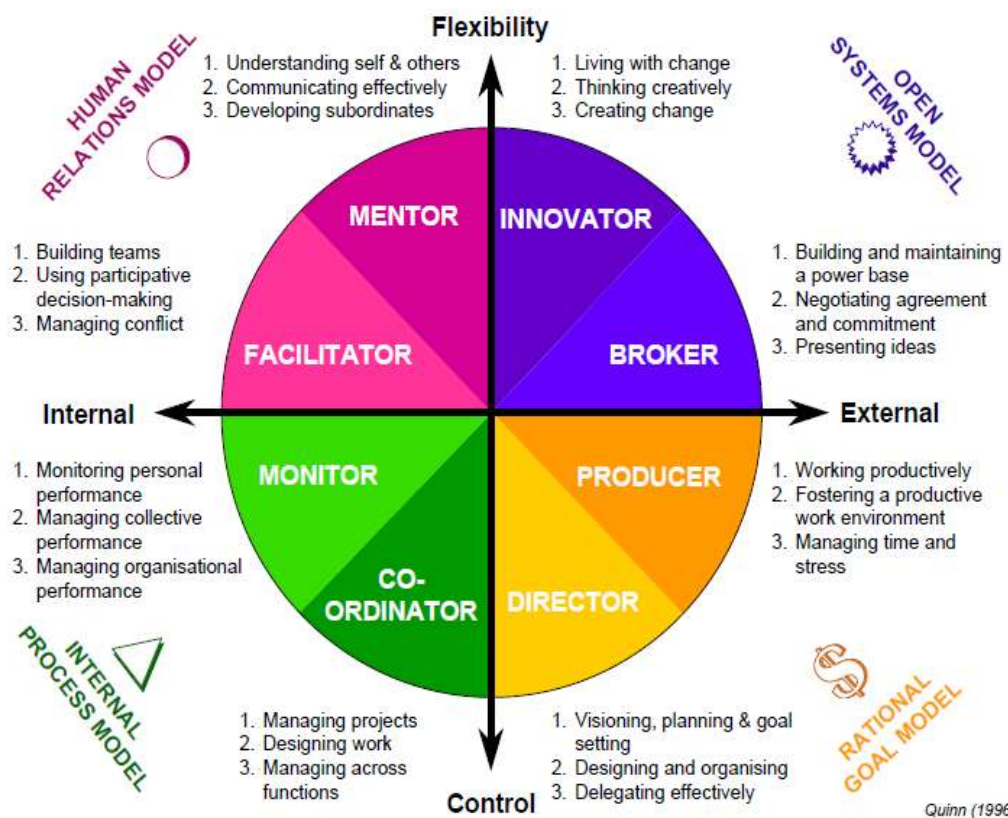


Figure 16. The eight managerial leadership roles and their competencies. Adapted from Quinn Faerman, Thompson, and McGrath (2003: p. 12).

The rational goal model emphasizes productivity and profit, while the internal process model of management stresses stability and continuity based on

defining responsibility, measurement and documentation. The human relations model underpins commitment, cohesion and morale as the criteria for effectiveness where a manager plays the role of a mentor and facilitator. Finally, the open systems model is based on adaptability and external support, which requires a manager to be politically adaptive, a problem-solver, an innovator and a leader in change management.

The relationship among the models are spread along the two axes; with vertical axis ranging from flexibility at the top to control at the bottom and horizontal axis ranging from internal organization focus on the left to external focus on the right. Each model fits one of the quadrants.

The human relations model in the upper left quadrant, open system model in the upper right quadrant, the rational goal model in the lower right quadrant and the internal process model in the lower-left quadrant. The four models are arranged to be perceptually opposite. The human relations model is in contrast to the rational goal model and the open systems model counters the internal process model (Figure 16).

An organization may demand adaptable and flexible attitudes at one time, while advocating stability and control at another point. It may require being growth oriented, resourceful and utilizing external support in one situation to maintaining tight information systems with formal communication in yet another situation. A situation may demand an organization to adopt human resource values while demanding effective planning and goal setting in another situation.

Given the diversity of demands, an effective manager is also expected to react and act accordingly. It is in this response that the Competing Values Framework was developed, suggesting eight roles with 24 competencies for a manager-leader. This framework provides a dynamic focus making the perceptual biases explicit and allowing one to move away from “a traditional schismogenic either/or approach to both/and approach”, thus providing new approaches to measure managerial effectiveness. It uses behavioural complexity as a variable to measure the effectiveness of a managerial-leader, that is, adaptation of leaders to reframe underlying polar opposites. This framework makes values explicit and though each element is juxtaposed with its opposite, it does not define the best ways to manage.



As an assessment tool for managerial-leadership competencies, this framework does not impose values, rather it makes clear those values that are highly valued by effective managers and to the significance of other values positively (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995).

Cheng et al. (2005) proposed a hybrid multidimensional approach to a managerial performance framework drawing upon the three approaches used by Holmes and Joyce (1993). Such a holistic competency framework clearly defines the work tasks that a manager should be competent at (micro competencies), the skills, knowledge and values required to complete the given job effectively (macro competencies) and the criteria for performance excellence based on specific roles which a manager adopts (social context). The authors argue that this hybrid multidimensional approach to competence framework promotes “discussion and diagnosis of the key capabilities and development needs of individual managers regarding their past and future contributions towards project focused performance excellence within organizations” (Chenget al., 2005, p. 391). This kind of framework can be used in uncertain environments where results are beyond a manager’s control, team based environments where collaborative effort of the team is more important than individual contribution and performance, and in dynamic environments and organizations that look forward to future contribution by a manager rather than one’s past performance.

Improving self-knowledge is the basis for all true management development (Pedler, Burgoyne, & Boydell, 1986) and competency models serve as a potential tool for self-reflection, development, and building collective knowledge about an organization. Competence management helps to develop people, promote knowledge sharing, corporate e-learning efforts and increases innovation, competitive advantage, and effectiveness.

A study by Wickramasinghe and Zoyza (2009) investigated the relationship between a set of management competencies of a manager and areas of functional specialization by assessing managers’ perceived competency levels across functional areas, and by evaluating the perceived importance of current and future competency needs. The authors measured the perceived competencies across three main competency clusters (knowledge, skills and values) encompassing seven functional

areas (finance, information technology, marketing, HR and administration, legal, planning and corporate strategy, and operations). The findings of the study revealed a broad level of competencies across the seven functional areas. It was also observed that the competencies from the values and skills clusters were found to be more important than the competencies from the knowledge cluster across all the functional areas. Managers from all the functional areas agreed on the importance of the technical competency for future development.

The study concluded that competency management should be integrated with learning management systems to expand a person's capacity to be effective in managerial roles, and many researchers have agreed upon this view (Bartram, 2004; Hackett, 2001; Naquin & Holton, 2003; Reio & Sutton, 2006). Wickramasinghe and Zoyza (2009) further argue that identification of the set of individual competencies and competency gaps serve to link individual competencies to the strategy of the organization and are therefore very important for growth and development of the organization.

### **Are Competencies Models the Best Fit for Evaluation?**

A competency model helps in communicating clear expectations for roles and levels of performance (Fulmer & Conger, 2004, p. 11). Besides the many advantages of a competency based approach to measure management effectiveness, there are certain issues associated with it that cannot be ignored (Markus, Cooper-Thomas, & Allpress, 2005). Construct validity, aimed at measuring an individual trait or characteristic, is one of the main problems with competencies as there are disagreements between managers, staff and experts categorising operational definition of competencies (Markus et al., 2005).

Hayes, Rose-Quirie, and Allinson (2000) argue that given the differences in definitions and approaches to competency, it may not be possible to breakdown competency into an exhaustive list of elements. These views are also expressed by Emiliani (2003, p. 908) who notes that, "competency models are subject to interpretation and are not usually actionable".

The accuracy with which competencies measure performance is also debatable. Competencies related to contextual performance are not given due

importance and hence it may not be possible to accurately evaluate the performance of an employee based on this and it may have implications for perceptions of organizational justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Porter, Wesson, & Yee, 2001) and organization support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The assessment of a performer based on competency may suffer from bias (Fletcher, 2001). There might be issues with validation and the type of competency model adopted by the organization (Schippmann et al., 2000).

Though the American management system believes that there is a link between competency and performance - personal and organizational - there are quite a few scholars who question the direct correlation between competency and performance (Emiliani, 2003; Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003; Hollenbeck, McCall, & Silzer, 2006). These scholars argue that the application of competency management is the wrong way to develop leaders because the competency-based approaches reduce an executive to the sum of a set of competencies.

In spite of these for and against arguments, competency models are used widely in business management to evaluate manager-leader competencies. This research also used one of the competencies models discussed above to evaluate the influences of culture, gender and sector on managerial-leadership competencies in the UAE work environment. The model used was the Quinn et al. (2003) Competing Values Instrument to evaluate the managerial competencies of managers and test its correlation with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The Competing Values Framework (Quinn, 1988), which forms the basis for the Competing Values Instrument, assesses the performance of a manager based on the eight roles that appear to be perceptually contrasting but are actually complementary.

This model was selected over other models because this framework does not limit the best managed attributes of a manager but makes clear those attributes that are highly valued by effective managers. Additionally, it underlines the positive contribution of all attributes that may be needed at one time or the other (Denison et al., 1995).

The next section discusses organizational commitment, job satisfaction and managerial-leadership competencies against the contextual background of culture, gender and sector.

### **PART 3**

#### **National Culture**

Culture has been variously defined as explicit and implicit reactions (cognitive, affective and behavioural) to situations and actions (Kluckhohn, 1954), “software of mind” (Hofstede, 1991), or “the totality of equivalent and contemporary learned meanings maintained by a human population, or by identifiable segments of a population, and transmitted from one generation to the next” (Rohner, 1984: pp. 119-120). The various visible elements of culture are artefacts, symbols, myths, legends, rituals, symbolic actions, beliefs assumptions, mental modes, ethical codes, norms, and values, (Brown, 1995).

There have been several theories and dimensions to explain the concept of culture, for instance, culture explained in terms of time, context and space (Hall, 1985), five national level dimensions (power, self, gender, predictability, and time) with differing priorities by different countries (Hofstede, 1991), differences in seven cultural dimensions (Universalism / Particularism, Analysing / Integrating, Individualism / Communitarianism, Inner-directed / Outer-directed, Time as sequence / Time as synchronization, Achieved status / Ascribed status, and Equality / Hierarchy) in international context (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 1997), and many more. All of these models are an attempt to explain the behaviour of people restricted by physical boundaries. It would be appropriate that a brief review of various national culture theories is discussed before trying to classify the national culture of UAE—a traditional Arab society.

An understanding of various models of national culture theories will also help to understand how the national culture of the UAE relates to the international context and evaluate the influences of culture on managerial-leadership competency of managers working in the UAE work environment.

Applying cultural dimensions to management is necessary because management effectiveness is a combination of personnel, economical and technical resources to achieve desired ends. Because these three factors interact, no management activity can be free of cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1991). It is necessary that the transfer of management skills considers the sensitivities of a culture, as there can be no blanket-rule adoption. A management model can be locally effective only if there is apt application and integration of anthropological concepts (Hofstede, 1991). The researcher strongly supported this belief and hence this research.

The UAE presents a blend of traditional and modern elements in its cultural and social life. The society has been exposed to rapid changes that on a superficial glance appears to be completely westernized owing to the adoption of ideas and consumerism of the West but retains conservatism and indigenous culture based on basic elements of the traditional society—Islam, the tribe and the family (Peck, 1986: 59--60).

Comparing and contrasting various international culture theories is beyond the scope of this study and the following section is an attempt to provide a synopsis of national culture theories and models applicable to this study. Scarce research has been carried out to study the relationship between managerial-leadership practices and the organizational practices in the context of the Arab culture. A few westernised scholars (Al-Kubaisy, 1985; Ayubi, 1988) have attempted to identify organizational and personal factors influencing managerial and organizational behaviour but they did not propose any sound management theory linking these variables. There have been attempts to link managerial practices and Arab cultural concepts (Ali, 1988; Al-Kubaisy, 1985) and use of Islamic principles to conduct business affairs (Yousef, 1999, Solberg, 2002, Abuznaid, 2009). The Islamic approach has gained more popularity recently because the present day problems like corruption, power abuse, weakening of family ties, greater inclination to materialistic products have been attributed to the western management approach (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001).

### **National Culture Theories and Models**

As explained in the previous section, culture in the simplest form refers to a set of values, beliefs, and the norms of a group. National culture refers to experiences, beliefs and learned behaviour patterns and values shared by the citizens of a country. National identity of a country serves to tie various sub-cultures within the national boundary. The constructs of a national identity or culture includes beliefs, cultural homogeneity, ethnocentrism, and national heritage (Keillor & Hult, 1999). National cultures affect the work performance and organization culture greatly. Cultural norms and values affect employee motivation, performance, and stress levels (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Klein, 2003; Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1985).

Organizations are generally “culture bound” and management systems depend upon collectively shared values and beliefs (Hofstede, 1991). There are many theories and models to explain the concept of culture. Some of them are explained briefly here so that it becomes easier to relate various cultural beliefs of UAE managers and their impact on an organization.

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) tried to explain culture based on the theme of self versus others and included six dimensions—nature of people (good, bad or combination of both), relationship with nature (emphasis on sustainable use of natural resources), duty towards others, mode of activity, privacy of space and temporal orientation. This model presents a preliminary study of cultural dimensions.

A more elaborate work on cultural dimensions was done by Hall (1985) and he explained the concept of national culture as high and low context cultures, besides taking into account the time and space factors. A high context culture is characterized by many covert, unwritten rules, lesser verbal communication, inward reactions, strong sense of family with clear demarcation between in-group and out-group, openness and flexibility of time and a strong commitment to long-term relationships. Middle East, Asia, Africa and South America are examples of high context cultures. Quite contrary, a low context culture is characterized by explicit, simple and clear communication style, emphasis on verbal communication is

stronger than body language, has open grouping patterns, develops weak bonds with people and has a weak sense of commitment to relationship and follows a highly organized time line. Examples of low context cultures include North America and much of Western Europe.

Hofstede (1991) made a comparative analysis of 53 samples from five different continents and identified five dimensions of culture: power distance (PD), uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, individualism and long-term orientation. The Arab sample used in his study comprised Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, and the UAE.

The *power distance* (PD) dimension defines the extent to which a society accepts unequal distribution of power. A country that has high power distance culture shows centralized and top-down control of power whereas countries with low power distance prefer equal distribution of power and empowerment. The Arab countries have a high PD score of 80 indicating that there is unequal distribution of power and wealth. This translates to leaders and rulers having ultimate power and authority. The population of these countries expect and accept the delineation of leaders from the common mass (Hofstede, 2009).

*Uncertainty avoidance* (UAI) is an index to measure the comfort level of a country with respect to uncertainty and ambiguity. In simpler terms, how comfortable or uncomfortable a person feels with or without rules and regulations. In this case it was observed that the Arab countries have a high uncertainty avoidance score (68) implying that the society's very low level of tolerance to uncertainty and ambiguity, and is quite adverse to changes and risks. To overcome this uncertainty and the urge to control almost everything, there are strict rules, laws, policies and regulations (Hofstede, 2009). Societies belonging to high uncertainty avoidance prefer formalized management and constraints on innovation, besides following rules religiously (Hofstede, 2001). The Arab countries are highly influenced by Islam, and strongly believe that God controls all actions and resources and nothing happens without the will of God and they are quite averse to change and risks (Cavusgil, Kinght, &, Riesenberger, 2008).

*Masculinity Index* (MAS) measures the degree to which traditional gender roles are assigned in a culture, that is, male domination, control and power (Klein et al., 2009). Masculinity can also be defined as a situation in which the dominant values in society are success, money, and material goods. A culture with high masculinity index places more importance on earning, recognition, achievement and challenges (Hofstede, 1991). A high score on this index is indicative of a higher degree of gender differentiation. The Arab culture scored 52 on the MAS index, when the world average was 50.2, indicating that rather than a cultural paradigm, it may be due more to Islamic values that stresses hard work, achievements and challenges (Hofstede, 2009). Interestingly, Arab managers display feminine cultural traits, preferring to establish friendly relationships with other people, and they work to live rather than believing in living to work as in the masculine culture (Hofstede, 2001).

*Individualism index* (IDV) measures the orientation of a culture towards self. A culture is said to be individualistic if it places more importance on self development, happiness, perceptions and responsibilities rather than the group to which it belongs. A collectivist society on the other hand places the interests of the group, clan or family before individual interests. The Arab culture scored very low on IDV index (38) indicating long-term commitment to the member group, family, extended family or extended relationships with loyalty to the society being the highest attribute overriding most other societal rules (Hofstede, 2009). Employees within the Arab culture are collectivist. The individualism index is inversely related to the power distance, that is, the higher the power distance in a society, the lower will be the individualism index. This applies quite well to the Arab culture, which is quite high on the power distance index and represents a collectivist culture (Obeidat, Shannak, Masa'deh, & Al-Jarrah, 2012).

*Long-term orientation* measures future orientation of a culture. Cultures belonging to long-term orientation focus on long-term plans and investments whereas cultures belonging to short-term orientation emphasize the past and short-term results. The Arab culture displays long-term orientation given the habit of long-term planning and reducing uncertainty avoidance (Obeidat et al., 2012).



Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2004) further elaborated on the national cultural aspect on the basis of seven dimensions drawing from the works of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), Hampden-Turner (1994), Hofstede (1991), and Trompenaars (1993). Societies are distinguished based on the importance it places on rules and laws against the personal relationships. A universalistic society places more importance on rules, codes, values, and standards than personal relationships. It conducts businesses on precisely defined agreements and contracts, follows company policies religiously and expects others also to follow the same; for example, Germany and the United States. On the other hand particularistic societies favour personal relationships over rules and written agreements. Their judgement is situation-based and they may alter contracts to satisfy new requirements; for instance, China, Russia and the Middle East (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

Societies may be specific or diffuse. Specific societies follow a clear demarcation between personal and working life, as can be seen in many Western and European countries. A diffuse society lacks clear distinction between personal and work life, and they follow hierarchies even outside their work areas (China, Middle Eastern countries) (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

Based on individual or group interests, a society may be individualistic or communitarianist society. The former values individual perceptions, interests, achievements, responsibilities (the European nations and the United States of America) whereas the latter values the interests of the group and community over individual (the Middle East and Asian countries). Individual needs and aspirations are achieved by fulfilling the needs and aspirations of the society (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

Based on relationship to the nature and environment, culture may be inner-directed or outer-directed. The inner directed societies are more self-centred, dominating, unwilling to change and believe in controlling the nature through men's intelligence. However, an outer-directed society believes in living harmoniously with the nature and identifies itself as an integral part of the environment, are more adaptable and compromising in their approach (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

Societies may also be distinguished based on their orientation to time which can be either monochronic (one thing at a time) or polychronic (many things at a time). While the former prefers to do one thing at a time following plans and schedules strictly, the latter see time as flexible and intangible, rarely following the schedule, for instance, the Middle East countries (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

Differentiation of society based on status, which is the result of personal achievement in society, leads to either an achievement-oriented culture or an ascription-oriented culture. An achievement-based society is marked by spare use of titles, a hierarchy of superiors is based on previous accomplishments, and achievement is preferred over seniority, for instance the United States and North America. In contrast an ascription-based society awards status to its members based on social position, age, wealth and gender. Accomplishments are less important and higher positions in an organization or society are based on age and are mostly male dominated. The Middle East exemplifies such a society (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004). In the Arab world, respect depends on the background of the family and acting as it suits you, and even if nothing is achieved, it is given more importance (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

A neutral society is in more control of its public display of emotions, follows self-possessed conduct, lacks facial expressions, has a monotone delivery of written materials, as can be seen in the case of Japanese who are supposedly an extremely neutral culture. Quite opposite, individuals of an affective society are characterised by verbal and non-verbal displays of expressions and emotions which are shown easily and vehemently (Mexico, UAE) (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

Using the seven dimensions of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, the UAE can be classified as a cultural society that is highly particularistic, diffuse, collectivist, external-oriented, and ascription-oriented. It views time in synchronization and is affective (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

House et al. (2004) studied the influence of cultural differences on leadership processes by taking sample from 62 countries, spanning 10 years and a group effort

of approximately 170 researchers. The project, referred to as the “GLOBE study”, identified nine cultural dimensions as a result of their study after analysis of 17,000 middle level managers working in telecommunication, food and banking industries. These researchers drew upon ideas of Hofstede, Trompenaars, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck and finalized the following nine cultural dimensions based on two scales (national culture and cultural values): *power distance*, *uncertainty avoidance*, *humane orientation*, *institutional collectivism*, *international collectivism*, *in-group collectivism*, *assertiveness*, *gender egalitarianism*, *future orientation*, and *performance orientation* (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006).

*Humane orientation* is the degree to which individuals in societies promote and encourage being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, and caring. *Institutional collectivism* in a society is measured by the degree to which collective distribution of resources and collective actions are encouraged and rewarded by individuals and organizations. Countries like Singapore and Middle East score high on institutional collectivism and in these countries organizations tend to place emphasis on group performance and rewards, whereas countries like Greece and Brazil tend to emphasize individual achievement and rewards, therefore they represent an individualistic culture (Javidan et al., 2006).

*In-group collectivism* is expression of pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness to the organizations or families they belong to (Egypt and Russia). *Assertiveness* measures the individual’s assertive, confrontational, and aggressive attitude while dealing with others. For instance, people in a highly assertive society enjoy healthy competition in business whereas those in less assertive societies represented by countries like New Zealand give preference to harmony in dealing with others.

*Future orientation* is the inclination of a society towards future-oriented behaviour such as career planning, investments, as an example. Organizations in high future-orientated countries like Singapore and Switzerland work in a very systematic way and have strategies that are long term.

*Performance orientation* is the inclination of an organization towards performance improvement, high productivity, and excellence. In high performance-oriented countries such as the USA and Singapore, organizations pay greater

importance to training and development; whereas low performance-oriented countries like Russia and Greece, family background takes precedence over performance improvement and productivity measurements.

*Gender egalitarianism* refers to the extent to which a society/organization ideally minimizes the gender inequality. The Arab cluster scores higher on gender egalitarianism.

*Uncertainty avoidance* is about following the social rules and practices to avoid unpredictable events.

*Power distance* measures the degree to which the members of a society expect and are comfortable with power distribution in the society; similar to Hofstede's (1991) power distance. The Arabic cluster scored high on power distance indicating that the people of the society are comfortable with unequal distribution of power (House et al., 2004).

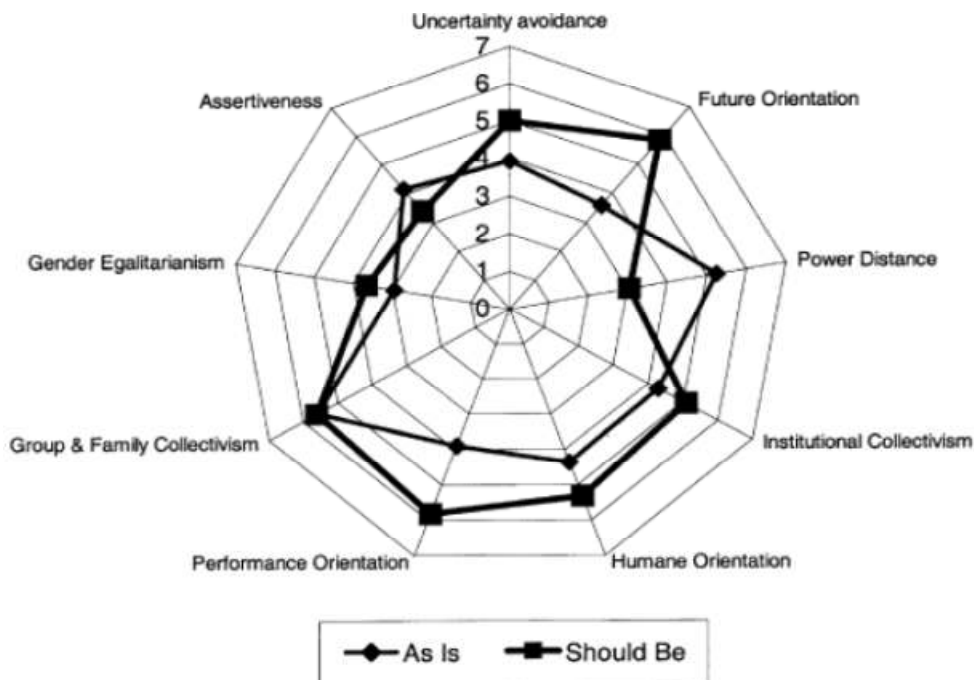


Figure 17. GLOBE dimensions of Arab cluster. Adapted from Kabasakal and Bodur (2002).

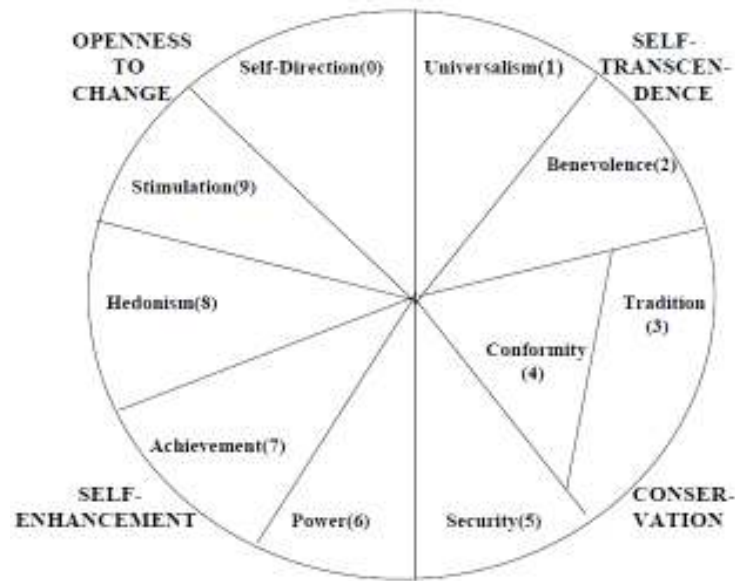
Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) noted that the Arab culture is comparatively lower in uncertainty avoidance, future orientation, and gender egalitarianism and very strong on patriarchal loyalty, acceptance of power, wealth, hierarchical organization, with Islam acting as a catalyst for these cultural behaviours. However,

the Arab culture is higher than the accepted values in power distance and assertiveness dimensions.

Results of the GLOBE project showed that leadership qualities are affected by cultural beliefs and they have suggested six global leadership dimensions that differentiate the cultural profile of outstanding leadership qualities. These cultural dimensions for desired leadership qualities are: *Charismatic / value based, team oriented, participative, humane oriented, autonomous, and self-protective* (Javidan et al., 2006).

Some of the main limitations of the GLOBE project were broad interpretations based on the GLOBE empirical findings that claimed too high on cross-cultural ecological and construct validity (Graen, 2006). In addition, many major national parameters, such as the generation differences in leadership norms, the differences between educational, social, and economic classes, and regional, religious, ethnic, and gender differences are not taken into consideration in the GLOBE research project.

Schwartz (2006) further elaborated on cultural differences by stating that individuals' fundamental values are aligned along ten individual dimensions (self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, and universalism) whereas societies' fundamental values are aligned along seven national dimensions (hierarchy, mastery, affective autonomy, intellectual autonomy, egalitarianism, harmony, embeddedness) representing three bipolar dimensions of culture (embeddedness vs. autonomy; hierarchy vs. egalitarianism; and mastery vs. harmony).



He analysed 70 countries on these bipolar dimensions and reported that Middle East, Sub-Saharan and African countries represent embeddedness, mastery, and hierarchical values. These cultures are marked by maintenance of the status quo, preference to group solidarity and traditional order. Furthermore, these national cultures emphasize socially responsible behaviour, unequal distribution of power, roles and resources, and adherence to rules and roles unquestionably (Schwartz, 2006).

While “no nation or culture has a monopoly on the best ways of doing something. This is especially so when it comes to understanding motivation and leadership at work.” (Steers, Porter, & Bigley, 1996: p. 423); there is definitely “a fit between leader characteristics or behaviour and the dominant culture is seen as a prerequisite for success” (Koopman et al., 1999; p. 518).

### **Impact of Culture on Competency**

Competency based approaches are considered critical tools in organization performance measurement because they provide a measurable framework for identification of skills, knowledge, behaviours, and capabilities of people doing a particular job, and these tools also help to reduce or remove the gaps between the competencies required by a task and the ones that are available, thereby narrowing the focus on individual and group development (Dubois, 1993; Draganidis & Mentzas, 2006).

Different cultures have different perceptions about a competent manager; while some cultures embrace an authoritarian approach, others may prefer a participative approach. Leader sensitivity may be viewed negatively in an authoritarian culture whereas this may be viewed as an essential competency in a participative managerial approach (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Cultures affect the attitudes and behaviour of a manager. A manager belonging to a collectivist culture displays transformational leadership qualities more easily than a person belonging to an individualistic culture. Likewise, a manager belonging to a masculine culture is more tolerant, strong and directive compared to the feminine culture managers which produces managers that are more open to consultative and considerate manager-leader qualities. A high uncertainty-avoidance society produces managers that show low tolerance for ambiguity. Managers belonging to low power-distance societies find it difficult to practice and accept an authoritarian leadership style whereas the same may be easily accepted and expected by people belonging to high power-distance culture (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Jung, Bass, & Sosik, 1995). A manager in a multicultural environment has to face more challenges compared to a manager working with a team of non-culturally diverse people. Cultural differences can cause conflicts that could be destructive to the progress and performance of the team. The differences could arise due to different methods of communication style, different accents and fluency, difference in attitudes towards hierarchy, and conflicting decision-making norms (Brett et al., 2006).

### **Western culture managerial competencies.**

The European culture and the countries following the European culture adopts a competence-based traditional performance evaluation system appraising managers' knowledge and technical skills as the prime criterion for assessment, whereas the US adopts a competency-based evaluation approach that focuses on what the job holders bring to the job and the organization, and evaluates them against their soft skills, behaviour and attitude (Cheng et al., 2005).

The British context of competency links competence to a performance standard (Holmes & Joyce, 1993; Iles, 1993), achievements in the workplace (Reid, 1992), system of standards, for example the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) and the Management Charter Initiative (MCI) (Holmes, 1995). It treats

competence as a dependent, generic variable where accomplishment and achievements are viewed as the outcome of a manager's behaviour and action. The American Competence Model treats competence as an independent and organic variable in relation to behaviour of a manager, that is, achievements are a combined result of technical competency and personal characteristics (Grzeda, 2005).

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE), a cross-cultural research project conceived by Robert House in 1993, primarily aimed to discover the relationship between culture/nation and a leader's attributes, behaviour and organizational practices. This was one of the most comprehensive studies undertaken to link culture and leadership attributes. The project was undertaken to understand the effect of culture on effective leaders and organizational practices, the role of culture in shaping the attributes, behaviour and organizational practices of a leader, relative standing of the studied nations on the identified nine core dimensions of culture, and how the leadership and organizational aspects account for systematic differences among cultures (Koopman et al., 1999). Koopman et al. (1999) have reported on the inter-relationship between national culture and leadership profiles in Europe, a part of the GLOBE study.

Nine culture dimensions along with six major global leaders' behaviours were studied in this project: *achievement*; *future orientation*; *assertiveness*; *collectivism*; *gender egalitarianism*; *humane orientation*; *power distance*; *family collectivism*; and *uncertainty avoidance*. The leadership attributes tested were: *visionary*, *inspirational*, *self-sacrificial*, *integrity*, *decisiveness*, *performance orientation*, *collective team orientation*, *team integrator*, *diplomatic*, *malevolent*, *administrative competency*, *self-centered*, *status-consciousness*, *conflict inducer*, *face saver*, *procedural*, *autocratic*, *non-participative*, *modesty*, *humane orientation*, and *autonomous*.

The study concluded that administrative competence was considered an important asset across all the participating countries while autocratic leadership (to some extent) among managers affected leadership negatively. The middle managers of South/East Europe were administratively competent, conflict inducers, diplomatic, autocratic, face savers, non-participative, procedural, status conscious and self-centred whereas the managers from central/Eastern Europe showed a less negative



attitude towards autocratic leadership style. These results strongly supported the influence of culture and nationality on an effective manager's attributes.

### **Eastern culture managerial-leadership competencies.**

Eastern culture, pertaining to ideas of leadership and management, has been studied extensively by the GLOBE researchers. They observe that the Eastern management practices can be divided into two culturally diverse group: Southern Asian (comprising Iran, India, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, and the Philippines) and Confucian (China, Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan) (Gupta, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002).

The South Asian cultures favour loyalty to the in-group whereas the Confucian culture is marked by societal collectivism based on network and trust. In-group collectivism is observed to be high among South Asian managers while it is medium among Confucian managers. The South Asian culture places high values on in-group collectivism, humane orientation, societal collectivism, assertiveness, future orientation, uncertainty avoidance, whereas it places low values for power distance, performance orientation and gender egalitarianism. However, the practices being followed may differ from their values. For instance, it was observed that the South Asian countries scored low on future orientation, uncertainty avoidance and high on power distance.

The Confucian Asian culture values uncertainty avoidance, assertiveness and power distance highly whereas future orientation is viewed very lowly in this culture (House et al., 2004). These cultural dimensions affect the leadership styles also. It was observed that the managers of the South Asian countries emphasise high power distance, in-group loyalty, and humanity; managers are supposed to take care of interests and welfare of their subordinates. In the Confucian culture, power distance and societal collectivism drives the managers to take decisions on behalf of the subordinates, and the subordinates trust their managers completely.

The Eastern culture (South Asian and Confucian) endorses leadership that is value-based, humane and team-oriented (Ashkanasy, 2002; House et al., 2004; Li, Fu, & Peng, 2001). East Asians place high importance on hierarchy, collectivism, and attention to context and therefore the East Asian managers place more

importance on decision-making strategies and processes that support already established norms (Martinsons, 2001; Martinsons & Westwood, 1997).

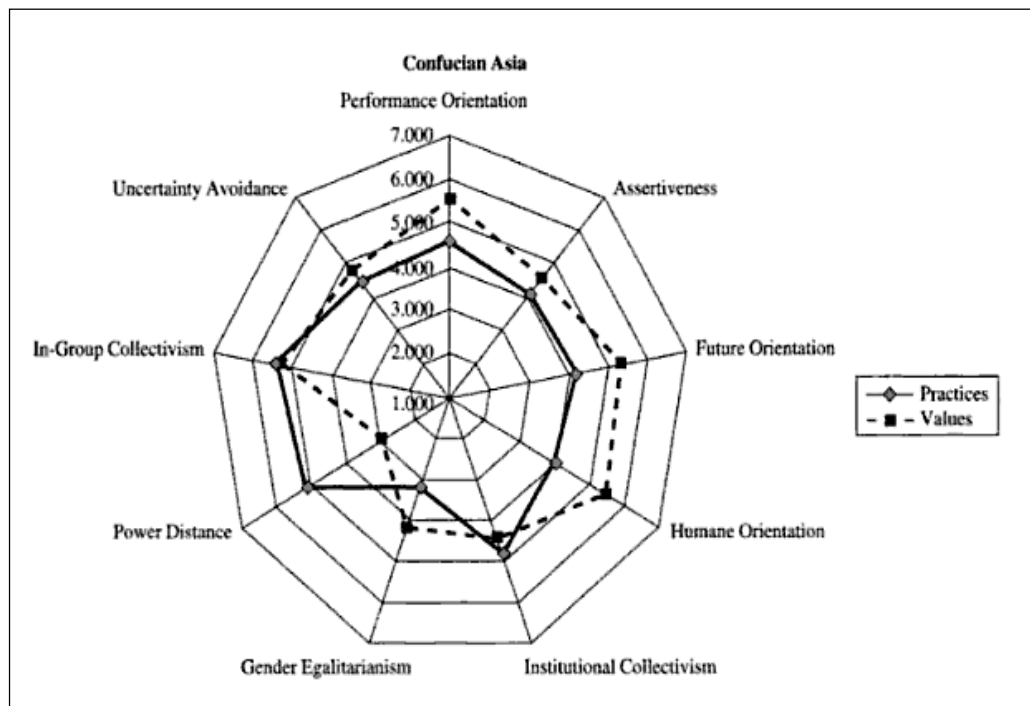


Figure 18. The Confucian Asian cultural dimensions based on GLOBE study. Adapted from House et al. (2004).

Two dominant countries that are also the most developed industrialized nations, Japan and China, do share some characteristics that are common to Eastern culture but differ on many perspectives.

A Japanese manager is characterized by managerial qualities such as less power of control (cooperation and coordination with others), loyalty to superiors, efficient conflict resolver, empathy with followers, team work and collective decision making. A Chinese manager believes in decision making by superiors (no consultative decision making), limited partnership, dominance of secondary groups over the primary groups, relation orientation (progress and promotion of staff depend upon their relation to superiors), administrative corruption, and importance of face-saving value.

Control of power and participative style of leaders are the main differences between these two Asian countries (Taleghani, Salmani, & Taatian, 2010).

**Middle East culture and managerial-leadership competencies.**

Culture influences managerial practices and therefore a manager from a more collectivist society like UAE will place more importance on group interest above self interest for economical needs, rates belongingness as the most important priority, is against endorsing business/calculative relationship between the employee and the employer over a moral relationship, integrating business life and private life with ease, and may be extended to exchanging presents and gifts (Hofstede, 1991).

Many researchers have emphasized that understanding Islamic beliefs and the Islamic work ethics (Ali, 1988, 1992) is necessary to understanding the Arab organizational behaviour, leadership, and managerial skills. Islam is the common factor that unites all the Middle Eastern countries and is the official religion of the countries comprising the Middle East. Islam affects all walks of life of the people—legislative system, trade and workforce (Al-Ali, 2008) because it is not just a religious system but also symbolizes Arab superiority, civilization and glorious history (Dadfar, 1984). The rules and norms quoted in the Quran are regarded as sacred and recognized as legitimate laws (Solberg, 2002). Islam influences the workplace ethics and also the career choice for Muslims. Overall, the quality of life of the Arab people is closely guarded and dictated by tenets of Islam and continues to do so to date (Al-Ali, 2008).

There may be many members from the same family working in an organization and managers may not accept open and direct communication from the subordinates and the likes. A manager from a traditional Arab society may not feel comfortable consulting with a subordinate over decision making and it is expected that the subordinates respect their managers. A manager showcases authority and power and this status is usually the personal merit of the achiever (Hofstede, 1991). Additionally, it is also noted that an Arab manager will be culturally inclined to show respect for age and position, and may not feel comfortable airing his or her grievances in the open.

An Arab society with high scores on uncertainty avoidance displays a paradox of formal and informal rules guiding their behaviour. Although the society

has strict rules and regulations to maintain law and order, organization structure and processes, informally people are less inclined to follow these rules (Hofstede, 1991).

The UAE Arab culture places great importance on a person's status, contacts and education (Terpstra & David, 1991; Wilkins, 2001). Inter-personal relationship within a family is largely determined by the seniority of the family member and younger people are taught to respect their elders, parents and people with authority. These values are seen in business transactions also and personalised behaviour is a common trait even in business interactions (Long, 2005).

The collectivist nature of the UAE society has bearing on an individual's relation to the group to which it belongs. With no line drawn between job life and private life, often family and community relationships are given priority over work tasks. They have stronger commitment to people rather than the organization in which they work (Robertson, Al-Khatib, & Al-Habib, 2002).

Time may be viewed as circular and therefore life is more relaxed; precision and punctuality are maintained based on power distance, that is, people are more punctual towards their superiors than subordinates. The fatalistic disposition of Arabs and submission to Allah is evident in their reluctance to plan long term (Solberg, 2002). They believe that "Time lies in Allah's hands. To lay rigorous plans is likened to overruling Allah's will and power" (Dahl & Habert, 1986, p. 75).

Planning receives little attention by Arab managers in terms of resources and time (Attiyah, 1992) because they believe that time cannot be controlled (Gray & Larson, 2002). Most of the time managers use their intuition and personal judgement to make decisions showing that they rely more on their trusted network of tribal and family relations (Solberg, 2002). There are controversies regarding the fatalistic disposition of Arab culture.

A few researchers argue that the Arab culture is not fatalistic and indeed they were long range planners with a desire to control nature (Muna, 1980), especially in businesses (Bagchi, Cervený, Hart, & Peterson, 2003; Hill, Loch, Straub, & El-Sheshai, 1998). The contemporary management in Arab countries is plagued with too much centralization, poor communication, lack of management skills, and unrealistic performance issues (Weir, 2005).

A traditional Arab manager may be more inclined to help the weak and is averse to the idea of rewards according to the performance, rather he believes in rewards according to the need. It may also be hard for them to fit in any of the leadership packages that have been already developed, mostly by Westerners. Having said that, to make the most of these imported leadership models, they should be re-modelled to fit the cultural intricacies of Arabs (Hofstede, 2009).

Effective managers from the Arab region apparently have lower charisma, team-oriented or participative qualities but higher self-protective traits like self-centredness, status-consciousness, face-saving, conflict induction and reliance on procedure (House et al., 2004).

The concept of work and business in the Arab culture stems from the Quranic values that emphasize importance of hard work and that hard work absolves all sins (Yousef, 1999). The Quran encourages humans to acquire skills and technology, is against laziness and wasting of time or remaining unproductive. The Islamic work ethic stresses creativity and accomplishment by virtue of hard work (Ali, 1992). The Islamic work ethic also stresses the intention accompanying the work and does not place great emphasis on end results (Yousef, 1999). It preaches being generous at the workplace and paying full wages to workers.

Comparing the performance of managers-leaders along the lines of gender in Arab society, it appears that Arab women follow a more democratic leadership style than men, and also have greater effectiveness in positive relationships of transformational and contingent reward styles than Arab men (Yaseen, 2010). They also exhibited more idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration compared to the Arab men. The Arab men were better off in active and passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire attributes of transactional leadership style (Yaseen, 2010).

Trust and commitment are the most respectable virtues of the Arab culture and they mostly follow autocratic decision style, but consultative management style is also prominent due to interpersonal style and their predisposition to avoid conflict (Attiyah, 1992). Being a highly collectivistic and high power-distance society, business negotiations and dealings keep in mind family relationships, social contacts,

and social status. Business meetings are often conducted in a social setting (Grant, Golawala, & McKechnie, 2007; McKechnie & Grant, 2005).

Scott-Jackson (2010) has evaluated an Arab manager-leader through the cultural context and observed that an Arab manager-leader supports, guides and nurtures its team members and seeks a strong role model through knowledge gaining, sharing and management, while maintaining informal communications both upwards and downwards following an open-door policy. He/she displays his/her loyalty to his/her head and expects the same from the subordinates while giving the freedom to voice their opinion in private without implying disloyalty (Scott-Jackson, 2010).

Although an Arab manager-leader values time and believes that it should not be wasted, he may not stick to artificial time boundaries between work and life as practised by Westerners. They believe in time controlling the priorities and not vice-versa, quite contrary to Western principles which believes in prioritizing things.

An Arab manager-leader is known for trading with respect because they believe in mutual respect for humanity, culture and rights. He/she exemplifies tolerance, transparency in behaviour, openness to other people's views, seeks solutions that are mutually beneficial, is hospitable and friendly displaying an active interest in other cultures and nationalities, is ready to adopt behaviour and norms of other cultures without any inhibitions in maintaining his/her own fundamental values. He/she is also known for exercising common sense and emotional intelligence (Scott-Jackson, 2010). All these values and traits add a style of leadership and management that is distinct to the Arab culture. Scott-Jackson (2010) argues that these traits and cultural norms of Arab culture are valuable differentiating strategic capabilities that can be developed further to achieve sustainable competitive advantage.

At workplaces, it is likely that the Arab workers placed more reliance on formal and unwritten rules and subordinates, and lesser reliance on one's own experience and training (Smith, Achoui, & Harb, 2007). The Arab culture is also characterised by open, heated, prolonged discussion and debate. Conflicts are dealt with using the "response hierarchies"—the dominant response is applied first, but if

the desired result is not obtained, the next hierarchical response is adopted. Collaboration and compromise dominate most of the dealings and work practices and also the conflict management style of the Arabs. Forcing or coercion is not the style of working in the Arab culture, rather soft and tolerant attitudes are displayed by business managers. Similarly, participative decision style is not well known in the Arab culture (Kozan, 1997; Weir, 2000).

The Arabs generally avoid risk-taking and are not comfortable with authority delegation (Abbas & Al-Shakis, 1989). Arabs are not comfortable with saying “no” directly to another person. Therefore they resort to softer euphemisms like “Insha Allah” meaning “if God wills”. This phrase may be used both for yes and no connotations and its meaning depends upon the context used (Al Suwaidi, 2008).

There are many cultural manifestations that impacts on a business environment in an Arab culture (Abuznaid, 2009). Some of the most related cultural manifestations pertaining to business and implicit for this research are *wasta*, planning, trust and long-term commitment, decision styles, and organizational structure. *Wasta* “seeks to achieve which is otherwise assumed unattainable by the supplicant” (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993: p. 4) and includes a range of practices such as networking, lobbying, nepotism, bribing and corruption (Solberg, 2002). It is widely practised among the Arab culture as it is believed that people appointed through *wasta* are more trustworthy than a stranger (Rice, 2003).

Intercessory *wasta* has been reported as an underlying problem in the Middle Eastern businesses, and this may promote excessive dependency preventing development of self-esteem through the success-failure cycle, while promoting sycophancy and risk avoidance (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993: p. 191). Though open bribery is quite uncommon in the Arab cultures, *wasta* is often compared to the bribery system of the West (Solberg, 2002).

A summary of various cultural dimensions of the Arab culture as explained by different researchers is presented below.

Cultural Dimensions of Arabs	Author
High context	Hall (1985)
High power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, average masculinity index, low individualism index and long-term orientation	Hofstede (1991)
Particularistic, diffuse, communitarianist, outer-directed, synchronised, ascription oriented, and affective	Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2004)
Comparatively lower in uncertainty avoidance, future orientation, and gender egalitarianism and very strong on patriarchal loyalty, acceptance of power, wealth, hierarchical organization, with Islam acting as a catalyst for these cultural behaviour. Comparatively high power distance, assertiveness, and world average on group and family collectivism	House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004)—The Globe Study
Embeddedness, mastery, and hierarchical values	Schwartz (2006)

### Organizational Commitment and Competencies

Organizational commitment measures relationship between individuals and organization. Organizational commitment is a strong determinant of organization performance (Chew & Chan, 2008). Various researchers have already explored the relationship between the leadership style and the organizational commitment of employees (Blake & McCanse, 1991; Chen, 1995; Lo, Ramayah & Min, 2009; Sabir, Sohail, & Khan, 2011; Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Scheck, 2000; Wu, Tsai, Fey & Wu, 2006). Organizational commitment has been defined variously by many researchers. It may be a “strong belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values, a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization and a desire to maintain organizational membership” (Porter et al., 1974 cited in Khasawneh, Al Omari, & Abu-Tineh, 2012) or “the level of attachment felt towards the organization in which one is employed” (Bartlett, 2001, p. 336). A simple definition put forward



by Allen and Meyer (1991) explains organizational commitment as individual dedication and loyalty to an organization.

Organizational commitment has been explained through different approaches (behavioral, attitudinal, normative and multidimensional) and various models by different authors (Mathebula, 2004); some of them being the three-dimension model (complaints, identification and moral) of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and the three-component model (affective, continuous and normative) model of Meyer and Allen (1991). Affective organizational commitment refers to an employee's attachment with the organization, its beliefs, values, goals and vision. It is psychological attachment with the organization, a desire to remain in the organization (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993). Affective organizational commitment is greatly influenced by age, gender, organizational characteristics, personal values, and tenure. Normative organizational commitment refers to the obligatory feeling an employee has towards the organization; obligations on the part of the employee based on investment by the organization on him/her. And finally, the continuous organizational commitment is the awareness of the costs associated in leaving the organization by the employee. The continuance commitment of an employee is well explained by Becker's side bet theory which posits that employees in an organization over a period of time accumulate investments that might be costly to lose (Mathebula, 2004). An employee makes long-term investment in the organization through time, work, efforts, relationships and abilities. Leaving the organization might result in loss of them and this may be a psychological loss to the employee (Sabir, Sohail, & Khan, 2011). Thus, in simple terms affective organizational commitment is the feeling-based attachment with the organization, normative is the duty to remain committed to the organization, whereas the continuance organizational commitment is the understanding of costs involved in voluntarily leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

There have been many studies linking leadership style, job satisfaction, organizational characteristics, personal characteristics, and work experiences (Abu-Nada, 2007; Janssen, 2004; Liu, 2006). Transformational leadership style is positively correlated to affective, normative and continuance organizational commitment (Liu, 2006) whereas conflict with supervisors negatively affects organizational commitment (Janssen, 2004). Significant positive correlations were observed between age and organizational commitment of an employee whereas

negative correlations were observed between salary, academic qualifications, years of experience and organizational commitment (Abu-Nada, 2007). Negative correlations were observed between autocratic leadership styles and the affective and normative organizational commitment, whereas positive correlations were observed between democratic leadership style and affective and normative organizational commitment (Janssen, 2004). Matin et al. (2010) reported that the team-building skills of a manager positively influence the organizational commitment of employees. Also, democratic style of leadership is positively related to organizational commitment of employees, whereas authoritative managerial- leadership style is negatively related (Wu et al., 2006); a flexible and participative management style positively impacts organizational commitment of employees (Zeffane, 1995). Effective managers improve organizational commitment of their employees through positive impressions and atmosphere (Terzi & Kurt, 2005). Strong correlations between manager support and normative organizational commitment of employees were observed by other researchers as well (Emhan, 2012; Nicholson, 2009).

Relating organizational commitment to the Middle East culture, it has been stated that Islamic ethics increase effectiveness and efficiency, leads to integrity, makes it binding for a Muslim businessman to abstain from cheating and deceit, prevents corruption and abuse of power, creates initiative and leads to better quality work (Abuznaid, 2009). Several empirical researches have been done to study the correlation between Islamic work ethics and performance and success of individuals in organizations (Abu-Saad, 1998, 2003; Ali, 1992; Ali, Falcone, & Azim, 1995, Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2006; Yousef, 2000). All these scholars have noted correlations between Islamic work ethics and organization performance, commitment, loyalty, contribution to community and society.

### **Job Satisfaction and Competencies**

Managerial-leadership style is considered to be an important predictor of job satisfaction among employees and many studies have espoused positive correlations between leadership behavior of managers and job satisfaction (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Stander & Rothmann, 2008; Yosef, 2001). Job satisfaction refers to feelings of contentment and pleasure experienced by an employee about

different dimensions of their job (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction may also be explained as an employee's enjoyable emotional state attributable to one's job evaluation (Danish & Usman, 2010). Job satisfaction provides a sense of achievement to employees, makes one feel recognized, worthy, and suitably rewarded; thus lifting their morale, self-esteem, improving productivity, self-development, organizational performance and eventually leading to higher organizational commitment (Al Jenaibi, 2010).

Lawler (cited in Al Jenaibi, 2010) advocated discrepancy theory to explain job satisfaction among employees. He posited that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction occurs based on what an employee gets and what he/she thinks to deserve. Thus, one's job satisfaction is a measure of one's own innate values. Job satisfaction of an employee may be affected by many factors: work related factors, peer related, work environment, pay, organization structure, job profile, job complexity, job characteristics, personal motivation and expectations, supervision, promotion opportunities, and so on (Al-Haydar & Bin Taleb, 2005; Clark & Oswald, 1994; Green, 2002).

Job satisfaction among employees improves organizational performance and effectiveness (Eskildsen & Dahlgard, 2000). Job dissatisfaction may lead to high turnover, absenteeism, poor performance, and other organizational handicaps (Spector, 1997). Positive relationships between manager support and job satisfaction (Emhan, 2012), manager's respectful and fair treatment of employees and job satisfaction (Spector, 1997), people oriented leadership style of managers and result-oriented approach of managers positively influence job satisfaction among employees (Rehman, Mansoor, & Bilal, 2012). Researchers have noted correlations between high job satisfaction and managerial support and managerial style (Cohen, 1992; Zeffane, 1994) as supportive managers provide good ambience for the subordinates to achieve organizational goals thus inspiring greater job satisfaction among them (Giffords, 2009). Effective managers have positive impact on their employees thereby enhancing organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Terzi & Kurt, 2005).

While managerial-leadership style may be a strong predictor for job satisfaction, it greatly shapes organizational commitment of an employee and there

have been many studies in the past to prove positive correlations between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Tutar, 2007; Yang & Chang, 2007). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment share a direct relationship—the higher the job satisfaction among the employees, the higher is the organizational commitment and thus lower turnover and absenteeism (Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000).

Many instruments have been proposed to measure job satisfaction among employees. Some of them being the Job Descriptive Index (Roznowski, 1989); the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975); the Job in general Scale (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989), the Job satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985), and so on. The Job Diagnostic Survey or the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) diagnoses the existing job conditions to suggest improvements to enhance employee motivation and productivity besides evaluating the effects of job changes on employees.

Based on the theory that job satisfaction among employees occur when one experiences the following three psychological states: meaningfulness (value and importance of the job), responsibility (sense of freedom in the workplace), and knowledge of results (effective job performance feedback). The authors believed that high job satisfaction is positively influenced by positive correlations between job characteristics, work results and outcome moderated by growth satisfaction of an individual employee (also called the growth need strength). The three psychological states mentioned above are promoted by five core job characteristics skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback, and task significance. While meaningfulness psychological state is enhanced by task significance, identity and variety, job autonomy and job feedback induce meaningfulness into a job. A fit between the growth need strength and the three psychological states leads to higher job satisfaction among employees (Fried, Zhang, & Griffeth, 2010). Furthermore, the authors noted that managers or supervisors do not influence skill variety and task identity. However, task significance, autonomy, and feedback are definitely influenced by managers or supervisors (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

### **Sector and Competencies**

Public and private sector organizations differ from each other in ownership, funding and control (Bozeman, 2000). In private sector organizations, owners, shareholders, managers have direct monetary incentives; better performance and financial success is linked to better pay. On the contrary, in public sector organizations, property rights are vague and diffuse, pay of managers is not directly linked to the financial success of the organization (Boyne, 2002). Besides, public sector organizations are characterised by environments that are complex (Metcalf, 1993: p. 174), unstable (Bozeman, 2000), permeable (Boyne, 2002: p. 100) and without much competitive pressures (Boyne, 1998). The organizational goals of public and private sectors are different; while the public sector managers have distinctive, multiple and vague goals, the private sector managers have single goal (profit) and clear performance targets (Boyne, 2002).

Public sector organizations are well known for their bureaucracy, red-tape, lower managerial autonomy whereas the private sector organizations have lesser bureaucracy and red-tape, with managers having greater autonomy, little risk of contradiction, and are capable of formulating and carrying out rational strategies because of their exposure to hierarchical structured organizations. Personal economic prosperity is an important motivator for private sector managers (Khojasteh, 1993) and they are comparatively more committed to the organization than their public sector counterparts (Zeffane, 1994).

Very little information is available on similarities and differences in the roles, functions, competencies of public sector and private sector managers. Lau and Pavett (1980) can be considered as one of the first researchers who carried out an empirical research to understand the differences and similarities between managers of the two sectors based on roles described by Mintzberg. The authors compared high level public and private sector managers for job content (roles and functions performed), job characteristics (accomplishment of their roles and functions), and finally perceptions of skills, knowledge and abilities for managers of both sectors. These authors gathered data from 210 public sector and 220 private sector managers and concluded that managers from both sectors perform similar roles, functions and complexity of jobs (Beckera & Connorb, 2005).

Frank and Lewis (2004) have indicated that private sector managers/employees pay greater importance to pay and value advancement opportunities more than public sector employees. On the other hand, the public sector employees pay more importance to altruistic contribution to society (Frank & Lewis, 2004), place greater value on achievement (Khojasteh, 1993) and show lower organizational commitment (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006).

The general values of managers like achievement, hedonism, stimulation, tradition, power and self determination are mostly the same across both sectors; however, there is very little a priori information available to ascertain or contradict this similarity or differences (Lyons et al., 2006). The authors investigated differences in general values, work values and organizational commitment between private and public sector employees and concluded that though there are no differences in general values of both sector employees, the two sectors differ from each other in work values. The work values include work attributes and work-related outcomes and can be categorised as intrinsic work values (inherent psychological satisfactions of working) and extrinsic work values (material aspects of work), social work values (relations with other employees), altruistic work values (contribution to the society), and prestige values (status, influence and power). The study observed that the private sector employees were less inclined to social contribution, value prestigious work, put greater emphasis on advancement opportunities and intrinsic and extrinsic work values.

On a similar note, Van Der Wal, De Graaf and Lasthuizen (2008) have analysed the similarities and differences between the organizational values of the public and private sector managers and concluded that private sector managers value profitability as the most important attribute followed by accountability, reliability, effectiveness, expertise, efficiency, honesty and innovativeness attributes. Public-sector managers experience constrained decision making capability given the limited authority and political influence in public sectors. Managers from these sectors use forced alternatives, premature evaluation of their ideas and face ubiquitous stakeholders that may affect their decision making ability negatively (Nutt, 2005). The private sector managers weigh analytics more than bargaining (Nutt, 2005).

Private sector managers have been found to be significantly more competent than the public sector managers in most of the management competencies (Pillay, 2008).

A report by Van Keer and Bogaert (2009) has also reported that the public sector managers are less inclined towards people oriented, result-oriented roles and do not pay lot of attention to relationships and networks. Anderson (2010) reported that private sector managers were relationship oriented, intuitive and power motivated whereas the public sector managers were more bureaucratic, less materialistic, with lesser organizational commitment.

In conclusion, there are many reviews available that point out differences and similarities between the private and public sector employees (Boyne, 2002; Frank & Lewis, 2004; Khojasteh, 1993; Lau & Pavett, 1980; Lyons et al., 2006; Van Der Wal et al., 2008; Zeffane, 1994). While many argue that the managers of these two sectors practice management principles differently and ought to do so to avoid problems (Schultz, 2004; Frederickson, 2005), many others point to convergence of practices in both sectors and in many cases advocate for public-private partnerships to provide best of both sectors (Caiden, 1999; Lyons et al., 2006; Van Der Wal et al., 2008).

### **Gender and Competencies**

Significant differences between men and women managerial competencies have been reported in literature (Bryans & Mavin, 2003; McGregor & Tweed, 2001; Nicholson, 2000) with women being better at dealing with details, budgets and environment (McGregor & Tweed, 2001).

Gender differences in management are the outcome of a complex set of issues, cultural upbringing, traditional roles in society, stereotypes, for example (Nicholson, 2000). While male managers place importance on external benefits like salary and status, the female managers valued working relationships and job satisfaction (Nicholson & West, 1988). Female managers are known for their interactive leadership style, and they view their relationships with their subordinates as transformational, encouraging the employees to transform their self-interest into

the group's interest, encourages participation, enhance their self-worth and create a win-win situation rather than reward-punishment situation (Rosener, 1990).

Some researchers emphasize that the leadership in the current business environment seeks managers that are non-coercive team-players and adept at building relationships (Colwill & Townsend, 1999, Kolb, 1999, Moss & Jensrud, 1995 cited in Pounder & Coleman, 2002) and this managerial-leadership style is naturally employed by women managers.

A study by Zenger and Folkman (2012) on leadership competencies across the globe found that female managers were rated better for 12 out of 16 competencies studied and the competencies in which females excelled included developing others, honesty and integrity, self-development, motivating others, relationship building, collaboration and team work, powerful and prolific communication (Zenger & Folkman, 2012).

Women managers are gifted with “nurturing qualities, strong ethics and persuasive negotiation skill” and were observed to be knowledgeable, skilled, and having good people management skills (Idris, Hong, & Mansur, 2012: p. 173). Female managers were found to perform better than male managers while dealing with sensitivity and customer focus issues while there were no significant differences observed for the examined managerial competencies (Arditi & Balci, 2009). Female managers possess a blend of decisiveness and persuasion that aids them in negotiation (Idris et al., 2012).

However, Govender and Parumasur (2010) did not observe any significant differences between male and female managers along any of the eight managerial competencies suggested by the Quinn model (1988).

### **UAE Nationals, UAE Work Environment, Competencies and Challenges**

To date, the literature review dealt with various aspects such as competencies, competency models, manager-leader similarities, differences and overlaps, culture and its role in manager-leadership competency, managerial competency examined through the prism of gender, sector and culture, relationship between managerial competencies and job satisfaction, relationship between



managerial competency and organizational commitment as isolated sub-topics. Before piecing them together through the research model, it is necessary that the contextual preface is explained, which is described in the following sections.

The UAE is a multicultural society, and promotion of leadership skills is one of the major aims of the government's business development strategy (Butler, 2009). Globalization has affected the UAE culture and its Islamic practices in many ways—unsupervised interaction between unrelated males and females; lesser use of face veils, as examples. Najjar, (2005, p. 91) more critically sums up globalization as the “removal of Islam from thought and action, so that Muslims become subservient to the West”. However, Islam is flexible in allowing interpretations that are consistent with contemporary principles like gender equality and social development (Abdel-Hady, 2005). Many traditional UAE practices are kept alive in the urbanised population post-oil discovery era (Davidson, 2005).

The culture and the family values are subjected to drastic social changes that took place with the discovery of oil. The people have become dependent in contrast to their earlier self-reliant characteristics. Arabic culture is being eroded because with many females going out to work, the children at home are left under the supervision of non-Arabic nannies and caretakers who are unaware of Arabic culture and tradition (Hurreiz, 2002). Prior to the discovery of oil and formation of the federal entity, the people were tribal desert people believing strongly in a collectivistic society and values, loyalty, honesty, and male-domination (Dadfar, 1984).

However, globalization has not only brought in technological advances in education, health care, transport, communications and infrastructure but has also posed challenges to the traditional values of the UAE society. The age-old joint family system paving way for nuclear families is leading to losing touch with old traditions. In the past in order to survive the harsh weather conditions people had to be active and resilient, and life was challenging. Petrodollars brought in a lifestyle that has provided the community with all facilities and a social infrastructure that is comparable to many of the developed countries in the world (Davidson, 2005; Long, 2005).

The current generation of the UAE population comprises people with unsustainable financial expectations because they have been used to luxuries that were not even imagined by people two generations ago (Al Ali, 2008). Globalization and oil money affected the lives of people so much that their food habits have also altered to the extent that the new generation is affected with diseases like obesity, diabetes, and many diseases born out of sedentary life styles (Shell, 2003).

Besides, the greatest challenge to them is that they are a minority in their country, lacking technical skills and competency to carry the nation forward without the help of the expatriate population (Al Ali, 2008). The Emiratis face difficulties in meeting the demands of a competitive multinational business environment that follows a Western organization culture quite contrary to the traditional Arab culture (Klein et al., 2009). As was the case with most pre-industrial societies, where the values are based on religious and spiritual beliefs difficult to change (Onesimo, 2009), the UAE national culture, mostly based on the Arabic traditional practices, also found it challenging for people holding traditional values to cope with the fast pace of economic growth in the country and the multinational competitive business setting (Klein et al., 2009).

The UAE nationals are raised in an environment that is traditional, conservative and based on tribal society ethics at home but exposed to multicultural society outside their home, at work places, and public places that has values and ethics quite contrary to their beliefs. They are a minority in their own country and are forced to adapt to a work culture that is quite different to their cultural values.

Additionally, being citizens of a wealthy rentier state, they are accustomed to privileges from the government which promotes a system of irrational and unjustified distribution of rewards (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010). In a rentier state, the citizens are not taxed, instead the government derives its income from the sale of natural resources and provides goods such as subsidized health care, petrol, housing, and utilities. Such states are marked by increased spending habits of its population and the essential virtue of the ruler is his/her generosity as opposed to accountability (Luciani, 1995: p. 91). The citizens in the rentier or distributive states are offered largesse in return for their loyalty and non-participation in government (Rathmell & Schulze, 2000: p. 48).

The UAE being one such rentier state, the performance of its citizens in workplaces is influenced by welfare measures rather than performance (Abdalla et al., 2010, Forstenlechner, 2010). This often leads to misconceptions about the actual performance and skills of citizens in competitive workplaces.

Localization policies have forced the local Arab population to work alongside the huge expatriate population of the country. Various ethnic groups residing in the UAE include Emiratis, Arabs, Europeans, Americans, Iranians, Filipinos and Indians, other Asians (Randeree, 2009). This is a blessing in disguise exposing the UAE nationals to a diverse workforce and hence be globally competent, but it can be a challenging task at times when it calls for compromising traditional and cultural values for multicultural environment and culture.

Managing diversity in workplaces can be very daunting as it may have positive as well as negative effects on the performance of an organization (Neal, Finlay, & Tansey, 2005). On one hand, diversity in terms of socio-economic environment in workplaces can bring in more skills and competencies, make the organization globally competent (Cox, 1993), enhance creativity (White, 1999), and improve organization performance (Cox & Blake, 1991; Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003). On the other hand diversity in workplaces can be instrumental in dividing and promoting clannish mentality in workplaces (Turner & Crisp, 2010), undermine social cohesion and raise employee turnover (Jackson & Joshi, 2003), not necessarily improve the organizational performance (Jayne & Dipboye, 2004), isolation and alienation of some community in a diverse workforce may result in lower organizational commitment, higher employee turnover and higher management cost (Miliken & Martins, 1996).

In a multicultural organizational environment it is necessary that an effective manager uses leadership skills to deal with people and situations. In a multicultural organization culture, democratic type of leadership may be the most common style used by Western expatriates, although it may clash with the autocratic style of the UAE nationals (Varadrajan & Majumdar, nd). The Western organizational culture may be unconventional for Arab culture because the former is individualistic and performance-oriented, while the latter is more collectivist (Branine & Pollard, 2010).

The Arab government strongly believes in the positive contribution of Western-style education to bridge the gap between the Middle Eastern cultural values and the Western culture (Branine, 2004, 2010). However, Ali (1998: p.13) opines, based on research of multinational organizations operating in the Gulf region, that these values may be responsible for friction and misunderstandings.

It is necessary that the expatriate MNC executives should accordingly modify their behaviours and appreciate the differences between the Arabs and the expatriates, in particular those values that are regarded highly by the Arabs such as religious beliefs, respect for elders, gender segregation, privacy of family matter, and so on. However, it is observed that the management being practised in the Arab countries has very little relation to the cultural values and norms of Islam, the central factor in Arab lifestyle and business ethics (Ali, 1998).

Thus, there appears to be a conflict between the business environment and the traditional UAE culture. The current business environment and the society have inherent characteristics like taboo, tribal, submission and fatalism (Ali, 1987). The society is reluctant to accept any imported values and standards irrespective of its use, but it does not completely abandon positive accomplishment of modern civilization (Symanski, 1988).

The human resource development policies in many Middle Eastern countries do not follow strict professional norms and are influenced by socio-cultural factors of the Arab culture (Altarawneh, 2010). The competency of UAE nationals are affected, rather negatively, by the desire for higher salaries and perks, gender inequality, cultural disposition and distinct organizational cultures in the UAE (Al Ali, 2008).

The UAE nationals are stereotyped as the ones who prefer public sector jobs because of better salaries, less working hours and better incentives. They are also looked upon as the ones that lack technical skills, competency, work ethics, do not take their jobs seriously and are incompetent to perform their appointed jobs (Al Ali, 2008; Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010; Barber, 2008; Godwin, 2006; Mellahi, 2007). This negative stereotype is shared by the UAE nationals themselves (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010).

The UAE has a high masculine index as noted by Hofstede (2009) and only recently women have started participating in the workplace. At present they make up just 2.5% of the total workforce of the country (Al-Ali, 2008). Women generally do not mingle with men in commonplaces and they maintain sufficient physical distance from men even at workplaces. Efforts by progressive thinkers have improved the position of women and they are taking up jobs and coming out of the traditionally defined household confines. The UAE has the highest number of national females taking up jobs when compared to the other Middle Eastern countries and the number of women entering the workforce is rising each year. In most cases, women have equal access to education, and outperform men at all levels (Neal et al., 2005). Historically, women were allowed to work as long as it did not interfere with their primary role in the family (Read, 2003). Now there are women in ministries, universities, and businesses ranging from start-ups to medium-sized companies (Neal et al., 2005).

The UAE nationals' incompetency in professional work (Al Ali, 2008) should be viewed as a clash of cultural values and disparate organizational culture. Arabs have had a glorious past when the Arab Empire lasted for more than 750 years and spread from the Atlantic Coast to India. Thus, the Arab people have sentiments of cultural superiority and regard other cultures with suspicion though they do respect them.

The rules of the Ottoman Empire, the French, Italian and British destroyed the strong cultural identity of the Arabs (Ali, 1995), and the Arab stamina and morale broke down (Hitti, 1995). The French and British rule isolated different parts of the Arab Empire leading to clannish attitudes and inward mentality (Solberg, 2002). Some researchers argue that Western countries practised an indirect form of colonialism and instilled an inferiority complex in the Arabs (Ali, 1995; Jasim, 1987). This explains their dualism and ambivalence in relations with the West (Solberg, 2002) and is also possibly the reason for mistrust. Ahmed (1993) observed that even though Arabs trust the technology of the West, they are always doubtful about their sincerity and motives. Further to the point, their tribal lineage has made them into a society where it is difficult to accept and trust anybody outside their clan.

The UAE nationals who are willing to be part of an active and productive labour force are confronted by different organizational culture, work habits, diverse cultural values and an expectation to be well versed in English—a language that is not their mother tongue. This confrontation leaves them disillusioned, alienated and abandoned (Pech, 2009).

It is important that the Arab world's management practices are studied in their own right. The diversity of the management practices of the Arab world should be viewed from the perspective of cultural and traditional roots (Weir, 2001). Nationals working in the private sector often complain about resentment and not being taken seriously by expatriates (Janardhan, 2006). They are often not assigned challenging tasks though they may like to do them. A 2004 survey indicated that 60% of the nationals in the private sector felt that they were discriminated against in the multicultural environment (Beuthe, 2007, 2008). The Arabs, influenced by globalization, try to adapt to Western management practices which may not be suitable to their cultural dispositions (Wilkins, 2001: p. 261).

Rahwar and Al-Buraey (1992) posit that Western organizational theory is not suitable for the Arab cultures due to its individualistic and performance-related and economic measure-based approaches. Sidani (2006) studied the work culture of the Arabs and proposed that best work environment for a typical Arab should have “clear and unambiguous formal hierarchy where superiority and accountability are plainly defined” (p. 610). The work environment should not be in conflict with the religious values of Islam which may lower job satisfaction and productivity. While skills and talent may be compromised due to higher salaries and job acquisition through *wasta*, sex-segregation is likely to remain a feature at workplaces. Having said that, the type of management practised in the Arab countries that largely depend upon an expatriate population has very little to do with the Arab cultural values and Islamic principles (Branine & Pollard, 2010).

Arab leaders and managers value relationships greatly and the relationship between the leaders and the people of the UAE is one of their secrets behind their success as a nation. Leaders are responsible for acting as family heads with the same obligations towards its employees as towards its family members. This emotional attachment allows greater commitment and loyalty from both leaders and those being

led (Scott-Jackson, 2010). There is a need to develop a management system that incorporates Islamic management principles—a case of reverse diffusion of management skills and knowledge customised to meet the local culture and values similar to what the Japanese, Chinese and South Koreans have done. The Japanese developed their economy by adapting management practices from the West and customised it to suit their cultural values and norms. It would be more suitable if the organizations could work upon a management culture that is a blend of Islamic management principles and theories and practices of Western management in a complementary manner (Branine & Pollard, 2010).

The Dubai government has taken initiatives to develop leadership among its UAE national managers and leaders through “The National Leadership Development Program” and “Educational Leadership Development Program”. These programs primarily aim to develop human capital development (self awareness, self regulation and self-motivation) (Al Dabbagh & Assaad, 2010). Besides their practical approach, these programs highlight three important challenges to leadership development in the Arab cultural context: moving beyond leader development (leader development being focused on development of intra-personal competencies and the latter being transformation in relationship between people through relational concerns like commitments, trust and respect) (Al Dabbagh & Assaad, 2010); defining the public (clearly specifying who the “public” is ); and addressing the tension and differences between dominant Western perspectives on leadership and local needs and realities.

Having identified the challenges, the authors recommend that leadership and managerial development in organizations in the Arab world can be improved by creating a “collaborative context for “doing” leadership development” through outreach to other programs in the region and through genuine exchange of ideas and practices. Another recommendation put forth by these authors was “bring the public back into leadership” implying that the notion of doing public good should be problematized so that individuals learn to function within the local, national and international context. The final recommendation by these authors advocates allowing for the emergence of authentic voices through engaging local researchers and practitioners’ (Al Dabbagh & Assaad, 2010).

There have been many indications that there is a need to develop a distinct management model for the Arab people (Ali, 1998; Branine, 2004, 2010; Branine & Pollard, 2010; Pech, 2009; Scott-Jackson, 2010; Simadi, 2006; Weir, 2001, 2005), but no actual model encompassing the managerial competencies from the perspective of Arab nationals has been developed. Working on the development of distinct *Gulf Arab Management style*, Scott-Jackson (2010) identified the need for building strategic capabilities on the pillars of local culture. The author proposes a distinct approach to Gulf management practices and principles quite in contrast to widely practised management models that are based on Western cultural values, on the basis of case study research of a major global bank in the UAE.

The main causal factors for the development of such a distinct model are their religious beliefs, Islam; tribal and family values; the Ottoman and European colonial bureaucracy that has inculcated in them a norm of strict adherence, adherence to authority and hierarchy, and centralised decision-making; mixed reaction to Western influences; Arab identity and role models; and cultural values that place more importance on relationships than task avoidance of conflict. These differing aspects also highlight the dilemma a UAE national may be confronting at the workplace when one works in an organizational environment quite in contrast to one's values and beliefs.

In response to this, Scott-Jackson (2010) has proposed the Gulf Arab Management Style based on the following attributes: connections, person-oriented approach, loyalty, open-door tradition, duty to stakeholders, consultation and decision-making, knowledge and learning, and conflict management.

The model is valuable in building employee engagement, resulting from history, culture, identity and religion of the Arab society and therefore difficult to copy thereby providing a source of competitive advantage through potential global differentiating strategic capability. This model is seen by managers as inspirational, positive and valuable that will promote and market the Arab management style worldwide.

The model espouses typical qualities of a Gulf Arab manager who values relationships in all aspects of life and works actively towards building wider and



influential networking relationships. He/she builds trust and displays transparency to colleagues and customers while respecting other's views and customs. They are friendly, trustworthy, value loyalty and seek long-term relationships. Furthermore, a Gulf Arab manager will adopt a person-oriented approach to business, share knowledge and manage conflict.



Figure 19. The Gulf Arab Management Style. Adapted from Scott-Jackson (2010).

Having said that, appropriate time for anything is based on practicality and its usefulness in today's context because they live for the moment and there is no tomorrow in their dictionary. He/she should be able to manage tensions and pressure on time by avoiding over-planning. Rather he/she should aim at managing problems as and when they arise during designing and executing (Scott-Jackson, 2010). This research will try to propose recommendations that could be used in future research to develop a competency model that fits the UAE work environment, from the perspectives of UAE national managers and the expatriate managers.

### **Research Model**

A research model or a conceptual framework serves two purposes: theoretical clarification about the researcher's investigations, and making the readers aware of the research outcome and the methods adopted to achieve the outcome (Leshem & Trafford, 2007). Furthermore, a conceptual framework helps in explicitly identifying the aims of a research besides helping in being selective, identifying the important features and their relationships and the ways to collect and analyse data (Robson, 2002: p. 150--151).

The research started with the following five questions, in the context of UAE work environment:

Research question 1: Does national culture affect managerial-leadership competencies significantly?

Research question 2: Are there any positive correlations between managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction, organizational commitment?

Research question 3: How do gender differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?

Research question 4: How do sector differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?

Research question 5: How do sector differences affect the organizational commitment and job satisfaction?

These research questions helped to examine the influences of culture on managerial-leadership competencies of managers working in the UAE multicultural, multinational work environment. Additionally, the research sought to compare the managerial-leadership competencies of managers based on gender and sector, and examined the correlations between managerial-leadership competencies and organizational commitment and job satisfaction in a typically UAE work environment that practises Western organizational culture when it comes to planning strategies but follows traditional Arab culture while managing the workforce.

As suggested in the extant literature reviewed, though there are many factors identified as contributing to the effectiveness of managers by various researchers, the most important skills that the business leaders and managers may need in the UAE business environment can be summed up as working effectively in a team, motivating staff, strategic thinking and acting, efficiently working under pressure, leadership abilities, critical and creative thinking, understanding and appreciating diversity, effective communication and responsible action beyond reproach (Barhem, Salih, & Yousef, 2008).

The training and education the UAE nationals receive at school is affected greatly by cultural and religious values, and this may be in stark contrast with the organization culture and professionalism they encounter at work (Simadi, 2006). Scant research has been carried out to evaluate the competency of the UAE nationals against their cultural background; how cultural values of the UAE nationals can be at best integrated with the multinational and multicultural organization culture they encounter at work to make them competent and productive.

What is necessary is that the values, which determine their attitude and behaviour, should be projected as an interconnected web. It should be emphasised that personal and professional growth result from aspiration, achievement and discovery while productivity is the result of technology and economic mentality. The values and ethics of UAE nationals need to be recast “as an interconnected web in which values held by the employee and those held by the employer come together to generate conviction, commitment and collaboration.” (Pech, 2009: p. 69).

It is important that there needs to be a system in place that encourages positive organization culture which will allow the UAE national recruits to become competent, professional and committed despite their cultural inhibitions. There should be training programs developed to highlight the cultural values espoused by the UAE national employees, because if the UAE national employees do feel alienated, probably because of the disparate organization culture and failure to identify and adjust to the management style of the organization, they may become de-motivated and operate at sub-optimal level. Perhaps there should be a committed bond between the work values of an organization and the personal values and

attitudes of the employee to attain a stronger emotional commitment from the UAE nationals (Pech, 2009).

Aside from contributing to the literature on influences of culture, sector and gender on managerial-leadership competencies and the correlation among managerial competencies, sector, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (the central theme of this research), this study was designed to implicitly help the UAE nationals improve their competency by integrating their cultural values and using them to underpin their skills rather than allowing their professional careers to be inhibited.

There are aspiring UAE nationals who would like to succeed in the business environment against the negative stereotypes about themselves and participate actively in the development of the nation. Though not the primary goal, this research attempted to highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the UAE national managers in comparison to the expatriate managers working in the UAE work environment, keeping in mind the cultural norms of the Arab world. By examining and comparing the influences of gender, sector and culture on managerial competencies, this research will contribute significantly to the manager-leader profile development for the UAE. It will indirectly be a great help for the UAE nationals who want to discard the stereotypical image others have about them which they themselves endorse.

This research used the Competing Value Instrument (Quinn et al., 2003) based on the eight-role Competing Value Framework (Quinn, 1988) because this instrument covers the managerial as well as leadership traits of a manager and has been widely used in the literature. To answer the above-mentioned five research questions, 14 hypotheses were proposed.

Based on the literature reviewed, it is argued that Western business models are unsuitable for the Arab working environment (Ali, 1998; Branine, 2004, 2010; Branine & Pollard, 2010; Pech, 2009; Scott-Jackson, 2010; Simadi, 2006; Weir, 2001, 2005) and hence the first hypothesis.

**H1:** The **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn (1988),

measured and evaluated through the CVI (Quinn et al., 2003) do not apply to managers in the UAE (Arab) organization culture environment.

- **H2:** The cultural groups (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western) differ significantly for the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).
- **H3a:** There is a significant positive correlation between the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **affective organizational commitment** of managers and employees.
- **H3b:** There is a significant positive correlation between the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **continuance organizational commitment** of managers and employees.
- **H3c:** There is a significant positive correlation between the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **normative organizational commitment** of managers and employees.
- **H4a:** There is a significant positive correlation between the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **internal job satisfaction** of managers and employees.
- **H4b:** There is a significant positive correlation between the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **external job satisfaction** of managers and employees.
- **H5:** There is significant difference between male and female managers for the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).
- **H6:** There is significant difference between **private and public** sector managers on the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator,

monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).

- *H7a*: There is no significant difference between **private and public sector** for the **affective organizational commitment**.
- *H7b*: There is no significant difference between **private and public sector** for the **continuance organizational commitment**.
- *H7c*: There is no significant difference between **private and public sector** for the **normative organizational commitment**.
- *H8a*: There is no significant difference between **private and public sector** for the **internal job satisfaction** of managers and employees.
- *H8b*: There is no significant difference between **private and public sector** for the **external job satisfaction** of managers and employees

A conceptual research model explaining the relation between independent and dependent variables based on all the above-mentioned attributes is presented in Figure 20.

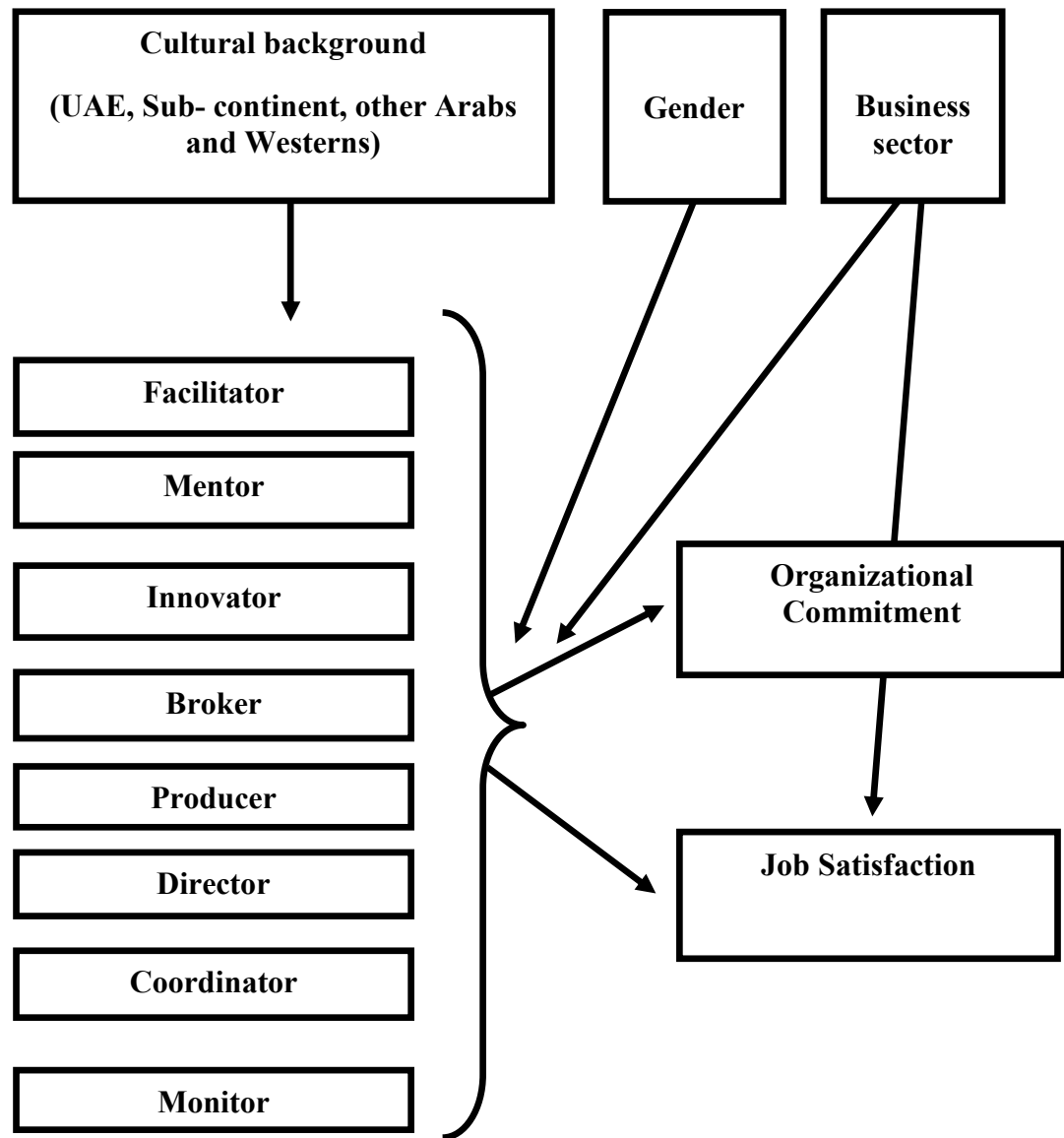


Figure 20. The research model.

## Chapter 3---Research Methodology

### Introduction

This chapter discusses various research paradigms, philosophies and perspectives before justifying the approach adopted for this study—to analyze the managerial competencies (based on the Quinn model (1988)) and their correlations with job satisfaction and organizational commitment for two samples (managers and employees) along various ethnic groups (UAE nationals, other Arabs, sub-continent, and Westerns), sectors (private and public), and gender (male and female) in the multicultural and multinational UAE work environment. A detailed explanation about the criteria for sample selection, selection of variables, questionnaire piloting and analysis, various statistical processes used for analysing the data and drawing inferences is provided.

Research is a strategy of systematic investigation that explores an idea or critically examines various aspects of an issue or task undertaken to solve a problem or make an argument; it may be controlled (under predetermined conditions and variables), rigorous, systematic, empirical, critical, valid and verifiable (Kumar, 2010).

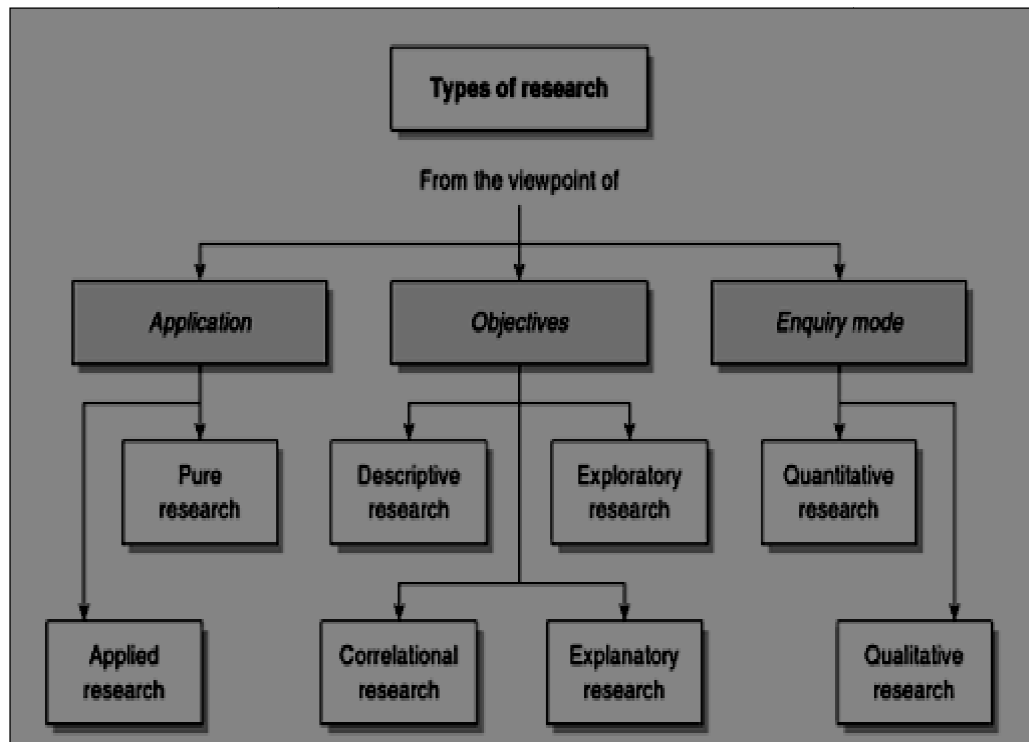
Based upon perspectives, a research may be application oriented, objectives oriented, or enquiry-mode oriented. An application oriented research may be pure research (developing and testing theories and hypotheses that are abstract) or an *applied research* (application of research techniques, procedures to collected data to draw conclusions that could be further used for policy formulation, administration, and improvement of a phenomenon, as is the case with the present study).

From an objective point of view, a research may be descriptive (describes a situation, phenomenon or a problem); correlational (undertaken to explore the relation between two or more variables); explanatory (undertaken to explain why certain things happen in the way they do); and exploratory research (undertaken in areas where little or nothing is known). *The present research is correlational because it tests correlation between the managerial-leadership roles described by*



*Quinn (1988) and job satisfaction and organizational commitment attributes across the selected cultural groups, gender, management levels, and business sectors.*

Based upon the mode of enquiry, a research may be structured (quantify variation and diversity of an issue) or unstructured (describe variation and diversity flexibly so as to identify as much diversity and variation as possible) (Kumar, 2010; p. 15). *This research used a structured mode of enquiry.*



*Figure 21. Types of research. Adapted from Kumar (2010: p. 15).*

*The present research, based upon the above-mentioned perspectives, is therefore applied, correlational, structured, quantitative and qualitative.*

### **Research Philosophies**

A research problem has an epistemological, ontological and axiological stand associated with it (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). Epistemology refers to theory of knowledge and deals with necessary conditions about knowledge, its sources, structure and limitations (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). Ontology deals with analysis of the knowledge based on interaction of a researcher and reality (Weber, 2004). Epistemology and ontology are often correlated and sometimes considered as one rather than two distinct philosophies; epistemology relates to

“what is” of accepted knowledge whereas ontology relates to how to ensure that the acceptable knowledge is legitimate and adequate (Crotty, 1998). Saunders et al. (2007) explain these three philosophies in simple terms: an epistemological stand is the acceptable knowledge in the field of study whereas an ontological stand refers to variables or objects of the acceptable knowledge being tested. The tools and techniques used for analysis in the research form the axiological stand of the research.

In the present study, the epistemological stand was that the effective managerial leaders require competencies that make them stand apart from non-effective manager leaders. These competencies are influenced by cultural predispositions, gender, and industrial sector (private and public). The ontological stand of the present research study evaluated the effectiveness of a manager along the eight managerial competencies outlined by Quinn (1988) using the Competing Values Instrument (Quinn et al., 2003). The competencies of a manager evaluated were: facilitator, mentor, innovator, broker, producer, director, coordinator, and monitor, and their correlations with sector, gender, organizational commitment and job satisfaction were studied. The axiological approach used in this research included secondary content analysis of the existing literature to identify competencies and competency models available and appropriate for this study, questionnaire surveys (CVM model, Allen & Meyer (1990) organizational commitment scale, and Hackman & Oldham (1975) job satisfaction scale, and semi-structured interviews.

A research may be classified based on philosophies, approaches, methodologies, time-horizons, strategies and data collection tools used (Saunders et al., 2007). On the basis of epistemological ideologies and the way information and data about a study should be collected and analysed, a research may be categorized as positivist (explained as cause and effect relationship using the existing theories to develop hypotheses that can be tested and confirmed or refuted in a value-free way), realistic (approaches an issue in terms of the reality, the actual, and the empirical using scientific approaches for knowledge development through methods such as interviews, case studies, and historical studies) or interpretive (advocates understanding differences between humans as social actors and underpins contribution of multiple interpretations to make a social reality through open-end

interviews, dialogue and observations). A positivist research philosophy uses observations, experiments, survey, statistical analyses to test hypotheses and generalize the results to a larger population (Saunders et al., 2007). A positivist approach uses structured methodology so that it is easy to replicate the results (Gill & Johnson, 2002).

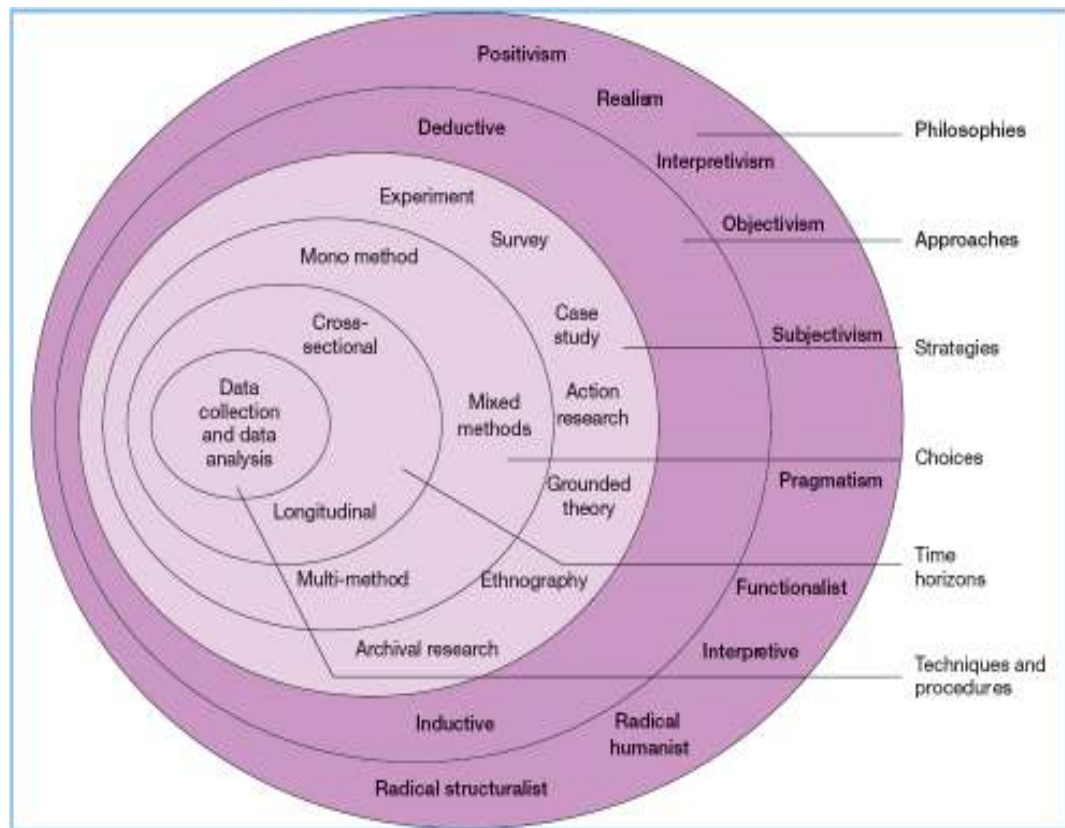


Figure 22. The research onion. Adapted from Saunders et al. (2007)

The present research uses a positivist philosophy because it develops hypotheses from already established theories to test the correlation between managerial leader roles (identified from the existing literature), sector, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment and examines influences of culture, sector and gender on the managerial-leadership competencies. A realistic approach was not suitable for this study because the research tried to measure in quantifiable terms the efficiency of a manager leader along the criteria identified by previous researchers. Interpretive approach was also avoided due to subjective bias that could creep in and the results could not be quantified and generalized.

Ontological categorization of research philosophy leads to objectivism and subjectivism; objectivism being existence of a reality independent of social actors whereas subjectivism refers to existence of reality which is ever changing and is the result of constant interaction between social actors and phenomenon. Subjectivism is also referred to as constructivism. Besides, pragmatism philosophy advocates that often it is possible to adopt more than one philosophy to probe an issue as is the case with this research (Saunders et al., 2007). This research adopts positivist and constructionist philosophy to examine the influences of culture, gender, and sector on managerial competencies (employing the Quinn et al. (2003) eight-role competency model) in the UAE multicultural and multinational work environment, and also to study the correlation between managerial competencies, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Once the philosophical underpinnings of a research are clear, the approaches taken to address these philosophical stands need to be clear. Saunders et al. (2007) in their research onion process identify two approaches: deductive and inductive. This research uses a deductive approach for the first phase of empirical study; an approach that involves developing a conceptual, theoretical structure tested through empirical methods and is generally associated with positivist philosophy. A deductive research identifies a testable proposition or hypothesis from the theory and expresses it in operational terms (variables) and their relationship, testing hypothesis, analysing the results and modifying the theory based upon the results (Robson, 2002). Quite contrary to this is the inductive approach which uses observations of a particular reality to develop a theory and is associated with interpretative philosophy (Saunders et al., 2007), which was not used in this research.

The philosophy and approach lead to the strategy a research should adopt. There are various research strategies to meet the demands and context of a researcher. A research strategy can be experimental (conducting an experiment), survey (evaluation of data through quantitative methods), grounded theory (generation of theory based on observations), ethnography (phenomenological study based on observations of patterns of human activities), action research (research in the form of field experiment), operational research (observing activities trying to understand their relationships with emphasis on operational efficiency), case studies

(trying to understand a social phenomenon in a particular setting) (Saunders et al., 2007). *This research uses survey strategy using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to obtain information.*

The research in the present case was cross-sectional meaning that it took place at a single time. Longitudinal research was not suitable because that requires repeated collection of data over a time period (Saunders et al., 2007).

### Methodology for Research

Applying the research onion proposed by Saunders et al. (2007) and Kumar (2010) to the present study, the following conclusions were drawn regarding the methodology adopted for this study (Table 3).

Table 3

#### *Research Methodologies Adopted for This Study*

Concepts		Approach	Justification
Perspectives (Kumar, 2010)			
<i>Application</i>	Applied		Involves use of primary (questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews) and secondary research to collect data to draw conclusions.
<i>Objectives</i>	Correlational		The research tries to test correlation between the eight managerial roles of CVI (Quinn et al., 2003), sector and job satisfaction and organizational commitment besides examining the influences of cultural predispositions, gender, and industrial sectors on managerial-leadership competencies.
<i>Enquiry mode</i>	Qual/quant		Questionnaire surveys were used for quantitative data collection and semi-structured interviews were used for qualitative data collection.
Philosophy (Saunders et al., 2007)			
<i>Epistemological</i>	Positivist		It develops hypotheses to test the correlations between managerial leader roles (identified from the existing literature) and job satisfaction and organizational commitment for cultural groups under study, gender, and industrial sector (private and public).
<i>Ontological</i>	Subjective constructionist		Managerial-leadership effectiveness is evaluated in terms of eight managerial roles proposed by Quinn (1988) and its influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of sample belonging to four selected cultural groups, different genders, and industrial sector (private and public).

<i>Paradigms</i>	Radical structuralist	The research proposes to list managerial-leadership competencies that are applicable in the UAE work environment by examining the managerial competencies based on cultural predispositions, gender, and business sector, and their relation to job satisfaction and organizational commitment.
<i>Approaches</i>	Deductive	Managerial leaders have various roles to play varying from perceptually contrasting roles to ones that are mutually complementary. The research tested the correlation between identified eight roles of a manager leader and job satisfaction, and organizational commitment across gender, cultural groups, industrial sectors and management levels. Thus, hypotheses correlating these factors were developed and tested through qualitative and quantitative approaches.
<i>Strategies</i>	Survey, interviews	Survey in the form of three questionnaires to assess the roles of managerial leaders, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. This helped to get information from large sample in the most economical way. Semi-structured interviews to consolidate the results from the questionnaire survey and propose competencies that were most suitable for UAE work environment and the ones that need to be worked upon
<i>Choices</i>	Mixed methods	Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used.
<i>Time Horizons</i>	Cross-sectional	The research administers questionnaires and interviews only once. It is not repeated over a period of time and this was not possible given the large sample.
<i>Techniques and procedures</i>	Questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews	The questionnaires used in this research have been already employed effectively to test the managerial roles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. This study has used them based on their success rates. Semi-structured interviews of managerial leaders were selected to validate the results of the questionnaire as that allowed incorporation of expert opinion beyond the boundaries of questionnaire.

### Research Design

Any research design serves to link theory and arguments proposed in the research and support or reject them through the empirical evidences collected in the research (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

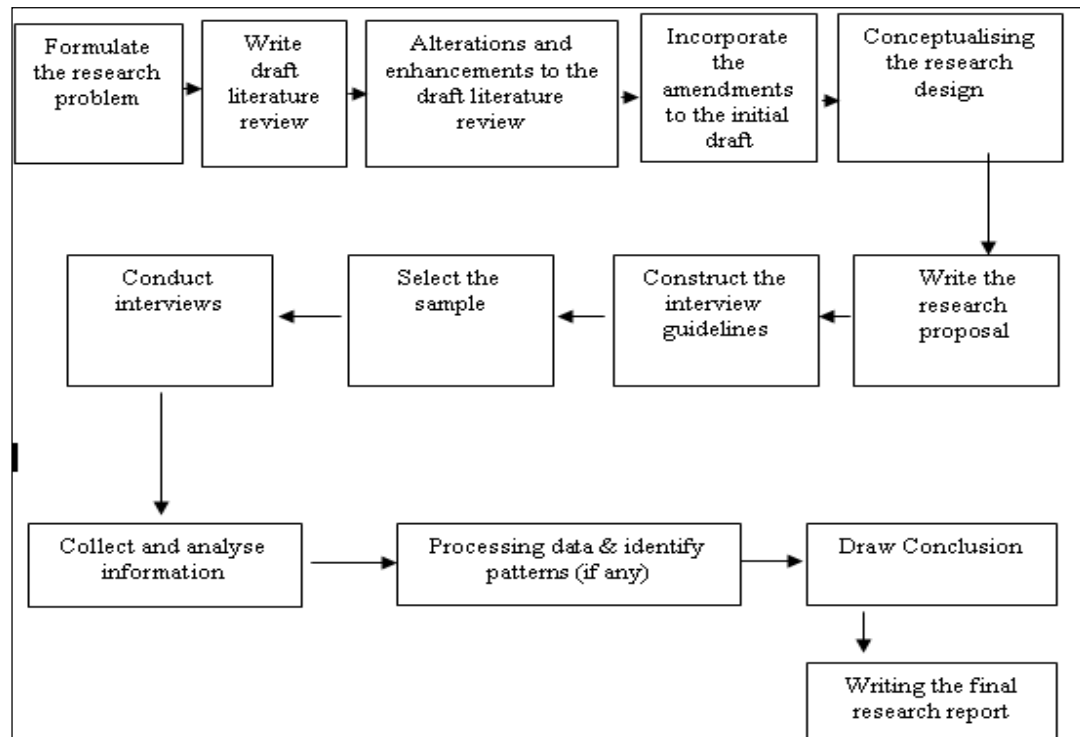


Figure 23. The research process. Adapted from Kumar (2010).

As is the case with any research, this research also started with defining a research problem and reviewing related literature to understand various researches done in the past, methodologies used by previous researchers and identifying areas that need to be researched (Figure 23; Kumar, 2010: pp. 22-25).

This research also used a process similar to what is explained in Figure 23. Using a blend of both primary and secondary approaches, the research process was: investigation (literature review), design (questionnaires selection), implementation (administering the questionnaire) and evaluation (statistical tools) (Delhay, 2000). The primary research allowed data collection on a first-hand basis using surveys and semi-structured interviews. The secondary research helped in collection of information and data through analysis of published materials on selected topics either in journals, books, websites, or newspapers, which was the case for the present study also. After a brief literature review, the research problem was identified—to analyze the managerial competencies of managers and their correlation with job satisfaction and organizational commitment for two samples (managers and employees), with various ethnic groups (UAE nationals, other Arabs, sub-continent, and Westerns), sectors (private and public), gender (male and female) in the

multicultural and multinational UAE work environment. A research proposal was drafted and approval sought before beginning a comprehensive literature review. The literature review provided the necessary background for developing a conceptual framework for this study. A conceptual framework is very important for any research because it helps to guide a researcher towards identifying the important features and variables of the research. Additionally, it also helps to consolidate the importance of relationships between selected variables besides guiding the researcher about the data needed and its analysis (Robson, 2002: pp. 150--151). The conceptual framework for this research is presented at the end of the literature review chapter. The research design of this study is presented below (Figure 24).



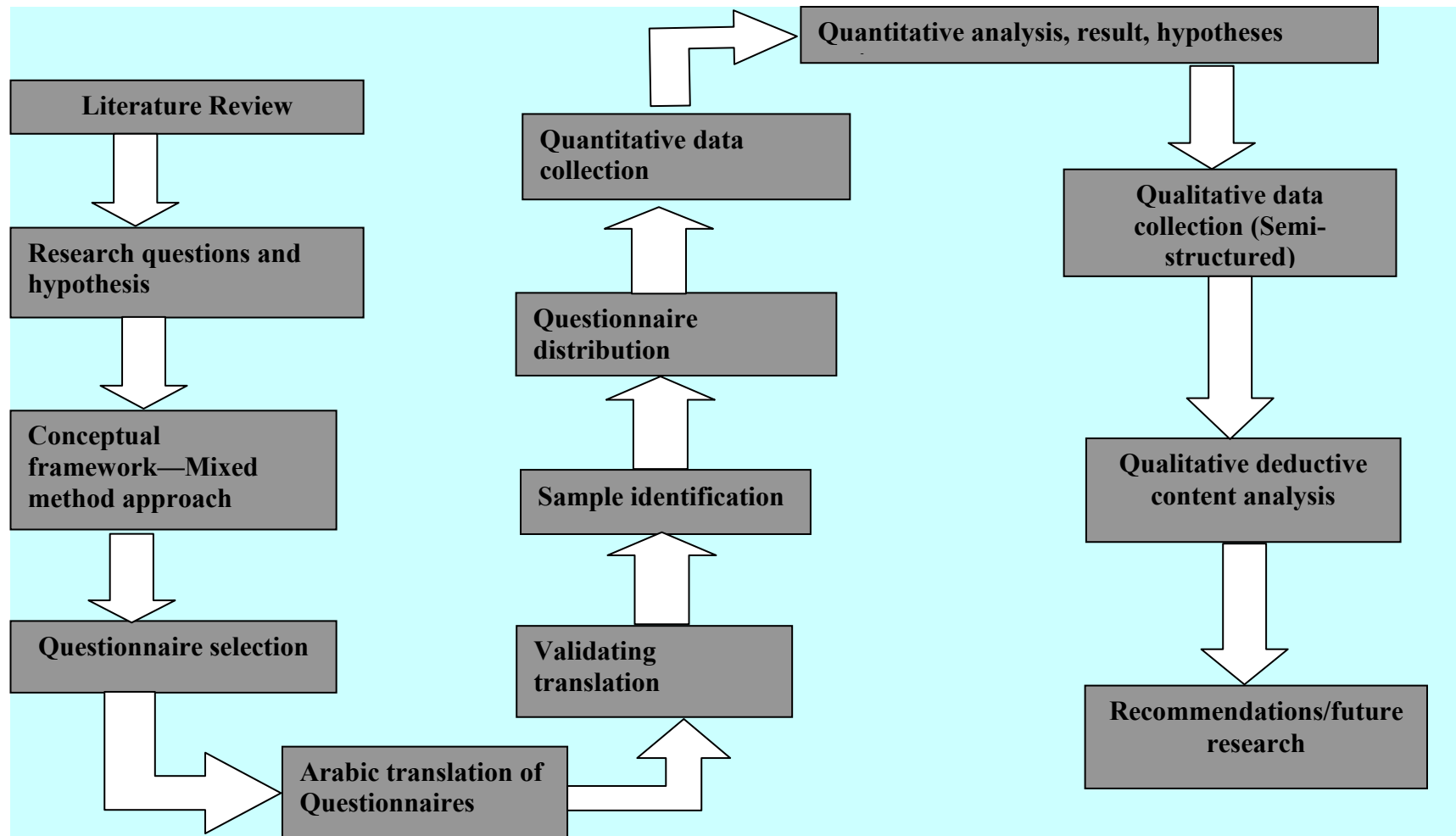


Figure 24. Research design for the study.

## **Literature Review**

The literature review was the most daunting and difficult part of this research. Literature review helps a researcher to establish context of the research problem, put forth the significance of the research problem, and relate ideas and theory to practical applications. The literature review also helps a researcher to identify the main methodologies and research techniques used in previous studies (Hart, 2007: p. 27).

The literature review started with understanding the historical, cultural and economical infrastructure of the UAE in the present context. This was important given the fact that managerial-leadership competencies of UAE national and expatriate managers were to be evaluated against the traditional Arab culture of the country. The second phase of the literature review dealt with the concept of competencies, models, managerial-leadership roles, contrasts and continuums and various models available in the extant literature about measuring managerial-leadership roles and effectiveness. Cultural dimensions and its application to managerial-leadership roles were also discussed. A note was made of various methodologies used by researchers to measure the managerial-leadership competencies, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Resources for information included university library at the Curtin University, libraries in the UAE, articles and reviews published in books and journals that were available in print form as well as electronic data, government publications and published surveys in the UAE, government institutions like TANMIA for factual information of employed and unemployed UAE nationals and initiatives taken by them to reinstate UAE nationals in the mainstream workforce.

## **Research Questions**

A research problem is generally selected based on a sociological paradigm, researcher's values, measurement of concepts, level of expertise, relevance, availability of data and ethical issues (Kumar, 2010). The research aimed to understand the interaction of managerial roles identified by Quinn (1988) with culture, gender, and industrial sector, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the UAE multicultural and multinational work environment. To accomplish this aim, five clear research questions were framed based on literature review for the

study because vague and general research questions may be misleading (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2006: p. 29). The research questions of this study were:

**Research question 1:** Does national culture affect managerial-leadership competencies significantly?

**Research question 2:** Are there any positive correlations between managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction, organizational commitments?

**Research question 3:** How do gender differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?

**Research question 4:** How do sector differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?

**Research question 5:** How do sector differences affect the organizational commitment and job satisfaction?

### **Hypotheses**

Hypothesis helps to link two or more variables and is a preliminary statement about the relationship of variables being examined (Welman, 2005; p. 12). A hypothesis helps to clarify, specify and focus the research study. A hypothesis is characterised by clarity and specificity, capable of verification, related to existing body of knowledge and measurable (Kumar, 2010). On the basis of above-defined research questions and the Competing Values Framework Model proposed by Quinn (1988), the following 14 hypotheses were proposed for the study:

**Does national culture affect the managerial-leadership competencies significantly?**

**H1:** The **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn (1988), measured and evaluated through CVI (Quinn et al., 2003) do not apply to managers in an Arab organization culture environment.

**H2:** The cultural groups (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western) differ significantly for the **eight managerial-leadership roles**

(mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).

**Are there any positive correlations between managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction, organizational commitments?**

*H3a:* There is a significant positive correlation between the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **affective organizational commitment** of managers and employees.

*H3b:* There is a significant positive correlation between the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **continuance organizational commitment** of managers and employees.

*H3c:* There is a significant positive correlation between the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **normative organizational commitment** of managers and employees.

*H4a:* There is a significant positive correlation between **the eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **internal job satisfaction** of managers and employees.

*H4b:* There is a significant positive correlation between **the eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **external job satisfaction** of managers and employees.

**How do gender differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?**

*H5:* There is significant difference between male and female managers for the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor,

coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).

#### **How do sector differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?**

*H6:* There is significant difference between **private and public sector managers** on **the eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).

#### **How do sector differences affect the organizational commitment and job satisfaction?**

*H7a:* There is no significant difference between **private and public sector managers** for the **affective organizational commitment**.

*H7b:* There is no significant difference between **private and public sector managers** for the **continuance organizational commitment**.

*H7c:* There is no significant difference between **private and public sector managers** for the **normative organizational commitment**.

*H8a:* There is no significant difference between **private and public sector** for the **internal job satisfaction** of managers and employees.

*H8b:* There is no significant difference between **private and public sector** for the **external job satisfaction** of managers and employees.

#### **Variables**

Variables are identified as entities that vary from one observation to another and are capable of taking more than one value (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2006; Kumar, 2010). Kumar (2010) further states that a concept that can be measured on any one of the four types of measurement scales (nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio scale) is called a variable (p. 63). Kumar (2010: p. 78) provides an excellent classification of variables based on causal model, study design and unit of measurement. While discussing and explaining in detail about these categories may be outside the scope of the study, a brief explanation may be very helpful. Based on the causal model (cause and effect relationship), four types of variables are identified: dependent, independent, extraneous and intervening. From the study design view point, the variables may be active (can be manipulated and changed) and attribute variables

(cannot be manipulated or changed, for example, age, gender). Finally, on the basis of unit of measurement, the variables may be quantitative—qualitative variables and continuous—discrete variables. This study uses dependent and independent variables which are explained in detail in the following sections.

### **Dependent variables.**

These are the variables that are potentially influenced by the independent variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001: p. 233), the variables that are affected by values of other variables (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2006) or in simpler terms the variables that are resultant or outcome variables (Kumar, 2010: p. 68). In this study the main dependent variables were job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the managers and employees as predicted by the eight managerial roles and the sectors. Job satisfaction was measured using a 14-point questionnaire proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975), whereas the organizational commitment of the employees was measured on a 24-scale questionnaire developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) that measured the affective, normative and continuance commitment of the respondents. Additionally, the managerial-leadership roles acted as the dependent variables while examining the influences of culture, sector and gender.

### **Independent variables.**

Independent variables are the ones that cause changes or influence dependent variable (Kumar, 2010: p. 68); are independent because they are external to the process being studied (Zikmund & Babin, 2007), also defined as the ones that “influence other variables thereby determining the values of affected variables” (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2006). In this study, the independent variables were the eight managerial-leadership competencies identified by Quinn (1988) in his CVF. The Competing Values Instrument developed by Quinn et al. (2003) had these eight roles measured through 32 items. These roles were leadership roles [innovator (items 1, 10, 22, and 25), facilitator (items 6, 11, 24, and 31), mentor (items 8, 16, 20 and 29), and director (items 7, 12, 19, and 26)], and managerial roles [producer (items 5, 15, 23 and 30), monitor (items, 4, 14, 17, and 32), coordinator (items 2, 9, 21, and 28), and broker (items 3, 13, 18 and 27)]. These managerial roles served dual roles in this study: they were used as first set of independent variables while analysing their correlation with job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the managers and

the employees. However, they were used as the dependent variables when examining the influences of second set independent variables, cultural groups (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western), industrial sectors (private sector and public sector), and gender (male and female).

### **Measurement Scales Used**

#### **Competing Values Instrument: Managerial leadership.**

The Competing Values Instrument; Managerial Leadership (extended version), a 32-item questionnaire was used to measure the managerial behaviors of the sample (Quinn et al., 2003). This instrument has its roots in the Quinn model (1988) of Competing Values Framework which was originally a 16-item questionnaire measuring the eight managerial roles (innovator, broker, producer, director, coordinator, monitor, facilitator, and mentor). This framework is a popular leadership instrument that can be effectively used to measure both leadership and management skills (Whetten & Cameron, 2002). This framework has been used extensively in the past to assess managerial behaviors based on the above-mentioned roles to measure student leadership characteristics (Buckner & Williams, 1995), in relation to cultural variables (Garman, 2006), human resource development (Belasen & Frank (2008), correlation between leadership roles and organizational effectiveness (Cameron, Quinn, & DeGraff, 2006). This framework is widely employed by researchers in organizational and management research because it suggests managerial role models that are perceptually contrasting but mutually complementary (Belasen & Frank, 2008). The instrument has convergent and discriminant validity and very high reliability (Quinn, Faerman, & Dixit, 1987). In the present study, the instrument was administered to the sample managers and employees to assess the managerial behaviour of themselves and their managers, respectively. A manager's perception of managerial roles and an employee's perception (subordinate) of managerial roles were analyzed to draw upon the roles of a manager in the Arab cultural context.

#### **Allen and Meyer Model for organizational commitment.**

This instrument was used to measure the organizational commitment of the sample. Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed a three component model for

organizational commitment that measured affective, continuance, and normative commitment constructs of an individual employee. Affective commitment of an employee is the positive feeling of being associated and involved with the organization; continuance commitment is the commitment of the employee by virtue of costs involved in leaving the organization and normative commitment is defined as the obligation on the part of the employee to continue in the organization. The instrument has eight constructs for each commitment measured on a seven-point scale with options: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Slightly disagree, Neutral, Slightly agree, Agree, Strongly agree. The items that were reverse coded were marked as (R). The scale had items OC1 to OC8 measuring the affective commitment of an individual with OC4, OC5, OC6 and OC8 as reverse coded; items OC9 to OC16 measuring the continuance commitment of an individual with items OC 9 and OC12 as reverse coded, and OC17 to OC24 measuring the normative commitment of an individual and had OC18, OC19 and OC24 reverse coded. The composite index had acceptable reliability ( $\alpha = 0.90$ ). The study tried to find out the relation between the eight managerial roles identified by the Competing Values Instrument: Managerial Leadership (extended version) of Quinn et al. (2003) and organizational commitment of the sample through correlation analysis.

#### **Hackman and Oldham (1975) questionnaire for job satisfaction.**

The Hackman and Oldham model for job satisfaction (1975) (known as Job Characteristics Model--JCM) contends that for an employee to experience job satisfaction, it is imperative that the three critical psychological states, experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge, are present.

The model explains job satisfaction of an employee through the cycle of job dimensions and psychological states moderated by individual skills, knowledge and growth need strength of the employee. The model discusses five core job dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback that influence the three key psychological states: experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for the work, and knowledge of results, which in turn impact job satisfaction. Furthermore, it was noted that these relationships were moderated by knowledge, skill, and growth need strength of an individual. Beside these mediator factors, "contextual factors" such as pay, growth, job security, co-



workers and supervision also impacted job satisfaction (Pierce & Dunham, 1978). The JCM tool was selected for this research because it still remains a powerful conceptual tool for job satisfaction measurement (DeVaro, Li, & Brookshire, 2007).

In this study, job satisfaction of the sample managers and employees was measured through five-dimensional Job Diagnostic Survey that has 14 items to be rated on a five-point rating scale: 5=Strongly agree, 4=Agree, 3=Neither agree or disagree, 2=Disagree and 1=Strongly disagree. The five dimensions of job satisfaction measured were pay (constructs 2, 9; reliability 0.82), job security (constructs 1, 11; reliability 0.62), social (constructs 4, 7, and 12; reliability 0.56), supervisory (constructs 5, 8, 14; reliability 0.79), and growth items (constructs 3, 6, 10, 13; reliability 0.84). This model still remains a powerful tool for measuring job satisfaction (DeVaro et al., 2007) and hence this model was selected to study correlation between job satisfaction and managerial-leadership roles identified by the Competing Values Framework.

### **Translation.**

As both private and public sector employees were included in the sample, it was necessary to translate the questionnaires into Arabic for the benefit of public sector employees. In the public sector organizations, knowledge of English is an added advantage and not mandatory, unlike in the private sector. The questionnaires were translated into Arabic by professional translators. Two different professional translators were used for effective translation and to avoid ambiguity. The two translations were then compared and the discrepancies in translations were settled by seeking the opinion of a third professional translator. To validate the translation, a different pair of Arabic to English translators was used and the English translated contents checked for meaning and consistency by comparing it with the original questionnaire. The finalized questionnaires were then released for the survey.

### **Ethical Considerations**

Research ethics is all about being clear about the understanding between the researcher and its subjects (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2001). Bell (2005) has clearly described ethical guidelines that need to be followed while conducting a research, which were also followed for this research:

*Ethics Committee Approval:* The role of Ethics Committee is to monitor that the research is carried within confines of ethical and moral guidelines. It is the responsibility and accountability of a researcher that he or she remains sensitive to issues and concerns of the participants and the society while trying to maximize the quality of data and information. A request letter to the Curtin University as well as the Ministry of Education, UAE was sent to seek approval for conducting the present research.

*Participant's Consent:* Informed consent for voluntary participation of the sample is necessary (Neuman, 2006) and in this case also, all the participants were sent a letter seeking their willingness and permission to participate in the survey. The letter contained information on the purpose of the study and the nature of data that may be sought through the survey. The participants were assured confidentiality and responsible handling of data by explaining to them how the information gathered will be stored. The respondents reserved the right not to answer questions that they were uncomfortable with or that violated confidentiality of the organization. The respondents were given a timeframe to complete the questionnaire and were in their natural environment while answering the questionnaire.

*Promised Anonymity and Confidentiality:* The sample was promised confidentiality and anonymity under all circumstances. The information about identity was maintained through a coded and secure database. Anonymity allows reliability maximization and also improves responses on sensitive topics (Babbie, 2007). For this research, there was a column for name, but it was optional. Nevertheless, the sample was assured anonymity and confidentiality verbally as well as in written consent form.

*Information dealt with responsibly:* The purpose of the survey was explained clearly to the sample. It was also assured that the information thus gathered will be used only for the research purpose and will not be shared by anyone else. Provisions will be made to retain all data, including documents and questionnaires by the Curtin University in a secure facility for at least five years.

### Sample

A population is the entire group of people targeted for the study whereas a sample is a representative sub-group of the population used in the study. Sampling is the process of selecting a sample based on parameters and context of a research. A sample may be a probability sample or a non-probability sample. Probability sampling refers to a sample selected based on probability theory, basically based on random selection (Babbie, 2007). A probability sample may be:

- Simple random sample--when each sampling element of the population has equal chances of being selected and is usually done using a random number table.
- Systematic random sample: In this case, one unit is selected on a random basis and thereafter additional elementary units are selected at evenly spaced intervals.
- Stratified sample: In this case, mutually exclusive and exhaustive categories are identified, sampling frame is divided by it and then random selection is used to select cases from each category.
- Cluster sample: Refers to representative population selected based on random sampling of group from the population and then subsequently identifying the sample from the group randomly.

Non-probability sampling refers to samples that are not selected randomly and it may be broadly classified as convenience, snowball, quota and judgemental sampling. Non-probability samples have advantages of time and cost (Babbie, 2007). Convenience sampling refers to selection of a sample based on the researcher's convenience whereas quota sampling involves selection of a sample based on some fixed quota. Snowball sampling involves selection of a respondent who meets the criteria of the researcher and then asking the selected respondent to recommend others who the respondent may know and meets the criteria of the researcher. Judgemental sampling allows a researcher to be selective about the target group that he or she wants to sample. In this research, judgemental sampling was used because the sample was selected based on certain specific criteria, like level of management, gender, industrial sector and ethnicity.

### **Sample for Questionnaires**

The sample for the research in total was 850 (350 managers and 500 employees). In all, three questionnaires were used (Appendices A--C). One questionnaire for evaluating the managerial-leadership roles using the CVI: Managerial leadership (extended version) framework (Quinn et al., 2003). The second questionnaire was the Hackman and Oldham model for job satisfaction (1975). The third questionnaire was the Allen and Meyer (1990) three-component model for organizational commitment. The sample size for all of the above three questionnaires was 350 managers and 500 employees. The sample was split into two groups for two main reasons. Firstly, the researcher did not use 360° feedback method to analyse the managerial-leadership competencies and secondly, it was believed that differences exist between the managers' and the employees' (subordinates reporting to managers) perceptions about the managerial-leadership competencies. That is to say, a manager will perceive the effective managerial-leadership roles differently than an employee's perception about an effective manager. It must also be noted that the employees rating their managers in this study and the managers who rated themselves for managerial-leadership roles are not the same managers. A 360° feedback analysis could not be used because it involved identifying a large number of manager-employee pair which was not possible. A large number sample is necessary to produce statistically significant results (Hair et al., 2006). Furthermore, the UAE work environment displays protective traits (typical of an Arab culture) which would have made it difficult to extract honest answers from employees. Also, owing to the huge sample size ( $N=850$ ), it would have been difficult to keep an accurate track of an employee's reporting line to the manager and vice-versa. Although the managers and the employees of the sample may belong to the same organization, but the analysis could not be categorised as the 360° feedback.

Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) posit that a nominal scale dichotomous variable (such as gender, sectors) should have at least 10% of the sample represented in any category to produce significant results, otherwise the results may be misleading. On the basis of ethnicity it was decided to evaluate 150 UAE national managers and 200 expatriate managers (70 Arabs, 90 Asians (Indians, Pakistanis, Phillipinos and others from the sub-continent), and 40 Western). Also, it was decided to receive feedback

from 200 UAE national employees and 300 expatriate employees (120 Arabs, 120 Asians (Indians, Pakistanis, Phillipinos and others from the sub-continent) and 60 Western.

Based on gender, the sample was selected in such a way that there were minimum 40% female managers included. For the UAE national managers, gender division was 60 females and 90 males. For the expatriate managerial sample, the gender categorization was 80 females and 120 males.

On the basis of the industrial sector, the sample was split as 350 public sector and 500 private sector managers and employees. Statements and questions pertaining to demographic information of the sample were placed at the beginning of the questionnaire. Many studies (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001; Mitchell & Jolley, 2004) stress the importance of placing the demographic information at the end of the questionnaire because respondents may be reticent about sharing their personal information in the beginning. However, there is another school of thought which advocates placing the demographic information in the beginning of the questionnaire because they argue that personal questions are easier to answer and can serve as a warm-up exercise rather than forcing them directly into difficult questions of the questionnaire (Stasko & O'Brien, 1997). The demographic questions were placed at the beginning in this study because they were important for the research (gender, ethnicity, industrial sector) and placing them at the end could have encouraged chances of them being ignored (Statistics Canada, 2008).

### **Sample for Semi-Structured Interviews**

The sample size for the semi-structured interviews was 22 and it was a purposeful sample that included experienced managers and employees. The semi-structured interviews method has the advantage of producing a diverse range of information and its flexibility and ability to fit well with other qualitative and quantitative methods (Morgan, 1997, Vaughn, Schumm, & Sinagub, 1996). However, the semi-structured interviews method cannot be used to test hypotheses or draw inferences for a larger population.

### **Data Collection Tools**

The questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used as the data collection tools for this research. Data collection involved two sequential phases. Phase 1 comprised the collection of quantitative data through the three questionnaires described above. Phase 2 comprised collating these data for a meaningful discussion through semi-structured interviews.

### **Questionnaires Distribution**

The three selected questionnaires allowed the collection of large data within a short timeframe while making it an economical choice (Sheehan, 2001). Considering the sample size of 850 people, a questionnaire survey was the most appropriate data collection tool. The questionnaires were distributed as hardcopies to the participants and the completed questionnaires were collected via post or personally through nominated organization representatives to maintain anonymity.

Written permissions from the firms willing to participate in the survey were obtained and documented. Before distributing the questionnaires to the sample, the purpose of the survey was explained to them clearly and informed consent of the participants was sought. The participants were also assured of confidentiality and responsible handling of data. The scheduled timeframe for questionnaire survey was two-and-a-half months considering that there were three questionnaires to be answered. The sample participants were given 14 days to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed in a phased manner (Phase 1, Phase 2, Phase 3), 300 participants in each phase every 25 days. The questionnaires were distributed between February 2012 and April 2012 and the industries spanned health, education, aviation, banking, transportation, government ministries and departments.

The data were entered every week to remain updated about the progress of the survey and keeping a track of the required number of samples in each identified category. This helped to achieve the target category number approximately.

### **Semi-structured interviews.**

The probe questions for the semi-structured interviews were framed based on the results of the quantitative data collected through the questionnaire survey and

were held two months after the data were collected and the results interpreted (See Appendix D).

It included nine questions besides including questions for demographic information like gender, age nationality, level of education, and managerial level (Appendix D). The first eight questions were related to the first research question of the study “Does national culture affect managerial-leadership competencies significantly” tested through hypotheses 1 and 2. The first two questions sought answers from the respondents about the essential skills and competencies that a manager should possess in the UAE multinational labour market and the strengths of managers (managers’ sample) / their managers (employees’ sample). These questions were framed to understand the reasons as to why the eight managerial competencies of the Quinn model were not extracted for managers working in the UAE work environment and many mixed-loaded items. Thus, the first two questions (Q1 and Q2) provided clues about the expected essential managerial-leadership competencies and the ones actually possessed by the sample managers in the UAE working environment. Q3 and Q4 sought answers to strengths and challenges associated with each of the four cultural groups to gather more information on differences in managerial competencies linked to these four groups and relate it to the results observed from the ANOVA quantitative analysis. Q5 was designed to obtain information about the absence of items such as innovator (Does problem solving in creative, clever ways; Searches for innovations and potential improvements), director (Defines areas of agreement/responsibilities for subordinates; Sets clear objectives for the work unit) and coordinator roles (Keeps track of what goes on inside the unit and Brings a sense of order into the unit). These items were not present in the new extracted factors and it would be interesting to understand the reasons why the managers and employees in the UAE Arab work environment did not identify these elements as separate managerial competencies. Questions 6, 7 and 8 sought information as to why the four cultural groups differ on the extracted Mentor, Broker, and Monitor roles in the UAE work environment. And finally question 9 addressed the possible reasons for differences in gender display of the Broker role and was aimed to answer the third research question “How do gender differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?” evaluated through hypothesis 5.

The unit of analysis in the present research was managers and employees for the extracted managerial competencies. The sample size for qualitative interview was 22, selected through purposeful sampling—a process which allows information-rich cases to be selected for the study (Forman & Damschroder, 2007). The participants were informed about the purpose of the research, the research process and its ethical considerations before obtaining written consent from them. The interview time ranged between 45 and 70 minutes and an appointment for the face-to-face interview was fixed either through telephone or a personal visit.

### **Piloting**

The translated Arabic questionnaires and the English questionnaires were piloted to a small sample ( $N=50$ ; 25 English and 25 Arabic) to see if the questionnaire constructs were well understood by the respondents and also to check the face and content validity of the questionnaire (Babbie, 2007). Out of 50 questionnaires distributed, only 35 were returned. Based on the response and difficulties encountered by the pilot sample to complete the questionnaire, the following changes were made to English and Arabic versions of the questionnaires:

*Q: 6 – Please indicate your manager's managerial level?*

This question was added in the first section of the questionnaire group to study the relationship between management level and managerial competency skills, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

*Q: 9- Please indicate your manager's nationality?*

This question was added to make cultural comparisons among managers easy and more meaningful.

*Q: 10 - Please indicate what is your manager's gender?*

This question was necessary as the research aimed to correlate gender with the variables being studied.

The following changes were made to the Arabic and English version of all three questionnaires:



The options key header (1 to 7 Agree to Strongly not agree) was added to all pages of the questionnaires to facilitate easy answering by the respondents. The pilot sample found it confusing and annoying to refer to the first page of each questionnaire to make sure that they were marking the correct response option.

Question number 18 of the Competing Values Instrument: Managerial Leadership (extended version) questionnaire in Arabic version was difficult to understand by the respondents and hence it was reworded and checked for clarity in meaning through five participants before being included in the released version of the questionnaire.

The job satisfaction survey scale had words ‘agree’ and ‘disagree’ replaced with ‘satisfy’ and ‘dissatisfy’ as these words were more emphatic in the Arabic version.

### **Follow-Up Procedure and Collection**

The follow-up procedure included sending out a reminder mail for returning the filled-out questionnaire on the 4<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> day and a reminder call on the 12<sup>th</sup> day after distribution. The level of response rate is significant in assessing the research findings. Multiple contacts with the respondents improve the response rates (Fox, Crask, & Kim, 1988; Dillman, 2000) which was the case with the present study also. A representative was chosen to further distribute the questionnaires to respondents rather than distributing self-administered questionnaire to respondents directly by the researcher because in Arab culture, physical presence of an internal instrument is necessary to carry out the task (Mostafa, 2004, Al Ali, 2008). However, while following up, it was kept in mind that the participants cannot be pressured into returning a completed questionnaire.

Of the 850 questionnaires distributed, only 617 were returned and among these 617 returned questionnaires, only 510 questionnaires (145 managers and 365 employees) were complete. The response rate was calculated to be 72% whereas the actual response rate was (based on complete and usable questionnaires) calculated to be 60%. Acceptable levels of response rates in a survey have been debated for a long time. Many scholars suggest 50% as the minimal response rate (Babbie, 2007;

Baruch & Holtom, 2008), 60% by Fowler (1984 cited in Baruch & Holtom, 2008) and so on.

### **Reliability and Validity**

Reliability refers to the ability of the measure being repeated and producing the same result. The Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha is widely used to test the internal consistency of the scales related to independent variables used in a study. The reliability value, also referred to as Cronbach  $\alpha$ , ranges between 0 and 1. The higher the value, the greater is the reliability among the indicators (Cronbach, 2004). This study used questionnaires with previously established reliabilities, nonetheless, the following practical considerations were followed to obtain high-level reliability (Eiben & Jelasity, 2002).

1. Careful selection of constructs to suit the present research;
2. Pilot tests to ensure that the sample understand the constructs clearly;
3. Follow up of the survey to increase the response rate; and
4. Unbiased reporting of the results.

The validity of a research instrument is the degree to which the scale measures the intended measurement (Agarwal & Prasad, 1998), which may be quite a difficult task given the dynamic and abstract nature of constructs. Validity of the instrument chosen to measure the independent variables of the research depends upon the researcher's judgement and ability to select an instrument that relates to all variables relevant to the study (Rubio, Berg-Weger, Tebb, Lee, & Rauch, 2003). A questionnaire can be tested for face validity, content validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity (Cavana et al., 2001).

Davies, Kiesel, McFarland, Collard, Coston, & Keeton (2005) emphasises the following points while ensuring content validity of the research instrument, which were also followed for this research.

1. A comprehensive literature review to avoid excluding any important construct related to the research; and
2. Piloting the questionnaire for clarity and ambiguity.

Face validity of the questionnaire in the present research was tested at the piloting stage which tested the feasibility and usability of the questionnaire to the

desired criterion. Content validity of the questionnaire was done based on literature review and piloting. Based on the feedback, a few questions were included in the questionnaire and the options were also slightly modified to provide a clear understanding of the sample.

### Data Analysis

Data analysis involved data collection, preparation (entering, categorising, coding, and editing), statistical analyses, accuracy, and hypotheses testing (Cavana et al., 2001).

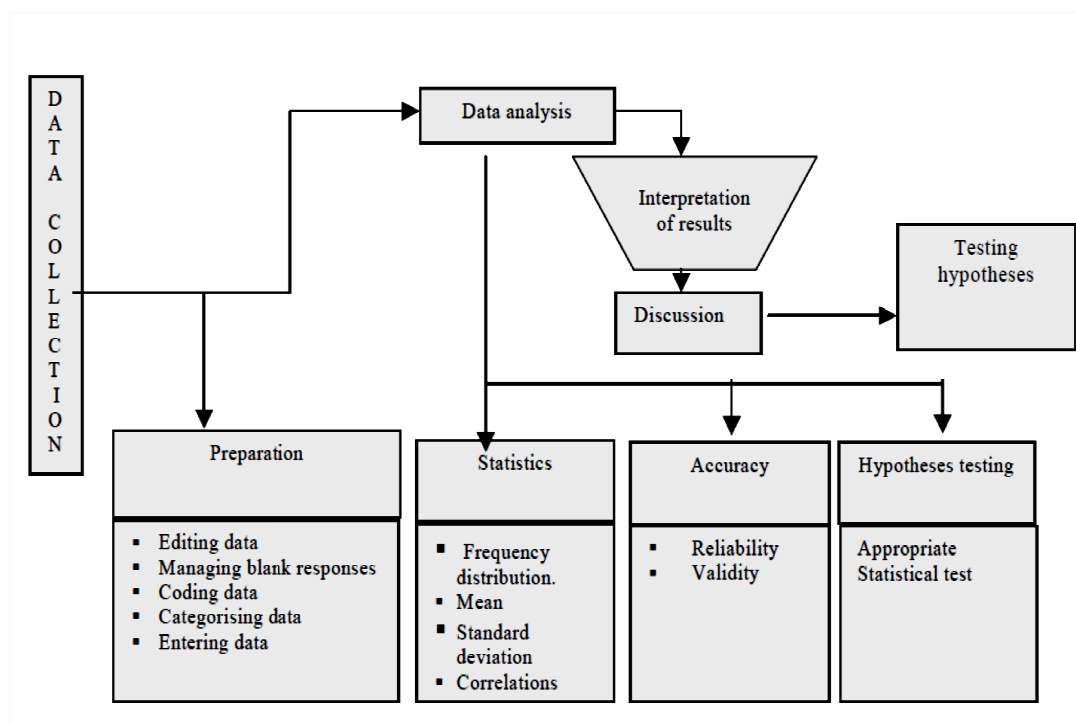


Figure 25. The data analysis process. Adapted from Cavana et al. (2001).

In the present research, the data analysis process started with collecting the completed questionnaire and creating a data file in the SPSS program (**SPSS version 19**) by entering the data. Before beginning the entry of the data, a codebook was prepared that defined and labelled each of the variables and also assigned numbers to it. This was necessary to maintain a reference to variables along with the codes and labels used in the data file.

### Data Preparation

The data preparation process started with checking and modifying the SPSS options for data display and options produced. This was followed by defining the

variables and their measurement scales used in the study (variables: manager/employee, gender, age, nationality, level of education, management level, years of work experience, industrial sector, manager's nationality (for employees), manager's gender (for employees), CVI statements, job satisfaction statements, and organizational commitment statements, and scales: nominal/categorical, ordinal/continuous and interval and ratio scale). Before entering the data, the questionnaires were checked for completeness and any questionnaires with more than 25% of the questions left unanswered were discarded as also suggested by Cavana et al. (2001). Blank responses were treated as per the guidelines of Cavana et al. (2001). A blank response can be either ignored, or a mid-point scale could be used for the blank response based upon response to that particular item, or a missing number within the scale range could be assigned, or a mean value based upon the response obtained could also be assigned. In this study, the blank responses were excluded using the exclude cases pairwise option of the SPSS that allows exclusion of cases for which they are missing data. The cases will still be included for analyses for which they have information. The exclude case listwise option was not selected because this option triggers deletion of a case even if a single piece of information is missing and this could severely restrict the sample size and distort the results (Pallant, 2011).

### **Data Cleaning**

Before analysing the data, they were checked for errors (scores outside the defined range) by performing a simple descriptive analysis of variables defined and checking for minimum and maximum values and rectifying errors, if any (Pallant, 2011). The data file was checked for errors, missing values, incompatible data entry before proceeding for statistical analyses.

### **Analyzing Data**

The research used the following statistical tools to analyze the collected data:

- Descriptive statistics
- Exploratory factor analysis using principal component extraction method
- Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) for reliability of measures
- Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) for correlation

- Linear regression analysis
- *t*-Test for gender and sector differences
- ANOVA for exploring differences among cultural groups in relation to each managerial role.

### **Descriptive statistics.**

Descriptive statistics helps to describe the characteristics of the sample by summarizing frequency and percentage of sample for categorical variables like gender, marital status, sector and helps to provide summary statistical details for continuous variables in terms of mean, median and standard deviation. It also helps in deciding the statistical techniques that may be used for further analysis and addresses specific research questions (Pallant, 2011). In the present study, descriptive statistics techniques were used to provide summary statistics for demographic items and variables (manager/employees, gender, ethnicity, industrial sector, and educational level).

### **Factor analysis.**

Factor analysis is a data reduction technique and is usually undertaken to extract information from large databases and to analyse relationships among large numbers of variables by defining a set of common underlying dimensions known as factors. Factor analysis helps to reduce data, explain appropriateness of factor analysis in the selection of factor extraction method (Hair et al., 2006). Factor analysis is generally carried out through exploratory and confirmatory approaches. Exploratory factor analysis through principal component analysis was used as a factor extraction method in this research (Pallant, 2011). A large sample (above 300), as was the case with the present research ( $N=510$ ), is suitable for factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Additionally, the interrelationship strength measured using the correlation matrix, Bartlett's test (should be large and statistically significant at  $p<0.05$ ), and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (should be greater than 0.60) was true for all the data sets in this research (Hair et al., 2006). The Kaiser's criterion (the eigenvalue rule) and the percentage of variance criterion were used to extract factors. As a rule, factors greater than eigenvalue 1 were retained for further investigation and the components that accounted for about total minimum 60% of variances were retained (Hair et al.,

2006). Interpretability and scientific utility of the extracted components were improved through Varimax orthogonal rotation which attempts to reduce the number of variables having high loadings on each factor (Pallant, 2011; p. 185)

Two exploratory factor analyses were conducted for all the three instruments used in the study (Allen & Meyer Model (1990) for organizational commitment; Hackman & Oldham (1975) questionnaire for job satisfaction and Quinn et al., 2003 for managerial-leadership roles): one for the managers' sample as the rater (self rated for all the three instruments) and one for the employees' sample as the rater (employees rating their managers for the managerial-leadership role instrument and self rating the other two instruments, job satisfaction and organizational commitment). It was decided to split the sample into two groups, managers and employees basically for two reasons: firstly, this study did not use 360° feedback and so the employees who rated their managers were not the same managers belonging to the managers' sample; and secondly it was predicted that a manager's viewpoint about managerial roles will be different from what an employee perceives about the roles of a manager. Further analyses were done to measure how job satisfaction and organizational commitment behaviours of managers and employees are influenced by the managerial competencies of managers and also how the sectors correlate to managerial competencies, organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the UAE working environment. It is important to mention that employees rated their managers for the CVI (managerial-leadership competencies) and rated themselves for organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Exploratory factor analysis based on rater groups have been done in the past also (Vilkinas & Cartan, 2006) and this study thus follows the norm.

### **Correlation analysis.**

Correlation analysis is usually undertaken when one wants to explore the strength of a relationship and the direction between two variables (Pallant, 2011). The research used Pearson's correlation coefficient to test the relationship between two continuous variables (managerial-leadership roles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment). The value of Pearson's coefficient ( $r$ ) value ranges from  $-1$  to  $+1$  with a correlation  $0$  indicating no relation and the size of the absolute

value (either positive or negative) indicating the relationship strength (small: .10-- .29; medium .30-- .49, and large: .50—1) (Cohen, 1992: pp. 79--81).

### **Multiple regression.**

Multiple regression techniques are used to explore the predictive ability of a set of continuous independent variables on one continuous dependent variable (Pallant, 2011). This technique allows measuring the variance contributed by each independent variable, and the role of each independent variable in predicting a particular outcome (dependent variable), ranking various independent variables in the order in which they affect the predictive ability of the dependent variable and analyzing the predictive abilities of independent variables in a controlled environment (Pallant, 2011: pp. 149--151). Using a standard multiple regression, where all independent variables are simultaneously entered in the equation and then judged on their level of predictive power, the variance predictive power of each of the managerial roles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment were evaluated.

### **Independent *t*-test.**

To explore differences and make comparison among groups—gender and sector, independent *t*-tests were used. Independent *t*-tests are used when a comparison of mean scores of continuous independent variable between two categorical groups is needed. The data set were checked for equal variances assumption on the basis of the Levene test value (ranges between 0.00 and 0.1) which should be greater than 0.05. Additionally, for differences among the groups to be statistically significant, the Sig. (2-tailed) value should be equal or less than 0.5 (Pallant, 2011).

### **ANOVA.**

When the differences between the mean scores of more than two groups are to be explored, analysis of variance technique is used. One-way analysis of variance involves comparison of variances between one independent variable with different sublevels and a continuous dependent variable through the F-ratio (Pallant, 2011; p. 249). A large F ratio indicates more variability between the groups than within the groups. In the present study, ANOVA was conducted to compare variances in the

managerial-leadership roles, organizational commitment and job satisfaction within the four cultural groups comprising the sample (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western).

### **Semi-Structured Interview Data Analysis**

The semi-structured interview data were analysed through thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a method of analyzing the qualitative data through identifying and analysing the patterns within data. The process aids in organising and describing the data set and interpreting various aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 2008). The data were collected through audio tapes and written field notes. The audio tapes and handwritten observations were labelled for easy identification later on. The labelling included the general format and in the order, Case number (interviewee--001 to 022), ethnicity group studied in this research (UAE, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western), Sample group (manager or employee—M or E), sector (private or public---PR or PU). Thus a sample label code was, 001 UAE M PR, indicating that the interviewee was case 1, of UAE nationality, a manager working in the private sector.

The data were transcribed into a word file and a separate word file was created initially for each question with responses from all 22 participants recorded for each question. Thus, initially, there were nine word files for nine questions. Answers by each respondent were noted along with any expressions in brackets. The noted down answers were compared to the tape-recorded answers to ensure accuracy. Comments noted down by the researcher were also added in a separate column against each response. The initial coding of the response was followed by data immersion, reduction and interpretation, which is actually more than just reproducing the responses of the participants (Patton, 2002). For clarity and flow of thoughts, it is suggested that data collection and analysis occur concurrently (Forman & Damschroder, 2007) and this was followed in the present research also. The coding scheme followed for the present research included—immersion, reduction and interpretation (Forman & Damschroder, 2007) that allowed examination of individual cases besides comparing and contrasting them to create new information.

Coding can be deductive and inductive. A coding is said to be deductive when apriori codes exist and are identified from an existing theoretical framework,



which in this case happened to be the eight managerial roles and the four models identified by Quinn (1988). Deductive coding was applied for questions 1--9 of the qualitative survey while inductive coding (analytical insights to develop codes and propose new theories) was not used in the present research.

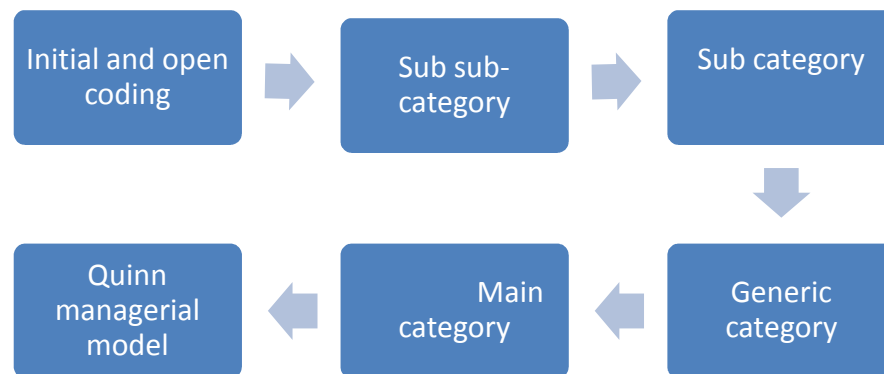
### **Immersion.**

Immersion allows a researcher to engage with data before rearranging them into units of analysis. Starting with relating the coded answers to general ideas that make up a concept or category or a theme, the researcher followed the memoing procedure advocated by Forman and Damschroder (2007). Memoing involves recording early thoughts and hunches as one engages with collected data. In the present study, memoing allowed identifying the responses of the participants through general managerial attributes like leadership, performance, target, work progress, and so on.

### **Reduction.**

The aim of the data reduction process in a qualitative analysis is to reduce the data based on relevant research questions, reorganize the data into categories (various levels) and finally group the data into manageable themes (Forman & Damschroder, 2007). Codes generally represent topics, concepts, categories and allow a researcher to organize the data into several analytical categories. Besides, it allows a researcher to review what the data try to imply (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). For the present study, a five-level categorized deductive coding approach was adopted. The first level, labelled as initial and open coding, identified the responses of the participants using general functions of a manager like communication skills, motivation, encouragement, delegation, follow up work progress, and so on. First level coding was crystallized into second level coding and was named as the sub-sub category. This category included open-coded concepts that were similar to the items listed in the original Quinn CVI (2003). Thus, this category had items that were complete sensible statements and led to the third level coding called the sub category. Statements from the sub sub-category were re-examined to form focussed sub-category that included further refined concepts in line with 24 competencies of the Quinn model (1988). Generic themes were developed as the next category of coding level (fourth) that refined the underlying concept of managerial competency

even better. The items of the generic category were aligned with 24 item competencies listed under eight roles of the Quinn model (1988). Generic category coding level eventually led to the Main category where the observations of the participants were grouped along one of eight roles of the Quinn model (1988). Additionally, the main categories of managerial competencies that emerged as a result of the layered coding was linked to one of the four managerial competency models described by Quinn---Rational goal model, Human relation model, internal process model and open system model.



*Figure 26.* The coding framework followed in this research.

### **Interpretation.**

Data interpretation in qualitative analysis involves reorganizing and reassembling data to present the analysis in a meaningful way with the help of matrices, display charts, tables etcetera. (Forman & Damschroder, 2007). Interpretation in the present research included drawing analogies and displaying the data in a meaningful tabular format with various categories, concepts and themes clearly identified that utilized the deductive coding method.

The next chapter, Chapter 4, presents the data analysed and the results obtained based on the methodologies, tools and techniques listed in this chapter.

## Chapter 4---Data Analysis

### Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative and the qualitative results of the research carried out to examine the influences of culture, gender, and sector on managerial competencies in the UAE work culture environment and to test the correlations between managerial competencies–job satisfaction; managerial competencies–organizational commitment; sector–job satisfaction; sector–organizational commitment and sector–managerial competencies. Of the 850 questionnaires distributed, only 510 questionnaires (145 managers and 365 employees) were complete.

### Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics describing the characteristics of the sample were carried out first to gain a better understanding of the sample and argue the selection and validation of analytical tests employed in the latter part of the study (Pallant, 2011).

### Sample Demographic Profile

The sample size for the quantitative survey was 850 (350 managers and 500 employees) participants. A total of 617 participants responded of which only 510 questionnaires were complete. There were 238 male respondents (47%) and 272 (53%) female respondents. The overall gender segregation for the managers (manager and employee's managers (question 9 and 10 of the questionnaire in Appendix A) was 323 (63%) males (86 managers and 237 employee's manager) and 187 (37%) females (59 managers and 128 employee's manager) (Table 4). Classification of managers rated by their employees based on nationality showed that 174 (47.5%) employees reported to managers belonging to UAE nationality, 60 employees (16.4%) to managers from the Sub-continent; 92 employees (25.1%) to managers from the other Arab group, and 39 employees (10.7%) reported to Western managers. Splitting the overall managers' nationality (managers and employee's managers) into the four cultural groups indicated the following observations: 247 UAE national managers (48.4%), 88 managers from the Sub-continent (17.3%); 124 managers from the other Arabs group (24.3%), and 51 managers from the Western group (10.1%).

Table 4

*Demographic Profile of the Sample*

<b>Variables</b>		<b>Manager (N=145)</b>	<b>Employees (N=365)</b>	<b>Employees' managers</b>
Gender	Male	86 (59.3%)	152 (42%)	237 (73.4%)
	Female	59 (40.7%)	213 (58%)	128 (68.4%)
Nationality	UAE nationals	73 (50.3%)	149 (40.8%)	174 (47.5%)
	Other Arabs	28 (19.3%)	78 (21.4%)	92 (25.1%)
	Sub-continent	32 (22.1%)	103 (28.2%)	60 (16.4%)
	Western	12 (8.3%)	33 (9.0%)	39 (10.7%)
	Other	0 (0%)	2 (0.5%)	
Sector	Private	83 (57.2%)	237 (64.9%)	
	Public	62 (42.8%)	128 (35.1%)	

**Factor Analysis**

Exploratory factor analysis using Principal Component Analysis, factor extraction based on percentage of variance criterion and Kaiser's criterion, and rotating the extracted factors using orthogonal Varimax rotation was carried out for all the three variables, managerial roles (independent variable), organizational commitment and job satisfaction (dependent variables) by splitting the sample into two groups: managers and employees. The results so obtained were used to examine the effects of managerial competencies of managers and employees' managers on job satisfaction and organizational commitment behaviours of the managers and the employees.

**Factor Analysis for Managerial Roles---Competing Values Instrument Managers.**

It was observed that there were a large number of items that showed correlations among themselves with values above .30 (the minimum acceptable item-to-item correlation value (Hair et al., 2006), the KMO value was 0.91 and the Bartlett Test for Sphericity was significant ( $\chi^2(496) = 2648.832, p < .001$ ) suggesting suitability of data set for factor analysis. It was also observed that all the variables had communality values ranging from .54 to .77 (variables with smaller communality value (.30) are ignored) and the extracted seven components with eigenvalues more than 1 explained for 66.15% of the total variance (Refer Table 5).

Table 5  
*The Finalized Six Components of the CVI—Managers' Sample*

New Roles	Item no.	Quinn Model roles	Items (CVI)	Components loading					
				1	2	3	4	5	6
Team builder	q30	Producer	Emphasizes unit's achievement of stated purposes	<b>.843</b>	.007	.025	.139	.128	.188
	q31	Facilitator	Builds teamwork among team members	<b>.755</b>	.091	.260	-.013	.111	.203
	q23	Producer	Pushes the unit to meet the objectives	<b>.700</b>	.148	.327	.173	.201	.189
	q26	Director	Clarifies priorities and direction	<b>.697</b>	.222	.202	.181	.284	.072
	q24	Facilitator	Encourages subordinates to share ideas in the group	<b>.659</b>	.226	.416	.029	.207	.042
	q32	Monitor	Analyses written plans and schedules	<b>.635</b>	.307	.008	.201	.034	.093
	q29	Mentor	Shows concern for the needs of subordinates	<b>.631</b>	-.160	.374	.227	.110	.204
Broker	q3	Broker	Exerts upward influence in the organization	.111	<b>.778</b>	.099	.117	.012	.170
	q13	Broker	Influences decisions made at higher levels	.157	<b>.761</b>	-.042	.237	.021	.120
	q18	Broker	Gets access to people at higher levels	.089	<b>.674</b>	.505	-.087	.035	.110
Mentor	q8	Mentor	Listens to the personal problems of subordinates	.321	.106	<b>.728</b>	.225	-.101	-.045
	q20	Mentor	Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way	.156	.210	<b>.665</b>	-.037	.206	.244
	q16	Mentor	Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates	.330	.001	<b>.556</b>	.208	.300	.140
Monitor	q4	Monitor	Carefully reviews detailed reports	.082	.118	.056	<b>.781</b>	.072	.183
	q14	Monitor	Compares records, reports, and so on to detect discrepancies	.172	.417	.081	<b>.603</b>	.304	.042
	q15	Producer	Sees that the unit delivers on stated goals	.399	.353	.157	<b>.577</b>	.262	-.060
	q9	Coordinator	Minimizes disruptions to the work flow	.276	-.111	.378	<b>.492</b>	.138	.277
Result-oriented	q12	Director	Makes sure everyone knows where the group is going	.365	.081	.101	-.052	<b>.719</b>	.187
	q5	Producer	Maintains a "result" orientation in the unit	.036	-.087	.136	.220	<b>.707</b>	-.057
	q2	Coordinator	Protects continuity in day-to-day operation	.292	.209	-.008	.298	<b>.554</b>	.145
Innovator	q10	Innovator	Experiments with new concepts and procedures	.232	.147	.053	.146	-.050	<b>.824</b>
	q11	Facilitator	Encourages participative decision making in the group	.389	.130	.158	.073	.334	<b>.593</b>
	q1	Innovator	Come up with inventive ideas	.108	.389	.227	.154	.122	<b>.554</b>
<b>Eigenvalues</b>				12.5	2.2	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.2
<b>Variance (%)</b>				19.6	9.6	9.4	8.3	7	6.6
<b>Mean</b>				5.7	4.6	5.6	5.5	5.8	5.3
<b>Median</b>				5.9	4.7	5.7	5.5	6	5.3
<b>Mode</b>				5.9	3.7	6.3	5.5	5.7	5.3
<b>Std Deviation</b>				0.9	1.2	1	0.9	0.7	0.8
<b>Reliability</b>				<b>.902</b>	<b>.749</b>	<b>.675</b>	<b>.754</b>	<b>.621</b>	<b>.701</b>

However, only six factors with individual factor loadings of more than 0.4 and the difference between the indicator loading and maximum cross-loading of more than 0.2 were retained (DeVellis, 2003) (Table 5). Pallant (2011, p. 192)

suggests that factor analysis is a data exploration technique, and its interpretation and use should be a judgemental issue of the researcher rather than any hard and fast statistical rules.

Thus, there were six components finally with 24 variables. *Component 1* had seven items from producer (q30, q23), facilitator (q31 and q24), director (q26), monitor (q32) and mentor (q29), and was titled “**Team builder**” (new name) because q30 and q31 were the highest loading items and as suggested by Hair et al. (2006), the new composite factor should take a name after the variable that has the highest loading. Thus, it was named “Team builder” because teamwork competency is being an effective team player, contributing to a healthy team environment through balanced combination of talent and resources (Lussier, 2008; pp. 10--11).

*Component 2* had three variables (q3, q13, q18), all belonging to the original “**Broker**” factor and thus retained the name “**Broker**”. *Component 3* had three variables (q8, q20, q16), all three of them belonging to the “Mentor” factor and was titled “**Mentor**”. *Component 4* had four variables loaded (q4, q14, q15, q9) and was named “**Monitor**”. *Component 5* had three variables loaded on to it (q12, q5, q2) and was called “**Result Oriented**” (new name) because it highlighted the result orientation of the group. Result orientation leads to superior performance and the competencies leading to superior performance includes goal and action management (efficiency orientation, proactivity, concern with impacts, diagnostic use of concepts), directing subordinates (unilateral power use, developing others), human resource management (accurate self assessment, self control, adaptability, managing group processes, objectivity) and leadership (self confidence, logical thoughts, conceptualization) (Powers, 1987). Finally, *component 6* had three factors loaded (q10, q1, q11) and was labelled “**Innovator**” (Refer the pictorial representation of the Quinn model in Figure 16, p. 68).

The revised conceptual model of the research per the result of the PCA output --- the six managerial-leadership role model for the managers’ sample in an Arab context culture is presented in Figure 27.

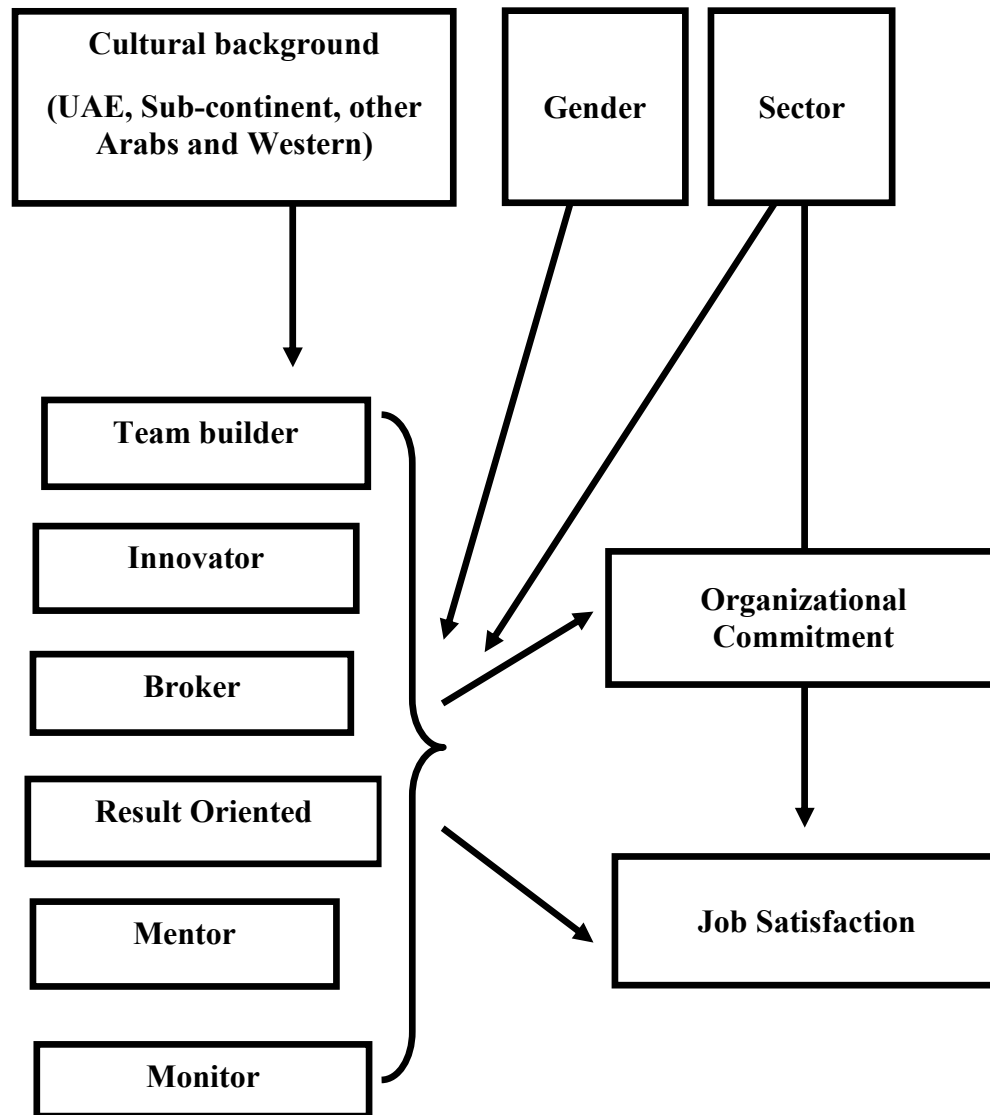


Figure 27. Conceptual research model for the managers' sample.

The reliability of the new components assessed using the Cronbach  $\alpha$  was in the range .619-.902, which is considered as an acceptable reliability (Cavana *et al.*, 2001).

### Employees.

The data set was suitable for factor analysis because the sample size was good ( $N=365$ ), most of the items showed item-to-item correlation values of more than .30, the KMO value was 0.97, the Bartlett Test for Sphericity was significant ( $\chi^2(496) = 9795.547, p < .001$ ), and the communality values ranged between .527 and

.771. Three factors were extracted for the employees' sample with eigenvalues greater than 1 and accounted for 64.77% of variance (Table 6).

Table 6

*The Finalized Three Components of the CVI—Employees' Sample*

New Role s	Item no.	Quinn Model roles	Extracted Items (CVI)	Components loadings		
				1	2	3
<b>Facilitator</b>	q31	Facilitator	Builds teamwork among team members	<b>.807</b>	.307	.186
	q24	Facilitator	Encourages subordinates to share ideas in the group	<b>.797</b>	.259	.198
	q29	Mentor	Shows concern for the needs of subordinates	<b>.779</b>	.210	.208
	q20	Mentor	Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way	<b>.764</b>	.126	.244
	q25	Innovator	Searches for innovation and potential improvements	<b>.727</b>	.344	.239
	q16	Mentor	Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates	<b>.719</b>	.249	.206
	q11	Facilitator	Encourages participative decision making in the group	<b>.706</b>	.261	.264
	q8	Mentor	Listens to the personal problems of subordinates	<b>.705</b>	.194	.286
	q32	Monitor	Analyzes written plans and schedules	<b>.643</b>	.410	.218
<b>Result-Oriented</b>	q4	Monitor	Carefully reviews detailed reports	.250	<b>.812</b>	.175
	q2	Coordinator	Protects continuity in day-to-day operation	.243	<b>.770</b>	.185
	q5	Producer	Maintains a "result" orientation in the unit	.398	<b>.765</b>	.130
<b>Broker</b>	q18	Broker	Gets access to people at higher levels	.230	.037	<b>.797</b>
	q13	Broker	Influences decisions made at higher levels	.297	.235	<b>.757</b>
	q3	Broker	Exerts upward influence in the organization	.267	.274	<b>.751</b>
<b>Eigenvalues</b>				18.2	1.3	1.2
<b>Variance (%)</b>				35.1	17.7	12
<b>Cumulative variance (%)</b>				35.1	52.8	64.8
<b>Reliability</b>				<b>.936</b>	<b>.782</b>	<b>.823</b>

*Component 1* had nine items with (four items from the mentor role (q29, q20, q16, q8) and three items from the facilitator role (q31, q24, q11), one from the innovator (q25), and one item from the monitor role (q32) of the original CVI). These items together formed the new component "**Facilitator**". *Component 2* had only three items, one from each of the following roles: monitor (q4), coordinator (q2), and producer (q5), and the new component was named "**Result Oriented**" (new name) as the competencies listed under this group fitted well with the competencies for a superior performing manager such as goal and action management, directing subordinates, human resource management (managing group processes) and leadership (logical thoughts, conceptualization) (Power, 1987).



*Component 3* had three items (q18, q13, q3), all three of them belonging to the “broker” role of the CVI and was named “**Broker**”. The reliability of the new components ranged between .782--.936, which is considered to be a good reliability value (Cavana et al., 2001).

The revised conceptual model of the research per the result of the PCA output ---the three managerial-leadership roles model for the employees’ sample in an Arab cultural context is presented in Figure 28.

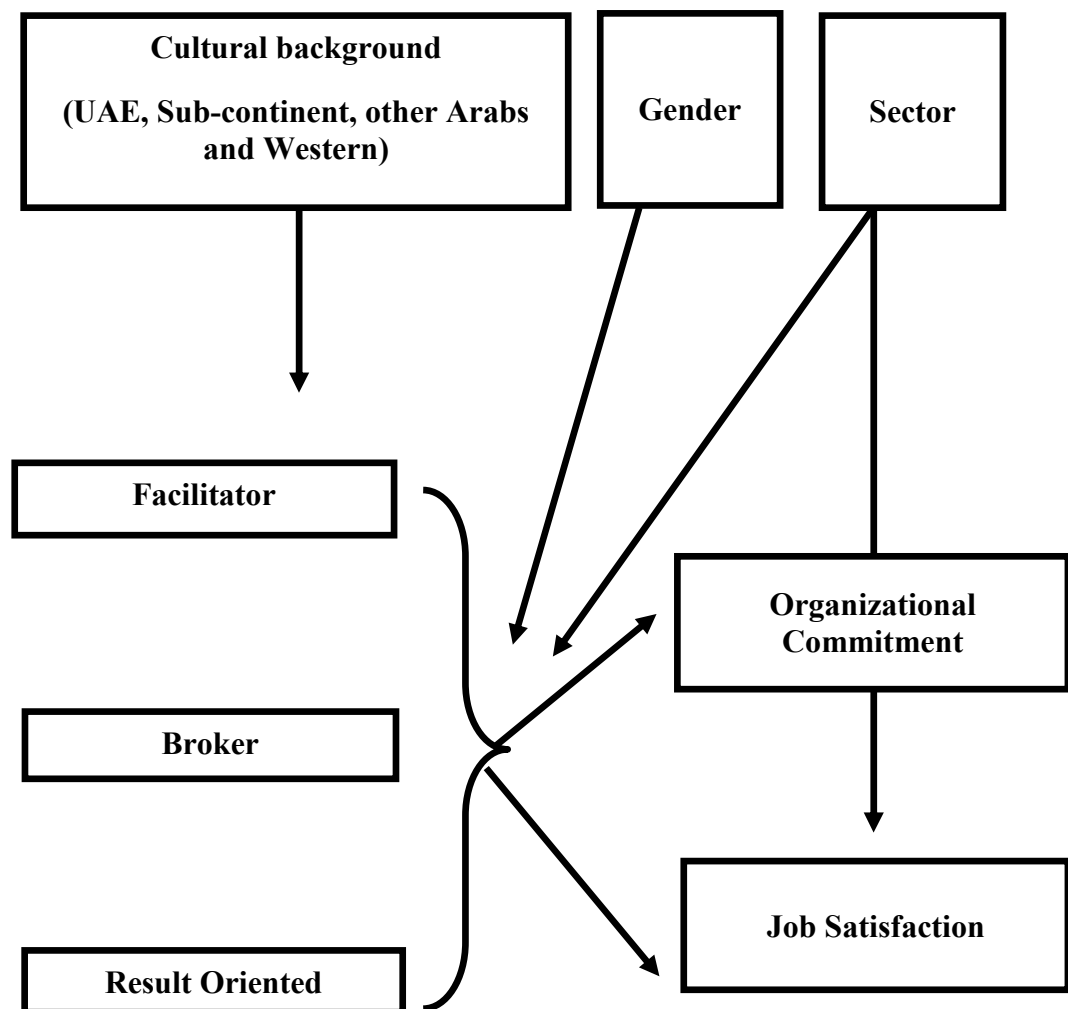


Figure 28. The revised conceptual research model for the employees’ sample.

Thus, the factor analysis of CVI (Quinn et al., 2003) with 32 items and eight roles in the present context led to some interesting results. In the case of the managers’ sample, only 24 items loaded significantly which were then grouped into six roles: Team builder, Broker, Mentor, Monitor, Result oriented and Innovator. In the case of the employees’ sample (employees rating of their managers), only 15 items loaded

significantly and the new components extracted were labelled as Facilitator, Result oriented and Broker. The extracted factors are capitalized in this study to differentiate it from the original CVI roles.

### Factor Analysis for Organization Commitment---Allen and Meyer Instrument (1990)

The factor analysis of this scale for the present study presented the following observations.

#### Managers' sample.

The data set was suitable for factor analysis because a large number of items displayed item-to-item correlation (with values above .30), the KMO value was .753 and the Bartlett Test for Sphericity was significant ( $\chi^2(276) = 11000.801, p < .001$ ), and the communalities ranged between .549 and .774, which was definitively higher than the .30 indicating that the items explain the variance sufficiently enough. Eight components were extracted with the eigenvalue more than 1 and accounted for 67% of total variance (Table 7).

Table 7

*Managers' Sample--The Finalized Three Components of the Organizational Commitment Scale Along with Their Variables, Reliability Value ( $\alpha$ ) and the Factor Loadings*

Rotated Component Matrix <sup>a</sup>				
Component				
Items		1	2	3
	Original groupings	$\alpha=.785$	$\alpha=.698$	$\alpha=.656$
<b>Affective</b>				
OC3	Affective	.813	.123	.190
OC1	Affective	.801	.087	.093
OC2	Affective	.762	-.023	-.103
OC5 R	Affective	.613	-.385	.176
OC7	Affective	.602	-.069	.226
<b>Continuance</b>				
OC14	Continuance	-.039	.798	-.021
OC15	Continuance	-.231	.688	-.103
OC16	Continuance	-.031	.631	.224
OC11	Continuance	.328	.617	.073
OC13	Continuance	.035	.563	.188
<b>Normative</b>				
OC20	Normative	.370	.064	.738
OC21	Normative	-.112	.093	.732
OC22	Normative	.274	.121	.717
Eigenvalues		4.7	3.1	1.9
Variance		19.7	13.1	8.1
Cumulative variance		19.7	32.8	40.9

However, only three factors with 13 variables in contrast to 24 items in the original scale were retained. The redefined scale with the items, factor loadings and reliability values ( $\alpha$ ) are presented in Table 7. *Component 1* had five variables and included items from the original affective (OC3, OC1, OC2, OC5(R), OC7, items OC4, OC6 and OC8 deleted), and retained the name “**Affective**”. *Component 2* had five variables all from the continuance group (OC14, OC15, OC16, OC11, and OC13), and was called “**Continuance**”. *Component 3* had three variables (OC20, OC21, and OC22), all three of them belonging to the normative factor of the original scale and was named “**Normative**”. The reliability of the new components ranged between .66 and .79, which is acceptable reliability (Table 7). The extracted factors’ names were capitalized to distinguish it from generic affective, continuance and normative organizational commitment references made in this dissertation.

### **Employees’ sample.**

The employees data set was suitable for factor analysis as it displayed item-to-item correlation value above .30 (Hair et al., 2006), the KMO value was .790 and the Bartlett Test for Sphericity was also significant ( $\chi^2(276) = 2401.128, p < .001$ ).

The communalities values for the new components ranged between .412 and .781 and the initially extracted seven components had eigenvalues greater than 1 and accounted for 59.75% of the total variance. However, only four factors with 14 items were retained against 24 items in the original scale. The reliability of the new components ranged from .577 to .863.

All the items that loaded on the new factors for both the employees’ and managers’ groups extracted similar to the original three-component model. However, the main difference from the original Allen and Meyer (1990) model was that the employees’ group loadings ended up with *four components instead of the original three factors*. For the managers’ group, three factors were extracted as found in the original scale and the grouping of the items based on the factor loadings were also similar to the groupings observed in the original scale (Tables 7 and 8).

Table 8

**Employees' Sample--The Finalized Components of the Organizational Commitment Scale Along with their Variables, Reliability Value ( $\alpha$ ) and Factor Loadings**

Items	Original roles	Rotated Component Matrix <sup>a</sup>			
		Component			
		1	2	3	4
		$\alpha=.779$	$\alpha=.718$	$\alpha=.577$	$\alpha=.863$
<b>Affective</b>					
OC3	Affective	.774	.067	.162	.086
OC2	Affective	.763	.060	-.017	.025
OC1	Affective	.713	-.110	.241	.233
OC7	Affective	.710	.137	.081	.079
OC5 (R)	Affective	.581	-.238	-.076	-.009
<b>Continuance 1</b>					
OC15	Continuance	-.013	.830	.101	-.060
OC14	Continuance	-.073	.803	.153	.052
OC16	Continuance	.080	.694	.089	.248
<b>Continuance 2</b>					
OC11	Continuance	.007	.183	.843	-.067
OC10	Continuance	.199	.140	.768	.135
OC21	Normative	.042	.036	.489	.214
<b>Normative</b>					
OC23	Normative	.143	.096	.153	.783
OC22	Normative	.343	-.100	.174	.708
OC17	Normative	-.064	.134	.010	.575
<b>Eigenvalues</b>		4.5	3.2	1.7	1.4
<b>Variance</b>		18.7	13.3	7.1	6
<b>Cumulative variance</b>		18.7	32	39.1	45.1

#### **Factor Analysis for Job Satisfaction----Hackman and Oldham Instrument (1975)**

The scale had 14 items and the factor analysis of this scale for the present study highlighted the following observations. For the managers' sample, it was observed that the majority of the items displayed item-to-item correlation above .30, the KMO value was .883 and the Bartlett Test for Sphericity was significant ( $\chi^2(91) = 1098.396, p < .001$ ) indicating that the data set was suitable for factor analysis. The communalities values ranged between .464 and .814, and the three components with eigenvalues greater than 1 accounted for 45.9% of the total variance. The final extraction included two components with 10 variables against 14 variables in the original scale. The reliability of the new components was .861 for the internal and .817 for the external factor.

For the employees' sample too, the data set was found to be suitable for factor analysis as the majority of the items showed item-to-item correlation values

above .30, the KMO value (.918) and the large, significant Bartlett Test for Sphericity value ( $\chi^2(91) = 3024.473, p < .001$ ). The communalities values ranged between .441 and .804, and the two components with eigenvalues greater than 1 accounted for 65.3% of the total variance with reliability values, .883 for the internal and .795 for the external factor.

The overall reliability of these factors for both the managers' and employees' sample was above .8, which was statistically significant. The redefined scale with the items, factor loadings and reliability values ( $\alpha$ ) are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

*The Finalized Components of the Job Satisfaction Scale Along with Their Variables, Reliability Value ( $\alpha$ ) and Factor Loadings—Managers' and Employees' Sample*

Items	Rotated Component Matrix <sup>a</sup>			
	Managers		Employees	
	Components		Components	
	1 Internal	2 External	1 Internal	2 External
	$\alpha=.861$	$\alpha=.817$	$\alpha=.883$	$\alpha=.795$
JS4	.741	.023	.763	.171
JS7	.716	.162	.712	.140
JS8	.706	.403	.647	.538
JS5	.706	.103	.722	.120
JS12	.684	.139	.769	.188
JS13	.673	.340	.751	.313
JS14	.665	.456	.667	.388
JS2	.049	.906	.111	.886
JS9	.184	.885	.202	.897
JS11	.477	.628	.449	.574
Eigenvalues	6.61	1.46	7.25	1.33
Variance	24.8	21.1	34.1	21.2
Cumulative variance	24.8	45.9	34.1	65.3

*Component 1* had seven items (JS4-Social, JS7-Social, JS8-Supervisor, JS5-Supervisor, JS12-Social, JS13-Growth, and JS 14-Supervisor) and it was named “**Internal**” because social environment, supervisory characteristics and growth of an individual employee are factors that are internal to an organization. *Component 2* had three items (JS2-Pay, JS9-Pay, and JS11-Security), and was called “**External**” because job security and pay are not just controlled by the internal environment of an organization but also greatly influenced by the market conditions and industry competition.

### Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis is usually undertaken to describe the strength and the direction of linear relationships between two variables. In the present study, the correlation between the extracted managerial roles [six for the managers' sample (Team builder, Broker, Mentor, Monitor, Result oriented and Innovator) and three for the employees sample (Facilitator, Result oriented and Broker)] and job satisfaction, and the extracted managerial roles and the organizational commitment was studied through regression.

It was observed that the Pearson product moment value ( $r$ ) for the factors analysed ranged between  $-.011$  and  $.636$  for the managerial sample (Table 10) and between  $.016$  and  $.873$  for the employees' sample (Table 11) indicating a strong correlation among the variables (Cohen, 1988 cited in Pallant, 2011, p. 134). The correlations were two tailed and significant at  $.01$  and  $.05$ .

Table 10

*Managers' Sample---Total Correlation Among Various Groups—Managerial Competencies, Organization Commitment and Job Satisfaction*

	Correlations for manager's sample												
Variable	Mean	Std Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
M_Team	5.7	.85	<b>(.902)</b>										
M_Broker	4.6	1.20	.384**	<b>(.749)</b>									
M_Result	5.8	.73	.548**	.233**	<b>(.621)</b>								
M_Innov	5.3	.83	.575**	.460**	.420**	<b>(.701)</b>							
M_Mentor	5.6	1.00	.636**	.400**	.392**	.464**	<b>(.675)</b>						
M_Monitor	5.5	.88	.577**	.446**	.524**	.485**	.489**	<b>(.754)</b>					
M_OC_Aff	5.5	1.06	.441**	.193*	.382**	.246**	.359**	.433**	<b>(.785)</b>				
M_OC_Contin	4.1	1.17	-.113	-.011	.031	-.089	-.037	-.060	-.040	<b>(.698)</b>			
M_OC_Norm	4.8	1.22	.123	-.026	.205*	.125	.070	.081	.342**	.197*	<b>(.656)</b>		
M_JBS_Int	5.7	.85	.365**	.155	.377**	.179*	.229**	.303**	.581**	-.037	.412**	<b>(.861)</b>	
M_JBS_Ext	5.7	.719	.616**	.286**	.729**	.646**	.529**	.642**	.330**	-.006	.066	.244**	<b>(.817)</b>

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

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

$N = 145$

Numbers in bold are the reliability ( $\alpha$ ) values.

Table 11

*Employees' Sample---Total Correlation Among Various Groups—Managerial Competencies, Organization Commitment and Job Satisfaction*

Correlations for employees sample											
Variable	Mean	Std. Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Facilitator	5.25	1.15	<b>(.936)</b>								
Broker	4.95	1.26	.615**	<b>(.782)</b>							
Result oriented	5.54	1.00	.654**	.481**	<b>(.823)</b>						
Aff commitment	5.05	1.19	.464**	.252**	.336**	<b>(.779)</b>					
Conti1 commitment	5.27	1.15	.873**	.593*	.720**	.378*	<b>(.718)</b>				
Norm commitment	4.52	1.23	.175**	.219*	.233**	.324*	.226*	<b>(.563)</b>			
Conti 2 commitment	4.59	1.29	.081	.016	.096	.229*	.130*	.291**	<b>(.577)</b>		
Int Job Satisfaction	5.34	1.05	.513**	.331*	.439**	.652**	.469**	.351**	.175**	<b>(.883)</b>	
Ext Job Satisfaction	5.31	1.11	.859**	.583*	.784**	.448*	.797*	.234**	.058	.513*	<b>(.795)</b>
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), Pearson Correlation *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), Pearson Correlation N=365 Numbers in bold are the reliability ( $\alpha$ ) values.											

Before zeroing in on standard multiple regression technique, the conformity of the sample for sample size, multicollinearity, singularity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were assessed, which is a mandatory requirement before proceeding with multiple linear regression. The results are tabulated below.

### Multiple Linear Correlation Analysis for Managers' Sample

The managerial sample size,  $N=145$ , was large enough for standard linear multiple regression. There were five dependent variables; three from organizational commitment (Affective, Normative, and Continuance) and two from job satisfaction (Internal and External) extracted through the factor analysis. Additionally, the managerial-leadership competencies were also treated as the dependent variables when examining the influences of culture, gender and sector on managerial-leadership competencies. The preliminary analyses for checking violation for normality, multicollinearity, linearity and homoscedasticity indicated non-violation of assumptions for standard multiple regression. The tolerance values were more

than 0.1, VIF far less than 10, and the Cook distance value was far lower than 1 in case of organizational commitment. For job satisfaction, the tolerance values were more than 0.1 (.418---.699), VIF far less than 10 (1.4—2.4) and the Cook distance value was far lower than 1 (.412) indicating an absence of multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

**Organizational affective commitment** for the managerial sample showed that all the six independent variables of a managerial role were correlated, with the values ranging between .193 and .433 and the independent variables correlation ranged between .233 and .636 satisfying the rule for inclusion (variable with value more than .7 should be excluded from regression) (Pallant, 2011, p. 156).

All the six managerial roles accounted for 23.2% of the variance in the affective organizational commitment (Adjusted  $R$  square change=.232). The variance contribution was statistically significant because the Sig.  $F$  Change value was observed to be .000 ( $F(6, 138) = 8.24, p < .0005$ ). Analysing the standardized coefficient values for the six managerial roles, it was observed that the Monitor ( $\beta = .238, p=.018$ ) and the Team builder role ( $\beta = .230, p = .043$ ) made significantly unique contributions to the prediction of the affective organizational commitment of managers whereas the Broker, the Result oriented and the Innovator roles did not contribute towards the prediction significantly.

**Normative organizational commitment** and the six managerial roles (independent variables) correlations were in the range .026---.205, and the inter-independent variables correlation ranged from .026 to .636. The six managerial roles together accounted for 1.4% of the variance in the normative organizational commitment (Adjusted  $R$  square change=.014) of the managers' sample, but it was not statistically significant because the Sig.  $F$  Change value was observed to be .242 ( $F(6, 138) = 1.3, p \neq .05$ ).

The Pearson product-moment correlation values for the **organizational Continuance commitment** and the six roles for a manager were in the range .011---.113, the correlation between the independent variables ranged from .011 to .636. All the six managerial roles accounted for only 0.09% of the variance in the Continuance



organizational commitment (Adjusted  $R$  square change=.009) though it was not statistically significant ( $F(6, 138) = 0.78, p > .05$ ).

The Pearson product correlation values for **internal job satisfaction** ranged between .155 and .377 and the correlation values among the managerial roles ranged from .233 to .636. All the six managerial roles accounted for 15.3% of the variance in the internal job satisfaction (Adjusted  $R$  square change=.153) and the variance contribution was statistically significant ( $F(6, 138) = 5.34, p < .0005$ ).

Analysing the contribution of each of the six managerial roles based on the standardized coefficient values (beta), it was observed that the Team builder role ( $\beta = .253, p=.013$ ) and the Result oriented role ( $\beta = .245, p=.035$ ) made significant unique contributions to the prediction of the internal job satisfaction whereas the Broker, Innovator, Monitor and the Mentor roles did not display significant contributions.

The correlation values between the six independent managerial roles and the **external job satisfaction** ranged between .286 and .729 while the correlation values between the independent variables ranged from .233 to .636. All the six managerial roles accounted for 71.7% of the variance in the external job satisfaction (Adjusted  $R$  square change=.717) and the variance contribution was statistically significant ( $F(6, 138) = 61.93, p < .0005$ ). The roles that contributed significantly included the Result-oriented role with the largest beta coefficient ( $\beta = .43, p=.000$ ) followed by the Innovator role ( $\beta = .34, p=.000$ ), the Monitor role ( $\beta = .24, p=.000$ ), the Broker role ( $\beta = .137, p=.011$ ), and the Mentor role ( $\beta = .130, p= .031$ ). Only the Team-builder role did not contribute significantly. A summary of multiple linear correlation analyses between the managerial roles of the managers' sample and the organizational commitment and job satisfaction is presented in Table 12.

Table 12

*Managers' Sample---Multiple Regression Analysis for the Six Managerial Roles, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction*

Ind Var	Dependent Variables																			
	Organizational Affective Commitment				Organizational Continuance Commitment				Organizational Normative Commitment				Internal Job satisfaction				External Job Satisfaction			
Managerial Roles	B	T	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	B	T	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	B	T	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	B	T	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	B	T	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>
Broker	-.03	-.35	.726	.232	.06	.59	.555	-.009	-.11	-1.1	.270	.014	.02	.26	.794	.153	-.14	-2.6	.011	.717
Result oriented	.14	1.5	.138		.16	1.46	.145		.20	1.9	.065		.25	2.53	.013		.43	7.74	.000	
Mentor	0.1	.98	.327		.06	.49	.625		-.01	-.09	.927		-.03	-.27	.785		.13	2.18	.031	
Monitor	.24	2.38	.018		-.05	-.46	.648		-.03	-.26	.797		.08	.81	.421		.24	3.92	.000	
Team builder	.23	2.04	.043		-.18	-1.40	.163		.03	.20	.839		.25	2.13	.035		.01	.21	.836	
Innovator	-.09	-.94	.350		-.08	-.70	.485		.10	.90	.371		-.11	-1.07	.285		.34	5.89	.000	

### Multiple Linear Correlation Analysis for Employees

In the employees' sample, only three managerial competencies were extracted, Facilitator, Result oriented and the Broker which were regressed with organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance (1 and 2), and Normative) and job satisfaction (Internal and External). The data set did not violate assumptions for normality, multicollinearity, linearity and homoscedasticity set out for conducting standard multiple regression: the tolerance values were more than 0.1 (.455 to .611), VIF far less than 10 (1.64—2.12), the Cook distance value was far lower than 1 (.058) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

It was observed that the **affective organizational commitment** among the employees was significantly correlated to the three extracted managerial roles of their managers with values ranging between .252 and .464. All the three managerial roles accounted for 21.3% of the variance in the affective organizational commitment of their employees (Adjusted  $R$  square change = .213;  $F(3, 361) = 33.9$ ,  $p < .0005$ ) with the Facilitator role ( $\beta = .46$ ,  $p = .000$ ) having the largest beta coefficient and a significant effect.

The Pearson product correlation values for the **Continuance1 organizational commitment** of the employees and the managerial roles ranged between .593 and .873 while the inter-managerial role correlation ranged from .481 to .654. All the three managerial roles accounted for 80.2% of the variance in the Continuance1 organizational commitment of their employees (Adjusted  $R$  square change = .803;  $F(3, 361) = 491.94$ ,  $p < .0005$ ). Furthermore, the Facilitator role ( $\beta = .672$ ,  $p = .000$ ) and the Result oriented role ( $\beta = .253$ ,  $p = .000$ ) made significant unique contributions towards prediction of the Continuance1 organizational commitment.

Although the **Continuance2 organizational commitment** correlation values with all the three managerial roles for the employees' sample ranged between .016 and .096, and the item-to-item correlation ranged from .481 to .654, all three managerial roles accounted for only .04% of the variance (Adjusted  $R$  square change = .004) and the variance contribution was not statistically significant ( $F(3, 361) = 1.51$ ,  $p > .0005$ ).

In the case of correlation between the **normative organizational commitment** and the three managerial roles (.175 and .233 and the inter-item correlation between the managerial roles-- .481 to .654), it was observed that all three managerial competencies accounted for only 6% of the variance in the normative organizational commitment of their employees (Adjusted  $R$  square change = .062; ( $F$  (3, 361) = 9.086,  $p$  < .0005). The Result oriented role ( $\beta$  = .186,  $p$  = .006) and the Broker role ( $\beta$  = .157,  $p$  = .016) made significantly unique contributions towards prediction of the normative organizational commitment of the employees.

The correlation values for all the three managerial roles and the **Internal job satisfaction** ranged between .333 and .515 whereas the inter-item correlation between the managerial roles ranged from .481 to .654 satisfying the assumptions for multicollinearity (Pallant, 2011, p. 156). All three managerial roles accounted for 27.8% of the variance (Adjusted  $R$  square change = .278) and the model for the three managerial roles was significant ( $F$  (3, 361) = 47.671,  $p$  < .0005). The Facilitator role ( $\beta$  = .396,  $p$  = .000) and the Result oriented role ( $\beta$  = .191,  $p$  = .003) of the managers made significant unique contributions to the prediction of the internal job satisfaction of their employees.

The **External job satisfaction** and the three managerial roles' correlation values ranged from .583 to .859 while the inter-item managerial roles correlation values ranged from .481 to .654. The three managerial roles accounted for 82.5% of the variance (Adjusted  $R$  square change=.825;  $F$  (3, 361) = 565.643,  $p$  < .0005) and the Facilitator role ( $\beta$  = .538,  $p$  = .000) and the Result oriented ( $\beta$  = .383,  $p$  = .000) role of the managers made a significantly unique contribution in predicting the external job satisfaction of their employees.

Thus, among all the managerial roles, the Facilitator role of the managers had a significant effect on the Affective and Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment, the Internal and External job satisfaction of their employees while the Result-oriented role of the managers impacted the Continuance<sup>1</sup>, the Normative organizational commitment, the Internal and the External job satisfaction of the employees. Finally, the Broker role of managers significantly affected only the Normative organizational commitment of the employees. A summary of standard linear multiple regression among the managerial roles as the independent variables

and organizational commitment and job satisfaction as the dependent variables is presented in Table 13 and an overall summary of the regression analysis of the managers' and the employees' sample is presented in Figures 29 and 30.

Table 13

*Multiple Regression Analysis for the Three Managerial Roles, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction---Employees' Sample*

Ind vari able	Affective Organizational Commitment				Continuance1 Organizational Commitment				Continuance2 Organizational Commitment				Normative Organizational Commitment				Internal Job Satisfaction				External Job Satisfaction			
	Beta	T	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	Beta	T	Sig.	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	Beta	T	Sig.	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	Beta	T	Sig.	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	Beta	T	Sig.	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	Beta	T	Sig.	Adj R <sup>2</sup>
Res orie nte d	.07	1.0 5	.29 6	.21 3	.25	8.1 4	.00 0	.80 2	.08	1.2 1	.22 7	.00 4	.19	2.7 5	.00 6	.06 2	.18	3.0 1	.00 3	.27 8	.38	13. 1	.00 0	.8 2 5
Fac ilita tor	.46	6.6 8	.00 0		.62	19. 4	.00 0		.07	.85	.39 8		-.04	-.58	.56 5		.39	6	.00 0		.58	17. 9	.00 0	
Bro ker	-.06	- 1.0 6	.29 1		.06	1.9 3	.05 3		-.06	-.96	.33 6		.16	2.4 1	.01 6		.00	.05	.96 7		.04	1.4 3	.15 3	

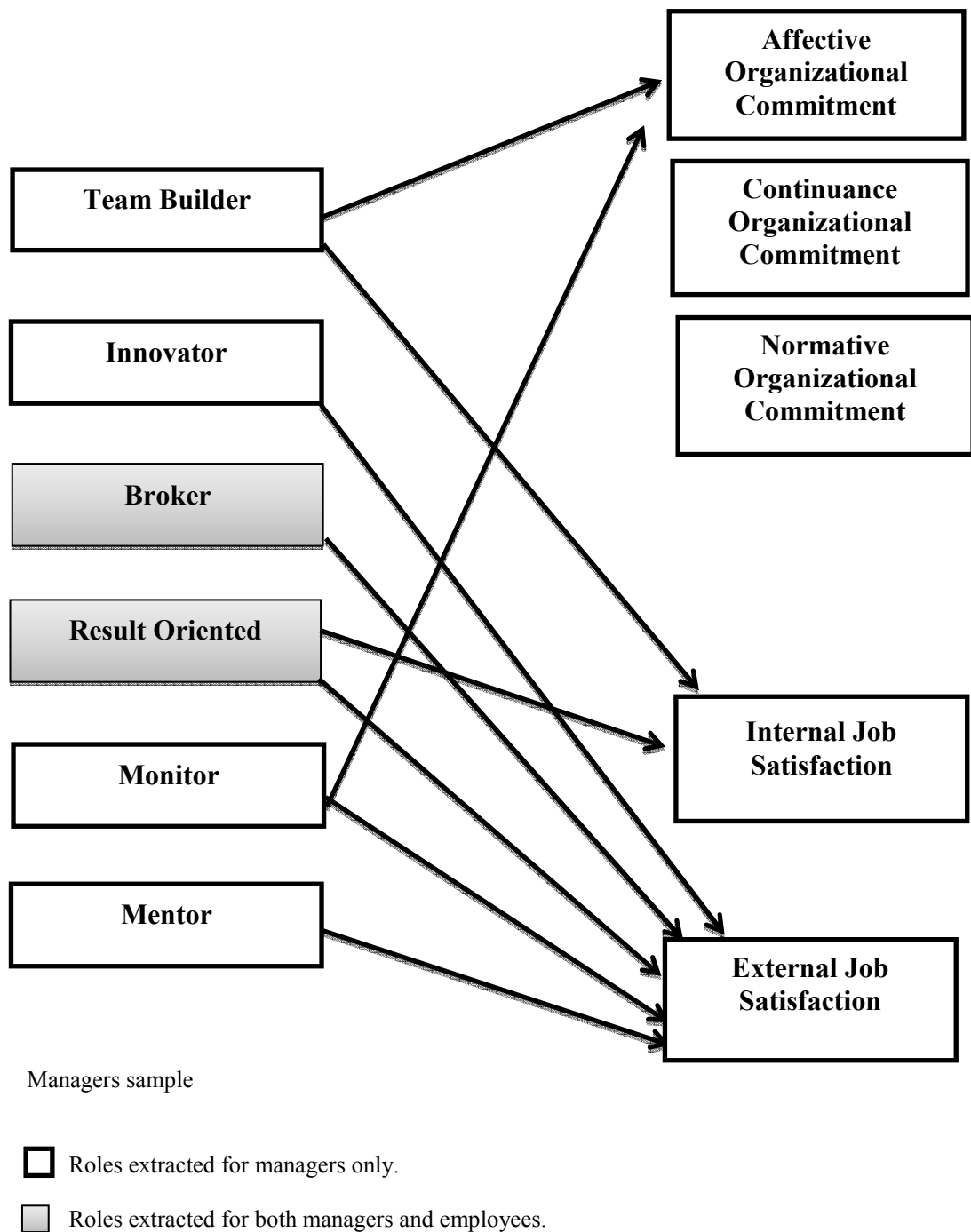
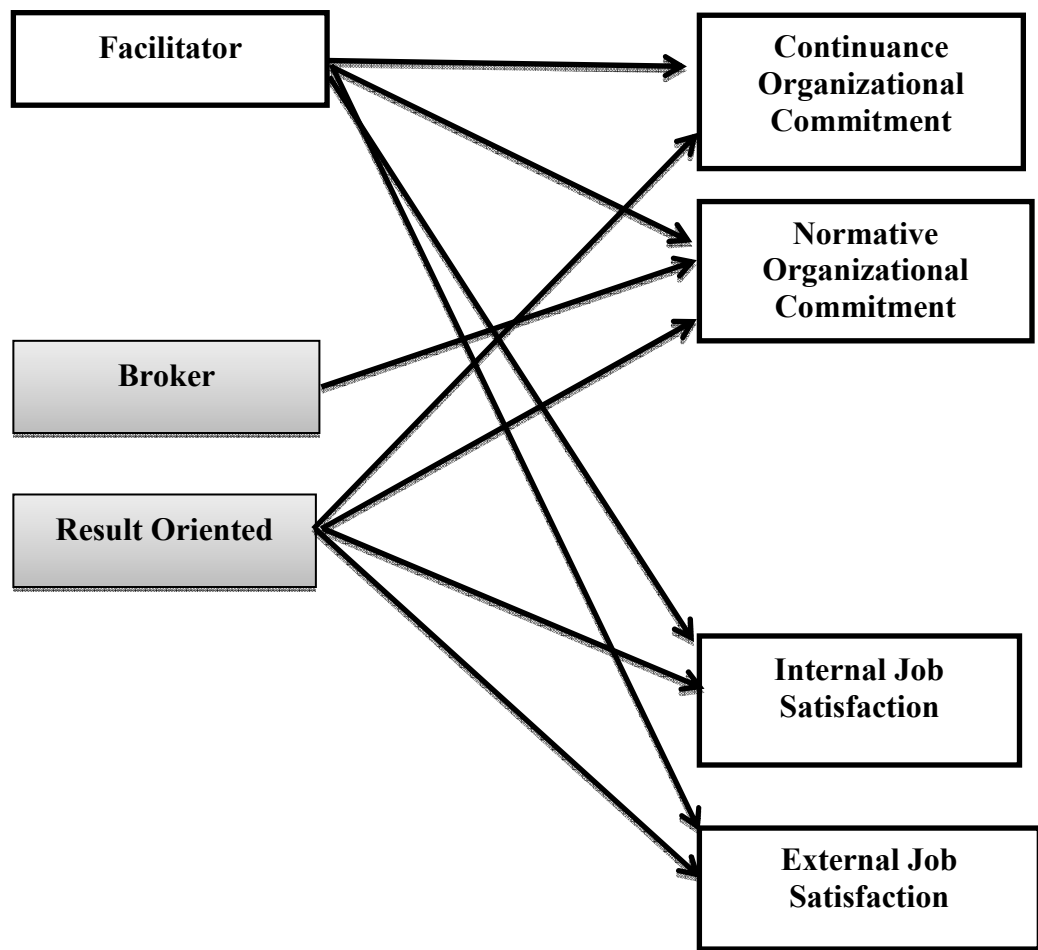


Figure 29: Overall regression results for the managers' sample.



□ Roles extracted for employees only.

■ Roles extracted for both managers and employees.

Figure 30: Overall regression results for the employees' sample.

### Comparative Evaluation

The research was undertaken to evaluate the differences in managerial competencies based on cultural ethnicity (UAE nationals, Sub-continent, other Arabs, and Western), industrial sector (private and public), and gender (male and female). Differences between males and females, private and public sectors in the managerial-leadership competencies roles were evaluated using independent *t*-test while ANOVA was used to compare various cultural groups for the studied managerial competencies.



## Independent *t*-Test

### Gender.

It was observed that there were no significant differences in scores for males and females for any of the managerial competencies studied (Broker, Result oriented, Team builder, Mentor, Monitor and Innovator) in the managers' sample. However, in the employees' sample, significant differences between male and female scores were observed only for the Broker role of managerial competencies. The scores for the male managers were ( $M = 4.89$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ) and for the female managers were ( $M = 5.17$ ,  $SD = 1.29$ ;  $t(362) = 2.29$ ,  $p = .02$ , two tailed) indicating that the female managers as perceived by their employees displayed higher Broker competency as a manager than their male counterparts (Table 14).

Table 14

*Variables with Significant Differences for Employees (Managerial Competencies of the Employees' Managers)*

Gender		Male	Female	t- test	Sig. (2-tailed)	Remarks
Number		237	127			
Dependent Variable				T	<i>p</i>	
Broker	Mean	4.9	5.17	2.287	.023	Female > Male
	Std Dev	1.2	1.24			

### Sectors.

Independent *t*-test for differences in the managerial competencies, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of managers based on the sector of employment (private and public sector) for the managers' sample showed significant differences between the private and the public sector scores only for the Normative organizational commitment of managers (Private sector:  $M = 4.58$ ,  $SD = 1.17$ ; Public sector:  $M = 5.08$ ,  $SD = 1.25$ ;  $t(143) = 2.47$ ,  $p = .02$ , two tailed) indicating higher Normative organizational commitment by the public sector managers than the private sector managers, which was an expected outcome. However, no significant differences were observed for the various managerial competencies studied,

Continuance and Affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Internal and External) based on sectors indicating that the sectors did not influence the above-mentioned roles significantly (Appendix E).

For the employees' sample, significant differences between the private and the public sector scores were observed for all the three extracted managerial competencies: the Broker, the Facilitator, and the Result oriented, organizational commitment (Normative and Continuance 1) and the External job satisfaction of the employees (Appendix F). The roles with significant differences were (Table 15):

- **Broker**---The Broker competency of the sample managers rated by their employees (subordinates) was higher for the private sector managers ( $M = 5.13$ ,  $SD = 1.27$ ) than the public sector managers indicating that the private sector managers as perceived by their employees displayed greater Broker skills than the public sector managers ( $M = 4.64$ ,  $SD = 1.17$ ;  $t(363) = 3.62$ ,  $p = .56$ , two tailed).
- **Facilitator**----The private sector managers ( $M = 5.37$ ,  $SD = 1.11$ ) were significantly better than the public sector managers ( $M = 5.02$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ ;  $t(363) = 2.83$ ,  $p = .14$ , two tailed) in displaying Facilitator skills as perceived by their employees.
- **Result-oriented**----It was observed that the private sector managers ( $M = 5.63$ ,  $SD = 1.02$ ) displayed significantly higher Result-oriented competency than the public sector managers ( $M = 5.39$ ,  $SD = .96$ ;  $t(363) = 2.16$ ,  $p = .43$ , two tailed) as perceived by their employees.
- **Organizational commitment (Contin1)** --- Continuance1 organizational commitment of the employees reporting to managers belonging to the private sector ( $M = 5.41$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ) was significantly higher than the employees reporting to the managers belonging to the public sector ( $M = 5.02$ ,  $SD = 1.27$ ;  $t(363) = 3.21$ ,  $p = .01$ , two tailed).
- **Organizational commitment (Normative)** --- The normative organizational commitment among the employees belonging to the private sector ( $M = 4.63$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ ) was significantly higher than the public sector employees ( $M = 4.34$ ,  $SD = 1.25$ ;  $t(363) = 2.16$ ,  $p = .56$ , two tailed).
- **External job satisfaction**---It was observed that the external job satisfaction among employees reporting to the managers in the private sector ( $M = 5.41$ ,

$SD = 1.1$ ) was significantly higher than the employees reporting to the public sector managers ( $M = 5.14$ ,  $SD = 1.12$ ;  $t(363) = 2.24$ ,  $p = .64$ , two tailed).

There were no significant differences observed among the employees' sample for the internal job satisfaction and the organizational commitment (Affective and Continuance<sup>2</sup>) based on sectors.

Table 15

*Summarizing Independent t-Test Differences for Sectors in the Managers' and the Employees' Sample*

Sector		Private	Public	<i>t</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Remarks
Number	Managers	83	62			
	Employees	236	129			
Dependent Variable						
OC_Normative (Managers)	Mean	4.6	5.1	-2.45	.015	Public > Private
	Std Dev	1.2	1.3			
Broker (Employees)	Mean	5.1	4.6	3.62	.000	Private > Public
	Std Dev	1.3	1.2			
Facilitator (Employees)	Mean	5.4	5.0	2.83	.005	Private > Public
	Std Dev	1.1	1.2			
Result oriented (Employees)	Mean	5.6	5.4	2.16	.031	Private > Public
	Std Dev	1	1			
OC_Contin1 (Employees)	Mean	5.4	5	3.21	.001	Private > Public
	Std Dev	1.1	1.3			
OC_Normative (Employees)	Mean	4.6	4.3	2.12	.032	Private > Public
	Std Dev	1.2	1.6			
JS_Ext (Employees)	Mean	5.4	5.1	2.24	.026	Private > Public
	Std Dev	1	1.1			

### Analysis of Variances (ANOVA)

One way ANOVA was conducted to test for differences across the various cultural groups in relation to the extracted managerial competencies for the managers' and the employees' sample.

### Managerial competencies---Managers' and employees' sample.

A one way between-groups, linear-term analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of cultural ethnicity (UAE nationals, Sub-continent, other Arabs, and Western) on the extracted managerial competencies of the managers and the employees' managers. The results showed that significant differences were observed among the cultural groups only for the Broker, Result oriented, Mentor and the

Monitor roles (Appendices G and H). A statistical explanation of differences is presented in the following paragraphs:

- **Broker:** For the managers' sample, there was statistically significant difference at  $p < .05$  in the Broker competency of the managers across some groups of the four cultural groups studied (Sub-continent, UAE and other Arabs groups):  $F(3, 141) = 4.4, p = .01$ . Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were significantly different only for the Sub-continent ( $M = 5.23, SD = 1.10$ ), UAE ( $M = 4.43, SD = 1.16$ ), and other Arabs ( $M = 4.41, SD = 1.31$ ) managers. The Western group did not show significant differences with any of the above three groups ( $M = 5.16, SD = .78$ ). Additionally, it was observed that the Broker competency among the Sub-continent managers was reported to be the highest among the three groups that showed significant differences followed by the UAE and the other Arab managers in the order listed, and it was almost equal to the Western managers.

In the case of the employees' sample, significant difference at  $p < .05$  was observed for the Broker competency across some groups (Sub-continent, UAE and other Arabs groups) of the four cultural groups studied:  $F(3, 361) = 4.4, p = .02$ . Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were significantly different only for the Sub-continent ( $M = 5.43, SD = 1.18$ ), UAE ( $M = 4.48, SD = 1.31$ ), and the other Arabs ( $M = 4.49, SD = 1.23$ ) managers. The Sub-continent managers as rated by their employees exhibited the highest Broker skills as compared to the other Arabs and the UAE national managers. The Western group managers, as rated by their subordinates, did not show significant differences with any of the above three groups ( $M = 5.22, SD = 1.05$ ).

- **Result-oriented:** The managers' sample displayed statistically significant differences at  $p < .05$  for the Result-oriented competency of the managers across some groups (UAE nationals, other Arabs and Western) of the four cultural groups studied:  $F(3, 141) = 3.2, p = .02$ . The post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were significantly

different only for the UAE nationals ( $M = 5.90$ ,  $SD = .65$ ), the other Arabs ( $M = 5.93$ ,  $SD = .72$ ), and the Westerns ( $M = 5.25$ ,  $SD = 1.14$ ). The Sub-continent group did not show significant differences with any of the above three groups ( $M = 5.93$ ,  $SD = .70$ ). The results indicated that the Result-oriented competency among the UAE and other Arabs group was higher than the Western managers.

- **Mentor:** A statistically significant difference at  $p < .05$  was observed in the Mentor competency of the managers across some groups (UAE and other Arabs groups) of the four cultural groups studied:  $F(3, 141) = 3.7$ ,  $p = .01$ . Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were significantly different only for the other Arabs managers ( $M = 5.92$ ,  $SD = .84$ ) and the UAE national managers ( $M = 5.33$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ). The other Arab managers displayed higher Mentor skills than the UAE national managers. The Sub-continent ( $M = 5.88$ ,  $SD = .91$ ) and the Western group ( $M = 5.58$ ,  $SD = .97$ ) managers did not show significant differences among themselves and the other two groups, the UAE national managers and the other Arab managers.
- **Monitor:** A statistically significant difference at  $p < .05$  was observed in the Monitor competency of the managers across the cultural groups (Sub-continent, UAE and Western managers):  $F(3, 141) = 4.1$ ,  $p = .01$ . Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were significantly different only for the Sub-continent ( $M = 5.92$ ,  $SD = .81$ ), the UAE national ( $M = 5.39$ ,  $SD = .85$ ) and the Western group ( $M = 5.02$ ,  $SD = .80$ ) managers. Among these three groups, the results indicated that the managers from the Sub-continent displayed the highest monitoring skills compared to the UAE and Western managers although it did not display any significant differences with the other Arab group managers ( $M = 5.59$ ,  $SD = .93$ ).

A summary of ANOVA among the studied cultural groups and managerial competencies of the managers' and the employee's managers are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

*ANOVA Summary for Impact of Cultural Groups on Managerial Competencies ---  
Managers' and Employees' Sample*

Managers Nationality			UAE	Sub-cont	Other Arabs	Western	ANOVA		Remarks (Tukey< 0.01)
Dependent Variables							F	Sig	
Managers	M_Broker	Mean	4.4	5.2	4.4	5.16	4.43	.005	Sub-continent > UAE, other Arabs
		Std Dev	1.2	1.1	1.3	.78			
	M_Result oriented	Mean	5.9	5.8	5.9	5.3	3.23	.024	UAE, other Arabs > Westerns
		Std Dev	.65	.72	.70	1.14			
	M_Mentor	Mean	5.3	5.9	5.9	5.6	3.74	.013	other Arabs > UAE
		Std Dev	1	.91	.84	.97			
	M_Monit	Mean	5.4	5.9	5.6	5	4.06	.008	Sub-continent > UAE, Westerns
		Std Dev	.85	.81	.93	.80			
Employees	E_Broker	Mean	4.8	5.4	4.9	5.2	4.89	.002	Sub-continent > UAE, other Arabs
		Std Dev	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1			

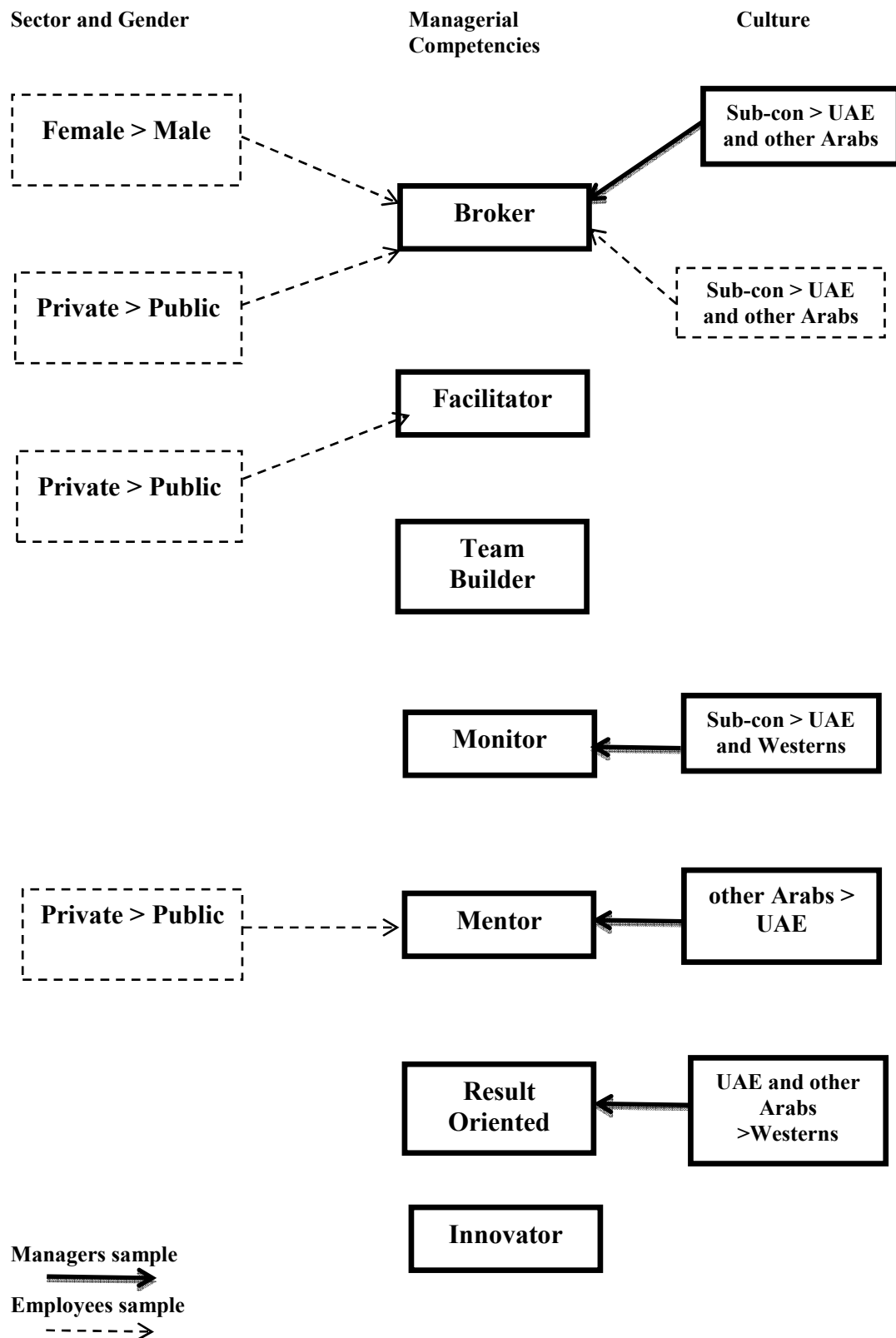


Figure 31. *t*-Test and ANOVA results for the gender, the sector and the culture influences on managerial-leadership competencies (managers and employees samples).

To summarize, the results of the ANOVA for the managers' and the employees' sample on the basis of cultural ethnicity showed that the managers' self-

rated sample exhibited significant differences among the studied cultural groups for the Broker, the Result oriented, the Mentor and the Monitor roles. The Innovator and the Team-builder roles did not show any significant differences among the managers from the different cultural groups. The Broker skills were the highest among the Sub-continent managers; the Result-oriented skills of the UAE managers and the other Arab managers were reported to be higher than the Western managers; the other Arab managers displayed higher mentoring skills than the UAE national managers whereas the managers from the Sub-continent displayed higher monitoring skills than the UAE national managers and the Western managers.

ANOVA for the employees' sample showed that the employee's managers displayed significant differences among the four cultural groups only along the Broker competency of the managers as perceived by their employees. The Broker skills of the managers as rated by their employees were found to be higher in the Sub-continent managers than the UAE and the other Arab managers.

The quantitative analyses end here and the next few sections will explain the results of the qualitative analyses of the study.

### **Qualitative Analyses**

Qualitative analysis through semi-structured interviews was adopted as the second phase of the two-phased mixed methodology used in this research. Questions for the semi-structured interviews were based on the results of the quantitative analysis. The emphasis of the semi-structured interview was to understand the reasons for the deviations and differences observed in the quantitative results---i.e., the differences between the factors present in the original managerial competency instrument and the new extracted roles, and also to validate the differences observed through independent *t*-test (for gender and sector) and the ANOVA results for the cultural differences displayed through the quantitative analysis.

To understand the reasons for the deviations and the differences observed through the quantitative results, only the roles extracted for the managers' sample were considered because when the item loadings of the employees' and managers' factors were compared, it was observed that the items that loaded on the three roles



of the employees' sample (Facilitator, Result oriented and Broker) were comprehensively covered in the managers' sample with six different roles. And also because the research design called for validating the quantitative results qualitatively through semi-structured interviews and thus the managers' sample that included more managerial competencies was chosen for more detailed evaluation and analysis.

### **Qualitative Survey Results for Q1 --- Q9**

#### **Descriptive statistics for the qualitative survey.**

As noted in the earlier sections, the quantitative results brought forth only six roles of managerial competency as against the eight roles advocated by Quinn et al. (2003). Also, there were differences observed along the cultural lines on the observed managerial-leadership roles; the Sub-continent managers were found to have higher monitoring and brokering skills, and the UAE national and other Arab managers were high in result-orientation skills compared to the Western group managers, and the other Arab managers were found to be higher in mentoring skills than the UAE national managers. Besides, differences in managerial roles were also observed based on sector and gender. To understand these differences, semi-structured interviews were conducted. The sample was a judgemental sample and the size was 22 comprising 13 managers and 9 employees (Table 17).

Table 17

*Sample Constitution for Qualitative Survey*

Variables		N	Percent
Sample	Manager	13	59%
	Employees	9	41%
Gender	Male	11	50%
	Female	11	50%
Nationality	UAE nationals	8	36.4%
	Other Arabs	4	18.2%
	Sub-continent	6	27.3%
	Western	4	18.2%
Sector	Private	14	63.6%
	Public	8	36.4%

#### **Coding and Interpretation—Q1 and Q2.**

**Q1:** In your opinion what are the essential competencies and skills that a successful manager should possess in the UAE multinational labour market?

**Q2: As a manager what are your strengths? / (Employees) what do you think are your manager's strengths?**

The aims of the first two questions were to gather information pertaining to important managerial competencies as conceptualized by the managers and employees in a multinational UAE labour market. These questions also aimed to explore if there were any suggestions of other competencies not listed by the CVI (Quinn et al., 2003). The first question explored the essential competencies expected from a manager in the UAE market whereas the second question targeted the strengths of the sample manager (interviewee/interviewee's manager).

Open-ended questions always bring with them answers that are beyond the limits set by a researcher and so was the case in this survey as well (Turner, 2010). To start with, the content analysis for these two questions was done separately. The results showed that both questions' coding and themes mostly ended up with similar results and categorization. Since the aims of questions one and two were almost similar, and the themes ended up with similar categories, the best option at that stage was to combine the results of both questions into one table. The response and its coding into three different levels to interpret the underlying concept using deductive content analysis and linking it to the eight-role managerial competencies model proposed by Quinn (1988) are presented in Table 18. A detailed coding is presented in Appendix I.

The content analysis results produced 19 main themes (competencies) that were eventually linked to the eight-managerial roles of the Quinn model (innovator, broker, producer, director, coordinator, monitor, facilitator, and mentor). A comparison of the results of Q1 and Q2 highlighted the differences in the expected managerial-leadership competencies and the competencies actually present (strengths) in the studied sample. The desired competencies such as emphasis on meeting goals and objectives (63% mentioned it as essential, 27% reported it as strength); maintaining productivity and focus on targets (45% mentioned it as essential, 10% reported it as strength); manage subordinates with different attitudes and personalities (59% mentioned it as essential, 18% reported it as strength); show empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates (57% mentioned it as essential,

17% reported it as strength); and support employees to meet their training and developmental needs (40% mentioned it as essential, 18% reported it as strength) that were considered as essential managerial competencies by large percentage of the sample, showed up poorly as strengths in the studied sample (Refer Table 18).

Going by the number of competencies listed under each role, it was observed that the *mentor* role had the highest number of competencies (5; 36%--59% mentioned it as an essential competency) followed by the *producer* role (4; 31%--63% mentioned it as an essential competency), *broker* role (3; 18%--40% mentioned it as an essential competency) and the *monitor* (2; 36% mentioned it as an essential competency) role. The *coordinator* (1; only 18% mentioned it as an essential competency), the *innovator* (1; only 4% mentioned it as an essential competency), and the *director* (2; only ~20% mentioned it as an essential competency) role competencies were represented poorly both as the essential competencies as well as the strengths of the managers. This was similar to the results observed in the quantitative analyses of this study wherein many items from the coordinator, director, and the innovator roles loaded poorly during factor analysis.

Interestingly, goal setting and developing plans as competencies did not load highly in the quantitative factor analysis results, but in the qualitative results, it was observed that 31% of interviewees mentioned this as an essential competency for successful managers in the UAE multicultural working environment. Along the same note, developing a vision loaded highly as a director competency in the quantitative results but its representation in the qualitative results was very poor, only 9% of the interviewees noted it as an essential competency for managers but none reported it as their manager's strength. Apparently, *competencies such as developing vision are recognized in the Arab culture but it is neither considered to be one of the essential competencies nor a practising strength of the managers. This is an interesting finding of this study about the managerial-leadership competencies in the UAE working environment.*

Two new competencies showed up in the qualitative results which were not part of the Quinn model. One of these competencies aligned with the broker role (external and internal monitoring of power and resources) as it focused on

networking with customers and stakeholders to update knowledge about work related information (policies, procedures, competitors and external challenges). For example, an Arab manager **(007 ARAB M PR)** highlighted the essential skills of a manager as:

*“Manager should have updated knowledge about the company product and market challenge. Manager should follow up daily day to day progress with his employees and see if they achieve the target.*

*Manager also should be strict in following up the deadlines and implementing of the policies & procedures.*

*Manager should push the employees to get things done and should have the skills to develop employees and provide them with advice and support, and give them ideas to solve any problem.”*

The second new competency observed was adaptability, cultural sensitivity, and flexibility in dealing with people from other cultures with the sub theme “understand different cultural values, show concern, flexibility in dealing with subordinates from different cultures, and cope and adjust with multicultural environment”. This fitted well with the mentor role of the Quinn model. For example, **001 UAE M PR** said:

*The managers should be a good listener to his/her employees, give time to each employee to talk and discuss, follow open door policy. Employees should have the right to talk freely with the managers.*

*The managers should have the skills to deal with staff with different attitudes, personalities and culture. The managers should possess good presentation skills, he should have the skill to present himself and present the information to the group with confidence. The presentation skills are very important for a manager’s self confidence.*

Table 18

*Content Analysis and Theme Coding for Q1 and Q2—Qualitative Survey*

Quinn Model Roles	Content Analysis Main Themes	Sample (%)	
		Q1	Q2
<b>Producer</b>	Create environment based on performance and target orientation.	31	31
	Emphasis on meeting objectives and goals.	63	27
	Maintain productivity and focus on target and goal.	45	10
	Follow up and evaluate the team performance to see if it aligned with the stated goals.	31	31
<b>Facilitator</b>	Build team and create healthy environment for the teamwork .	31	13
	Encourage subordinates to participate, discuss and openly talk in the group.	27	0
<b>Director</b>	Develop vision and clarify direction.	9	0
	Set goals and put plans.	31	13
<b>Mentor</b>	Manage subordinates with different attitudes and personalities.	59	18
	Show empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates.	57	17
	Listen effectively to team members, encourage the team to communicate.	45	36
	Adaptability, cultural sensitivity, and flexibility in dealing with people from other cultures.	36	22
	Support and guide employees to meet their training and developmental needs.	40	18
<b>Broker</b>	Present information and concepts to the group with full confidence.	18	13
	Know how to negotiate and win the argument.	18	4
	External and internal monitoring of power and resources.	40	36
<b>Coordinator</b>	Design and organize the work and manage the flow.	18	4
<b>Monitor</b>	Follow up the team performance and keep track of work progress.	36	18
	Follow up the implementation of policies and procedure.	36	18
<b>Innovator</b>	Cope with changes, manage risks and solve problems creatively.	4	4

**Coding and interpretation—Q3.**

**Q3: What strengths and area of expertise do you think the managers from each of these cultural groups possess?**

- UAE national
- South Asia and East Asia (Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)
- Other Arabs
- Western

The third question was framed to gather information on the strengths of the managers belonging to the four cultural groups evaluated in this research. The

results, analysed deductively, for only two groups (Sub-continent and UAE national managers), are presented below. There were not enough representative cases for the other Arabs and the Western managers and so these cultural groups were not analysed for their strengths and weaknesses.

### **UAE national managers**

As suggested by the qualitative results, the UAE national managers were found to be strong in mentoring, innovator and career orientation skills. Their mentoring skills were manifested through good interpersonal and communication skills, and adaptability to various cultures. They were also observed to be innovative and showing flexibility towards rules and regulations, making decisions overriding company policies and procedures, which might be at times weighed negatively rather than as their strength because a leader has to lead by examples (Table 19). For example, case **004 UAE E PR** highlighted the following competencies as the strengths of a UAE national manager:

*"UAE national manager show flexibility in dealing with employees and the company policies and procedures. UAE managers usually come up with solutions which sometimes do not fit with the policies and procedures of the company but they feel free to take the decision because it is the practical and right decision and it is the flexible way to reach the result."*

Another case (**009 ARAB M PR**) highlighted main strengths of UAE nationals as

*"They are broad minded; the new generation of UAE nationals are broad minded and global thinker, they are creative and come up with solutions for problems they face. Also they are multicultural, and while dealing with other nationalities they are very flexible and polite with the customers."*

Table 19

*UAE National Managers Strengths*

Quinn model roles	Main Themes	%
<b>Mentor</b>	Show empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates.	4
<b>Mentor</b>	The ability to listen effectively to a team member.	36
<b>Mentor (new)</b>	Adaptability and flexibility to the different cultural values.	13
<b>Innovator</b>	Flexible, risk taker, fast decision maker and problem solving.	22
<b>Career oriented (new)</b>	Self-development, lifelong learning and focus on career plan and promotion.	40
<b>Producer</b>	Encourage subordinates to be productive.	18

**Sub-continent managers**

The results indicated that the Sub-continent managers' strengths lay in being a hard worker, productive and effective work delegator. Additionally, the Sub-continent managers were found to be strong in controlling and monitoring skills. The results obtained from the qualitative survey aligned and supported the quantitative results wherein the Sub-continent managers scored higher than their UAE national counterparts and Western managers for the Monitor role (Table 20).

Table 20

*The Sub-continent Managers' Strengths*

Quinn model roles	Main Themes	%
<b>Producer</b>	Maintain productivity and focus on target and goal. Dedicated to job duties, task and target oriented.	14
<b>Monitor</b>	Monitor the work flow and stick to company policies and procedures. Avoid taking decision that does not fit the policies and procedures of the organization. Prefer to remain in their secure routine task zone.	9

The case (004 UAE E PR) highlighted the Sub-continent managers' strengths as being

*"Very hard worker dedicated to their work, task oriented. They always stick with the policies while doing the work."*

Also case number (0010 SUB-CONTINENT E PR) highlighted the Sub-continent managers' strengths as

*"A hard worker, and ability to adjust to different situations in the work. They tend to stick with policies and procedures and are not keen to change. They prefer routine jobs."*

The managers from the Sub-continent were, thus, strong hard workers, dedicated to their jobs and task oriented.

#### **Coding and interpretation—Q4.**

**Q4: What challenges do you face when you deal / work with managers from the following cultural groups? and why?**

- UAE national
- South Asia and East Asia (Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)
- Other Arabs
- Western

This question sought answers to challenges and issues faced by employees while dealing with the managers belonging to the four cultural groups studied in this research. The researcher was able to obtain significant responses only for the UAE national managers and the Sub-continent managers, and so the result analyses for only these cultural groups are presented. The approach used for the result analysis was deductive as it involved crystallization of the responses into themes and linking of those themes to the four management model espoused by Quinn in the Competing Values Framework (1988)



### **UAE national managers**

The responses showed that the vast majority of the respondents (72%) observed that the UAE national managers were lacking the monitor and the producer skills because they were less productive, not detail-oriented, lacked seriousness about job and productivity, unpunctual, showed little regard to policies and procedures and were quite complacent in their work because of the job security they had due to their nationality. They were also found to be high risk-takers as they did not follow policies and guidelines (31% of the respondents) and this was viewed negatively by some respondents. Table 21 presents some of the themes that emerged from the analysis and their percentage.

For example, a case (**001 UAE M PR**) highlighted the challenges he/she faces when dealing / working with a UAE national manager:

*"Relaxed, not very hard worker, not very efficient, they don't follow the employer's policies exactly, always override the policies and procedures, taking high risk, fast decision maker, it is hard to change their opinion, stick with their idea and point."*

Another case (**0016 WESTERN M PR**) highlighted the challenges he/she faces when dealing /working with a UAE national manager:

*"Does not deliver as expected, do not work hard, have a seriousness issue and work ethic issues such as punctuality, seriousness, achievement, performance"*

These observations were in agreement with the quantitative results of this study that reported that the monitor skills of the UAE national managers were low compared to the Sub-continent and the Western managers.

Table 21

*Challenges Working with the UAE National Managers*

Quinn Model roles	Sub themes	%
Lacking the Producer role competencies	Lack of seriousness in pursuing job duties, productive working skills need to be improved. Lack of punctuality and efficiency in perusing job duties.	72
Lacking the Monitor role competencies	Monitoring and follow-up skills need to be improved. Do not follow policies and procedures to make practical decisions. Take high risk by making fast decision.	31

**Sub-Continent Managers**

The qualitative results analysis showed that the Sub-continent managers exhibited the highest degree of monitoring and controlling managerial style. They were observed to be too rigid with rules and regulations, and this was viewed negatively by the research sample. Too much process driven and risk aversion by the Sub-continent managers prevented flexibility and innovation (Table 22).

A case (**004 UAE E PR**) highlighted challenges working with the Sub-continent managers' as:

*"They always stick with the policies and do not show any flexibility in taking decision, doing the work"*

Another respondent (**011 SUB-CONTINENT M PU**) highlighted the challenges he/she faces when dealing /working with a manager from the Sub-continent culture:

*"They like to stick with the policies and procedures. They like to control and dominate the responsibility and they like to hold the power in their hand and eliminate other's involvement in sharing job responsibility. They do have the attitude of they know everything and they work hard not smart."*

Another case (**018 SUB-CONTINENT M PR**) highlighted the challenges he/she faces when dealing/working with a manager from the Sub-continent culture:

*"They are very hard in dealing with staff. They do not have mentoring skills and the human touch. They are very budget oriented and do not utilise any innovative and or any change practices"*

These observations were supported by the quantitative results of this study as well. The Sub-continent managers were found to score very high on the Monitor roles compared to the UAE national managers and the Western managers.

Table 22

*Challenges Associated with the Sub-continent Managers*

Quinn model roles	Main themes	%
Lacking the innovator role competencies	Tend to control performance by sticking to the policies and procedures. Not keen to support innovative and change initiatives, and prefer to stay within secure routine zone.	72
Lacking the mentor role competencies	Do not show interest to subordinate's personal concerns. Control and dominate power.	13

### Coding and Interpretation—Q5---Q9

Questions 5 to 9 were based on the results of the factor analysis of the Competing Values Instrument (Quinn et al., 2003) to explore why in the UAE work environment, the employees and the managers could not identify and categorize the mixed loaded items, innovator, director and coordinator, as important factors for managerial-leadership. This part of qualitative survey analysis also followed the deductive content analysis method.

### Coding and interpretation—Q5 (a,b,c).

**Q5a:** The research primary data analysis result showed that the research sample did not identify and categorise the following items as an important component of managerial-leadership competencies? Why do you think we got this result?

- ✓ Does problem solving in creative, clever ways
- ✓ Searches for innovations and potential improvements

This question addressed the absence of the above-mentioned **innovator** items from the new factors. The qualitative survey analysis brought forth three factors that

limited innovative qualities and practices of the managers working in the UAE: organization related factors, managerial practices related factors and employee related factors. Organizational culture and practices sometimes do not support innovation as most of the processes and workflows are technologically controlled, automated and bound by policies and procedures of the organization.

For example, a respondent (**001 UAE M PR**) highlighted the reason why the research sample did not identify and categorise the above-mentioned items as an important component of the managerial-leadership competencies

*"The company procedure and policies do not support the innovation and creativity, we have to follow the policies and we cannot initiate new ideas. We do not want to try innovative things, so that we don't make mistakes, prefer to be on the safer side."*

Another case (**017 WESTERN E PR**) highlighted the reason behind the research sample not identifying and categorising the above-mentioned items as an important component of the managerial-leadership competencies

*"It's a cultural practice---- they are very slow to change and although they take a lot of time for discussion and arguments but do not make change decisions. Innovation could be challenging to the authority and threatening the boss position."*

Managers have a profound effect on innovation and initiatives taken by their subordinates. The survey results revealed that the managers were insecure and uncomfortable with change and innovation initiatives thus hampering innovation. Similarly, it was observed that the employees tend to be protective and avoid insecure practices at work, thus hampering innovations.

**Q5b: The research primary data analysis result showed that the research sample did not identify and categorise the following items as an important component of managerial-leadership competencies? Why do you think we got this result?**

- ✓ Defines areas of agreement/responsibilities for subordinates
- ✓ Sets clear objectives for the work unit

The above question tried to find out the reason why two of the **director** items were mixed loaded in the factor analysis result. The qualitative results showed that the research population did not identify these two items because in the UAE work environment context the managers do not give high priority to setting goals and objectives; the managers avoid setting goals and objectives to avoid accountability, besides they believed that setting goals and objectives, defining areas of agreement/responsibilities for subordinates is higher authority's concern (top management). They opined that their responsibilities were to ensure that directives from the higher authorities are delivered well to the lower rungs and it is carried out smoothly.

For example case **(010 SUB-CONTINENT E PR)** commented that:

*"Many managers do not involve employees in setting goals and objectives because sometimes employees do not need to know the broader picture".*

**Q5c: The primary data analysis indicated that the research sample did not identify and categorise the following items as an important component of managerial-leadership competencies? Why do you think we got this result?**

- ✓ Keeps track of what goes on inside the unit
- ✓ Brings a sense of order into the unit

The above question addressed the reason for mixed loading of the **coordinator** items from the original CVI in the factor analysis results. Interpreting the responses of the qualitative survey, it was observed that in the Arab culture, employees feel uncomfortable and unfamiliar with follow-up and being tracked for the work progress. Besides, the results indicated that in the Arab culture, the managers focus on productivity and avoid discussing micro details. This result aligns well with the quantitative factor analysis results of the study.

For example, case **(016 WESTERN M PR)** commented

*"In Arab culture it is hard to criticize someone's performance in direct way so you have to be flexible and allow for some mistakes and find the right way to advice and assure the employee that it is not a competitive culture"*

A summary of the reasons, as pointed out during the qualitative survey, for mixed loading of innovator, director and coordinator items is presented in Table 23.

Table 23

*Reasons for Mixed Loading of Innovator, Director and Coordinator Roles Items*

Question No.	Main Themes	%
<b>5a— Innovator</b>	Organizational culture and practice does not support innovation.	18
	Managers and employees feel insecure with change and innovation initiative.	45
<b>5b--- Director</b>	Defining areas of responsibilities and setting goal and objective is not practised in this organization.	36
	Managers tend to not give priority to setting goals and objectives to avoid accountability.	13
	Managers take care of the goals, visions and work responsibilities, no need for employees to know the details.	9
<b>5c--- Coordinator</b>	Tracking work progress is not practised much in the Arab culture.	54
	Managers need to focus on productivity and avoid discussing micro details.	
	Follow-up and tracking work progress could be interpreted negatively as controlling and criticizing in an Arab culture.	13

#### Coding and interpretation—Q6.

**Q6:** The quantitative results of the study observed high values for the managers from the Sub-continent countries, South Asia and East Asia (Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others) on the following items (*Broker*) compared to the UAE national managers and the managers from the other Arab countries. What, according to you, could be the reasons for the observed differences on the following items? Please explain?

- ✓ Exerts upward influence in the organization
- ✓ Influences decisions made at higher levels
- ✓ Gets access to people at higher levels

The above question was developed to explore the possible reasons why managers from the Sub-continent countries scored high on the Broker managerial competency scale compared to the UAE national managers and the other Arab managers.

The qualitative survey analysis highlighted that the Sub-continent managers scored higher on the Broker scale than the UAE national managers and the other Arab managers because of the knowledge and business acumen possessed by them. This puts the Sub-continent managers in better networking loops and enhances their negotiating skills. The Sub-continent managers, marked by their high productivity and performance, positioned themselves favourably and were able to connect with the top management and influence the decision-making process through discussion. The survey analysis also indicated that the UAE national managers were aware of their job security whereas the Sub-continent and the expatriate managers had to work hard to network with superiors and keep their jobs secure. Job security of the UAE national managers is just one aspect that makes them low on the Broker skills. Aside from the job security, the UAE national managers are known for being insincere in building relations with the upper management. Also, the other Arab and the UAE national managers shy away from discussing problem with their boss openly which could be restricting their brokering skills (Table 24).

#### **Coding and interpretation—Q7.**

**Q7: The quantitative results of the study observed high values for the managers from the Sub-continent countries, South Asia and East Asia (Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others) on the following items (*Monitor*) compared to the UAE national managers and the managers from the Western countries. What, according to you, could be the reasons for the observed differences on the following items? Please explain.**

- ✓ Carefully reviews detailed reports
- ✓ Compares records, reports, and so on to detect discrepancies
- ✓ Sees that the unit delivers on stated goals
- ✓ Minimizes disruptions to the work flow

The above-stated question attempted to understand why the quantitative results produced high values for the managers from the Sub-continent countries on the Monitor scale compared to the UAE national managers and the managers from the Western countries. The result showed that the Sub-continent managers obtained

higher scores on the monitoring scale than the UAE national managers and the Western managers because the Sub-continent managers are experienced and possess detailed working attitudes. The Sub-continent managers have good monitoring skills and take their jobs very seriously owing to a highly competitive business environment in the UAE and job security issues. Job insecurity leads the Sub-continent managers to be careful, cautious and detailed in their job and the sample opined that the above-mentioned skills could be the reasons for their high values on the Monitor scale (Table 24). On the other hand, as confirmed through the qualitative survey analysis, the other Arab managers and the UAE national managers did not give much attention to details and their style was not detail-oriented. Besides, it was also observed that the UAE national managers as well as the Western managers did not face job insecurity as much as the managers from the Sub-continent did.

Table 24

*Reasons for High Broker and Monitor Skills of the Sub-continent Managers*

Competency	Main Theme	%
<b>Broker</b>	Asian managers expertise in the business area help them to influence top management decisions.	63
	Asian managers need to maintain good relationships with top management to secure their jobs.	22
	Other Arab and UAE national managers not keen in maintaining relationships with the top management.	27
<b>Monitor</b>	Asian managers' strength lies in monitoring follow up and focuses on details.	40
	Managers from Arab cultures are not detail oriented.	45
	Job insecurity led Asian managers to be more carefully and detailed in their job.	13

#### **Coding and interpretation—Q8.**

**Q8: The quantitative results of the study observed high values for the managers from the other Arab countries on the following Mentor items compared to the UAE nationals studied. What, according to you, could be the reasons for the observed differences on the following items? Please explain.**

- ✓ Listens to the personal problems of subordinates
- ✓ Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way
- ✓ Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates



The qualitative survey sample did not have enough representations either from other Arab countries managers or employees who worked under other Arab managers. And hence supportive qualitative survey answers for this question could not be obtained.

#### **Coding and interpretation—Q9.**

**Q9: The quantitative results of the study observed high values for the female managers on the following items. What, according to you, could be the reasons for the observed differences on the following items? Please explain.**

- ✓ Exerts upward influence in the organization
- ✓ Influences decisions made at higher levels
- ✓ Gets access to people at higher levels

The above question explored the differences in higher scores for the female managers on the Broker scale compared to the male managers. The results of the qualitative analysis indicated that the female managers were better in the Broker competency than the male managers because female managers present ideas better than males, are diplomatic and have effective communication skills. Also, the results showed that the female managers get access to people at higher levels, exert upward influence in the organization and influence decision making at higher levels because the male managers at the top level tend to listen and respect females and being females, they get more attention (Table 25).

Table 25

*Females Score Higher on Broker Competency Than Males*

Main Theme	%
Female managers have better skills in presenting ideas and communicating with others.	50
Male managers are more kind and respectful towards females.	68
Females need to sharpen their networking skills to prove themselves in competitive male dominated environment.	22

### Hypotheses Testing

The research tested 14 hypotheses based on the quantitative and the qualitative results to answer the five research questions.

#### **RQ1 Do national cultures affect the managerial-leadership competencies significantly?**

***H1:** The eight managerial-leadership roles (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn (1988), measured and evaluated through CVI (Quinn et al., 2003) do not apply to managers in the UAE work environment.*

This hypothesis is accepted since the factor analysis results of the managers' and the employees' sample for the CVI (Quinn et al., 2003) with 32 items and eight roles produced only six roles with 24 items for managers' sample and three roles with 15 items for the employees' sample. The six roles extracted for the managers' sample were the Team builder, Broker, Mentor, Monitor, Result oriented and the Innovator whereas the three roles extracted for employees' sample were the Facilitator, Result oriented and the Broker. The new roles included items from all the eight roles in various combinations to produce the resultant roles for the managers' and the employees' sample; however items from the innovator, director, and the coordinator roles were poorly presented in the extracted factors. The qualitative results supported the six-role model observed in the quantitative results through poor representation of the innovator, director and the coordinator roles. Though the initial coding of the qualitative analysis produced eight roles as in the CVF, there was very poor representation from the innovator (only 4% of the sample highlighted it as an essential competency and their/their manager's strength) and the coordinator (18% of the sample highlighted it as an essential competency and only 4% highlighted it as their or their manager's strength) roles. Also, the monitor and the director role had only two themes represented in each whereas the mentor (5 themes) and the producer (4 themes) roles had better representation, considering the number of themes. The mentor role was highlighted as an essential competency by the sample (36%--59% range) whereas about 36%--81% of the sample highlighted it as their/their manager's strength. Similarly, for the producer role, the essential competency range representation varied between 31% and 63% whereas approximately 10% to 31% of

the sample highlighted it as their/their manager's strength. The broker role was represented with three themes (18%--40% of the sample considered it an essential competency whereas 4%--36% considered it as their/their manager's strength) and so was the case with the facilitator role represented with just two themes with 27%--31% of the sample considering it as an essential competency and about 0%--13% highlighting it as their/their manager's strength (Table 18). Thus, only a six-role managerial-leadership competency model was prominent in the qualitative results which was clearly predictive of the suitability of a people oriented and result oriented managerial-leadership competency for the Arabic culture dominated UA work environment. Thus, it can be argued that the hypothesis is supported and that the eight-role Quinn model for the managerial competencies does not apply to the UAE work environment.

***H2:** The cultural groups (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western) differ significantly for the **eight managerial-leadership roles** (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).*

The results do not support this hypothesis as such because the eight managerial roles of the CVI were not valid for the UAE work environment. However, for the extracted roles, the results indicated significant differences among the cultural groups only for the Broker (managers' and employees' sample), Result oriented, Mentor and the Monitor roles (managers' sample) of the managerial-leadership competencies. The Broker competency among the Sub-continent managers was reported to be higher in both managers' and employees' sample than the UAE national managers and the other Arab managers. The qualitative results analysis attributed this difference to their knowledge, business acumen, better negotiating skills, and job insecurity. The Result-oriented role was found to be higher among the other Arabs and the UAE national managers compared to the Western managers in the managers' sample. Also, significant differences were observed for the Mentor competency between the UAE and the other Arabs managers group; the latter group being higher than the former. And finally, significant differences were observed among the managers belonging to the Sub-continent, the UAE and the Western groups for the Monitor competency; the Sub-continent managers displayed highest monitoring skills compared to the UAE and the Western managers. The reasons for high monitoring skills of the Sub-continent

managers were ascribed to their hard working nature, taking their job seriously, and job insecurities as observed through the qualitative survey analysis.

**RQ2 Are there any positive correlations between managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction, organizational commitments?**

***H3a:** There is a significant positive correlation between the eight managerial-leadership roles (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **Affective organizational commitment** of managers and employees.*

As the original eight-role CVI was not valid in the Arab work environment, this hypothesis was not supported. However, the extracted roles for the managers' sample did show that the Monitor ( $\beta = .238, p = .018$ ) and the Team builder ( $\beta = .230, p = .043$ ) roles show positive correlations with the Affective organizational commitment. For the employees' sample, only the Facilitator role ( $\beta = .46, p = .000$ ) showed positive correlation with the Affective organizational commitment.

***H3b:** There is a significant positive correlation between the eight managerial-leadership roles (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **Continuance organizational commitment** of managers and employees.*

As stated the hypothesis was not supported because the research results could extract only six factors. Among the extracted six factors, the Continuance organizational commitment did not show any correlations with the managerial competencies of the managers' sample; but in the employees' sample, the Facilitator role ( $\beta = .672, p = .000$ ) and the Result-oriented role ( $\beta = .253, p = .000$ ) of the employee's manager did show positive and significant correlations with the Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment of the employees.

***H3c:** There is a significant positive correlation between the eight managerial-leadership roles (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **Normative organizational commitment** of managers and employees.*

The hypothesis is not supported as such. However, based on the extracted factors, it was observed that the Result-oriented role ( $\beta = .186, p = .006$ ) and the Broker role ( $\beta = .157, p = .016$ ) of the employee's managers showed positive and significant correlations with the Normative organizational commitment of the employees. In the case of the managers' sample, no such significant correlations were observed for any of the six roles.

**H4a:** *There is a significant positive correlation between the eight managerial-leadership roles (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **Internal job satisfaction** of the managers and the employees.*

The hypothesis is not supported as originally stated but correlations with the extracted factors were observed for the managers' and the employees' sample. The Team-builder role ( $\beta = .253, p = .013$ ) and the Result-oriented role ( $\beta = .245, p = .035$ ) showed positive and significant correlations with Internal job satisfaction in the managers' sample. In the case of the employees' sample, positive and significant correlations were observed for the Facilitator role ( $\beta = .396, p = .000$ ) and the Result-oriented role ( $\beta = .191, p = .003$ ) with Internal job satisfaction of the employees.

**H4b:** *There is a significant positive correlation between the eight managerial-leadership roles (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003) and the **External job satisfaction** of managers and employees.*

In this case also, the hypothesis is not supported with the original eight-role CVI model. But significant correlations did exist between the extracted managerial competencies and the External job satisfaction of the sample. Significant positive correlations were observed between the Facilitator role ( $\beta = .538, p = .000$ ) and the Result-oriented role ( $\beta = .383, p = .000$ ) of the employee's managers and the External job satisfaction of the employees for the employees' sample. Similarly, significant positive correlations were observed between the Result-oriented role ( $\beta = .43, p = .000$ ), Innovator role ( $\beta = .34, p = .000$ ), Monitor role ( $\beta = .24, p = .000$ ), Broker role

( $\beta = .137, p = .011$ ), and the Mentor role ( $\beta = .130, p = .031$ ) and the External job satisfaction of the managers in the managers' sample.

### **RQ3 How do gender differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?**

*H5: There are significant differences between male and female managers for the eight managerial-leadership roles (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).*

The eight-role model does not hold true for the UAE work environment hence the hypothesis as such was not supported. However, analysing the correlations between the extracted factors and gender, it was observed that there were no significant differences in scores for the male and the female managers for any of the managerial competencies studied in the managers' sample. In the employees' sample, however, significant differences between the male and the female managerial competencies scores were observed only for the Broker role (**Male** ( $M = 4.89, SD = 1.23$ ) and **Female** ( $M = 5.17, SD = 1.29$ ;  $t(362) = 2.29, p = .02$ , two tailed) with the females displaying higher Broker competency than the males.

### **RQ4 How do sector differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?**

*H6: There is a significant difference between the private and public sector managers on the eight managerial-leadership roles (mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, innovator) proposed by Quinn et al. (2003).*

This hypothesis was not supported because the eight-role model of CVF did not apply to the UAE work environment and the extracted roles also did not show any significant differences between the private and the public sector for various managerial competencies in the managers' sample. However, in the employees' sample differences between the private and the public sector managerial competencies were observed for the three extracted managerial-leadership roles.

### **RQ5 How do sector differences affect the organizational commitment and job satisfaction?**

***H7a: There is no significant difference between the private and public sector for Affective organizational commitment.***

This hypothesis was supported because no significant differences were observed for the Affective organizational commitment based on sectors (private and public) for the managers' and the employees' sample.

***H7b: There is no significant difference between the private and public sector for Continuance organizational commitment.***

This hypothesis was supported for the managers' sample as no significant differences between the private and the public sector scores were observed but in the case of the employees' sample this hypothesis was not supported because significant differences were observed between the private and the public sectors for the Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment (Private sector:  $M = 5.41$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ; Public sector:  $M = 5.02$ ,  $SD = 1.27$ ;  $t(363) = 3.21$ ,  $p = .01$ , two tailed).

***H7c: There is no significant difference between the private and public sector for Normative organizational commitment.***

This hypothesis was not supported because significant differences between the private and the public sector scores were observed for the normative organizational commitment of the managers (Private sector:  $M = 4.58$ ,  $SD = 1.17$ ; Public sector:  $M = 5.08$ ,  $SD = 1.25$ ;  $t(143) = 2.47$ ,  $p = .02$ , two tailed) indicating higher Normative organization commitment by the public sector managers than the private sector managers for the managers' sample. For the employees' sample also, significant differences were observed between the private and the public sector (Private sector:  $M = 4.63$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ ; Public sector:  $M = 4.34$ ,  $SD = 1.25$ ;  $t(363) = 2.16$ ,  $p = .03$ , two tailed) with the private sector employees displaying higher Normative organizational commitment than the public sector employees.

***H8a: There is no significant difference between the private and public sector for Internal job satisfaction of managers and employees.***

This hypothesis was supported because no significant differences between the private and the public sector scores were observed for the internal job satisfaction of the managers' and the employees' sample.

***H8b:*** *There is no significant difference between the private and public sector for the External job satisfaction of managers and employees.*

This hypothesis was supported for the managers' sample but not supported for the employees' sample. Significant differences between the private and the public sector scores were observed for External job satisfaction among the employees reporting to the managers in the private sector ( $M = 5.41$ ,  $SD = 1.1$ ) and the public sector managers ( $M = 5.14$ ,  $SD = 1.12$ ;  $t(363) = 2.24$ ,  $p = .64$ , two tailed).

### Summary

To summarize, adopting a mixed method approach for this research, qualitative analyses were used as a support methodology to explore the differences and deviations observed in the quantitative analyses results of this study.

The quantitative factor analysis of the CVI in the present study yielded only six managerial competencies for the managers' sample (Team builder, Monitor, Mentor, Result oriented, Innovator, and Broker) and the three managerial competencies for the employees' sample (Facilitator, Result oriented, and Broker) as against the eight managerial roles described by Quinn et al. (2003) in the CVI. Many items from the director, innovator, and coordinator roles of the original CVI were not strongly represented in the managers' sample whereas the items from the innovator, coordinator, producer, and director roles were poorly represented as individual factors in the employees' sample. But many of the items loaded differently as seen in the new extracted factors. For qualitative analysis, only the extracted managers' factors were used because they were more comprehensive and included factors extracted from the employees' sample as well.

The analysis and interpretation of the qualitative survey also showed 19 managerial competencies in the UAE multinational and multicultural labour environment fitting into the eight managerial roles as suggested by the Quinn model (1988). The competencies that were strongly represented included the mentor (5 themes, 36%--59% considered it as essential competency); producer (4 themes, 31%--63% mentioned it as essential competency); broker (3 themes, 18%--40% mentioned it as essential competency), facilitator (3 themes, 27%--31% considered it essential competency) and monitor (2 themes, and 36% mentioned it as essential



competency) whereas the innovator (1 theme; only 4% noted this as essential competency), the coordinator (1 theme; only 18% highlighted it as essential competency), and the director (2 themes; only approximately 20% of the sample highlighted it as essential competency) were poorly represented implying that in the UAE work culture context, the innovator, coordinator, and the director competencies are less recognized as effective managerial competencies. This is in alignment with the quantitative results of this study. Two new competencies—multicultural awareness and maintaining an external power base, also emerged as the necessary managerial competency in the UAE context that was not listed in the original CVI model.

The qualitative survey analysis also revealed that the UAE national managers were strong mentors, innovators and career oriented whereas the strengths of the Sub-continent managers lay in monitoring, being productive and controlling. The UAE national managers' innovator skills and monitoring--controlling skills of the Sub-continent managers had a negative connotation because the former displayed innovative qualities at the expense of ignoring policies, procedures and regulation and the latter displayed monitoring and control skills as an outcome of job insecurity and display of power and position. The reasons for poor representation of the innovator competency in the UAE working environment, as revealed through qualitative analysis, could be attributed to practices associated with organizations (not allowing and encouraging innovation), managers (insecure and uncomfortable with change and innovation) and employees (protective tendencies).

The differences in the managerial competencies observed during the quantitative analyses of this study were further analysed through the qualitative survey and it was observed that the managers from the Sub-continent have higher Broker skills than the UAE national managers and other Arab managers because of their business acumen and knowledge aiding in effective networking and negotiating. Likewise, the managers from the Sub-continent were better monitors than the UAE national managers and the Western managers because the former were detail oriented, careful, hard working, and displayed seriousness about the job due to job insecurity. All these skills were lacking in the UAE national managers and this could possibly be related to their job security privileges.

The qualitative survey results also highlighted that the female managers were better Brokers than the male managers owing to their dedication, hard work, and diplomatic style of working, besides having the advantageous position of being a female and therefore being respected and listened to more than the males.

The next chapter discusses the results obtained in this study against the background of the research carried out earlier.

## Chapter 5---Discussion

This chapter discusses the results of the present empirical research and pieces together the quantitative results, qualitative results, and past topic-relevant literature to answer the five research questions mentioned in the first chapter. The research explored and compared the influences of the selected cultural groups (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent and Western), gender, and sector on managerial-leadership competencies (employing the Quinn et al. (2003) eight-role competency model) in the UAE multicultural and multinational work environment. It also examined the correlations between managerial-leadership competencies—job satisfaction and managerial-leadership competencies—organizational commitment, sector—managerial-leadership competencies, sector—organizational commitment and sector—job satisfaction in the UAE work environment.

The chapter follows a sequential discussion of the five research questions listed in Chapter 1 and the hypotheses proposed for each question (Chapter 2). Thus, the first section of this chapter discusses the managerial-leadership competencies as influenced by cultural predispositions in the UAE work environment and the differences observed in the managerial-leadership competencies among the studied cultural groups. The second and third sections of the chapter discuss the managerial-leadership competencies predicting the organizational commitment and the job satisfaction of the sample. The fourth section discusses managerial-leadership competencies---gender correlation, and the final section is about sector and its correlation with managerial-leadership competencies, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment of the sample.

The quantitative and qualitative results of this research were interesting in many ways, not to mention the value it added to understanding the research phenomenon as such, and understanding the managerial-leadership competencies through the prism of culture, gender and sector. Firstly, it clearly indicated the influences a culture has on the existing and the expected competencies of a manager in a multicultural and multinational environment. Secondly, it supported the notion that any competency instrument cannot be used as a comprehensive instrument to evaluate the competencies of a manager without taking into consideration the

contextual factors, such as culture, organizational environment, workforce, sector, and gender.

### **Managerial Competencies and National Culture**

Culture has been known to influence managerial competencies (Hofstede, 2010; House et al., 2004; Klein, 2003). Diverse cultures hold different perceptions of a competent manager (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Hunt, 2002; Jung et al., 1995). While some cultures may embrace an authoritarian approach for the management-leadership style, others may prefer a participative approach; for example, leader sensitivity may be regarded negatively in an authoritarian culture yet may be viewed as an essential competency in a participative managerial approach (Den Hartog et al., 1999). The extant literature substantiates the imperativeness of applying cultural dimensions to management because management effectiveness is an amalgamation of people, economical, and technical resources (Hofstede, 2010). Given that organizations are “culture bound”, it is almost impossible to imagine any management activity without cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2003).

The first research question of this study was to explore further the effect of national culture on managerial competencies in the UAE work environment. Two hypotheses were proposed and examined to assess the effects of national culture on managerial-leadership competencies. The two hypotheses evaluated the influences of culture from two different aspects: one was to validate if the eight-role managerial competency Quinn model (1988) measured through the Competing Values Instrument (Quinn et al., 2003) could be mapped to the UAE work environment (*Hypothesis 1*); and the second was to elucidate if the four cultural groups of this study (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, Western) differed significantly on the eight managerial-leadership roles proposed by Quinn (1988; mentor, facilitator, monitor, coordinator, director, producer, broker, and innovator) (*Hypothesis 2*). The first hypothesis was tested using the quantitative method (factor analysis) and the results explored further and validated through qualitative semi-structured interviews (Q1 and Q2). For the second hypothesis, differences among the selected cultural groups were analysed through ANOVA and the results were examined further through qualitative semi-structured interviews (Q3 and Q4).

### Quinn Model Mapping to the UAE Work Environment

As noted in Chapter 4, factor analysis of the response data for the CVI yielded only six managerial-leadership roles for the managers' sample (Team builder, Broker, Mentor, Result oriented, Mentor and Innovator) and three roles for the employees' sample (Facilitator, Result oriented and Broker) in contrast to the eight roles described by Quinn (1988). *Thus, hypothesis 1 is accepted and it could be argued strongly that the Quinn eight-role managerial-leadership model does not per se fit the UAE work environment.* Differences between Western theories and practices of management and its application in an Arab context have been highlighted previously as well (Ali, 1995; Obeidat et al., 2012; Weir, 2001). The researcher looked into the observed results from two perspectives: one, the eight competencies of the Quinn model did load, albeit differently in the UAE work environment. A similar observation was also made for the qualitative results where all the eight roles as per the Quinn model were identified but the roles represented poorly in the quantitative results were also represented poorly in the qualitative results (director, innovator, coordinator). The second perspective of the researcher was to understand why the eight-role model of Quinn (1988) could not be reproduced for the managers working in the UAE work environment by seeking essential competencies of a manager in the UAE work environment through qualitative semi-structured interviews. The following paragraphs argue and discuss the possible reasons for the Quinn model not fitting the UAE work environment, and how the managerial-leadership competencies are perceived in the UAE work environment.

It was noted that among the six roles for the managers' sample, only two roles (*Mentor and Broker*) were identical to some extent as per the Quinn model, although with only three items for each. For the employees' sample, only one role (*Broker*) was identical to the original broker role described in the Quinn model but again only with three items. Also, another two roles' items matched partially with the Quinn model (*Monitor and Innovator*) for the managers' sample. So was the case with the *Facilitator* role of the employees' sample, which was almost identical to the original role. In addition to these partially similar roles, the manager's sample identified two new roles (*Team builder and Result oriented*).

The **Team builder** role was a combination of the items from the producer, facilitator, director, monitor, and mentor roles of the original CVI; the **Result-oriented role** was a combination of coordinator, producer, monitor (employees' sample) and director (managers' role) roles of the original CVI. Thus, in the UAE work environment, the employees group view the Result-oriented role more like monitoring through critical analysis of information whilst the managers group envisage it more as clarifying the direction and ensuring the direction of the group. The qualitative semi-structured interview results strongly indicated that the mentor, facilitator, and producer competencies were the most desired competencies for effective managerial-leadership in the UAE work environment.

Interpreting this using the four models of management explained through the Competing Values Framework by Quinn (1988) (Figure 16: p. 68), we see that the newly extracted Team-builder role was a combination of items from three models: Human relations (2 facilitator items and 1 mentor item), Rational goal model (2 producer items and 1 director item), and the Internal process model (1 monitor item). Managers displaying the new competency were goal oriented, flexible and internally focussed (Shim, Lusch, & Goldsberry, 2002). Thus, in the UAE work environment, the Team-builder competency of a manager emphasized not only the facilitator and producer roles of the original CVI but also included director, monitor and mentor competencies of the original CVI. Similarly, the Result-oriented role included items belonging to the Internal process and the Rational goal model underpinning control for consolidation, integration and maximization of output through maintaining productivity, focusing on results, meeting objectives in the unit and minimising disturbance of the work flow.

A possible explanation for such an outcome, where the competencies from various items are grouped under the Team-builder role, could be that the conflict-avoiding attitude within the Arab culture (to which the UAE belongs) encourages autocratic (the leader takes all decisions) yet consultative (has open discussion with other members as well, though the leader's decision may be the one) decision-making style (Ali, 1989, 1990, 1993; Attiyah, 1992; Yousef, 2000). Also, in the UAE work environment displaying collectivist cultural orientation, the manager-subordinate relationship is viewed as a family link wherein it is the duty of a person

of a higher position to take care of and be responsible for its subordinates (Hofstede, 2010). Interestingly, managing individual and collective performance, and working with technical information (internal process model) were not the desired skills of the Team-builder role and a possible reasoning for it could be that collaboration and compromise mark most of the business dealings and work practices (Weir, 2000). The soft and tolerant attitudes of Arabs and the coercive style of working (Kozan, 1997; Weir, 2000) could be conflicting to professional performance management, coordination and work monitoring. Result-orientation competencies such as goal and action management (efficiency orientation, proactivity, concern with impacts, diagnostic use of concepts), directing subordinates (unilateral power use, developing others), human resource management (accurate self assessment, self control, adaptability, managing group processes, objectivity) and leadership (self confidence, logical thoughts, conceptualization) have been previously viewed as essential competencies for superior performances of managers (American Management Association, 2002; Powers, 1987).

The quantitative results thus did not support the eight-role managerial competencies Quinn model for the predominantly Arabic UAE work environment. The qualitative deductive content analysis results further supported the quantitative factor analysis results. The competencies, - director, innovator, and coordinator - which had poor representations in the new six-managerial-leadership-role model, were also poorly highlighted in the qualitative semi-structured interviews as the essential competencies or strengths of the managers working in the UAE work environment.

Only 4% of the qualitative sample highlighted “managing change” as an essential competency (item for the innovator role from the Quinn eight-role model). For the director role, only two competencies were highlighted: setting goals and objectives (only 31% of the sample viewed it as an essential competency and 13% viewed it as the strength of the managers in the sample), and developing vision and clarifying direction (9% of the sample viewed it as an essential directorial competency with none of the participants reporting it as the strength of the managers). For the coordinator role (designing and organizing the work and

managing the flow), only 18% of respondents viewed it as an essential competency and 4% saw it as the strength of the managers.

Apart from the poor representations of the above-mentioned three roles from the Quinn model, the qualitative results also highlighted two new competencies, multicultural awareness, and external--internal power monitoring. The multicultural awareness competency was combined with the Mentor role because adaptability and flexibility in dealing with people aligned well with the original mentor competencies (treats each individual in a caring way; shows empathy in dealing with subordinates; understanding self and others, Quinn (1988)). The external and internal power monitoring competency highlighted by the qualitative sample was merged with the broker role because it aligned well with the broker competencies listed by Quinn (1988; building and maintaining a power base; networking with customers and stakeholders to update knowledge about work related information; Refer Figure 16).

To conclude, the results very clearly indicated that in the Arab working environment (UAE), the essential and effective managerial-leadership competencies, perceived by the managers' sample, include *Team builder* (effective team player, consultative decision making, collectivist orientation), *Result oriented* (efficiency orientation, concern with impacts, internally focussed, adaptability, self control, self confidence), Mentor, Monitor, Broker, and Innovator skills. The employees rating their managers (employees' sample) considered Facilitator, Result oriented, and Broker competencies as essential to be an effective and a competent manager. Thus, the Quinn model of managerial-leadership competencies does not fit as such in the UAE working environment. The answer to research question 1—does national culture affect managerial-leadership competencies significantly -- is affirmative. One can conclusively state that national cultural attributes impact on managerial-leadership competencies.

The following paragraphs present the reasons (using the qualitative survey results) for poor representation (mixed loading items) of roles such as director, coordinator, and innovator in the quantitative survey. The qualitative survey questions (5a, 5b, and 5c) were framed in such a way so as to better understand the theoretical and cultural perspectives of the research. A summary of the items that loaded well and the ones that were mixed loading in the quantitative analysis in the



present study is presented in Table 26. The items marked as ✓ are the ones that loaded well on the six extracted factors and thus represented well in the UAE working environment whereas the ones marked as ☒ are the ones that mixed loaded and represented poorly in the UAE work culture context.

Table 26

*Summary of Items That Loaded Highly (✓) and Mixed Loaded (⊗) for Managers and Employees (Quantitative Analysis)*

Item No.	Quinn Model Roles	Items	Manager	Employee
q3	Broker	Exerts upward influence in the organization	✓	✓
q13		Influences decisions made at higher levels	✓	✓
q18		Gets access to people at higher levels	✓	✓
q27		Persuasively sells new ideas to higher-ups	⊗	⊗
q1	Innovator	Comes up with inventive ideas	✓	⊗
q10		Experiments with new concepts and procedures	✓	⊗
q22		Does problem solving in creative, clever ways	⊗	⊗
q25		Searches for innovations and potential improvements	⊗	✓
q8	Mentor	Listens to the personal problems of subordinates	✓	✓
q16		Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates	✓	✓
q20		Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way	✓	✓
q29		Shows concern for the needs of subordinates	✓	✓
q6	Facilitator	Facilitates consensus building in the work unit	⊗	⊗
q11		Encourages participative decision making in the group	✓	✓
q24		Encourages subordinates to share ideas in the group	✓	✓
q31		Builds teamwork among team members	✓	✓
q2	Coordinator	Protects continuity in day-to-day operation	✓	✓
q9		Minimizes disruptions to the work flow	✓	⊗
q21		Keeps track of what goes on inside the unit	⊗	⊗
q28		Brings a sense of order into the unit	⊗	⊗
q4	Monitor	Carefully reviews detailed reports	✓	✓
q14		Compares records, reports, and so on to detect discrepancies	✓	⊗
q17		Works with technical information	⊗	⊗
q32		Analyzes written plans and schedules	✓	✓
q7	Director	Defines areas of agreement/responsibilities for subordinates	⊗	⊗
q12		Makes sure everyone knows where the group is going	✓	⊗
q19		Sets clear objectives for the work unit	⊗	⊗
q26		Clarifies priorities and direction	✓	⊗
q5	Producer	Maintains a “result” orientation in the unit	✓	✓
q15		Sees that the unit delivers on stated goals	✓	⊗
q23		Pushes the unit to meet the objectives	✓	⊗
q30		Emphasizes unit’s achievement of stated purposes	✓	⊗

The qualitative survey analysis highlighted that the innovative qualities and practices of the managers working in the UAE were inhibited due to organizational, managerial, and employee related factors (Table 23: Chapter 4). Organizational culture and practices sometimes did not support innovation because most of the processes and workflows were automated, technologically controlled, and bound by policies and procedures of the organizations. Also, abiding by rules is culturally rooted in the Asian and the Arab population, which comprises the majority of the UAE workforce, due to high uncertainty avoidance and high power distance upbringing (Hofstede, 2009). As reported by one respondent (**001 UAE M PR**)

*"The company procedure and policies do not support innovation and creativity, we have to follow the policies and we cannot initiate new ideas. We do not want to try innovative things, so that we don't make mistakes, prefer to be on the safer side. Besides, I also fear that someone else will take my ideas."*

Another case (**017 WESTERN E PR**) opined

*"It is a cultural practice---- they are very slow to change and although they take a lot of time for discussion and arguments, but do not make/change decisions. Innovation could be challenging to the authority and threatening the boss position."*

Managers have a profound effect on innovation and initiatives taken by their subordinates (Nienaber & Roodt, 2008). The qualitative survey results indicated that the managers in the UAE work environment were insecure and uncomfortable with change and innovation initiatives, thus hampering innovation. In addition, the employees tend to be protective and avoid insecure practices at work. These observations are congruent with the high uncertainty avoidance of Arab and Asian cultural practices (Hofstede, 2009; House et al., 2004) which are known to have management that is formalized and limits innovation (Hofstede, 2001). As well, the high power distance and low performance orientation culture of the society inhibits innovation because family relationships score high over performance measures (House et al., 2004).

The director skills (define areas of agreement/responsibilities for subordinates; setting goals; clarifying directions) were poorly represented in the UAE work environment as the qualitative survey pointed out that the managers avoid, or do not give high priority to, setting goals and objectives. The possible reasons for avoiding or not prioritizing goal setting, as inferred from the qualitative responses, could be to escape accountability because the Arabs view time as something over which they do not have control (Gray & Larson, 2002) and also because they believed it to be higher authority's (top management) prerogative (Attiyah, 1992; Scott-Jackson, 2010). They opined that their responsibilities as managers were limited to ensuring that directives from the top management are communicated effectively to the lower levels (Table 23; Chapter 4). A respondent (010 SUB-CONTINENT E PR) commented

*"Many managers do not involve employees in setting goals and objectives because sometimes employees do not need to know the broader picture"*

Lack of future planning, lack of setting goals and objectives agrees to a certain extent with previous research (Al-Rasheed, 2001; Javidan et al., 2006; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002; Solberg, 2002) results which stated that the Arab culture is low on the future orientation and planning competency. In an Arab culture, time is viewed as circular (Solberg, 2002) and therefore life is more relaxed. Deadlines are viewed as a guide rather than as time limits to be adhered to strictly (Hurn, 2007). Precision and punctuality are maintained based on power distance, that is, people are more punctual for their superiors than subordinates (Solberg, 2002). Long-term planning also receives a low competency score because of their fatalistic dispositions (Attiyah, 1992; Solberg, 2002). As well, intuition and personal judgment is used excessively, relying more on their trusted network of tribal and family relations (Solberg, 2002). Moreover, in a high-power-distance culture, as is the case with the Arab world, leaders hold all the power and it is expected that they make all the decisions (House et al., 1999). This explains the poor show of the director competencies in the UAE work environment.

Poor representation of the coordinator qualities in the UAE work environment could be due to the focus on productivity (all four items of the producer role loaded highly on the extracted roles and the inclination for productivity was also

supported by the qualitative findings) rather than details and tracking (Table 23: Chapter 4). This may be due to Islamic work ethics which places more importance on the intention with which the work is done rather than on the end results (Hofstede, 2009; Yousef, 1999). The managers in the Arab work environment place emphasis on recognition, achievement and challenges because they belong to a masculine cultural dimension. Earlier authors have also expressed concerns over the contemporary management issues such as too much centralization, poor communications, lack of management skills, and unrealistic performance issues (Weir, 2001). The qualitative survey also indicated that follow-up, tracking work progress, discussing performance, could be interpreted negatively as controlling and criticizing, as pointed out by a respondent (003 UAE E PU):

*“These items could be interpreted as controlling employee’s decision and monitoring his/her performance and the employee may not like this style. We should give the employee the autonomy and freedom to work and do not keep control on everything happening in the unit. We should identify the general points and expectations and not monitor the work in too detailed manner”.*

**To summarize**, evaluation of the managerial competencies through the CVI scale in the UAE organizational environment produced results that differed from the original eight-role Quinn model. The results highlighted that in the UAE work environment, only six managerial-leadership competencies could be identified for the manager’s sample (Team builder, Result oriented, Mentor, Monitor, Broker and Innovator), and only three managerial competencies could be identified for the employees’ sample (Facilitator; Broker and Result oriented). Furthermore, it was observed that the managers in the UAE work environment stress teamwork, result orientation, brokering, mentoring, and monitoring capabilities as the most desirable competencies for successful managers whereas the director, coordinator, and the innovator competencies were poorly identified.

**Furthermore**, the mixed-method approach of this study highlighted the disparity in the perception of the managerial leadership competencies in the UAE working environment and the Western working environment, thus emphasising against the usage of any competency models as a comprehensive model, without taking cultural predictors into consideration. Disparities between the Western

business practices and non-Western settings such as the Arab countries have been reported previously as well (Scott-Jackson, 2010; Weir, 2005; Yousef, 2000). The UAE work environment may have imported the Western laws but the old practices and customs have continued (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993) and the present results further corroborate the views of Weir (2005: p. 216), who believed that “management in the Arab world is unique and fits its own mold”.

### **Cultural Differences and the Managerial-Leadership Competencies**

Although the eight-role Quinn model was not accepted per se and hypothesis 2 was not accepted as such, the extracted roles (six for the managers’ sample and three for the employees’ sample) did show differences across the cultures for the four extracted managerial competencies:

- Broker (both the managers’ and the employees’ sample),
- Result oriented, Monitor and Mentor (managers’ sample).

The Broker skills were highest among the Sub-continent managers for both the managers’ and the employees’ sample (Sub-continent > UAE, other Arabs); the Result-oriented skills of the UAE managers and the other Arab managers were reported to be higher than the Western managers (UAE, other Arabs > Westerns); the other Arab managers displayed higher Mentoring skills than the UAE national managers (other Arabs > UAE), whereas the managers from the Sub-continent displayed higher Monitoring skills than the UAE national managers and the Western managers (Sub-continent > UAE, Westerns).

No significant differences were observed for the Team builder and the Innovator roles from the managers’ sample among the four cultural groups. Also, no significant differences across the four cultural groups were observed for the Facilitator and the Result-oriented roles of the employees’ sample. The following paragraphs interpret the differences for the managerial-leadership competencies examined.

#### **Broker**

The managers from the Sub-continent were found to possess higher Broker skills than the UAE national managers and other Arabs. The differences, as

confirmed through the qualitative findings, were due to their knowledge, business acumen, better negotiating skills, and job insecurity. The extracts reported below support these findings

**(003 UAE E PU):**

*Asian managers work hard and know everything about the work, every detail so they have the knowledge to discuss any job related issues put up by the top management. They also spend more time in the company, they have more experience and they know everyone in the organization. They build good relationship with the top management during their long tenure. Asian managers are very supportive of top managers, agree with top managers and their decisions which make their relation with them very smooth and give them the chance to discuss and influence. They work hard and develop good networks to secure their job.*

Also the case **(007 ARAB M PU)** commented:

*Asian managers have more experience and knowledge about their job, they are very active and productive so they easily connect with the top management regarding their job challenges and seeking help.*

Because of these skills, a manager from the Sub-continent is able to effectively exert upward influence on decision making, sell his/her ideas to those higher up the hierarchy and gain access to superiors. These observations find support from previous research that reports the South Asian culture is known for societal collectivism, future orientation, and assertiveness (House et al., 2004). East Asians are also known to be diligent, work towards their goals, and have higher performance outcomes (Heine & Renshaw, 2002).

The Arab managers are known for their reluctance in authority delegation (Abbas & Al-Shakis, 1989), preference for and availability of a stable life-style compared to a challenging one (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993), self-preservation and their display of face-saving behaviours (Dorfman & House, 2004). They are not very comfortable with open discussions (Al Suwaidi, 2008). Moreover, the UAE national managers are aware of their job security and residency privileges, and thus do not emphasize relationship building with upper management (Shah, 2006). In

contrast, the Asian and the expatriate managers have to work hard to network with superiors and ensure job security because the UAE work environment follows the guest-worker model according to which an expatriate is allowed to stay in the UAE only if he/she has a valid work permit visa (Shah, 2006). Besides the job security factor, the UAE national managers and the other Arab managers tend to shy away from openly discussing their problems with their superiors. Thus, these traits collectively lead to lower brokering skills among the UAE nationals and other Arabs.

### **Monitor**

The Sub-continent managers were also found to have better monitoring skills and significant differences pertaining to that role were observed between the Sub-continent and the UAE nationals and the Western managers. However, this was also reported as their weaknesses because they appeared to control and monitor too much, to the extent that it restricted innovation and flexibility. As explained by respondents:

#### **(0011 SUB-CONTINENT M PR):**

*“Asian managers avoid taking any risk in their work, they are very careful in following up the details, the policies and the procedures; it is not easy for them to keep their job secure in the competitive UAE labour market. Also, the Asian education system is very tough and detailed.”*

#### **(0012 UAE M PU):**

*“Asian managers fear loss of job and so they are more careful about every detail of the job and do their job carefully and perfectly. On the other hand, UAE nationals do not involve much in detail at the operational level.”*

The UAE national and the Sub-continent managers differed significantly on the monitoring skills. A plausible explanation for this observation could be that the Sub-continent managers were adjudged to be good at monitoring because they take their job seriously due to the competitive working environment, instability and insecurity in their jobs. While being detail oriented, dedicated, and following rules and procedures religiously are definitely good for a manager, the qualitative findings indicated that at times the monitoring skills of a Sub-continent manager proved



detrimental to a congenial work environment as it restricted flexibility and limited creativity and innovation. Placing it in the context of previous research, one understands that the Sub-continent managers belong to a high power distance society where hierarchical authority (from an early family upbringing), strict adherence to rules and regulations are the norm (Hofstede, 2010). The South Asian managers place importance on attention to context, decision-making strategies and processes and strategies that are already established norms (Martinsons, 2001; Martinsons & Westwood, 1997). The UAE national managers, on the other hand, were not detail oriented, lacked seriousness about the job and productivity, were not punctual, paid little regard to policies and procedures and thus had low monitoring skills. The UAE nationals have been reported to lack technical skills and not competent to carry their nation forward without the help of the expatriate population (Al Ali, 2008). The present results also support their stereotypical image of lacking technical, competency, and timeliness skills, and not being performance oriented (Al Ali, 2008; Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010; Barber, 2008; Godwin, 2006; Mellahi, 2007). The cases reported below support the findings.

**(0019 WESTERN M PU):**

*Coming to the cultural values, Arab culture does not give that much attention to details, they are not very detailed, but the Asian Managers are very detail oriented and this may stem from the Asian culture and their education system.*

**(004 UAE E PU):**

*UAE managers are too flexible in their approach and they take decisions regardless of the organizational policies and procedure, they do not stick to the rules and regulations; at some stage this is very helpful in making fast and practical decisions. UAE nationals do not give much attention to details, they are not keen to be involved in operational details, they focus more on the bigger picture. They are also relaxed and do not take their job seriously and they have very relaxed approach in doing their job.*

**(016 WESTERN M PR):**

*Yes, UAE nationals do not feel they have to work hard because their job is secure. Usually Arabs are not good with details; Arabs are good in thinking about the bigger picture.*

The UAE national managers were found not following policies and guidelines for decision making. These findings indicate cultural traits of a particularistic society that places little or no importance on rules and written agreements, and where decision making is situation-based rather than judgment-based (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004). The Arab managers have been reported previously to lack communication skills, have unrealistic performance issues and suffer from over-centralization (Weir, 2001). They also show an indifference towards written rules and regulations, and hold their own experience and training in high esteem (Smith et al., 2007), which further explains their low mentoring skills.

### **Result oriented**

The four groups examined also differed on the Result-oriented role of managers; however, significant differences for this role were observed only among the UAE national managers, other Arabs and the Western managers for the managers' sample. The UAE national managers and the other Arab managers displayed higher result-orientation skills than the Western managers. Arab managers have been known to follow the trend and once the direction is set, they are able to lead the teams to desired results (Sulaiman, 2007). The result-orientation skills of the UAE national managers can also be explained in terms of the Masculinity index (Hofstede, 2001) according to which the UAE nationals display both masculine and feminine cultural characteristics. The display of masculine culture is demonstrated through their focus on output and performance rather than the processes, whereas the feminine cultural traits are displayed through their friendliness and their belief in the "work to live" ideology (Hofstede, 2001). The UAE displays a slightly higher masculinity index thus placing more importance on earning, recognition, achievements and challenges, and this may have its roots in its Islamic teachings (Hofstede, 2009). The higher result-orientation of the UAE nationals can also be attributed to the UAE's synchronic work culture that allows parallel activities and emphasizes effectiveness rather than efficiency (Anwar & Chaker, 2003).

## **Mentor**

Finally, significant differences were also observed for the Mentor role between the other Arab managers and the UAE national managers. The other Arab managers scored higher than the UAE national managers on the mentoring skills. This was an interesting observation given the fact that both groups belonged to the Arab culture which shares similar cultural values. The Arab managers, culturally, are very friendly, empathetic, good listeners, adaptable, and very flexible to people from other cultures. These skills stem from their Islamic work ethics based on four concepts: effort, competition, transparency and morally responsible conduct demonstrating the moral, psychological, social and economical dimension (Ali & Al-Owaidan, 2008: p. 8). An Arab manager will have a stronger commitment to people rather than the organization in which they work (Robertson et al., 2002). Also, in the Arab culture, it is a manager's duty to support, guide and nurture team members and to seek a strong role model through knowledge gaining, sharing and management, while maintaining informal communications both upwards and downwards following an open-door policy. He/she displays loyalty to his/her head and expects the same from the subordinates while giving the freedom to voice their opinion in private without implying disloyalty (Scott-Jackson, 2010). A possible explanation for the significant differences observed between the other Arabs and the UAE national managers could be because of the job security privilege the UAE nationals enjoy which is not available to the other Arab managers. Though these expatriate managers are culturally close to the UAE nationals and preferred in many organizations because of their bilingual (Arabic and English) competence (Shah, 2006), they still come under the purview of the guest-worker model that limits their stay in the country subject to availability of a valid work permit visa.

Apparently, the job security privilege of the UAE nationals and the guest-worker model, which the expatriate workforce follow, seemed to influence many of the results observed in this study. It needs to be further examined and could be a potential future research topic.

### **Managerial Competencies and Organizational Commitment**

Managerial-leadership styles have been strongly linked to organizational commitment (Chen, 1995, Wu et al., 2006; Sabir et al., 2011). Organizational commitment of the managers and employees relative to the managerial competencies were examined through the Allen and Meyer (1990) three-component model (affective, continuance, and normative). As explained earlier, affective commitment of an employee is his/her positive feeling of being associated and involved with the organization; continuance commitment is the commitment of an employee by virtue of costs involved in leaving the organization, and normative commitment is defined as the obligation on the part of an employee to continue in the employment.

Factor analysis of the Allen-Meyer (1990) scale resulted in three factors for the managers' sample (Affective, Continuance and Normative) and four factors for the employees' sample (Affective, Continuance1 and 2 and Normative). Correlation analysis of these factors with the extracted managerial competencies roles indicated significant differences between the employees' and the managers' sample which are discussed below.

#### **Affective organizational commitment**

The Affective organizational commitment was significantly and positively related to the Team builder and the Monitor roles of a manager (managers' sample) while it was positively related to the Facilitator competency of an employee's manager (employees' sample). Apparently, in the UAE work environment, leaders who characterize people-oriented roles, emphasize stability, and are conservative in their decision-making style, are able to align with the organization goals and values that adopts Western organization business models but largely follow traditional and conservative values of the Arab culture (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993). As stated earlier, both the roles (Team builder and Monitor) have the questionnaire items relating to the Human relation model and the Internal process model suggested by Quinn (1988), and these models stress managerial qualities that have positive effects on both employees' and managers' affective organizational commitment. These observations find support in previous research, for example, Matin et al. (2010) noted team-building skills of a manager to positively influence organizational commitment

of employees. Also, employees' organizational commitment is reflected positively with democratic managerial-leadership style, and negatively with authoritative managerial-leadership style (Wu et al., 2006). Further to the point, a flexible and participative management style positively impacts organizational commitment of employees (Zeffane, 1995). The results of this study further support these views.

### **Continuance organizational commitment**

Continuance organizational commitment did not show any correlations with the extracted managerial competencies in the managers' sample. However, significant positive correlations were observed between Continuance1 organizational commitment and the two managerial roles of the employees' managers (Facilitator and Result oriented). The Continuance1 factor extracted for the employees' sample was a collection of the Allen and Meyer (1990) questionnaire items emphasizing limited options for leaving the organization, scarcity of jobs, and personal sacrifice in terms of overall benefits. For an employee whose manager displays qualities such as subordinate encouragement, empathy, participative decision making, listening to personal problems, treating individuals respectfully while focusing on operations and result-orientation, it can be reasonably argued that the employee would favor continuing in the organization given the competitive work environment of the UAE and the job insecurity among the expatriate employees. Adding theoretical perspective to this observation, it can be argued that continuance commitment has its roots in the Becker's Bet Theory (1960) which states that "employee made long investment of time in the organization and leaving the organization gives loss, therefore employees show intention to stay with the organization" (Sabir et al., 2011: p. 146). Investment by employees in an organization through time, work, effort abilities and relationships may be hard to find in the next job and this could be true more so for employees than managers because getting a good manager (empathetic, participative, encouraging) makes the work atmosphere stress-free and conducive to productivity. Thus, leadership style is a strong predictor of organizational commitment (Sabir et al., 2011) and the results of the present study confirm this.

### **Normative organizational commitment**

The normative organizational commitment (the obligation to continue in an organization) was observed to have no significant correlations with any of the six extracted managerial roles but in the case of the employees' sample, significant positive correlations were observed for two managerial roles: Result oriented and Broker.

Normative commitment has been shown to be positively related to friendliness, agreeableness, satisfying relationships between managers and employees (Sabir et al., 2011). It was surprising that this study did not record any significant correlation between the Facilitator role of the employees' managers and the Normative organizational commitment of the employees. However, the Broker and the Result-oriented roles of the managers positively and significantly impacted the Normative organizational commitment of their employees which were measured through items such as building relationships, exerting upward influence, networking, result-orientation in the unit, day-to-day operation continuity and careful analysis. Effective managers are known to improve the organizational commitment of their employees through positive impressions and atmosphere (Terzi & Kurt, 2005). Other researchers also observed strong correlations between manager support and normative organizational commitment of employees (Emhan, 2012; Nicholson, 2009).

A zero correlation between the Normative organizational commitment and the managerial competencies for the managers' sample could be possibly due to some other variables not researched in this study. Individuals with many years of experience and superior qualifications are open to discussions and treat any professional or personal challenges or issues with an open mind, demonstrating divergent thinking or openness (McCrae & John, 1992). Kumar, Bakhshi, and Rani (2009) working on the five-factor model of personality proposed by McCrae and John (1992) noted that the openness-to-experience trait characterized by behaviors such as curiosity, broad-mindedness, intelligence, and scientific and artistic creativity, are negatively related to normative organizational commitment. These authors have suggested that individuals who are high on openness to experience may not aptly value organizational investments, or formal and informal rewards. This could be true for the managers' sample where no correlations were observed between the managerial roles and the Normative organizational commitment.

Thus, the results of this study indicated that the managerial competencies of a manager significantly impacted the Normative and the Continuance organizational commitment of the employees working with them. Furthermore, for the managers' sample, only the Team-builder and the Monitor roles of a manager showed significant positive correlations with the Affective organizational commitment. No correlations were observed between the managerial roles and the Normative and the Continuance organizational commitment of the managers.

### **Managerial Competencies and Job Satisfaction**

Leadership behaviour of managers is positively related to job satisfaction of employees (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Stander & Rothmann, 2008; Yosef, 2001), and job satisfaction among employees is known to improve organizational performance and effectiveness (Eskildsen & Dahlgaard, 2000). Factor analysis of the data set for job satisfaction, measured through the Hackman and Oldham (1975) instrument, resulted in extraction of two factors, Internal and External, for both the managers' and the employees' sample. Internal job satisfaction was observed to be positively and significantly correlated to the Team-builder and the Result-oriented roles of the managers' sample, and to the Facilitator and the Result-oriented roles of the employees' sample. The External job satisfaction was found to be significantly and positively correlated to the Result-oriented, Innovator, Monitor, Broker, and the Mentor roles of managers in the managers' sample, and to the Facilitator and the Result-oriented roles of managers in the employees' sample.

#### **Internal job satisfaction**

It was evident from the correlation results that in the UAE multicultural work environment, managers endowed with stability, ability to align well with the external as well as internal focus of the organization, and flexibility experienced greater job satisfaction as corroborated by significant positive correlation between the Team builder and the Result-oriented roles of the managers in the managers' sample, and the Facilitator and the Result-oriented roles of the employees' sample. These roles included items from the producer, director, coordinator, monitor (stability, internal focus and external focus---the Internal process and the Rational model), facilitator, and mentor roles (flexibility and internal focus---the Human Relation model) of the

original eight-role CVI. The correlations suggest that the Internal job satisfaction of managers in the UAE multicultural and multinational work environment is predicted by the Human relation, Rational, and Internal process model elements of the Quinn model that underlines competencies such as flexibility and adaptability to understand self and others, developing subordinates, managing conflict, managing collective and organizational performance, leading and working productively (Quinn, 1988). Flexibility and stability among managers through monitoring and coordinating skills is essential if they have to maintain a harmonious work atmosphere among culturally diverse workforce (Giffords, 2009); this may explain the significant positive correlation between the Internal job satisfaction and the Team builder and the Result-oriented roles of a manager in the manager's sample.

A good social environment with a supporting and understanding manager encouraging an individual's professional and personal growth affects the internal job satisfaction index of the employees positively (Al Jenaibi, 2010). Positive correlations between high job satisfaction and managerial support and managerial style have been reported earlier (Al Jenaibi, 2010; Cohen, 1992; Zeffane, 1994) because supportive managers motivate higher job satisfaction among their employees by providing a conducive ambience to achieve organizational goals (Giffords, 2009). Thus, the correlation between the Internal job satisfaction of employees and the Facilitator and Result-oriented roles of their managers is in agreement with earlier research.

### **External job satisfaction**

External job satisfaction refers to factors that are not just controlled by the internal environment of the organization but is also influenced by market conditions and industry competitions, such as pay and job security. In the present study, External job satisfaction of the managers correlated significantly and positively with the Result oriented, Innovator, Monitor, Broker, and the Mentor roles of the managers in the managers' sample. It correlated significantly and positively with the Facilitator and the Result-oriented roles of the managers in the employees' sample. The results suggest that managers possessing the above-mentioned competencies receive competitive pay packages and feel more secure about their job with the organization than the ones who do not display these effective competencies.



Explaining the results in the case of the employees' sample, it can be argued that managers with competencies such as stability, flexibility, a focus on internal coordination, stability and growth compared to external focus, positively influences the External (pay and job security) job satisfaction among their employees. Competent managers will always influence the organization performance positively, leading to better pay and job security of their subordinates. Previous research confirms positive relationships between manager support and job satisfaction (Emhan, 2012); manager's respectful and fair treatment of employees and job satisfaction (Spector, 1997); people oriented leadership style of managers and result-oriented approach of managers positively influence job satisfaction among employees (Rehman et al., 2012). The present study results are an addition to this pool of literature.

### **Managerial Competencies and Gender**

Significant differences in managerial-leadership competencies based on gender (Bryans & Mavin, 2003; McGregor & Tweed, 2001; Nicholson, 2000) may be due to cultural upbringing, traditional roles in society, stereotypes, for example (Nicholson, 2000). In this research, no significant differences based on gender were observed for any of the six extracted managerial roles in the managers' sample. Interestingly, a similar observation has been reported by Govender and Parumasur (2010) also. The authors did not observe any significant differences between male and female managers along any of the eight managerial competencies suggested by the Quinn model (1988).

Significant positive differences based on gender were observed for the Broker competency in the employees' sample alone. In the employees' sample, it was observed that the Broker competency of female managers was higher than the male managers. Female managers are known for their interactive leadership style, viewing their relationships with their subordinates as transformational, encouraging the employees to transform their self-interest into the group's interest, encouraging participation, enhancing their self-worth and creating a win-win situation rather than reward-punishment situation (Nicholson & West, 2008; Rosener, 1990). McGregor and Tweed (2001) also reported significant differences between men and women

managerial competencies with women being better at dealing with details, budgets, and the environment. The Broker competency of the managers in the present research endorsed qualities such as negotiating agreement and commitment, influencing decisions at higher levels, gaining access to people at higher levels, and the female managers were found to exhibit these qualities more than the male managers in the employees' sample. The qualitative survey results of this study pointed out that women, in general, being diplomatic, effective communicators, and being female are able to gain access to senior managers who happen to listen to them attentively. The below-mentioned responses from the participants support the argument.

**(0016 WESTERN M PR):**

*Totally agree (Women managers have better Brokering skills), women need to prove themselves, they have to secure their job to be competitive in male dominated environment and also women at work place can be soft and hard at the same time.*

**(0013 UAE M PU):**

*Women are good in presenting ideas in easy and flexible way and she is also very flexible in her job, dealing with employees and delegating the work. Men are very keen and give more attention when dealing with women.*

**(003 UAE E PU):**

*Yes, agree 100% with the results, the females have better presentation skills than men, they present ideas better and in easy way, they know how to convince others; men lack these skills, they are rather straight forward. Because they are females, men are very keen to interact with them, give more concern and attention to females and give more value to what they say, they hear female's viewpoint easily and convincingly.*

The present results are in agreement with earlier research. A study by the Zenger and Folkman (2012) on leadership competencies across the globe found that female managers were rated better than male managers for 12 out of 16 competencies

studied, and the competencies in which females excelled included developing others, honesty and integrity, self-development, motivating others, relationship building, collaboration and team work, powerful and prolific communication (Zenger & Folkman, 2012). Women managers are gifted with “nurturing qualities, strong ethics and persuasive negotiation skill” and were observed to be knowledgeable, skilled, and having good people management skills (Idris et al., 2012: p. 173). Female managers were found to perform better than male managers while dealing with sensitivity and customer-focus issues (Arditi & Balci, 2009). Brokering is a social skill and men are stereotyped negatively on this skill and female managers are often viewed as effective decision-makers, have the ability to develop people, and are able to effectively utilise staff to produce results. Female managers possess a blend of decisiveness and persuasion that aids them in negotiation (Idris et al., 2012). Thus, the results concerning female managers being better than male managers at the Broker competency in this study, is quite justifiable and acceptable.

### **Sector: Managerial Competencies, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction**

The present research tried to evaluate the differences/no differences that existed between the private and public sector against three contexts: managerial competencies, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Correlations between sector—managerial-leadership competencies; sector—organizational commitment and sector—job satisfaction were examined quantitatively and qualitatively. The observations in context of previous research are discussed below.

#### **Managerial Competencies**

The work environment is a determinant of managerial competency requirements (Schroder, 1989). Earlier studies have confirmed different managerial competency requirements for public and private sector businesses (Cooper, 2004; Rainey & Bozeman, 2000).

The managers’ sample (self rated) did not show any differences between the private and the public sector on the analysed managerial competencies. One explanation may be that managers view the analysed competencies as generic, and not related to any sector. At any point in time, a manager may need to display the

analysed competencies, whether they belong to a private or public sector (Rosenau & Linder, 2003). With globalization and an increasingly competitive environment, it is expected that managers perform their roles and duties more diligently in both sectors, and apparently the level of stress experienced by managers in both these sectors is the same (Anderson, 2010). The results of this study are also in agreeance with the viewpoint that managers, irrespective of the sector they belong to, need to possess generic managerial competencies.

Significant differences were observed between the two sectors for all the three extracted managerial competencies (Facilitator, Result-oriented, and Broker) for the employees' sample. The private sector managers (as rated by their employees) were better than the public sector managers in all the three roles in the UAE work environment. The private sector managers were better team players, target oriented, empathetic, coordinated the team well, and good negotiators. One of the possible reasons for this outcome could be that the managers in the private sector were mostly expatriates. Thus, the display of better competencies than the public sector managers could be linked to their job security, which may be related to their performance in the job. Interestingly, the managers in the public sector rated themselves to be just as competent as the private sector managers, while the employees rating them thought otherwise. Explaining the observations relative to previous research, private sector managers were significantly more competent than the public sector managers in most of the management competencies (Pillay, 2008). A report by Van Keer and Bogaert (2009) also noted that the public sector managers are less inclined towards people- and result-oriented roles, and do not pay much attention to relationships and networks. Along similar lines, Anderson (2010) reported that private sector managers were relationship oriented, intuitive, and power motivated whereas public sector managers were more bureaucratic, less materialistic, and having a less organizational commitment. This research also concluded that the private sector managers of the employees' sample were better at the Facilitator, Result-oriented, and the Broker roles of the managerial-leadership competency.

### **Organizational Commitment**

Significant differences in organizational commitment factors based on private and public sector were observed only for the Normative organizational commitment

(managers' and employees' sample) and for the Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment (employees' sample). The Normative organizational commitment of the public sector managers was found to be higher than the private sector managers for the managers' sample in the UAE work environment. Normative organizational commitment is an obligation on the part of employees to continue in an organization. The public sector managers are definitely better paid, and have better working conditions and incentives compared to the private sector managers in the UAE (Al Ali, 2008). The results of this research support the prevailing truth about the working environment in the UAE. The public sector organizations in the UAE are known for better work hours, compensation, benefit plans, promotions, and growth strategies (Al Ali, 2008).

In the case of the employees' sample, the Normative organizational commitment and the Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment of the employees of the private sector were observed to be higher than the public sector employees. As stated in the earlier section (Chapter 5: Managerial Competencies and Organizational Commitment), the Result-oriented and the Broker managerial-leadership competencies of managers significantly predicted the Normative organizational commitment of employees. Friendliness, agreeableness, satisfying relationships between managers and employees are strong predictors of Normative organizational commitment (Sabir et al., 2011). And as seen earlier, the managers from the employees' sample of the private sector were better at the Facilitator, Result-oriented, and Broker roles compared to the public sector managers. Significantly higher levels of commitment amongst private sector employees have been reported elsewhere as well (Zeffane, 1995) as the personal goals and values of public sector employees are less compatible with the organization (Lyons et al., 2006).

The results of this study presented a very interesting and contradictory proposition. Although the Normative organizational commitment of the managers (managers' sample) in the public sector organizations was higher than the Normative organizational commitment of managers working in the private sector organizations (this could be due to their job security and higher pay), the Normative organizational commitment and the Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment of the employees working in the public sector (employees' sample) were lower than the employees working in the private sector. A possible explanation to this contradiction could be

that lower managerial competencies of the public sector managers compared to the private sector managers could have a negative effect on both the Normative and Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment of the employees working in the public sector. This assumption needs to be explored further.

### **Job Satisfaction**

Significant differences based on sector in job satisfaction were observed only for the External job satisfaction factor and only for the employees' sample. No significant differences in job satisfaction based on sector were observed for the managers' sample.

External job satisfaction among the private sector employees was found to be higher than the public sector employees. This was quite contrary to the expected outcome given that the public sector organizations pay their employees well and provide better job security compared to the private sector organizations (Al Ali, 2008). A possible reasoning to explain this outcome could be that in the UAE context, relationships with managers in private sectors affected the job satisfaction level of the employees. The private sector employees from the employees' sample were observed to display higher organizational commitment (Normative and Continuance<sup>1</sup>) compared to the public sector employees, and job satisfaction among the employees could well be linked to that. This context needs further exploration. Earlier researchers have reported significant differences in job satisfaction levels based on sector. Public sector employees were found to be more satisfied than private sector employees because the public sector contributes to social causes (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006); employees are intrinsically motivated, have systematically classified occupations and departments (Lee & Sabharwal, 2012); have better pay, time schedules and overall rewards (Gupta & Pannu, 2013).

### **Summary**

This chapter discussed the results obtained in Chapter 4 in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, which included a discussion on the influences of culture, sector, and gender on the extracted six-role model of managerial-leadership competencies based on the CVI (Quinn et al., 2003) in the UAE work environment. It also discussed the influences of managerial-leadership competencies on job

satisfaction and organizational commitment for the managers' and the employees' sample.

The results that were in agreement with previous research, the ones that deviated from it, and the results that needed further examination and exploration were also identified. The conclusions drawn from these discussions are presented in the next chapter (Chapter 6). The next chapter also presents recommendations, limitations, and areas for further research.

## Chapter 6---Conclusion

At the outset, the researcher was captivated by differences in managerial approaches stemming from cultural practices. Belonging to a country that relies to a large extent on the expatriate workforce, the researcher was further intrigued by different managerial practices and approaches in a multicultural and multinational environment. From an in-depth review of the literature, the author understood that managerial-leadership competencies were not just influenced by cultural practices but there were many other predictors too, - gender, education, age, sector, experience, to name a few.

This research was undertaken to explore the influences of culture, gender, and organization sector on managerial-leadership competencies (employing Quinn et al., 2003, eight-role competency model) in a multicultural and multinational UAE work environment and to examine further the correlations between managerial-leadership competencies--sector, managerial-leadership competencies--job satisfaction, and managerial-leadership competencies--organizational commitment.

The UAE work environment, as a unit of analysis, had several interesting characteristics such as its organizations that practice Westernized business models (Alyousif, Naoum, Atkinson, & Robinson, 2010) complemented with Arabic socio-cultural values (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993); multicultural and multinational workforce including more than 200 nationalities (UAE Government Service: Labour and Employment, 2010); and organization culture with a proactive, achievement oriented, creative, responsible and accountable multicultural and multinational team (Klein et al., 2009). Thus, the UAE offered one of the the most suitable environments for the present research—to explore the influences of culture, sector, and gender on the managerial-leadership competencies in a multicultural environment, and the impact of the managerial-leadership competencies on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in a multicultural and multinational work environment that follows a guest-worker model for its expatriate residents.

The main research questions of this study were:

**Q1:** Does national culture affect managerial-leadership competencies significantly?



**Q2:** Are there any positive correlations between managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction, organizational commitments?

**Q3:** How do gender differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?

**Q4:** How do sector differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?

**Q5:** How do sector differences affect the organizational commitment and job satisfaction?

And to answer these questions, 14 hypotheses were proposed and tested in the present research. The research was designed around two sets of independent variables [(managerial competencies--continuous) and (culture, sector, gender--nominal)] and two dependent variables (job satisfaction and organizational commitment—continuous). The managerial-leadership competencies acted as independent variables when predicting job satisfaction and organizational commitment, whereas it was used as the dependent variable to examine the influences of culture, gender and sector on the managerial-leadership competencies.

Three sets of questionnaires were used in the research:

- The Competing Values Instrument (Quinn et al., 2003; eight-role competency model) for measuring the managerial competencies (innovator, facilitator, mentor, and director (leadership roles); and producer, monitor, coordinator, and broker (managerial roles));
- The Allen and Meyer model (1990) for organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative);
- The Hackman and Oldham model (1975) for job satisfaction (internal and external).

The cultural groups examined in this research included UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent, and a mix of Westerners that also included participants from Australia and New Zealand grouped as Westerners.

Using a mixed-method approach (quantitative as well as qualitative), the data set ( $N=510$ ; 145 managers and 365 employees) was analysed through various statistical techniques (factor analysis, correlation analysis, regression analysis, *t*-test

and ANOVA). The results obtained through the quantitative analysis were further substantiated through qualitative semi-structured interviews and analysed using thematic coding. The results and conclusions based on discussions in Chapter 5 are presented below.

## **Managerial Competencies**

### **National Culture and Managerial Competencies**

The research agreed with earlier studies that diverse cultures hold different perceptions of a competent manager (Hunt, 2002; Jung et al., 1995) and that culture does influence managerial competencies and behaviours. The eight-role competency model suggested by Quinn (1988) did not hold true for the present study and the results brought forth only a six-role model of managerial-leadership competency in the case of the managers' sample (managers rating themselves) and only a three-role competency model for the employees' sample (employees rating their managers) in the UAE work environment.

Two important conclusions were drawn from this outcome: first, the researcher's assumption that managers and employees have different perceptions about managerial-leadership competencies holds ground; and second, that the Quinn model for managerial-leadership competencies cannot be mapped as such to the UAE managerial population is also affirmed. This finding merely expands on previous research, which strongly advised against generalization of any competency model developed from the Western perspective to other cultural contexts (Ali, 1995; Obeidat et al., 2012; Weir, 2001). A disparity between Western business practices and Arab business practices has been elaborated by Yousef (2000) as well. The findings support the application of cultural dimensions to management as underscored by Hofstede (2010).

In the UAE work environment, as concluded through this study, effective managerial-leadership competencies included Team builder (effective team player, consultative decision making, collectivist orientation), Result oriented (efficiency orientation, concern with impacts, internally focussed, adaptability, self control, self confidence), Mentor, Monitor, Broker, and Innovator skills in the case of the managers' sample, whereas for the employees' sample only the Facilitator, Broker,

and Result oriented competencies were considered important. The Arab culture is well known for its collectivist values (Branine & Pollard, 2010; Dafdar, 1984; House et al., 2004; Robertson et al., 2002). Therefore, greater importance is given to skills emphasizing human relationships and productivity such as Broker, Result-oriented, Team builder (Facilitator), and Mentor roles, with some importance on the Monitor and Innovator roles also. The skills that stress internal processes, goal setting, and flexibility such as the director and the coordinator roles of the Quinn model (1988) were poorly represented in the UAE work environment in the present research, possibly due to Arab cultural values which do not place a lot of emphasis on future orientation, planning, goal setting, innovation, and punctuality (Javidan et al., 2006). Further to the point, the UAE work environment has imported Western business models and organizational environments but the national practices and culture have remained (Alyousif et al., 2010; Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993). Consequently, although the organizations appear to be Westernized superficially, culturally they are quite different from the West.

These conclusions need to take into account that the sample managers examined in this research were not an exclusive Arab sample, but four selected groups were studied (UAE nationals, other Arabs, Sub-continent and Western). An interesting observation of this study was that although the UAE nationals and the other Arabs groups were culturally close, significant differences were reported in this study on the extracted Mentor managerial-leadership competencies between them. Ideally, both the groups belong to the Arab culture known for friendliness, being good listeners, adaptable, flexible, and compassionate. The observed differences could be due to the job security that the UAE nationals enjoy. The other Arab groups may have some advantage over other expatriates in that they are culturally close to the UAE's culture, but the truth remains that they are still expatriates and fall within the guest-worker model.

To further appreciate the influences of culture, the selected groups were compared on the extracted managerial-leadership roles. Significant differences among the managers' sample were observed for the Broker, Result oriented, Monitor, and Mentor roles of the managerial-leadership competencies. Brokering skills were significantly higher among the Sub-continent managers, known for their

societal collectivism and assertiveness (House et al., 2004), compared to the UAE nationals and the other Arab managers, for both the managers' and the employees' sample. The Result-oriented skills (managers' sample) of the UAE managers and the other Arab managers were significantly higher than the Western managers possibly due to the synchronic UAE work culture that emphasizes more on effectiveness rather than efficacy (Anwar & Chaker, 2003). The monitoring skills were found to be significantly higher in the Sub-continent managers than the UAE national managers and the Western managers linking it to their upbringing in a high power distance society where adherence to rules and regulations and following the hierarchical authority is the norm.

A comparison of the four cultural groups was carried out not just to understand the influences of culture on the managerial-leadership competencies but also to highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the selected cultural groups which would help the policy makers in developing appropriate competency models for these cultural groups. The researcher, a UAE national himself, concludes that the strengths and weaknesses of UAE nationals in particular would help him personally, as well as contribute to the development of the UAE national managers, because the UAE nationals have been stereotyped (by others as well as themselves) as lacking technical skills, competencies, work ethics, not taking their jobs seriously and as being incompetent in performing their appointed jobs (Al Ali, 2008; Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010; Barber, 2008; Godwin, 2006; Mellahi, 2007).

Only the strengths and weaknesses of the Sub-continent managers and the UAE national managers could be evaluated because there were not enough representative cases for the other Arabs and the Western managers. The UAE nationals were found to be strong in mentoring, innovator, result-orientation, and career orientation skills, but their weaknesses included lacking seriousness in pursuing their jobs, not being punctual, inefficient, lacking monitoring and follow-up skills, not following policies and procedures, and shying away from openly discussing their problems with superiors.

On the other hand, the Sub-continent managers were found to be strong in the producer and the monitor skills and their weaknesses included a controlling managerial style, rigidity with rules and regulations, uninterested in developing their

subordinates, and developing interpersonal skills, which again could be linked to their cultural upbringing.

### **Organizational Commitment and Managerial Competencies**

Using the Allen and Meyer (1990) instrument to assess the organizational commitment of the managers' and the employees' sample, the research concluded that the Affective organizational commitment (the positive feeling of an individual in being associated with the organization) of managers was significantly and positively associated with their Team builder and the Monitor roles in the managers' sample. This also indicates that the UAE work environment still prefers traditional management style and managers who work well with people, are conservative in their decision-making style, stress stability, and are able to align well with the organizational values and goals (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993).

Similarly, the Facilitator role (emphasizing human relations, team building, teamwork) of the managers from the employees' sample was linked positively to the Affective organizational commitment of the employees. This observation further adds to the literature, supporting the findings that the team-building skills of a manager positively influence the organizational commitment among employees (Matin et al., 2010).

Continuance organizational commitment is the cost incurred to the employee in leaving the job (includes monetary and non-monetary costs), which in the present study was not correlated to any of the extracted managerial competencies in the case of the managers' sample, but positively correlated to the Facilitator and the Result-oriented roles of their managers in the employees' sample. It was quite expected that a manager with the Facilitator and the Result-oriented skills would positively influence Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment among his/her subordinates.

Likewise, the Normative organizational commitment, in the present study, was not significantly related to any of the six extracted managerial competencies for the managers' sample, but it was positively related to the Result-oriented and the Broker skills of the managers in the employees' sample. Normative organizational commitment is the moral obligation on part of the individual to continue in an organization. Managers who are curious, broad-minded, intelligent and scientific will

have little regard for organizational investments, or formal and informal rewards offered to them (Kumar et al., 2009), which explains the failure to find any correlation between the managerial-leadership competencies of the managers and the Normative organization commitment for the manager's sample. In contrast, in the employees' sample, the Normative organizational commitment of the employees was observed to be positively related to the Broker and the Result-oriented roles of their managers. It was quite surprising that the Facilitator role of managers was not observed to be related to the Normative organizational commitment of the employees. However, there may be too little evidence to generalize and definitely needs further exploration. Managerial support through satisfying relationships with employees, clear goals and objectives, networking, and result-orientation positively impacted the normative organizational commitment of their subordinates (Nicholson, 2009; Emhan, 2012) and this study also found similar results when the Normative organization commitment of the employees rating their managers was examined.

### **Job Satisfaction and Managerial Competencies**

Job satisfaction of the managers and the employees as influenced by the managerial-leadership competencies was evaluated through the Hackman and Oldham (1975) instrument. The results of this study concluded that the Internal job satisfaction of the managers was positively associated with their Team builder and the Result-oriented roles in the managers' sample, whereas it was positively associated with the Facilitator and Result-oriented roles of their managers in the employees' sample.

Similarly, the External job satisfaction in the managers' sample was positively related to their Result-oriented, Innovator, Monitor, Broker, and the Mentor skills, whereas it was positively associated with the Facilitator and Result-oriented skills of the managers in the employees' sample. The results are quite in agreement with many previous studies that have found similar correlations (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Stander & Rothmann, 2008; Yosef, 2000). Internal job satisfaction included characteristics such as social environment, supervisory characteristics, and growth of an individual employee.

On the basis of the results observed, it can be concluded that the managers aligned well with the external and internal focus of the organization, displayed

flexibility and stability in an organization, experienced greater job satisfaction (Internal) themselves and also provided greater job satisfaction to their employees through a conducive social environment.

Similarly, a manager who displays result orientation, innovator, monitoring, mentoring, and brokering skills experiences greater External job satisfaction because he/she may be regarded as a competitive asset by the organization. A good social environment with supporting and understanding managers positively influences job satisfaction of employees through enhanced organization performance, leading to better pay and job security for workers.

### **Gender and Managerial Competencies**

Gender and its correlation with the managerial competencies have been reported previously as well (McGregor & Tweed, 2001; Rosener, 1990). The present study found no correlations between the extracted managerial-leadership roles and the gender for the managers' sample. However, significant differences were observed for the Broker role in the employees' sample. In the employees' sample where employees rated their managers, the present study concluded that female managers displayed greater brokering skills compared to their male counterparts and this possibly could be linked to their being gifted with "nurturing qualities, strong ethics and persuasive negotiation skill" (Idris et al., 2012: p. 173).

### **Sector: Managerial Competencies, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment**

#### **Sector and Managerial Competencies**

Work environments definitely affect managerial competencies (Schroder, 1989) and managerial competencies requirements differ across sectors (Rainey & Bozeman, 2000; Cooper, 2004). This study did not observe any differences in the managerial competencies requirements between the private and the public sector for the managers' self-rated sample, which could possibly be due to the managers' perception of the extracted competencies to be generic and not related to any sector. However, significant differences based on sector were observed for all the three extracted managerial-leadership competencies (Facilitator, Result-oriented, and Broker). The private sector managers were better than the public sector managers as

rated by their employees on all the three managerial competencies examined in this study. A significant conclusion of this study was that though the public sector managers perceived themselves as competent as the private sector managers for the examined managerial-leadership competencies, the employees (subordinates) viewed them otherwise. The private sector managers were found to be more competent than the public sector managers by many other researchers as well (Anderson, 2010; Pillay, 2008).

### **Sector and Organizational Commitment**

Significant differences based on sector were observed only for the Normative organizational commitment (managers' and employees' sample) and Continuance1 organizational commitment (employees' sample). Normative organizational commitment, an obligation on part of the employee to continue in an organization, was higher in the public sector managers compared to the private sector organization. Given the working environment and the privileges available to the public sector managers in the UAE (lesser working hours, better pay, better benefit plans, compensation and growth strategies) (Al Ali, 2008), the results were not surprising. In the case of the employees' sample, the Normative organizational commitment and the Continuance1 organizational commitment of the private sector employees were higher than the public sector employees. Higher level of Normative organizational commitment in private sector can be due to incompatibility of personal values and goals of employees with the public sector organizations (Lyons et al., 2006). The results of this study also presented an interesting and contradictory disposition. The Normative organizational commitment of the managers (managers' sample) in the public sector organizations was higher than the Normative organizational commitment of managers working in the private sector organizations, but the Normative organizational commitment and the Continuance1 organizational commitment of the employees working in the public sector (employees' sample) were lower than the employees working in the private sector. A possible explanation for this contradiction could be that the lower managerial competencies of the public sector managers compared to the private sector managers could have a negative effect on both the Normative and Continuance1 organizational commitment of the employees working in the public sector. This aspect definitely needs further exploration.



### **Sector and Job Satisfaction**

Significant differences were observed only in the External job satisfaction based on sectors for the employees' sample only. No significant differences in the Internal and External job satisfaction based on sectors were observed for the managers' sample. This result was quite intriguing and a possible explanation for this outcome could be that relationships with managers affected the job satisfaction of employees and the private sector employees displayed higher Normative and Continuance<sup>1</sup> organizational commitment. Also, the private sector employees rated their managers higher on all three managerial competencies (Facilitator, Result-oriented, and Broker) and managerial competencies have been shown to manipulate job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Sabir et al., 2011).

### **Summary**

This research has examined the influences of culture, gender, and sector on managerial-leadership competencies using the Competing Values Instrument (Quinn et al., 2003) and also studied the correlations between the managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction, organizational commitment and sector in the UAE work environment.

The results of this study indicated correlations between managerial-leadership competencies, culture, gender, sector, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The eight-role Quinn model of managerial-leadership competencies did not fit the Arab working environment of UAE and the factor analysis results indicated only six roles for the managers' sample whereas only three roles for the employees' sample. This clearly indicates that the Quinn eight-role model cannot be applied to the UAE work environment, apparently because in the Arab culture (to which the UAE belongs) collectivist values such as Brokering, Result-oriented, Team builder (Facilitator), Mentor, Monitor and Innovator roles are prioritized. Besides the above-mentioned competencies, two new skills were also identified during the qualitative semi-structured interviews: networking with customers and stakeholders, and cultural sensitivity, adaptability and flexibility.

The central findings of this research are presented in Table 27.

Table 27

*Central Findings of the Research*

Dep Var	Ind Var	Findings
<i>Managerial-Leadership Competencies</i>	<i>Culture</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Most desired competencies in the UAE work environment: Team builder (Facilitator), Result oriented, Broker, Mentor, Monitor and Innovator.</li> <li>Result-oriented skills: UAE national and other Arab managers &gt; Western managers.</li> <li>Mentoring skills: Other Arabs &gt; UAE nationals.</li> <li>Broker skills: Sub-continent &gt; UAE nationals, other Arabs.</li> <li>Monitor skills: Sub-continent managers &gt; UAE national and Western managers.</li> <li>UAE national manager's strengths: mentoring, innovator, result-orientation and career-orientation skills and skills emphasizing human relations and productivity.</li> <li>UAE national manager's weaknesses: lack of detail orientation, lack of goal setting, timelessness, inefficiency, not discussing their problems openly, not following policies and procedures.</li> <li>Sub-continent manager's strengths: monitoring skills, following up details, policies and procedures, rules and regulations, good at networking, hard worker, meticulous and quite knowledgeable.</li> <li>Sub-continent manager's weaknesses: too controlling, rigid, inhibit innovation, flexibility, knowledge sharing, and team-work.</li> </ul>
	<i>Sector</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>All three competencies of the employees' sample of the private sector managers better than the public sector managers.</li> <li>No significant differences for the managers' sample.</li> </ul>
	<i>Gender</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Female managers displayed higher brokering skills (employees' sample) than male managers.</li> </ul>
<i>Organizational commitment</i>	<i>Managerial Leadership</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Monitor, Team builder skills of the managers' sample and the Facilitator skills of the employees' sample influence Affective organizational commitment significantly.</li> <li>Result oriented, Facilitator skills of managers significantly influence Continuance1 organizational commitment of employees significantly (employees' sample).</li> <li>Result oriented and Broker skills of managers affect Normative organizational commitment of employees significantly (employees' sample).</li> </ul>
	<i>Sector</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Normative organizational commitment of managers (managers' sample) higher in public sector than private sector.</li> <li>Normative organizational commitment of employees (employees' sample) of private sector higher than public sector.</li> <li>Continuance1 organizational commitment of employees (employees' sample) of private sector higher than public sector.</li> </ul>
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>	<i>Managerial competencies</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Result-oriented and Broker skills of managers impact their Internal job satisfaction (Managers' sample).</li> <li>Broker, Result-oriented, Mentor, Monitor and Innovator skills of managers affect their External job satisfaction (Managers' sample).</li> <li>Result oriented and Facilitator skills of managers impact Internal and External job satisfaction of their employees (employees' sample).</li> </ul>
	<i>Sector</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>External job satisfaction of employees in the private sector higher than public sector (Employees' sample)</li> </ul>
Managerial-leadership competencies: Managers' sample (Team builder, Broker, Result oriented, Mentor, Monitor, Innovator); Employees' sample (Facilitator, Result-oriented, Broker)		
Organizational commitment: Managers' sample (Affective, Continuance, Normative); Employees' sample (Affective, Continuance1, Continuance2, Normative)		
Job satisfaction (Internal, External)		
Cultural groups (UAE nationals, Sub-continent, other Arabs, Western)		
Sector: Private and Public		

The results reiterated the application of cultural dimensions to the discipline of management (Hofstede, 2010). In the UAE context, the results highlighted the necessary competencies required for managers as perceived by themselves and as perceived by their employees. It highlighted the strengths and weaknesses of the four cultural groups studied, besides drawing attention to the managerial-leadership competencies that predict organizational commitment and job satisfaction of managers and employees. The research contributes significantly in accentuating the interplay between managerial-leadership competencies, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the multicultural and multinational UAE work environment, and how the results could be translated to enhance the managerial-leadership competencies of the UAE managerial workforce. It also brings forth the need to develop the director and coordinator competencies among the managers working in the UAE work environment, because a successful and superior-performing manager needs to be proficient in multi-tasking.

It is necessary to keep in mind, when interpreting the results of this research, that the management practices in the Arab countries that largely depend upon the expatriate population has very little correlation with Arab cultural values and Islamic principles (Branine & Pollard, 2010). A possibility of skewed representation of results, due to the guest-worker model used for the expatriate workforce and particular privileges granted to its citizens (which may be unjustified in some contexts), cannot be ignored. The results must be interpreted with caution because of the imbalances in the perspectives of the UAE managerial workforce. While the UAE nationals working in the private sector often complain about resentment, not being taken seriously by expatriates, not being assigned challenging tasks though they may like to do them (Janardhan, 2006), the expatriate workforce also feels the effects of discrimination, citing lack of job security, unequal chances of growth and unequal compensation. A 2004 survey indicated that 60% of the nationals in the private sector believed that they were discriminated against in the multicultural environment (Beuthe, 2007). The results of this study could be channelled into such contexts; to bridge the gap between the UAE nationals and the expatriate workforce. The results very clearly highlight the need to develop a UAE system of managerial-leadership competencies incorporating Western management skills diffused with the local culture and values similar to what the Japanese, Chinese and South Koreans have

done (Branine & Pollard, 2010; Scott-Jackson, 2010). The results conclusively confirm the views of previous scholars who have examined the management practices of the GCC countries (Forstenlechner, 2010; Scott-Jackson, 2010; Weir, 2001). There is a need to develop and enhance the skills of UAE managers by addressing the gaps and tensions that exist between the dominant Western perspectives on leadership and local needs and realities (Al Dabbagh & Assaad, 2010). This study has contributed significantly by highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of the examined cultural groups (UAE nationals particularly) and the results can be used constructively to develop the managerial-leadership competencies of the UAE workforce.

### **Recommendations**

A globalized marketplace and the multicultural-multinational society in UAE needs managerial leaders who are balanced global leaders, displaying all the six roles identified in this research, depending upon the context. Barhem, Younies and Smith (2011) examined the skills importantly required to be global leaders in the UAE context and reported that education and work experience were the most important factors needed to be global leaders in the current global business environment in the UAE. They also noted that other skills, such as working effectively in a team, the ability and willingness to learn, effective negotiation, ability to work effectively with upper managers, good technical skills, ability to stay motivated and motivate team members and effective communication, are very important skills for the current global managers in the UAE work environment. The present research has also reported similar managerial competencies: team-builder (facilitator) skills, result-oriented skills, mentoring, monitoring, brokering and innovator skills. The results of this study could be used by policy makers and strategists to address the shortcomings of managers belonging to various cultural groups, and to initiate programs that help in developing balanced managers irrespective of cultural background. This study has enhanced the understanding of managerial-leadership competency requirements in the UAE work environment and this may serve as an initiation point for future research. Based on the results of this study, the following suggestions may improve the managerial-leadership competencies of the UAE managerial workforce.

- Develop and enhance the identified essential skills of the managers in the UAE work environment: Team builder, Result-oriented, Mentoring, Monitoring, Brokering and Innovator.
- Work upon developing director and coordinator competencies of the UAE managers because these competencies were not well defined in the UAE work environment.
- Develop the UAE national/Arab managers for mentoring, monitoring, brokering skills as they were found to be weak in these skills.
- Train managers from the Sub-continent for mentoring and team-building skills because they were observed to be too controlling and rather weak at mentoring and team-building skills.
- Cross-cultural training should be made mandatory for all managers keeping in mind the results of this study which are UAE context-specific.
- Develop training programs based on cultural predispositions so that their strengths could be highlighted and their weaknesses worked upon.
- Reiterate the importance and appreciation of traditional Arab values (to Arabs as well as non-Arabs) while emphasising the need to adopt Western business models.
- Develop leadership development programs through outreach to other programs such as cross-culture management, managerial competencies development, time management, project management.
- Encourage a genuine exchange of ideas and practices across various national cultures. Given the multinational context of the UAE work environment, this exercise could definitely assist in developing cross-cultural competencies of the managers.
- Develop effective communication leadership development programs keeping in mind the cultural differences, and implement them as a routine measure.
- Develop effective programs for knowledge sharing and succession planning.

### **Limitations**

Obtaining completed questionnaires from the sample was indeed a very difficult task. The study did not have an equal proportion of the four cultural groups selected for the study. This may have skewed the results and therefore generalizations of the results have to be interpreted carefully. Additionally, the research was unable to use 360° feedback because obtaining large numbers of manager-employee pairs would have been difficult; this could be used as a potential future research area. Furthermore, the research could have added more value had the privileges of being a rentier state citizen been controlled; that is if the UAE national citizens could be compared without the bracket of privileges enjoyed by them. Another limitation was that the scope of the research was restricted to examining the influences of culture, gender and sector on managerial-leadership competencies and the influences of the managerial-leadership competencies on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The research could have been more significant if a managerial-leadership competency model, suitable for the UAE work environment, could be developed based on the results.

### **Future Research**

The results of this study could be used by policy makers and HR managers to develop their multicultural managerial workforce in a way that enhances their organizational efficiency. Taking cues from the strengths and weaknesses of the studied cultural groups, further research on how these strengths and weaknesses affect their managerial performance can be carried out. In the UAE context, it was observed that the Normative organizational commitment of employees was not significantly influenced by the Facilitator competencies of their managers. This observation could be explored further. There was another interesting observation of this study: significant differences in mentoring skills of UAE national managers and other Arabs. Though both these groups are culturally similar, the differences observed definitely need further examination. Likewise, a future research topic could be to explore the country-context implications on managerial competencies within the Arab culture.

Additionally, a comparative study along similar lines could be conducted in other areas which rely significantly on an expatriate workforce.

The results of this study could be used to develop a competency model that is suitable for the multicultural and multinational UAE work environment; a fusion of Arab management principles and theories and practices of Western management.

This study has brought forth many interesting observations and many more questions too---Will the UAE nationals behave similarly if the job security provided to them is taken away, or will the expatriate managers respond differently if they were not following the guest-worker model? Are the privileges granted to UAE nationals more of a bane than a boon to the UAE society in the long-term?—These questions are well worth exploring and are a potential future research topic.

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## **Appendix A. Quantitative Survey Questionnaire—Employee Copy**



# **Managerial Leadership Competencies Survey**

## **Employee Copy**

(E - M )

## **PhD Dissertation**

### **UAE WORK ENVIRONMENT: EXAMINING INFLUENCES OF CULTURE, GENDER AND SECTOR ON MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

**Curtin University - Perth, Western Australia**

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## Participant Information Sheet

### **UAE Work Environment: Examining Influences of Culture, Gender and Sector on Managerial Leadership Competencies, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment**

#### **BACKGROUND**

The research mainly focuses on comparative analysis of the UAE national and the expatriate managers with culture, industrial sector, management level and gender as the contextual factors affecting leadership and managerial effectiveness.

The research is quite a significant step towards improving the managerial leadership competencies of the UAE national managers as it will help to identify the strength and weaknesses of UAE nationals contrasted against the expatriate managers who form the majority of workforce given the fact that UAE citizens just account for less than 20% of the total UAE population.

**The research will mainly try to address the following research questions:**

- Does national culture affect managerial-leadership competencies significantly?
- Are there any positive correlations between managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction, organizational commitments?
- How do gender differences affect the managerial leadership roles?
- How do sector differences affect the managerial leadership roles?
- How do sector differences affect the organizational commitment and job satisfaction?

#### **CONFIDENTIALITY:**

Participation in the study is completely voluntary. Participants can withdraw at any time without prejudice.

Please be assured that any information you provide will remain confidential, as the following will apply:

1. All data collected will only be used for the purpose of research
2. At no point will your name be directly associated with the responses you have provided

This research has been approved by the Curtin University Human Research Committee (with approval number SoM-35-2011) You can obtain verification of this approval either by writing to the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee, c/o Office of Research and Development, Curtin University or by telephoning (08) 9266 2784 or by emailing [hrec@curtin.edu.au](mailto:hrec@curtin.edu.au).

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## Consent Form

I wish to take part in the Project on UAE Work Environment: Examining Influences of Culture, Gender and Sector on Managerial Competencies, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.

I have read the participants information sheet and the nature and the purpose of the research project has been explained to me.

I have been informed of and understand the purpose of the study.

I agree to participate in the study as outlined to me.

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions.

I understand I can withdraw at any time without prejudice.

We have talked about the benefits from helping with this project.

Any information which might potentially identify me will not be used in published material.

Participant

---

### Demographic information

Insert a cross (x) in the box of your choice

1) Gender

Male

☐
☐

Female

2) Age

18 years to below 25 years ☐

35 years to below 45 years ☐

45 years to below 55 years ☐

25 year to below 35 years ☐

above 55 years ☐

3) Nationality

UAE

☐

Sub-continent---South Asia and East Asia ☐

(Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)

Other Arabs  
(Other Middle Eastern countries)

☐

Western countries

☐

(European countries, Australia, USA, Canada)

Other \_\_\_\_\_

4) Please indicate your level of education

High school degree ☐

University / College degree ☐

Master degree ☐

Other \_\_\_\_\_

5) Please indicate the country in which you completed your higher education:

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

6) Please indicate which of the following categories describe **YOUR**  
**MANAGER'S** managerial level\*.

First level (front line and supervisors)

☐

Middle managerial level

☐

Top managerial level

☐

\*First level: Supervising at least 2—5 people and having sound technical knowledge

\*Middle level: Supervising at least 2—5 units, mediating between first level managers and top managers.

\*Top level: Managing at least 2—5 departments having diverse functions.

7) Please indicate your years of work experience:

From 1 to 3 years ☐ From 4 to 7 years ☐ From 8 to 12 years ☐

From 13 to 17 years ☐ From 18 to 23 years ☐ More than 24  
☐

8) Please indicate which of the following categories describe the sector you work in:

Private ☐

Public ☐

Semi government ☐

Military and law enforcement  
sectors ☐

9) Please indicate **YOUR MANAGER** nationality

UAE

☐

Sub-continent----South Asia and East Asia

☐

(Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)

Other Arabs  
(Other Middle Eastern countries)☐

Western countries

☐

(European countries, Australia, USA, Canada)

Other \_\_\_\_\_

10) Please indicate **YOUR MANAGER** Gender

Male

☐

Female

☐



### Competing Value Managerial Leadership Instrument

Listed here are some of behaviors that a manager might employ. Using the following scale (1 - 7), please indicate by **circling the number** with which each one is used by **your manager / supervisor**. There are no right or wrong answers.

		Almost never	Very seldom	Seldom	Occasionally	Frequently	Very frequently	Almost always
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Comes up with inventive ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Protects continuity in day-to-day operation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Exerts upward influence in the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Carefully reviews detailed reports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Maintains a "result" orientation in the unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Facilitates consensus building in the work unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Defines areas of agreement/responsibilities for subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Listens to the personal problems of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Minimizes disruptions to the work flow	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Experiments with new concepts and procedures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Encourages participative decision making in the group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Makes sure everyone knows where the group is going	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Influences decisions made at higher levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Compares records, reports, and so on to detect discrepancies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Sees that the unit delivers on stated goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Works with technical information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Gets access to people at higher levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Sets clear objectives for the work unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Keeps track of what goes on inside the unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Does problem solving in creative, clever ways	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Pushes the unit to meet the objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Encourages subordinates to share ideas in the group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Searches for innovations and potential improvements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Clarifies priorities and direction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Persuasively sells new ideas to higher-ups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Brings a sense of order into the unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Shows concern for the needs of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Emphasizes unit's achievement of stated purposes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Builds teamwork among team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Analyzes written plans and schedules	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### Organizational Commitment Instrument

This questionnaire is administered to test your **commitment to the organization** on affective, continuance and normative scales. Please use the following scale (1 - 7) to indicate the extent to which **you agree or disagree with the statements listed below.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>Affective Commitment Scale Items</b>							
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>Continuance Commitment Scale items</b>							
1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>Normative Commitment Scale items</b>							
1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Note: \* Directly reflects the focal behavior for organizational commitment, staying/leaving.

(R)—reverse coded

### Job Satisfaction Measurement Instrument

This questionnaire is designed to determine **your** job satisfaction perception. Please use the following scale (1 - 7) to indicate the extent to which you are **satisfied or dissatisfied with various aspects of your job.**

		Strongly dissatisfy	Dissatisfy	Dissatisfy slightly	Neutral	Slightly satisfy	Satisfy	Strongly satisfy
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	The amount of job security I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The amount of pay and fringe benefit I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	The people I talk to and work with on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	The chance to get to know other people while on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	The amount of support and guidance I get from doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	How secure things look for me in the future in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	The chance to help other people while at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The amount of challenge in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Thank you for your assistance in conducting this research project**

**Appendix B. The Quantitative Survey Questionnaire—Manager  
Copy**



**Managerial Leadership Competencies  
Survey**

**Manager/ Supervisor Copy**

(M )

**PhD Dissertation**

**UAE WORK ENVIRONMENT: EXAMINING INFLUENCES OF CULTURE, GENDER  
AND SECTOR ON MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES, JOB  
SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

**Curtin University - Perth, Western Australia**

**Researcher:**

Abdelrahman Zaid Baqrain Alhadhrami

Assitent Director for Community Services

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I have read the participants information sheet and the nature and the purpose of the research project has been explained to me.

I have been informed of and understand the purpose of the study.

I agree to participate in the study as outlined to me.

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions.

I understand I can withdraw at any time without prejudice.

We have talked about the benefits from helping with this project.

Any information which might potentially identify me will not be used in published material.

Participant

---



### Demographic information

Insert a cross (x) in the box of your choice

1) Gender

Male

☐
☐

Female

2) Age

18 years to below 25 years ☐

25 year to below 35 years ☐

35 years to below 45 years ☐

45 years to below 55 years ☐

above 55 years ☐

3) Nationality

UAE

☐

Sub-continent---South Asia and East Asia ☐

(Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)

Other Arabs ☐  
(Other Middle Eastern countries)

Western countries ☐

(European countries, Australia, USA, Canada)

Other \_\_\_\_\_

4) Please indicate your level of education

High school degree ☐

University / College degree ☐

Master degree ☐

Other \_\_\_\_\_

5) Please indicate the country in which you completed your higher education:

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**6) Please indicate which of the following categories describe your managerial level\*.**

**First level (front line and supervisors)**

☐

**Middle managerial level**

☐

**Top managerial level**

☐

**\*First level: Supervising at least 2—5 people and having sound technical knowledge**

**\*Middle level: Supervising at least 2—5 units, mediating between first level managers and top managers.**

**\*Top level: Managing at least 2—5 departments having diverse functions.**

**7) Please indicate your years of work experience:**

**From 1 to 3 years** ☐ **From 4 to 7 years** ☐ **From 8 to 12 years** ☐

**From 13 to 17 years** ☐ **From 18 to 23 years** ☐ **More than 24**  
☐

**8) Please indicate which of the following categories describe the sector you work in:**

**Private** ☐

**Public** ☐

**Semi government** ☐

**Military and law enforcement sectors**  
☐

### Competing Value Managerial Leadership Instrument

Listed here are some of behaviors that a manager might employ. Using the following scale (1 - 7), please indicate by **circling the number** with which each one is used by **you as a manager / supervisor**. There are no right or wrong answers.

		Almost never	Very seldom	Seldom	Occasionally	Frequently	Very frequently	Almost always
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Comes up with inventive ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Protects continuity in day-to-day operation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Exerts upward influence in the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Carefully reviews detailed reports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Maintains a "result" orientation in the unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Facilitates consensus building in the work unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Defines areas of agreement/responsibilities for subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Listens to the personal problems of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Minimizes disruptions to the work flow	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Experiments with new concepts and procedures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Encourages participative decision making in the group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Makes sure everyone knows where the group is going	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Influences decisions made at higher levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Compares records, reports, and so on to detect discrepancies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Sees that the unit delivers on stated goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Works with technical information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Gets access to people at higher levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Sets clear objectives for the work unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Keeps track of what goes on inside the unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Does problem solving in creative, clever ways	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Pushes the unit to meet the objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Encourages subordinates to share ideas in the group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Searches for innovations and potential improvements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Clarifies priorities and direction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Persuasively sells new ideas to higher-ups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Brings a sense of order into the unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Shows concern for the needs of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Emphasizes unit's achievement of stated purposes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Builds teamwork among team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Analyzes written plans and schedules	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### Organizational Commitment Instrument

This questionnaire is administered to test your **commitment to the organization** on affective, continuance and normative scales. Please use the following scale (1 - 7) to indicate the extent to which **you agree or disagree with the statements listed below.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>Affective Commitment Scale Items</b>							
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>Continuance Commitment Scale items</b>							
9. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
15. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>Normative Commitment Scale items</b>							
1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**R—Reverse coded**

## Job Satisfaction Measurement Instrument

This questionnaire is designed to determine **your** job satisfaction perception. Please use the following scale (1 - 7) to indicate the extent to which you are **satisfied or dissatisfied with various aspects of your job.**

		Strongly dissatisfy	Dissatisfy	Dissatisfy slightly	Neutral	Slightly satisfy	Satisfy	Strongly satisfy
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	The amount of job security I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The amount of pay and fringe benefit I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	The people I talk to and work with on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	The chance to get to know other people while on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	The amount of support and guidance I get from doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	How secure things look for me in the future in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	The chance to help other people while at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The amount of challenge in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Thank you for your assistance in conducting this research project**

## Appendix C. The Quantitative Survey Questionnaire--Arabic



## استبيان الكفاءات القيادية و الإدارية

( )  
نسخة المدير

### اطروحة دكتوراه

تأثير ثقافة المجتمع، الجنس، القطاع الاقتصادي  
على مهارات القيادة الإدارية، الرضى الوظيفي،  
الولاء الوظيفي في سوق العمل بالدولة الإمارات  
العربية المتحدة

جامعة كيرتن - بيرث- غرب استراليا

Abdelrahman Zaid Baqrain  
Alhadharim  
Assitent Director for Community  
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Tel: 0504444984, and (in Australia  
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[zaid9000@gmail.com](mailto:zaid9000@gmail.com).

عبدالرحمن زيد محمد الحضرمي  
نائب مدير الخدمات الإجتماعية  
جامعة زايد  
دبي – دولة الامارات العربية المتحدة  
ص. ب: 19282  
هاتف: 0504444984



دعوة للمشاركة في مشروع بحث لاطروحة دكتوراه- نموذج مقارنة للكفاءات اللازمة

### للقيادة الإدارية لمواطني دولة الامارات العربية المتحدة

تهدف هذه الدراسة الي تطوير برنامج مهارات وكفاءات القيادة الادارية لمواطني دولة الامارات ، للمساهمة بصورة فاعلة في تطويرهم كقادة اداريين.

تركز الدراسة بصورة رئيسية على تحليل مقارنة للمهارات و الكفاءات القيادية للمدراء الاماراتيين و الوافدين و المقارنة على مستوى الخلفية الثقافية والنوع والمستوي الوظيفي كعوامل مقارنة تؤثر في كفاءة المدراء كقادة .

ان هذا البحث هو خطوة هامة نحو تحسين كفاءات القيادة الادارية للمدراء الاماراتيين حيث انها سوف تساعد على تحديد نقاط القوة والضعف لدى المدراء الاماراتيين بالمقارنة مع نظرائهم من المدراء من جنسيات مختلفة والذين يشكلون الاغلبية من القوة العاملة بالدولة.

سوف يحاول هذا البحث الاجابة على الاسئلة البحثية التالية:

- 1- هل هناك ارتباط بين الكفاءات القيادية و الرضى الوظيفي و الولاء المؤسسي
- 2- هل تلعب الخلفية الثقافية دور الوسيط بين كفاءات القيادة الادارية و الرضى الوظيفي و الولاء المؤسسي
- 3- هل تؤثر الخلفية الثقافية على كفاءات القيادة الادارية
- 4- هل المستوى الاداري والوظيفي له تأثير على كفاءات القيادة الادارية
- 5- هل المستوى الاداري و الوظيفي له تأثير على الرضى الوظيفي و الولاء المؤسسي

6- ما تأثير الاختلافات بين الجنسين على كفاءات القيادة الادارية؟

عند هذه النقطة اود ان اشدد على ان جميع المعلومات المقدمة في الاستبيان سوف تحفظ وتكون سرية للغاية وسوف تُرمّز و تحلل سجلات استجابة المشاركين بشكل جماعي ولن يتم التعريف على المشارك او المؤسسة كمصدر. فقط الباحث ومشرفه هم الذين سوف يكون لهم مدخل الى معلومات البحث . ان مشاركتك في هذا البحث طوعية والمشاركين لهم الحق الكامل في الانسحاب من المشروع في اي وقت. تم

الموافقة على اجراء هذا البحث من قبل مكتب الابحاث والتطوير جامعة كرتن اوف  
تكنولوجيا رقم الموافقة. (SoM-35-2011) اذا كان لديكم اي استفسار او ايضاح بشأن  
المسائل الادبية المتعلقة بهذا المشروع نرجو الاتصال بمكتب الابحاث والتطوير جامعة  
كرتن اوف تكنولوجيا، ص.ب: 1987، بيرث - استراليا الغربية 6845. هاتف :

92662784 او [hrec@curtin.edu.au](mailto:hrec@curtin.edu.au)

اذا كان لديكم اي استفسار قبل مشاركتكم او في اي وقت طوال هذه الدراسة يرجى  
عدم التردد بالاتصال بالسيد/ عبد الرحمن زيد الحضارم. هاتف (في الامارات العربية  
المتحدة) 0504444984 وفي استراليا +61421986878، بريد الكتروني

. zaid9000@gmail.com

عبد الرحمن زيد محمد الحضارم  
نائب مدير الخدمات الاجتماعية  
جامعة زايد

دبي - دولة الامارات العربية المتحدة - هاتف: 0504444984

### استمارة موافقة من المشاركين

انا المدعو

ارغب في المشاركة في بحث لاطروحة دكتوراه- نموذج مقارن للكفاءات اللازمة  
للقيادة الإدارية لمواطني الامارات العربية المتحدة .

لقد قرأت ورقة معلومات البحث و لقد تم شرح اهداف البحث و الغرض منه و  
حقوقى في الانسحاب و الحفاظ على سرية المعلومات.

- لقد تم توضيح اهداف الدراسة و الغرض منه
- انني اوافق على المشاركة في مشروع البحث هذا وفقا للمعلومات التي تم  
شرحها لي.

- انني افهم بأنه يجوز لي ان انسحب من مشروع البحث هذا في اي مرحلة دون تحمل اية مسؤولية تجاه الغير
- انني افهم انه قد يمكن نشر نتائج هذا البحث و في هذه الحالة لن يتم التعريف بي، وان نتائجي ومعلوماتي الشخصية سوف تبقى سرية للغاية .
- لقد منحت الفرصة لطرح اية اسئلة متعلقة بهذا البحث

اسم المشارك :

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التوقيع

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التاريخ

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#### خاص بالباحث

لقد تم شرح أهداف وأساليب هذا المشروع والمخاطر والمتاعب ، وكيف سيتم التعامل مع نتائج المشاركين ، و في رأيي ان المشارك فهم و استوعب المعلومات التي قدمت له .  
اسم الباحث (الرجاء الطباعة) :

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توقيع الباحث :

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التاريخ

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## المعلومات الشخصية

### 1- الجنس

☐ انثى

☐ ذكر

### 2- العمر

من 18 سنة الى اقل من 25 سنة ☐ من 25 سنة الى اقل من 35 سنة ☐  
من 35 سنة الى اقل من 45 سنة ☐

من 45 سنة الى اقل من 55 سنة ☐ من 55 سنة الى اقل من 65 سنة ☐  
65 سنة فما فوق ☐

### 3- الجنسية

☐ الامارات ☐ جنوب اسيا وشرق اسيا  
(الهند، باكستان ، الفلبين، اندونيسي،  
اخرى)

☐ عرب و اخرين ☐ البلدان الغربية  
من بلدان الشرق الاوسط  
الاجرى  
(البلدان الاوربية، استراليا، الولايات  
المتحدة، كندا)

اخرى :

4- المستوى التعليمي: شهادة عامة ☐ الثانوية الشهادة جامعية ☐ درجة الماجستير ☐

أخرى \_\_\_\_\_

5- يرجى بيان البلد الذي استكملت فيه دراستك :

\_\_\_\_\_

6- يرجى بيان ايا من الفئات التالية تصف مستواك الاداري ( المسمى الوظيفي) \* ( ارجع الى الشرح التفصيلي بلاسفل )

• المستوى الاول (المشرفين و مسؤولي الاقسام و مدراء الخط الامامي)  
☐

• مستوى الادارة الاوسط (مدراء الوحدات و الاقسام )  
☐

• مستوى الادارة الاعلى ( مدراء الاعدارات )  
☐

أخرى : \_\_\_\_\_

\* المستوى الاول: الاشراف على الاقل من 2- 5 اشخاص و يتمتع بالمهارات الفنية.

- \* المستوى الاوسط : الاشراف على الاقل 2-5 اقسام أو وحدات ،  
يتوسطهم مديروا المستوى الاول والمديرون المستوى الاعلى
- \* المستوى الاعلى : يدير على الاقل 2-5 ادارات او لديه وظائف  
مختلفة.

#### 7- سنوات الخبرة :

- من سنة الى 3 من 4 الى 7 سنوات من 8 الى من 13 الى 17 سنة  
سنوات ☐ من 12 سنة ☐ من 18 الى ☐ اكثر من 24 سنة ☐ اخرى ☐  
23 سنة :  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

#### 8 - يرجى بيان ايا من الفئات التالية تصف القطاع الذي تعمل فيه

- القطاع خاص ☐
- القطاع الحكومي ☐
- القطاع شبه حكومي ☐
- القطاع العسكري ☐  
( الجيش و الشرطة )

### ورقة القيمة المنافسة في القيادة الادارية

ندرج بأدناه بعض السلوكيات التي قد يستخدمها او يوظفها المدير. استخدم المعيار التالي (1 - 7) لتحديد التكرار الذي **توظف فيه** كل واحدة من هذه السلوكيات و التصرفات **بصفتك مدير** او **رئيس قسم/ وحدة**. لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة.

	غالبا لا	نادرا جدا	نادرا	احيانا	بشكل متكرر	كثيرا جدا	تقريبا دائما
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16	أظهر التعاطف والاهتمام في التعامل مع المروسين
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17	أُتِّعِل مع المعلومات الفنية
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18	أُحْصِل على المداخل للأشخاص في المستويات الأعلى
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19	أضَع أهداف واضحة للقسم أو وحدة العمل
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20	أعْمِل كل فرد بطريقة حساسة وبعناية
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21	أَتَّبِع ما يجري داخل القسم
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22	أقوم بحل المشاكل بطرق إبداعية وذكية
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23	أُدْفِع القسم لتحقيق الأهداف
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24	أشْجِع المروسين لتبادل الأفكار في المجموعة
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25	أُبْحَث عن الابتكارات والتحسينات المحتملة
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26	أَوْضِح الأولويات و التوجهات
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27	أُسَوِّق بإقناع الأفكار الجديدة للترقي
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28	أُحَافِظ على النظام في الوحدة أو القسم
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29	أُبْدِي الاهتمام لاحتياجات المروسين
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30	أُرَكِّز على تحقيق القسم للأهداف المعلنة
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	31	أُبْنِي العمل الجماعي بين أعضاء الفريق
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	32	أَحْلِل الخطط المكتوبة والجداول



### ورقة الالتزام التنظيمي

هذا الاستبيان مصمم لقياس مستوى التزامك و ولائك ( المؤثر، المستمر ،  
المعاري ) للمنظمة التي تعمل بها يرجى التكرم بوضع علامة دائرة في  
الخانات المرقمة ( 1 - 7 ) ، لبيان مدى موافقتك او عدم موافقتك على  
العبارات التالية، لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة.

او افق بشدة	او افق	او افق بصورة بسيطة	محايد	لا وافق بصورة بسيطة	لا وافق	وافق بشدة	
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	بنود معيار الولاء المؤثر
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	1- سوف يسعدني جدا ان اقضي بقية حياتي المهنية في هذه المنظمة *
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2- استمتع بالحديث عن مؤسستي مع اشخاص من خارج المؤسسة
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	3- انني اشعر حقا وكأننا مشاكل هذه المنظمة وكأنها مشاكلي
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	4- اظن بأنني استطيع و بسهولة ان اصبح ملتصق و ملتزما بمؤسسة اخرى ك التزامي بهذه
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	5- انا لا اشعر بأنني جزء من اسرة في مؤسستي
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	6- انا لا اشعر بأنني ملتصق عاطفيا بهذه المؤسسة
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7- هذه المؤسسة لها معنى شخصي كبير لدي
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	8- انا لا اشعر باحساس قوي بالانتماء الى مؤسستي
6	5	4	3	2	1		بنود معيار الولاء المستمر
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	1- انا لست خائفا مما قد يحدث لو تركت وظيفتي دون ان اكون قد رتبت وظيفة اخرى
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2- قد يكون من الصعب جدا علي ان اترك مؤسستي الان حتى لو اردت ان افعل ذلك
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	3- سوف تتأثر اشياء كثيرة في حياتي اذا قررت ترك العمل بمؤسستي في هذا الوقت
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	4- لن يكلفني الكثير ان تركت العمل بمؤسستي الان
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	5- في الوقت الحالي البقاء في مؤسستي امر مرتبط بالحاجة و الرغبة
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	6- اشعر بأنه لدي القليل من الخيارات اذا ما

							رغبت بترك العمل بهذه المؤسسة	
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	احدى النتائج الخطيرة لترك هذه المؤسسة سيكون ندرة توفر البدائل	-7
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	احدى الاسباب الرئيسية التي تجعلني مستمر في العمل بهذه المؤسسة هو ان ترك العمل سوف يتطلب التضحية الشخصية بصورة كبيرة وقد لا تكون المؤسسة الاخرى مساوية لاجمالي المزايا التي لدي هنا	-8
6	5	4	3	2	1		بنود معيار الولاء المعياري	
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	اظن ان الناس في هذه الايام يتنقلون من مؤسسة الى اخرى بصورة متكررة جدا. *	-1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	لا اعتقد بأن شخصا عليه ان يكون مخلصا دائما لمؤسسته او مؤسستها (R)	-2
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	القفز من مؤسسة لاخرى لا يبدو لي ابدا بأنه امر غير اخلاقي (R) *	-3
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	احدى الاسباب التي تجعلني استمر في العمل لهذه المؤسسة هو اعتقادي بأن الولاء مهم ولذلك اشعر بالتزام اخلاقي للبقاء. *	-4
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	اذ حصلت على عرض وظيفي افضل في مكان اخر فإنني لن اشعر بأنه كان من الانصاف و الواجب ترك مؤسستي. *	-5
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	لقد تعلمت ان اؤمن بقيمة البقاء مخلصا لمؤسسة واحدة	-6
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	كانت الاشياء افضل في الايام السالفة عندما كان الناس يبقون في مؤسسة واحدة لمعظم حياتهم المهنية. *	-7
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	لا اظن بأن الرغبة في ان تكون رجل المؤسسة او امرأة المؤسسة معقوله هذه الايام. (R)	-8

## ورقة الرضى الوظيفي

هذا الاستبيان مصمم لقياس درجة رضاك الوظيفي، العبارات التالية تتناول جوانب مختلفة من عملك . يرجى التكرم بوضع علامة دائرة في الخانات المرقمة (1 - 7) ، لبيان المدى الذي توافق او لا توافق فيه على الواجه المختلفة لوظيفتك. لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة.

ا	لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشدة بسيطة	محايد	اوافق بشدة بسيطة	اوافق	اوافق بشدة
1-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

شكرا لكم لمساعدتكم في القيام بمشروع البحث هذا

**Appendix D. The Qualitative Survey Questionnaire**

# Managerial Leadership Competencies Survey

Manager/ Supervisor	
Employees	

**PhD Dissertation**

**UAE WORK ENVIRONMENT: EXAMINING INFLUENCES OF CULTURE,  
GENDER AND SECTOR ON MANAGERIAL COMPETENCIES, JOB  
SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

**Qualitative Method - Semi-Structured Interview Questions Sheet****Curtin University - Perth, Western Australia****Researcher:**

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## Participant Information Sheet

### **UAE Work Environment: Examining Influences of Culture, Gender and Sector on Managerial Leadership Competencies, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment**

#### **BACKGROUND**

The research mainly focuses on comparative analysis of UAE national and expatriate managers with culture, industrial sector, and gender as the contextual factors affecting leadership and managerial effectiveness.

The research is quite a significant step towards improving the managerial leadership competencies of the UAE national managers as it will help to identify the strengths and weaknesses of UAE nationals contrasted against the expatriate managers who form the majority of workforce given the fact that UAE citizens just account for less than 20% of the total UAE population.

**The research will mainly try to address the following research questions:**

1. Does national culture affect managerial-leadership competencies significantly?
2. Are there any positive correlations between managerial-leadership competencies and job satisfaction, organizational commitments?
3. How do gender differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?
4. How do sector differences affect the managerial-leadership competencies?
5. How do sector differences affect the organizational commitment and job satisfaction?

#### **CONFIDENTIALITY:**

Participation in the study is completely voluntary. Participants can withdraw at any time without prejudice.

Please be assured that any information you provide will remain confidential, as the following will apply:

1. All data collected will only be used for the purpose of research.

2. At no point will your name be directly associated with the responses you have provided.

This research has been approved by the Curtin University Human Research Committee (with approval number (SoM 35 2011)). You can obtain verification of this approval either by writing to the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee, c/o Office of Research and Development, Curtin University or by telephoning (08) 9266 2784 or by emailing [hrec@curtin.edu.au](mailto:hrec@curtin.edu.au).

For further inquiries about the study or any matter in relation to this research, please contact:

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Dubai, United Arab Emirates.

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### Consent Form

I wish to take part in the Project on *UAE Work Environment Examining Influences of Culture, Gender and Sector on Managerial Leadership Competencies, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment*.

I have read the participants information sheet and the nature and the purpose of the research project has been explained to me.

I have been informed of and understand the purpose of the study.

I agree to participate in the study as outlined to me.

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions.

I understand I can withdraw at any time without prejudice.

I understand the potential benefits of participating in this project.

.

Any information which might potentially identify me will not be used in published material.

.....

Participant

### Demographic information

Insert a cross (x) in the box of your choice

1) Gender

Male

☐
☐

Female

2) Age

18 years to below 35 years

☐

35 years to below 45 years

45 years and above

☐

3) Nationality

UAE

☐

Sub-continent---South Asia and East Asia

(Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)

☐

Other Arabs  
(Other Middle Eastern countries)

☐

Western countries  
(European countries, Australia, USA, Canada)

☐

4) Please indicate your level of education

High school degree

☐

University / College degree

☐

Master degree

☐

5) Please indicate which of the following categories describe YOUR or (Employee) YOUR MANAGER managerial level\*.

First level (front line and supervisors)

☐

Middle managerial level

☐

Top managerial level

☐



**\*First level: Supervising at least 2—5 people and having sound technical knowledge**

**\*Middle level: Supervising at least 2—5 units, mediating between first level managers and top managers.**

**\*Top level: Managing at least 2—5 departments having diverse functions.**

**6) Please indicate which of the following categories describe the sector you work in:**

**Private** ☐

**Public** ☐

**For employees only**

**7) Please indicate YOUR MANAGER'S nationality**

**UAE** ☐ **Sub-continent----South Asia and East Asia** ☐  
**(Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)**

**Other Arabs (Other Middle Eastern countries)** ☐ **Western countries** ☐  
**(European countries, Australia, USA, Canada)**

**8) Please indicate YOUR MANAGER'S gender**

**Male** ☐ **Female** ☐

### Semi Structured Interview Questions

1. **In your opinion what are the essential competencies and skills that a successful manager should possess in the UAE multinational labour market?**
2. **As a manager what are your strengths/ (Employees) what do you think are your manager's strengths?**
3. **What strengths and area of expertise do you think managers from each of these cultural groups possess?**
  - UAE national
  - South Asia and East Asia (Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)
  - Other Arabs
  - Western
4. **What challenges you face when you deal / work with managers from the following cultural groups? And why?**
  - UAE national
  - South Asia and East Asia (Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others)
  - Other Arabs
  - Western
5. **The research primary data analysis result showed that the research sample did not identify and categorise the following items as an important component of managerial leadership competencies? Why do you think we got this result?**
  - ✓ Does problem solving in creative, clever ways
  - ✓ Searches for innovations and potential improvements
  - ✓ Defines areas of agreement/responsibilities for subordinates
  - ✓ Sets clear objectives for the work unit
  - ✓ Keeps track of what goes on inside the unit
  - ✓ Brings a sense of order into the unit
6. **The quantitative results of the study observed high values for managers from Sub-continent countries, South Asia and East Asia (Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others) on the following**

**items compared to UAE national and nationals from other Arab countries. What, according to you, could be the reasons for the observed differences on the following items? Please explain?**

- ✓ Exerts upward influence in the organization
- ✓ Influences decisions made at higher levels
- ✓ Gets access to people at higher levels

**7. The quantitative results of the study observed high values for managers from Sub-continent countries, South Asia and East Asia (Indian, Pakistani, Philippine, Sri Lankan, Indonesian, Others) on the following items compared to UAE national and Western managers. What, according to you, could be the reasons for the observed differences on the following items? Please explain.**

- ✓ Carefully reviews detailed reports
- ✓ Compares records, reports, and so on to detect discrepancies
- ✓ Sees that the unit delivers on stated goals
- ✓ Minimizes disruptions to the work flow

**8. The quantitative results of the study observed high values for managers from other Arab countries on the following items compared to UAE nationals studied. What, according to you, could be the reasons for the observed differences on the following items? Please explain**

- ✓ Listens to the personal problems of subordinates
- ✓ Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way
- ✓ Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates

**9. The quantitative results of the study observed high values for female managers on the following items. What, according to you, could be the reasons for the observed differences on the following items? Please explain.**

- ✓ Exerts upward influence in the organization
- ✓ Influences decisions made at higher levels
- ✓ Gets access to people at higher levels

## Appendix E. Regression Analysis for Job Satisfaction---Managers' Sample

### Internal

Table E1

*The Model and ANOVA Summary for Internal Job Satisfaction--Managerial Roles Correlation for Managers*

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.434 <sup>a</sup>	.188	.153	.78267	.188	5.336	6	138	.000	1.910

a. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

b. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_IN

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	19.612	6	3.269	5.336	.000 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	84.534	138	.613		
Total	104.146	144			

a. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_IN

b. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.749	.579		4.744	.000					
M_Brok	.017	.065	.024	.261	.794	.155	.022	.020	.699	1.430
M_Result	.284	.112	.245	2.526	.013	.377	.210	.194	.624	1.603
M_Mentr	-.024	.087	-.028	-.273	.785	.229	-.023	-.021	.553	1.808
M_Monit	.081	.100	.084	.806	.421	.303	.068	.062	.536	1.866
M_Team	.253	.119	.253	2.133	.035	.365	.179	.164	.418	2.391
M_Innov	-.110	.103	-.108	-1.074	.285	.179	-.091	-.082	.578	1.729

a. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_IN

## External

Table E2

*The Model and ANOVA Summary for External Job Satisfaction--Managerial Roles Correlation for Managers*

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.854 <sup>a</sup>	.729	.717	.38238	.729	61.929	6	138	.000	1.836

a. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

b. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_EX

ANOVA <sup>a</sup>						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	54.328	6	9.055	61.929	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	20.177	138	.146		
	Total	74.506	144			

a. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_EX

b. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

Coefficients <sup>a</sup>										
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	.433	.283		1.5	.128					
M_Brok	-.082	.032	-.137	-2.5	.011	.286	.214	.114	.699	1.430
M_Result	.426	.055	.434	7.7	.000	.729	.550	.343	.624	1.603
M_Mentr	.093	.042	.130	2.2	.031	.529	.183	.097	.553	1.808
M_Monit	.192	.049	.237	3.9	.000	.642	.316	.173	.536	1.866
M_Team	.012	.058	.014	.21	.836	.616	.018	.009	.418	2.391
M_Innov	.296	.050	.343	5.89	.000	.646	.448	.261	.578	1.729

a. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_EX

## Appendix F. Regression Analysis for Job Satisfaction—Employees' Sample

### Internal

Table F1

*The Model Summary and ANOVA Table for Internal Job Satisfaction for Employees*

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.533 <sup>a</sup>	.284	.278	.90671	.284	47.671	3	361	.000	1.944

a. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

b. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_IN

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	117.574	3	39.191	47.671	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	296.784	361	.822		
	Total	414.359	364			

a. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_IN

b. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficient Beta	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.355	.278		8.5	.000	1.809	2.901					
1 e_team	.365	.061	.396	6.1	.000	.245	.484	.515	.301	.267	.455	2.197
e_brok	.002	.048	.003	.048	.962	-.092	.097	.333	.003	.002	.611	1.637
e_result	.191	.063	.179	3.1	.003	.066	.315	.439	.157	.134	.563	1.777

a. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_IN

## External

Table F2

*The Model Summary and ANOVA Table for External Job Satisfaction for Employees*

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.908 <sup>a</sup>	.825	.823	.46771	.825	565.643	3	361	.000	1.960

a. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

b. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_EX

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	371.204	3	123.735	565.643	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	78.969	361	.219		
	Total	450.172	364			

a. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_EX

b. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstan d Coeff	Stand Coeff		T	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero - order	Partial	Part	Toler ance	VIF
(Constan t)	-.162	.143		-1.129	.260	-.443	.120					
1 e_team	.559	.031	.583	17.850	.000	.498	.621	.859	.685	.393	.455	2.197
e_brok	.036	.025	.040	1.431	.153	-.013	.084	.583	.075	.032	.611	1.637
e_result	.426	.033	.383	13.041	.000	.361	.490	.784	.566	.287	.563	1.777

a. Dependent Variable: M\_JBS\_EX

## Appendix G. Regression Analysis for Organization Commitment and Managerial Competency—Managers' Sample Affective

Table G1

*Model Summary and ANOVA Table for the Six Managerial Roles and the Affective Organizational Commitment for Manager Sample*

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.514 <sup>a</sup>	.264	.232	.93146	.264	8.241	6	138	.000	1.891

a. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

b. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_AFF

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	42.900	6	7.150	8.241	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	119.731	138	.868		
	Total	162.630	144			

a. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_AFF

b. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.302	.689		1.888	.061					
M_Brok	-.027	.077	-.031	-.351	.726	.193	-.030	-.026	.699	1.430
M_Result	.199	.134	.138	1.490	.138	.382	.126	.109	.624	1.603
M_Mentr	.102	.103	.097	.984	.327	.359	.083	.072	.553	1.808
M_Monit	.285	.119	.238	2.384	.018	.433	.199	.174	.536	1.866
M_Team	.288	.141	.230	2.040	.043	.441	.171	.149	.418	2.391
M_Innov	-.115	.122	-.090	-.938	.350	.246	-.080	-.069	.578	1.729

a. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_AFF



## Normative

Table G2

*Model and ANOVA Summary for Normative Organization Commitment and Extracted Managerial Roles for Managers*

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.235 <sup>a</sup>	.055	.014	1.21621	.055	1.343	6	138	.242	1.823

a. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

b. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_NORMA

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.915	6	1.986	1.343	.242 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	204.126	138	1.479		
	Total	216.041	144			

a. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_NORMA

b. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.736	.900		3.039	.003					
M_Brok	-.111	.101	-.110	1.108	.270	-.026	-.094	-.092	.699	1.430
M_RESULT	.325	.175	.195	1.858	.065	.205	.156	.154	.624	1.603
M_Mentr	-.012	.135	-.010	-.091	.927	.070	-.008	-.008	.553	1.808
M_MONIT	-.040	.156	-.029	-.258	.797	.081	-.022	-.021	.536	1.866
M_TEAM	.037	.184	.026	.203	.839	.123	.017	.017	.418	2.391
M_INNOV	.143	.159	.098	.898	.371	.125	.076	.074	.578	1.729

a. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_NORMA

## Continuance

Table G3

*Model Summary and ANOVA Table for the Six Managerial Roles and the Continuance Organizational Commitment for Manager Sample*

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df 1		
1	.181 <sup>a</sup>	.033	-.009	1.18295	.033	.777	6	.589	1.784

a. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

b. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_CONTIN

### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.527	6	1.088	.777	.589 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	193.113	138	1.399		
	Total	199.640	144			

a. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_CONTIN

b. Predictors: (Constant), M\_INNOV, M\_RESULT, M\_Brok, M\_Mentr, M\_MONIT, M\_TEAM

### Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

**Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1										
(Constant)	4.397	.876		5.021	.000	2.665	6.128			
M_Brok	.058	.098	.059	.591	.555	-.136	.251	-.011	.050	.049
M_RESULT	.249	.170	.155	1.465	.145	-.087	.585	.031	.124	.123
M_Mentr	.064	.131	.055	.489	.625	-.195	.324	-.037	.042	.041
M_MONIT	-.069	.152	-.052	-.457	.648	-.369	.230	-.060	-.039	-.038
M_TEAM	-.252	.179	-.182	-1.403	.163	-.606	.103	-.113	-.119	-.117
M_INNOV	-.109	.155	-.077	-.700	.485	-.415	.198	-.089	-.059	-.059

a. Dependent Variable: M\_OC\_CONTIN

## Appendix H. Regression Analysis for Organizational Commitment and Managerial Competency—Employees' Sample Affective

Table H1

*The Model Summary and ANOVA Table for Affective Organization Commitment for Employees*

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.469 <sup>a</sup>	.220	.213	1.06080	.220	33.904	3	361	.000	1.888

a. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

b. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_affct

ANOVA <sup>a</sup>					
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	Sig.
1	Regression	114.456	3	38.152	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	406.233	361	1.125	
	Total	520.689	364		

a. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_affct

b. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

Coefficients <sup>a</sup>													
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	T	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.424	.325		7.5	.000	1.785	3.063					
	e_team	.475	.071	.461	6.7	.000	.335	.615	.464	.332	.311	.455	2.197
	e_brok	-.060	.056	-.063	-1.1	.291	-.170	.051	.252	-.056	-.049	.611	1.637
	e_result	.078	.074	.065	1.1	.296	-.068	.223	.336	.055	.049	.563	1.777

a. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_affct

## Continuance 1

Table H2

*The Model Summary and ANOVA Table for Continuance1 Organization Commitment of Employees*

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.896 <sup>a</sup>	.803	.802	.51329	.803	491.935	3	361	.000	2.025

a. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

b. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_contin1

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	388.825	3	129.608	491.935	.000 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	95.111	361	.263		
Total	483.936	364			

a. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_contin1

b. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-.114	.157		-.728	.467	-.424	.195					
e_team	.668	.034	.672	19.431	.000	.601	.736	.873	.715	.453	.455	2.197
e_brok	.053	.027	.058	1.939	.053	-.001	.106	.593	.102	.045	.611	1.637
e_result	.292	.036	.253	8.141	.000	.221	.362	.720	.394	.190	.563	1.777

a. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_contin1

## Continuance 2 Organizational Commitment

Table H3

*The Model Summary and ANOVA Table for Continuance2 Organization Commitment for Employees*

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.111 <sup>a</sup>	.012	.004	1.29637	.012	1.510	3	361	.211	1.896

a. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

b. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_contin2

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.615	3	2.538	1.510	.211 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	606.692	361	1.681		
	Total	614.306	364			

a. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_contin2

b. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstandardized Coeff		Standardized Coeff	T	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Partial	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	3.931	.397		9.9	.000	3.151	4.712					
1 e_team	.074	.087	.066	.85	.398	-.097	.244	.081	.045	.044	.455	2.197
e_brok	-.066	.069	-.064	-.96	.336	-.201	.069	.016	-.051	-.050	.611	1.637
e_result	.110	.090	.084	1.2	.227	-.068	.287	.096	.064	.063	.563	1.777

a. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_contin2

## Normative Organizational Commitment

Table H4

*The Model Summary and ANOVA Table for Normative Organization Commitment for Employees*

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.265 <sup>a</sup>	.070	.062	1.19101	.070	9.086	3	361	.000	1.658

a. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

b. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_norm

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	38.667	3	12.889	9.086	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	512.078	361	1.418		
	Total	550.745	364			

a. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_norm

b. Predictors: (Constant), e\_result, e\_brok, e\_team

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstandardized Coeff		Standardized Coeff	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.745	.365		7.526	.000	2.027	3.462					
e_team	-.046	.080	-.043	-.577	.565	-.203	.111	.175	-.030	-.029	.455	2.197
e_brok	.152	.063	.157	2.412	.016	.028	.277	.219	.126	.122	.611	1.637
e_result	.229	.083	.186	2.752	.006	.065	.392	.233	.143	.140	.563	1.777

a. Dependent Variable: e\_oc\_norm

## Appendix I. Content Analysis and Theme Coding for Q1 and Q2—Qualitative Survey

Table I1

### *Content Analysis and Theme Coding for Q1 and Q2—Qualitative Survey*

Quinn Model	Main Category	Generic Category	Sub-Category	Sub-Sub Category
	<b>Team Leader</b>			
<b>Rational goal model</b>	Producer	<b>Fostering a productive work environment</b>	Create environment based on performance and target orientation	Motivate team for better performance Emphasis on environment based on performance and result
<b>Human relation model</b>	Facilitator	<b>Building team</b>	Build team and create healthy environment for teamwork	Positive attitude towards team. Encourage and support employees Inspire and motivate team Take responsibility and lead the team
<b>Rational goal model</b>	Producer	<b>Working productively</b>	Emphasizes on meeting objective and goals	Encourage subordinates to be productive and to meet targets and goals. Follow up with the employees the work program and if it meets the target goals
<b>Human relation Model</b>	Mentor	<b>Develop employees and guide them.</b>	Understand employee training needs Support and guide employees to meet their developmental needs	Evaluate employees need for training and development Understand the employees and discuss the needs and problem Help the team to solve the problem Guide the employees and support them
<b>Human relation model</b>	Facilitator	<b>Using participative decision making</b>	Encourage subordinates to participate, discuss and talk.	Encourage employees for group discussion Encourage employee to take decision
	<b>Broker</b>			
<b>Open system Model</b>	Broker	<b>Presenting ideas</b>	Present information and concepts to groups with full confidence Good marketing skills	Good presentation skills Presents self with full confidence Presents ideas, arguments and concepts clearly

<b>Open system Model</b>	Broker	<b>Negotiating agreements</b>	Knows how to negotiate and win the argument	Marketing skills Negotiation skills
<b>Open system model</b>	Broker	<b>External and internal monitoring of power and resources</b>	Update knowledge about product, competitors, and the market challenges Update knowledge about company internal policies, procedures and job related information	Build network with customers and stakeholders Update knowledge on work related information (policies, procedure) Update knowledge on competitors and external challenges Update knowledge about products and external challenge
	<b>Mentor</b>			
<b>Human relation Model</b>	Mentor	<b>Understand self and other</b>	Treat each individual equally and fairly Manage subordinates with different attitudes and personalities Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates	Treat employees equally and fairly Take care of his employees and understands their problem Understand and appreciate differences among the employees Deal with staff with different attitudes and personalities Understanding employees and showing empathy
<b>Human relation Model</b>	Mentor	<b>Communicates effectively</b>	The ability to listen effectively to team member Encourage the team to communicate	Listen to subordinates' problems and try to understand their point of view. Encourages the team to communicate Discuss with subordinates their challenges and problems Be flexible and approachable to their subordinates
<b>Human relation Model</b>	Mentor	<b>Multi-cultural awareness</b>	Cultural sensitivity and flexibility in dealing with people from other culture Adaptability and flexibility to different cultural values	Understand different cultural values Show concern, flexibility in dealing with subordinate from different cultures Cope and adjust with multicultural environment
	<b>Result Oriented</b>			
<b>Rational goal model</b>	Producer	<b>Work productively Manage time and stress</b>	Maintain productivity and focus on target and goals Time management	Focus on targets and goals Push the team to get things done. Prioritize priorities



<b>Internal process model</b>	Coordinator	<b>Managing projects</b>	Develop work plan and follow-up work progress Follow up with the team day to day operation and what has been achieved	Organize work and follow up plan Manage work responsibilities and solve problems Show flexibilities in solving problems
	<b>Monitor</b>			
<b>Internal process model</b>	Monitor	<b>Managing collective performance</b>	Manage work flow	Follow up and manage plan for yearly job outcome. Monitor and manage the work flow
<b>Rational goal model</b>	Producer	<b>Work productively</b>	Follow up and valuate the team performance to see its alignment with the stated goals	Follow up the work progress and monitor if the team is meeting its objectives. Evaluate team performance against set objectives
<b>Internal process model</b>	Monitor	<b>Monitoring individual performance</b>	Follow up and implement the policies and procedures	Follow up dead lines Control and monitor the work progress