



LEADERS' BEHAVIOUR AND SITUATIONAL FACTORS TOWARD ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE AT ABU DHABI NATIONAL OIL COMPANY (ADNOC)

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Abstract:

To capacity building and sustenance of competitive advantage in both public and private businesses, the need for effective leadership has remained critical. However, leadership effectiveness has persisted a multi-dimensional construct, and not many efforts have been finished to conceptualise models in this extent. In view of the case of Abu Dhabi National Oil Company (ADNOC), the major objective of the current study was to update and empirically support the traditional Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness to attain a more reliable model that is suitable for modern organisations. It was detected that leader characteristics and hierarchy structure are not decent factors of leadership behaviour in the organisation. A final effort was made to validate the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness through the assistance of data collected in the current study. Data validates the traditional model of leadership to a large degree; this is particularly factual for task-oriented leadership behaviour as contrasting to relationship-oriented leadership behaviour. It is suggested that future researchers consider activity-based constructs for the measurement of variables to find more significant and validate critical relationships in the model. It is also suggested that ADNOC and other corporations in the region stretch equal attention to male and female employees and leaders. Females would predominantly endeavour in positions where leader-subordinate relationships are critical for complete organisational accomplishment.

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1. Introduction

To specific organizational contexts, the multi-dimensional nature of leadership permits specific leadership formats recommendable. The topic of leadership effectiveness and its measurement is dependent on multiple independent factors, inhibiting a clear consensus on any single widely accepted leadership effectiveness model. To establish any robust model of leadership effectiveness, the consideration of leadership contribution to performance has been deemed paramount. According to McFarlane & Cooper (2014), leadership effectiveness is reflected in team and organizational performance and requires the right combination of strategies that allow the understanding of team needs and processes. Schermerhorn et al., (2012) add that there is the need to focus on team and organizational performance that arise as a result of leadership, in order to assess leadership effectiveness. Developing high performance organizations through effective leadership is critical to ensure that the challenges and problems that are associated with the 21st century business development are solved. Well-managed followers have the capability to convert a general sense of purpose into desired performance objectives (Erkutlu, 2008). The need for effective leadership has remained critical to capacity building and sustenance of competitive advantage in both public and private businesses (Belias & Koustelios, 2014; Caligiuri & Tarque, 2012; Wallis & McLoughlin, 2007). The global economy has taken a competitive landscape, increased in complexity and become more dynamic and ambiguous to manage (Caligiuri & Tarque, 2012). Bridging the gap towards improved performance on the global platform has become more challenging (Caligiuri & Tarque, 2012). The Global financial crisis, increasing economic turbulence, unending scandals involving leaders around the globe, has among others triggered the need to pay attention to leadership effectiveness (De Cremer et al., 2011). Aside from the established need to associate leadership with performance in effective leadership models, Schermerhorn et al., (2012) assert that the correct blend of skill in the areas of technical, decision making, problem solving as well as inter-personal skills are all critical to guide followers' attitudes and behaviours towards the achievement of organizational goals. Yukl (2006) agree with this assertion that leadership effectiveness closely depends on the outcomes and consequences of the leaders' actions and activities within the group and organizational environment. These environmental considerations are equally important as situational factors (Kabanoff, 1981). Leadership plays a fundamental role in overcoming institutional and national financial challenges and complications.

The leadership of UAE has put in place measures to ensure that the business community remains highly attractive and that key sectors are protected according to UAE Interact (2016). Other national economic decisions such as pegging of the United Arab Emirates Dirham (AED) against the United States Dollar (USD), the removal of taxes from imports and personal income, among others have altogether contributed to the

establishment of a lucrative environment for business success (ORYX World, 2013; Khamis et al., 2010). The UAE remains an active member of the World Trade Organization (WTO), General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and the Greater Arab Free-Trade Area (GAFTA). Despite these resilient measures which have been adapted to nurture the UAE economic environment over the last several decades, the country has remains largely oil dependent (Mills, 2016). The downward slope of global oil prices has taken a significant toll on economies in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) and other oil dependent countries including UAE. Even though the oil producing communities have taken several stands for mega producers like Iran and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to control production, no stringent enforcement measures exist, and these stands have been largely unsuccessful (McDonald 2016). Others, including Raval (2016), have highlighted that disagreements among oil producers exist as some producers agree to tighten production only after other countries make initial moves in this direction. Moving from the national level to the institutional level, there has been the need for effective leadership to drive institutional development and organizational performance in oil companies. Mills (2016) argued for instance on the introduction of radical measures and leadership change in oil institutions in order to tackle and reduce the negative impact of the economic trends. Subjects such as gender equality in leadership have been considered by ADNOC and other establishments in the sector to ensure that all forms of expertise are welcomed to lead such institutions (Al Hilal Publishing & Marketing Group, 2016). According to McAuley (2016), the company has considered the need for women in various roles as chief executive officers.

To the assumption of key strategic paths that can benefit the institution and UAE as a whole, the necessity of modelling effective leadership in ADNOC is critical. There is no doubt that the area of leadership has received tremendous attention in literature, yet serious gaps remain on leadership effectiveness models. A model of leadership effectiveness that considers performance and key ingredients as key elements has been left unattended and misappropriated in literature. This remains the main research gap of the present study. Beside this the study considering building on the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness to meet contemporary business needs. Ultimately, the search for a contemporary concept of leadership effectiveness and not just leadership models but leadership effectiveness models proved rare at the commencement of the present study. Fiedler's (1978) Contingency Model of leadership effectiveness was considered because it has gained dominance as a leadership effectiveness model; however, to criticize or evaluate the model, it is only backed by outdated literature and studies which have attempted.

2. Review of the Literature

Main concepts and perceptions that lie beneath the study are discussed in this section through a review of secondary literature. In this section, attention is paid to

disagreements in literature regarding concepts that have been tackled from different perspectives by different scholars.

2.1 Theoretical Background

Risk can be quantified and that it is "*susceptible to measurement*" which is argued by Nehari Talet et al., (2014). Even though risk involves a high level of uncertainty, it may be considered that risk is a measurable uncertainty. Looking into literature concerning project management, it can be found that Knight's argument is widely supported by other scholars in this area as established by Nehari Talet et al., (2014). Sicotte & Bourgault (2008) agreed with Nehari Talet et al., (2014) and mention that even though risk is uncertain, it is identifiable. On this note, a number of definitions of risk have been offered. Schneider & Levin (1997) for instance define risk as an event that poses a threat to the fortune of an entity if it happens. According to Richardson (2010), risk management of IT projects is not a simple concept as it seems in other aspect of business management; rather, it involves a combination of anticipation, planning, and monitoring of activities in order to be able to minimize the impact of potential unwanted events.

It may nearly be accepted that a one-size fit all definition may be non-existent by taking a critical look at the concept of leadership from varied perspectives. The concept is ultimately dynamic in nature; the inconsistency in definitions and conceptualizations reveals this dynamism. Moreover, leadership involves a very wide range of skills, attitudes, behaviours or even accommodating situations. Leadership has therefore attracted a lot of attention as a role played by individuals, group and business processes. In this same way, leadership has evolved as function of individuals. From another perspective on the dynamic nature of leadership, Aydogdu & Basikjil (2011) considers leadership as a purpose and a part.

2.2 Leadership

Discussions involving the concept of leadership reveal several theories and concepts according to Dartey-Baah (2015). Some of these theories include the quite old "Great man theory" and behaviour theory, and the more recent and quite popular theories like the transactional and transformational leadership theories. In a similar scope as varied definitions, a number of theories of leadership have been proposed. One important starting point is the trait leadership theory. According to Jago (1982) and more recently by Bass (1990) and Zaccaro (2007), this line of theory emphasizes that leadership are borne and not made. Leadership were therefore believed to have certain traits originally inherent within and cannot be transferred or thought through training and development. Bass & Bass (2008) identified some of the key traits that come with leaders originally as including persistence, integrity, adaptability and esteemed socio-economic status. Theorist in this area have not been consistent; Whetten & Cameron (1991), Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991), Lord et al, (1986), Mann (1959) and Zaccaro (2007) among several others propose unique and different traits or categorization based on which leadership traits.

Originating from Jago (1982), the trait theory of leadership was founded on the notion that leaders are not trained, but rather, they are born as influential.

As per Judge & Piccolo (2004), the trait theory of leadership remains the most honoured leadership research tradition where the individuals who are considered as leaders possess the above-mentioned attributes and qualities. It may be noted that, even in recent times, the trait theory of leadership has been given great regard, this is because, other theories of leadership when classifying leadership (with other forms of classification) tend to include some of these traits. According to Marturano & Gosling (2008), presents behaviour theory of leadership this line of theory is in an attempt to explain the different empirical explanations behind how leaders behaved and the categorization of key traits to that effect. Ghsabeh presents situational theory of leadership, the situational theory of leadership style is the third type of leadership theory and is based on the assertion that situational factors dictate leadership success and success is not based on traits or any other set of behaviour exhibited by the leader but this theory emerged as a result of the increasing significant being gained by situational factors (Ghsabeh et al., 2015).

Referring to Zhu et al. (2012), scholars in the field of organizational research have discovered that the organizational identification and work group identification of employees play strong roles in how well they perform assigned tasks (Walumbwa et al., 2008), their citizenship behaviour (O'Reilly III & Chatman, 1986), job satisfaction and other work outcomes as shown in Riketta (2005). Brouer (2012) points out that even though there has been research into collective identification with organizations and work units (Riketta, 2005; Riketta & van Dick, 2005), there is rather a lack of adequate research with regards to the personal identification of followers with leaders. Brouer (2012) argue that, in contrast to the concept of collective identification with the organization or the work unit, personal identification has more to do with the followers identifying with a single person (the leader) instead of the entire group. In contribution to this, Hobman et al., (2011) describe personal identification with the leader as a process of self-categorization in which the individual (follower) defines him or herself based on the attributes of the leader. Here, individuals pay a lot of attention to individual achievements for the leader and maintain a very strong relationship with the leader.

2.3 Situational Theory of Leadership

The situational theory of leadership style is the type of leadership theory and is based on the assertion that situational factors dictate leadership success and success is not based on traits or any other set of behaviour exhibited by the leader (Ghsabeh et al., 2015). The situational theory of leadership argue that leadership depends on any given situation and these two are inseparable. Aside from these theories, several others have sprung up and these include the charismatic, ideological and pragmatic leadership styles (Mumford, 2006; Bedell-Avers et al., 2009), the transformation and transactional leadership styles (Bedell-Avers et al., 2009; Conger & Kanungo 1998; Shamir et al., 1993; Dartey-Baah, 2015; Ngadiman et al. 2013; Voon, et al., 2011).

2.4 Organizational Performance

Every organization aims to sustain performance, and this is because organizations are only able to grow through sustained performance; emphasized by Gavrea et al. (2011). This suggests that organizational performance is considered as one of the most important variables in management research and leadership. It must however mention that, even though organizational performance is very popular in academic literature, it has been given several meanings by different researchers and this makes it difficult to arrive at a simple definition for it. This means that there is no single definition for the concept of organizational performance that is universally accepted. Georgopoulos & Tannenbaum (1957) viewed organizations as social systems and defined organizational performance in the 50s as the degree to which organizations achieve their goals. In more recent developments, Gavrea et al. (2011) add that the focus of performance evaluation during this period was on work, people and the structure of organizations. Another dimension of the concept worth noting is that performance is subject to individual or situational interpretation (Kaplan & Norton, 1992). The subjective nature of performance here stipulates that it is possible that different people understand the performance of an organization differently. For instance, the performance of an organization maybe interpreted differently by individuals within the organization and individuals outside the organization. It is necessary to identify the elements characteristic to every area of responsibility and situational elements in order to adequately define organizational performance.

It is argued by Lebars & Euske (2006) that the ability to quantify the results achieved by an organization is necessary to report its level of performance. Observing the global economic conditions over the past few years, many organizations were affected worldwide (Fox, 2016). It is necessary for organizations to have the ability to adapt and survive in the current business environment where challenges keep increasing day in day out (Gavrea et al., 2011). According to Gavrea et al. (2011), performance indicators are developed for the purpose of reporting the quality of the activities performed in an organization, they also provide support for the timely achievement of objectives within the constraints of a predetermined budget. However, Gavrea et al. (2011) argues that in order to effectively use these performance indicators, it is important to fully understand the role they play.

2.5 Internal and External Factors of Leadership

With the appreciation to innovative employees on their innovative performance, recognition leadership behavior is linked, and, if, employee will not work accordingly then he will be punished. On the other side, providing vision leadership behavior is connected with providing directions for future actions, communication of preferred types of innovation, and communication of explicit vision. Same as, in transactional leadership style, the role of supervisor, group performance and organizational performance is focused, and it is based on system of punishments and rewards. In business, employees are rewarded when they are successful, and they are punished when they fail (Akram,

2012). (Zhu et al, 2005) suggest that visionary leadership will result in high levels of cohesion, commitment, trust, motivation, and hence performance in the organisational environments. According to (Mehra et al 2006), when some organizations seek efficient ways to enable them to outperform others, a long' standing approach is to focus on the effects of leadership. This is because team leaders are believed to play a pivotal role in shaping collective norms, helping teams cope with their environments and coordinating collective action. These leaders centered perspective has provided valuable insights into the relationship between leadership and team performance. (Avery 2008).

From the above discussion 3 variables have been extracted with sub variables:

- External Factor- subordinate characteristics, groups' factors, and organizational factors;
- Situational leadership;
- Organizational performance.

3. Methodology of the Research

This part will present a comprehensive detail on the research design and methodology that is used in this study.

3.1 Conceptual Framework

The developments in literature point in the direction that the situational component of Fiedler's (1964; 1967) contingency model of leadership has been the main draw-back in event of its validity and its ease of implementation. The conceptual framework of the study is presented in Figure 3.1. The present study builds on the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness by drawing on contemporary theories and existing criticisms and examining how the contemporary model of effective leadership can be used to improve performance in an organizational context.

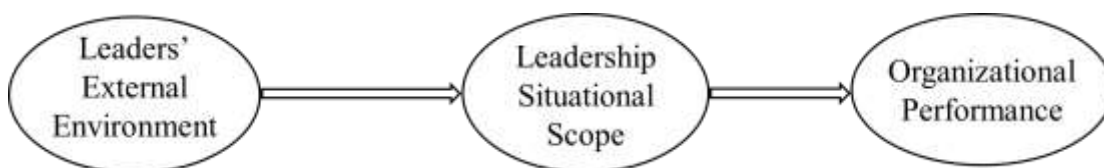


Figure 3.1: The Conceptual Framework

3.2 Hypothesis of the Research

In Figure 3.1, based on the inter-relationships between the components and variables of the study presented in the conceptual framework of the study, key hypotheses are established. The hypotheses are backed by theoretical literature in this section of the study. After all the hypotheses, the validity of the model is tested empirically by setting extreme scenarios of a favourable and an unfavourable leadership situation.

H(x)	Hypothesis
H1	Leader's external environment has a significant effect on leadership situational scope.
H2	Leadership situational scope has a significant effect on organizational performance.

3.3 Research Design

Three main types are included in the Research design namely descriptive, explorative and experimental. The current study is using the descriptive design as the most appropriate study design for this kind of study. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), "descriptive study is undertaken in order to ascertain and be able to describe the characteristics of the variables of interest in a situation" (p.105). This type of study is a guide for making observations to proper documentation of phenomenon of interest based on scientific method and therefore it is more reliable than doing casual observation which is conducted by untrained people.

Research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting the research. It refers to the logical structure of the inquiry by engaging with the logical problem not logistical issues (Malhotra, 2004). Basically, research design articulates what data is required, from whom and how it will answer the research question. Above all, research design affects the extent to which causal claims can be made about the impact of the intervention. The deductive approach is more associated with the quantitative approach as conducted in the present investigation. As mentioned by Gill & Johnson (2002), the deductive approach stems from theory to empirical assessment, usually guiding the establishment of evidence with the help of a conceptual framework. The deductive approach permits a structural approach (Saunders et al., 2012) and falls in line with the present investigation.

The present research design is predominantly quantitative in nature. Aside from the assertions that the quantitative method is in congruence with the positivist ontological stance and the deductive reasoning to research, this design is justified based on the underlying beliefs for objectiveness. The quantitative approach is again justified as it helps collect core and structural data towards answering the set research questions (Hair et al, 2003; Creswell 2009). Ultimately, the quantitative approach is more concerned for generalizability and representativeness which are considered as part of the need for objectivity and credibility in empirical assessment.

3.4 Population of the Research

As reported by Reuters (2016) as at May 2016, a headcount of all employees under ADNOC reveals a total of 55,000. This population of employees are however spread across the GCC and UAE. Considering this population size, the present study adopts the appropriate sampling technique and sampling size to arrive at most authentic and reputable sampling approach for the current study.

3.5 Sampling Size and Technique

Mostly, the sampling design is of either probability sampling or non-probability sampling. Of which, the non-probability sampling emphasizes that the elements in the population do not have an opportunity or probability of being selected as a subject in the

sample whereas, in the probability sampling, the elements have an opportunity or probability of being selected as a subject in the sample (Sekaran & Bougie, 2014). In an attempt to ensure generalizability of findings to the population of ADNOC, the adequacy of sample is critical. Adoption of the appropriate sampling technique also ensures a representative sample to the defined population.

3.6 Sample Size

The sample size is influenced by the number of factors such as the purpose of the study (Kelso, 2008; Sekaran & Bougie, 2014), size of the population (Kelso, 2008; Chailee, 2008), non-responsive error, and accuracy of the study (Kelso, 2008; Sekaran & Bougie, 2014). According to Saunders et al., (2007), the population of between 10,000 and 100,000 would need a minimum sample of 383 to be generalizable at 95% confidence interval or 5% error margin. For the right sample size, it is important to factor in a response rate in order to give room for non-response error. The minimum sample size was however first adjusted to the exact population size using the following formula as provided by Saunders et al., (2007):

$$n_2 = n_1 / \left(1 + \left(\frac{n_1}{\text{population}} \right) \right)$$

Here, n_2 is the adjusted sample size and n_1 is the minimum sample size of 383. Factoring the available minimum sample size and the actual population into the equation, the following is arrived:

$$\begin{aligned} n_2 &= 383 / \left(1 + \left(\frac{383}{55,000} \right) \right) \\ n_2 &= 383 / (1.00696) \\ n_2 &= 360 \end{aligned}$$

A response rate of 80% is considered as the overall valid responses. This rate is factored into the main equation provided below to arrive at the actual sample size:

$$n_3 = \frac{n_2 * 100}{re\%}$$

Where, n_3 is the actual sample size considered for the present study and n_2 is the adjusted sample size estimated in the previous equation. The following is arrived:

$$\begin{aligned} n_3 &= \frac{360 * 100}{80\%} \\ n_3 &= \mathbf{450} \end{aligned}$$

Using this sample size ($n=450$) would ensure that more authoritative results are achieved. This actual sample size considers the possibility of non-response and is larger than the minimum sample size.

3.7 Sampling Technique

To ensure representativeness of the sample to the population of interest, sampling technique is critical. A sampling frame of all ADNOC employees in UAE is considered. Considering ADNOC is present in all the Emirates but Dubai, and is based in Abu Dhabi, a stratified proportional sampling technique is used. All employees in Abu Dhabi are considered in a single stratum whereas all other employees in the Northern Emirates are considered in a second stratum. The exact proportion of sample per strata was obtained prior to actual data collection. The proportions were obtained by requesting a list of all ADNOC employees in UAE region, the sampling frame.

3.8 Data Sources

In view of the primary and secondary sources of data known as the two main sources of data present for any investigation, the primary source of data is used to answer all research questions in the present investigation. Primary data is gathered in the direction of set hypotheses without reliance on data originally collected by someone else on a different set of independent research objectives. Saunders et al., (2007, p. 256) refer to secondary data as reanalysis of data that have already been collected for another purpose and this study does not consider such data.

Despite the secondary data comes in handy, it may not fit the main purpose of the study since it was not collected with the main study in mind. Moreover, secondary data may be very difficult to access, aggregations and definitions may be unsuitable to the investigation, no control over data quality exists and other limitations exist. Using primary data may be time consuming but overcomes all of these limitations.

3.9 Data Collection Instrument and Measurement

According to Sekaran & Bougie (2014), a survey instrument is consisting of a set of questions, to which the respondents provide their answers and an efficient data gathering technique when the researcher knows precisely what is necessary. The questionnaire, is often called the survey instrument, can be placed in to three categories based on the nature of the administering, personally administered, mail and electronically administered questionnaires. Data is collected with the help of the survey questionnaire. Hence, the present study is to be used questionnaire rather than other two methods namely interviewing and observing People and phenomena, because of it descriptive in nature. Of which personally administered, and mail questionnaires are more appropriate for the present study where the nature of the respondents is concerned. The instrument was separated into three main sections: (1) situational factors and its antecedents, (2) leaders' behaviour and its antecedents and (3) organizational performance. It may be noted that the exploratory section is section one of the questionnaire (Appendix C). The

indicators and items for measurement of the variables are presented in Table 3.2, Table 3.3 and Table 3.4. All items on the questionnaire aside from demographics and leader behavioural orientation were measured with the five-point Likert Scale. Key demographic collected include age, gender, level of education and level of management.

3.10 Data Collection Administration

To ADNOC headquarters in Abu Dhabi to be granted access, a formal letter was submitted to required data in the organization. A copy of the approved letter was then attached to all the emails of selected respondents after a random selection has been done in the two main strata under consideration. It was important to ensure that the respondents selected from each stratum are proportional to the size of the strata in relation to the overall size of ADNOC employees in UAE.

On Survey Monkey Online Data Collection Platform, the questionnaire was placed and sent to the participants for completion. The questionnaire was then delivered to the respondents or participants in the form of an email. The participants or respondents were required to read the information sheet in their respective emails and proceed to offer consent on the first page of the online questionnaire. After offering consent, the survey proceeds to the next sections.

To the data collection, a period of 8-10 weeks was allocated. After every two weeks, reminders were sent to the participants and this helped increase response rate. As discussed in the previous sections, a single questionnaire was used. Data from this questionnaire was used for both the exploratory and conclusive aspects of the study and proved quite lengthy. An attempt was made to reduce the number of questions asked in order to facilitate response.

3.11 Data Analysis

To analyse and arrive at key factors that determine the variables of leader member relations, task structures and leader positions in contemporary times of leadership administration, factor analysis was used. Factor analysis can either be exploratory (EFA) or confirmatory (CFA). Whereas the former has to do with the deducing of latent themes from a pool of indicators or variables, the latter has to do with the use of structural equation modelling to establish exploratory inter-relationships. It may be noted that the factor analysis in the present study is in an attempt to explore patterns (latent variables) among indicators. Factor analysis is therefore EFA and applies to the first research question of the study. This research question informs the research hypothesis and involves identification of key situational elements in the contingency model of leadership, as exists in contemporary leadership environments. The first, second, third and fourth research hypotheses were analysed with the help of regression analysis. These hypotheses sought the impact of key independent variables on other dependent variables; specifically, these hypotheses constitute the (1) the impact of leader's internal environment on leadership behaviour, (2) the impact of leader's external factors on the leadership situational scope, (3) the effect behaviour on organizational performance, and

(4) what is the effect of contemporary leadership situational factors on organizational performance. In all these analyses, a single dependent variable was matched against a group of independent variables in a linear equation modelling where:

$$y = b + a_1(x_1) + a_2(x_2) + a_3(x_3) + a_4(x_4) + \dots + a_n(x_n) \quad (1)$$

Here,

y = dependent variable,

$a_1 \sim a_n$ = the coefficient of the independent variables,

$x_1 \sim x_n$ = the independent variables,

and c = the y-intercept.

Same form of analysis will be conducted for all research hypotheses.

4. Results and Analysis

This section represents the outcomes of primary data collection. These results are analysed in this section towards achieving the study's objectives. First, the demographics of respondents are presented, followed by a careful analysis of the data observations in order to remove all inconsistencies bias responses. Descriptive statistics are then presented to summarize all collected data, followed by critical reliability and data validity assessments. Main analyses in this section are done in the form of hypothesis testing in order to either accept or reject the established hypotheses of the study. Testing the hypotheses in this section also play a key part in answering the research questions of the study. All analytical methods used are mentioned in this section alongside their respective studies.

4.1 Demographic Statistics

In Table 4.1, key demographics are presented. Out of the 382 valid responses, 223 (58.4%) were males and remaining 159 (41.6%) were females. Most of the participants belonged to the age range of 25 to 34; 106 respondents representing 27.7% of the total sample. About 23% of the sample (88 respondents) were aged between 35 to 44 years and this was closely followed by those aged between 15 to 24 years (21.2%) and 45 to 54 years (18.1%). In addition to this, 52% of the respondents had successfully completed University or first degree; this category numbered 200 out of the total of 382 respondents. High School and Diploma leavers formed 33% and a small percentage of respondents had post graduate degrees or above (14.7%).

To these demographics, an unconscious attempt was made to ensure that the departments in the organization spread equally among the sample as observed in a simple random sampling attempt. the study considered two main strata of all employees in Abu Dhabi in a single stratum and the rest in the other Emirates in another stratum. This registered nearly equal proportions of respondents in the various levels of the organization as presented in Table 4.1. Most of the respondents were in the middle level

of the organization (39.0%) followed by operational level employees (34.3%) and top management level employees (26.7%).

Table 4.1: Summary of Demographic Statistics

Item	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	223	58.4
	Female	159	41.6
Age	15-24	81	21.2
	25-34	106	27.7
	35-44	88	23.0
	45-54	69	18.1
	55 and above	38	9.9
Education	High School or less	126	33.0
	University of 1st Degree	200	52.2
	Postgraduate or above	56	14.7
Level	Operational level	131	34.3
	Middle level management	149	39.0
	Top level management	102	26.7
	Total	382	100

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of collected primary data are presented in this section. It must be noted that the minimum and maximum values of 1 and 5 respectively run through for all items as a five-point Likert Scale was used. The descriptive statistics presented in this section include mean, standard deviation and variance for all factors.

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics – Leader's External Environment

	Mean	SD	Var.	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Age	3.46	1.270	1.614	-.512
Gender	3.47	1.293	1.672	-.529
Subordinate Characteristics (mean = 3.46)				
Size	3.63	1.135	1.288	-.707
Viscosity	3.71	1.088	1.184	-.761
Homogeneity	3.73	1.106	1.222	-.699
Flexibility	3.84	.945	.892	-.798
Stability	4.11	.925	.856	-.825
Group Factors (mean = 3.7885)				
Decision Making Practice	3.76	1.074	1.154	-.823
Communication Flow	3.95	1.008	1.016	-1.095
Goal Emphasis	3.97	1.080	1.167	-.985
HRM Emphasis	3.52	1.174	1.379	-.560
Organizational Factors (mean = 3.87)				

Note: n = 382, Std. Error = .125

With regards to the exploratory elements of leadership situational factors, a total of 15 main indicators were observed (Table 4.4). The descriptive statistics indicate that task

structures are the most common situational elements in ADNOC (mean = 3.58). Key elements within this situational dimension include managing logistics (3.86), clear agenda (3.77), and punctuality of tasks (3.92), task reviews (3.91) and communication (3.79). The least applicable situational dimension was leaders' position power; an overall mean value of 3.59 was obtained.

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics – Situational and Performance

	Mean	SD	Var.	Skewness
Perceived Similarity	3.90	.854	.729	-.789
Self-Promotion	3.69	.945	.893	-.442
Assertiveness	3.79	1.007	1.015	-.737
Leader trust	3.76	.960	.921	-.606
Inclusiveness	3.71	.957	.916	-.503
Leader Member Relationship (mean = 3.77)				
Managing Logistics	3.86	.919	.844	-.619
Clear Agenda	3.77	.923	.851	-.469
Punctuality of tasks	3.92	.889	.789	-.708
Task reviews	3.91	.882	.777	-.454
Communication	3.79	.909	.826	-.655
Task Structures (mean = 3.8518)				
Formal Power	3.62	1.072	1.150	-.578
Informal position power	3.44	1.191	1.417	-.530
Leader's ability to influence	3.58	1.056	1.115	-.558
Formulating policies	3.55	1.012	1.025	-.578
Formulating Procedures	3.78	.919	.845	-.604
Leader Position Power (mean = 3.59)				
Pleasant & Unpleasant	4.43	2.136	4.561	-.005
Friendly & Unfriendly	5.09	1.802	3.249	-.162
Rejecting & Accepting	4.94	1.860	3.461	-.220
Tense & Relaxed	5.05	1.975	3.900	-.232
Distant & Close	4.70	1.875	3.516	-.024
Organizational Performance (mean = 3.580)				

Note: n = 382

4.3 Data Reliability

The data was tested for reliability. Cronbach Alpha was used as a test for internal consistency. Reliability results are presented in Table 4.5. All reliability statistics were above .5 even though an alpha value greater than .5 and less than .6 may be considered a poor internal consistency (George & Mallery, 2003). Even though generally results of internal consistency may be considered acceptable but poor, alpha value above .7 may be considered more acceptable. Some of the constructs and sub-constructs had mixed results. Leader's internal environment for instance had an overall poor level of internal consistency even though the individual groups of leader's characteristics and leader hierarchy had alpha values above .8. Analysis of these may therefore be considered under separate multiple regression models in the subsequent sections.

Table 4.5: Reliability Statistics

Construct	Sub-Construct	n	Alpha
Leaders' External Environment (.894)	Subordinate Characteristics	2	0.772
	Group Factors	5	0.828
	Organizational Factors	4	0.859
Situational Factors (.665)	Leader-Member Relationship	5	0.725
	Task Structures	5	0.787
	Leader Position Power	5	0.853
Organizational Performance		4	0.849
Total		30	

Pertaining to leader's external environment, subordinate characteristics (.77), group factors (.828) and organizational factors (.852) had alpha values above .7; moreover, the overall internal consistency of the construct proved highly satisfactory at .894. Situational factors, to be explored later in the analysis, had a lower score of internal consistency (.765) compared with the individual sub-constructs; this construct will be explored later to observe latent sub-constructs applicable to contemporary contingency leadership situations. Final check for internal consistency includes leader's behaviour and organizational performance. Behaviour had a questionable score of 0.759 and performance had a good internal consistency score of 0.849 respectively.

4.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Without foisting a predetermined structure on the outcome, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) explores the possible underlying factor structure of a set of variables (Child, 1990). In Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), there are few steps to be looked into. Firstly, the variables to be investigated has to be identified which has been done in Section 2. Extensive and in-depth review of literatures by previous scholars worldwide has been done. The variables involved this study is implored both in Section 2 and Section 3. Simultaneously, descriptive information of the data collected is to be extracted, which should be more detailed. The Univariate descriptive, Initial solution, Coefficient R-matrix, Significance levels, Determinant Test for multicollinearity or singularity, KMO and Bartlett's tests, inverse of the correlation matrix, model's Correlation matrix and Anti-image of the covariance and correlation is calculated. To test this assertion, the pool of indicators in the leadership situational scope was explored for key patterns. First, KMO and Bartlett's Test for adequacy was observed as statistically significant (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Hypothesis 1: KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.802
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1465.852
	Df	105
	Sig.	.000*

Note: * Significant at 0.01 significance level

Hypothesis 1: Effect of Leader's External Environment on Situational Factors

The first hypothesis stated that:

H1: Leader's external environment has a significant effect on leadership situational scope.

Main components of the external environment include subordinate characteristics, groups factors, and organizational factors. Nonetheless, the main elements of situational scope were observed to be internally inconsistent even though a good level of construct validity exists within each sub-construct. These dependent variables are therefore considered in three separate multiple regression assessments. For the first situational factor, that is leader-member relations, results are presented in Table 4.12, Table 4.13 and Table 4.14.

Table 4.12: Hypothesis 1(a): Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.179 ^a	.032	.024	.645

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), Subordinate, Organizational, individual and Group Factors

Table 4.13: Hypothesis 1(a): ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
1	Regression	5.205	3	1.735	4.176	.006 ^{*b}
	Residual	157.031	378	.415		
	Total	162.235	381			

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Leader-Member Relationship. b. Predictors: (Constant), Subordinate, Organizational, individual and Group Factors. * Significant at P < 0.05.

Table 4.14: Hypothesis 1(a): Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Std. Coeff.	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.271	.166		25.722	.000
	Subordinate Characteristics	-.073	.032	-.129	-2.239	.026*
	Group Factors	-.048	.061	-.059	-.786	.432
	Organizational Factors	-.018	.055	-.025	-.321	.748

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Leader-Member Relationship. Significant results highlighted. * significant at p<0.05

As observed in the first category of results for the second hypothesis, results indicate that subordinate characteristics may be a good predictor of effective leader-member relationship processes. This holds even though the variance explained by the model is small to be considered substantial. The ANOVA test for difference between means however indicate that this is significant at p < 0.05. The second hypothesis may therefore be accepted for this unique relationship that

H2a: Subordinate characteristics have a significant negative effect on leader-member relationship; this hypothesis is accepted.

The second set of inter-relationships was observed considering Task Structures as the main dependent variable. Results for this relationship are presented in Table 15, Table 16 and Table 17.

Table 15: Hypothesis 1(b): Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.041 ^a	.002	-.006	.60436

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), Subordinate, Organizational, individual and Group Factors

Table 16: Hypothesis 1(b): ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.229	3	.076	.209	.890 ^b
	Residual	138.065	378	.365		
	Total	138.294	381			

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Task Structures. b. Predictors: (Constant), Subordinate, Organizational, individual and Group Factors.

For this situational element, largely insignificant results were obtained. The R-Statistics were very low, and ANOVA was not significant as well. None of the independent variables established a significant predictive effect on Task structures.

Table 4.17: Hypothesis 1(b): Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Std. Coeff.	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.868	.156		24.842	.000
	Subordinate Characteristics	.016	.030	.030	.513	.608
	Group Factors	-.037	.057	-.050	-.649	.516
	Organizational Factors	.019	.052	.028	.361	.718

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Task Structures

Considering these results, the second hypothesis which partly assert that, **H3b:** Subordinate characteristics have a significant negative effect on Task Structures; may be rejecting on grounds of insignificant results.

The last aspect of the second hypothesis was observed considering leader position power as the main dependent variable. Results for this aspect of the second hypothesis are presented in Table 4.18, Table 4.19 and Table 4.20. Results indicate that Subordinate characteristics, group factors and organizational factors are not good predictors of leader position power. The R-Statistics are very low, ANOVA results were observed as insignificant and none of the predictors established a significant coefficient in the multiple regression models.

Table 4.18: Hypothesis 1(c): Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.037 ^a	.001	-.007	.839

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), Subordinate, Organizational, individual and Group Factors

Table 4.19: Hypothesis 1(c): ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.357	3	.119	.169	.917 ^b
	Residual	266.390	378	.705		
	Total	266.747	381			

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Leader Position Power. b. Predictors: (Constant), Subordinate, Organizational, individual and Group Factors.

Table 4.20: Hypothesis 1(c): Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Std. Coeff.	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.717	.216		17.188	.000
	Subordinate Characteristics	-.022	.042	-.030	-.510	.611
	Group Factors	-.012	.080	-.011	-.145	.884
	Organizational Factors	-.001	.072	-.001	-.016	.987

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Leader Position Power.

Based on these findings, the last aspect of the second hypothesis which stipulates that **H2c:** Subordinate characteristics have a significant negative effect on Leader-Position Power; may be rejected.

In total, nearly all areas of the second hypothesis were not effective. Nonetheless, for the first aspect of this hypothesis, subordinate characteristics may be accepted as a good predictor of Leader-Member Relationship. The overall hypothesis that:

H2: Leader's external environment has a significant effect on leadership situational scope.

This hypothesis may however be rejected for all other components of the model.

Hypothesis 2: Effect of Situational Factors on Organizational Performance

The second hypothesis sought to examine the effect of situational factors on organizational performance. The main hypothesis stated that:

H2: Contemporary leadership situational factors have a significant impact on organizational performance.

Main independent variables include; leader-member relationship, task structures, and leader position power, as independent variables. Results for these predictors of organizational performance are presented in Table 24, Table 25, Table 26.

Table 24: Hypothesis 2: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.147 ^a	.021	.014	1.01192

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), Leader Position Power, Leader Member Relationship, Task Structures

Table 25: Hypothesis 2: ANOVA

	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.497	3	2.832	2.766	.042 ^b
	Residual	387.068	378	1.024		
	Total	395.565	381			

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance, b. Predictors: (Constant), Leader Position Power, Leader-Member Relationship, and Task Structures. Significant at $p < 0.05$.

Table 26: Hypothesis 2: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Std Coeff.	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.061	.491		8.276	.000
	Leader-Member Relationship	-.215	.081	-.138	-2.668	.008*
	Task Structures	.029	.088	.017	.327	.744
	Leader Position Power	.061	.062	.050	.980	.328

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance. * Significant at $p < 0.01$ significance level.

On the other hand, examination of model summary in Table 27 shows that a rather low R-Squared Statistics were obtained. ANOVA results for this statistic was significant at $p < 0.05$. Of all the situational elements considered, leader-member relationship proved statistically significant as a predictor of organizational performance, with a negative Beta value of $-.138$ ($p < .01$). These results indicate that the fourth hypothesis is accepted for the main variable of leader-member relationship as a good but negative predictor of organizational performance.

Table 4.27: Summary of the Hypotheses

H(x)	Hypothesis	Finding
H ₁	Leader's external environment has a significant effect on leadership situational scope.	Rejected
H ₂	Contemporary leadership situational factors have a significant impact on organizational performance.	Accepted

5. Discussion, Recommendations and Conclusion

A general discussion of findings is presented first followed by observation of the implications of the findings of the study. This section discusses several things, such as summary of situational leadership exploration, conclusive phase and validity phase. The necessary explanation has been presented as follows.

5.1 Discussion

In the exploratory attempt, the traditional elements of leadership situational factors including (1) leader-member relationship, (2) task structures and (3) leader position power were observed as still relevant to situational leadership effectiveness in today's businesses. The questions surrounding this area in the questionnaire particularly sought to observe the extent to which important constructs led to the achievement of specific

atmosphere needed for effective leadership. Upon an exploration of important indicators, the indicators originally employed to explore these factors cleanly grouped into their respective dimensions. Ultimately, these dimensions are still relevant to today's leadership environment and must therefore be acknowledged. Even though all three factors neatly converged, leader position power had strongest factor loadings or convergence; this was followed by leader-member relationship and task structures.

The On the conclusive phase of the study, two main hypotheses were examined. Mainly, only one relationship remained statistically significant. These relationships did not constitute the main hypothesis under observation but only a portion of these assertions. The second hypothesis for instance sought to observe the effect of leader's external environment on leadership situational factors. The three situational factors were considered under separate multiple regression estimations. The observation of the predictive effect of leader's external factors on leader-member relationship revealed subordinate characteristics as a statistically significant negative predictor ($t [-2.239] = .032$, $p < 0.05$).

The second hypothesis also revealed that leader-member relationship is a good predictor of organizational performance ($t [-2.668] = .021$, $p < 0.01$). Both H1 and H2 may have observed some amount of significance but at rather low R-squared values. Both were also negative predictors in their respective multiple regression models. Even though the negative predictive effect or subordinate's characteristics is explained in real organizational terms and is backed by pertinent literature on the area, the negative predictive effect of leader member relationship on organizational performance rather has rare literature support.

5.2 Practical Implications of Findings

To achieve competitive advantage, the necessity of effective leadership development has remained central to the desire (Caligiuri & Tarque, 2012; Wallis & McLoughlin, 2007). The case of ADNOC was highlighted at the onset of the present study as important context within which the study was conducted. This context was considered as essential for the study as the country and ADNOC, in the not-so-distant past, suffered from the decline in global oil market prices (Khamis et al., 2010). Reduction in market prices followed one of the greatest global economic recessions and the UAE, KSA and surrounding countries have had to re-strategize institutions like ADNOC to operate successfully (McDonald 2016; Raval, 2016).

Illustrating into salience the necessity of effective institutional leadership effectiveness in the oil sector, the need to manage effectively in an age of sustained and not-so-attractive low oil and gas market, the need for radical measures and sustainable institutional considerations in the oil sector has been highlighted by Mills (2016) and Al Hilal Publishing & Marketing Group (2016). As part of the practical rational of focusing on ADNOC as a main case study of the present study was to validate and empirically establish a leadership effectiveness model for private and public institutions in the region. Important but few practical implications may be highlighted considering most of

the relationships in the research model were not significant. Generally, two main areas may be highlighted. ADNOC must note that as employees' age, this puts a strain on leader-member relationships. Moreover, female may be more responsible at managing leader-follower relationships than their male counterparts. In addition, leader-member relationship may be considered a negative predictor of performance. Ultimately, the composite score of perceived similarity, self-promotion, assertiveness, leader trust and inclusiveness were observed as a negative predictor of performance in ADNOC. These elements would rather be considered more rational considering a positive association exists with performance. Nonetheless, further insight may be required to better understand this inter-relationship between leader-member relationships and organizational performance in ADNOC. Further investigation into ADNOC may explain these inconsistencies and recommend avenues for improvement and alignment of leader-member relationships.

5.3 Recommendations to Future Researchers

The current research has a vast theoretical significance. From the two main research gaps to the validation of the contingency model of effective leadership, further recommendations may be proposed for future research activities. Mainly, the present study observed many insignificant relationships pertaining to the data gathered from ADNOC. It is recommended that future researchers consider a more general sample that involves multiple institutions and does not consider participants from only a single institution. Diversity in participants may support evidence of these inter-relationships and such findings may be considered more authoritative in nature due to a large or broad sample base.

Major recommendations are offered to ADNOC and other public and private institutions in the UAE and surrounding regions. It is recommended that ADNOC and other organizations in the region pay attention to the inverse relationship between age, gender and leader-subordinate relationship. Ultimately, in no attempt to discriminate against older employees, these organizations must employ training sessions and other employee development programs to reduce the negative effects of age in leader-follower relationships.

5.4 Conclusion

For the first research objective, it is concluded that the constituents of the situational factors in the contingency model of leadership effectiveness have not changed and remain relevant to contemporary business management. The traditional factors of leader-member relationship, task structures and leader power position may still be considered as relevant to the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness. With regards to the first objective, it originally sought to observe the impact of leader's external environment on leadership situational scope. Here, it is concluded that subordinate characteristics is a good and negative determinant of leader-member relationship. Specifically, it is concluded that as age of subordinate's increases and as more males increase among

followers, the leader-member relationship deteriorates. It is concluded that females and young followers will ensure better leader-member relationships in ADNOC. The second objective sought to observe the effect of leadership situational factors on organizational performance. It is concluded that no predictive relationship exists between situational scope of the leadership model and organizational performance. The situations within which leaders operate may not essentially have any predictive effect on performance with the exception of a negative relationship between leader-member relationship and organizational performance.

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