The impact of leadership behaviour and organisational culture on job satisfaction and its relationship among organisational commitment and turnover intentions. A case study on an Egyptian company

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Abstract
The purpose of this paper is to explore the relationship among leadership behaviour, organisational culture, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions through a case analysis on one of the biggest Egyptian company. A structured questionnaire was developed. The hypotheses were simultaneously tested on a sample of 455 employees out of 700 distributed, giving a response rate of 65 per cent. Several analytical techniques were used to assess the relationships among the variables under investigation such as Pearson correlation, chi-square, and multiple linear regressions.

The findings of this study have shown significant relationships among the variables under investigation. It is imperative to better understand how one of the biggest Egyptian companies can effectively and efficiently manage a skilled workforce within the Egyptian context. The research was limited to one of the biggest Egyptian companies in Egypt. Also the use of cross-sectional design restricts inferences being drawn regarding casualty. Despite the significant academic interest in leadership behaviour and organisational culture, this study contributes in adding to the body of the Egyptian culture knowledge. Also, to the best of the authors' knowledge there is no study published that explores the influence of leadership behaviour and organisational culture on staff job satisfaction, commitment and turnover intention within the Egyptian context.

Introduction

The phenomenal acceleration of changes in the nature of the Egyptian environment over the last 20 years has created unparalleled competence for change, challenge and innovation for more effective marketing management of the organisations' products and services on offer (Owusu-Frimpong, 1999). In the past, changes in the environment were much more localised and slower, which offered management the chance to react slowly, and try different tactics and strategies before introducing any real change. However, this is not possible nowadays, as globalisation, and turbulent changes in the business environment require organisations to react correctly and quickly from the outset (Sohi, 1996; Prager, 2003). Providing a successful products and services depends not only on customer contact-employees' performance and satisfaction, but also on the close coordination between departments. Customer satisfaction lies at the heart of all the endeavours of all organisations (if it does not, then it should) as the performance, attitudes and behaviours of employees can influence customers' perceptions toward organisation.

Despite the extensive significant academic interest works in leadership behaviour style and organisational culture and their relationship with employees' job satisfaction (Lund, 2003; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009); there is still a scarcity of research investigating them in the Arab countries especially in Egypt. Thus, the researchers were motivated to close this gap by initiating a paper that aims to explore and describe the impact of leadership behaviour style and organisational culture on employee job Satisfaction, and the relationship between employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. In examining these links, this study intends to contribute empirical evidence and extend extant theory pertaining to the barriers of employee retention. Furthermore, the results of this paper will provide insights into the process of organisational development. The paper begins with an overview of existing perspectives on the styles of leadership behaviour, organisational culture types, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Thereafter, research into the relationships between these constructs is examined and appraised. Following a discussion of the research methodology adapted, the findings of the survey are presented. The paper concludes with a discussion of the implications for theory and practice, highlighting the importance of this avenue of research.

Leadership behaviour style as a crucial factor for organisational success and job satisfaction

The concept of leadership dates back 5000 years to Egyptian hieroglyphics in which the words (seshemu) "leader" and (seshement) "leadership" are used (Bass, 1990; Sancar, 2009). There is a wide spectrum of definitions of leadership. Yukl (2001: 2) stated that "*researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them*". Moreover, Stogdill (1974: 259) stated that "*there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept*". Furthermore, Karmel (1978: 476) stated that "*it is consequently very difficult to settle on a single definition of leadership that is general enough to accommodate these many meanings and specific enough to serve as an operationalisation of the variable*". The researchers define leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal achievement.

As a result of leadership studies in the mid 1950s, at the Ohio State University, Fleishman (1957) identified two major components of leader's behaviour: initiating structure and consideration. Consideration means that the leader is being friendly, supportive, concerned, open and consultative to his employees. Therefore, the higher the level of consideration in the leader, the higher the perception that the goal is achievable and consequently, that the reward is attainable. On the other hand, initiating structure occurs when the leader defines the role's structures that the employees would follow toward attainment of the formal goals, consequently, employees see their reward or punishment in advance as a direct result of their performance and behaviour in their attempts to achieve those goals. Therefore, the higher the level of initiating structure in the leader, the more likely that the employees will be informed which paths they should follow and what the rewards are for following those paths. Leaders who are high in both initiating structure and consideration will supply positive rewards to those who follow high performance paths and negative rewards to those who follow low performance paths (Evans, 1970: 282-283). The leaders can provide support for goal setting and remove any barriers in order to achieve the goal. House (1971: 324) stated that "*the motivation function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoff to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path*

to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route". House (1971) examined the leadership dimensions of initiating structure and consideration and their impact on satisfaction, role ambiguity, task autonomy, and job scope by using employees from various industries. Role ambiguity, task autonomy, and job scope were used as measures of path-goal instrumentality or the link between goal achievement and reward. House found significant support for the path-goal theory of leader effectiveness, and concluded that the leader could positively influence employee behaviour by providing support, guidance, and structure based on the leader's understanding of the needs and abilities of the employees and on the situation they are facing; thus leading to an increase in the satisfaction and effectiveness of both the employee and the leader.

House and Mitchell (1974) proposed four leader behaviours: Supportive leadership, Directive leadership, Achievement-oriented leadership and Participative leadership. Supportive leadership and Participative leadership were similar to the behaviour known as "consideration", while the Directive leadership and Achievement-oriented leadership styles were similar to the behaviour known as "initiating structure". Participative leadership refers to the significant degree of employee involvement in day-to-day, work related decisions; i.e., the degree to which the leader lets employees take on some of the responsibility for making decisions about which tasks are to be achieved. Furthermore, effective leaders used group supervision instead of supervising employees separately. Employees participated in the group meetings for decision making, improved communication, promoted cooperation, and facilitated conflict resolution. The role of the leader in group meetings should be primarily to lead the discussion and keep it supportive. However, even though employees participated in the meetings, the leader did not give up the responsibilities and remained responsible for all the decisions (Vakola and Bouradas, 2005; Schyns et al., 2009; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009). Lok and Crawford (2004) and Chang and Lee (2007) argued that leadership aimed to manage employee behaviour to achieve job satisfaction and organisational commitment, thus, we hypothesize that:

H1: Directive leadership behaviour will be negatively correlated to employee job satisfaction.
H2: participative leadership behaviour will be positively correlated to employee job satisfaction.
H3: supportive leadership behaviour will be positively correlated to employee job satisfaction.

Organisational culture types

The 1980s witnessed a surge in examining the concept of organisational culture as organisations' awareness increase regarding the effect of organisational culture on employees' job satisfaction. However, few studies have investigated organisational culture and its impact on job satisfaction (Deshpande and Webster, 1989; Lund, 2003). Researchers have defined organisational culture as a set of expected behaviours that are generally supported within a group (Schwartz and Davis, 1981). Definitions of culture are found in six interlocking dimensions: organisational history; values and beliefs; myths and stories explaining the organisation; cultural norms; traditions; rituals and ceremonies; and heroes and heroines (Ownes and Steinhoff, 1989). Kim et al. (2005) argued that employees perceive greater value congruence with an organisational culture when "a common message" is communicated about the values of the organisation. Kilmann et al. (1985: 5) defined organisational culture as "the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms" that join an organisation together. Deal (1986: 301) defined organisational culture as "the human

invention that creates solidarity and meaning and inspires commitment and productivity". Lund (2003) stated that organisational culture is a system of shared values and beliefs that interact with the employees and the structure of the organisation to produce behavioural norms. In the present study organisational culture is defined as Deshpande and Webster (1984: 4) "the pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organisational functioning and thus provide them with norms for behaviour in the organisation". It is more difficult to argue that one definition of culture is superior to another; however, Schein (1985 a: 6, 1985 b: 6, 1983: 3, 1984, 1986: 30, 1990: 111), conceptualisation of this concept is sufficient. He defines culture as follows:

"*For any given group or organisation that has a substantial history, organisational culture is (a) A pattern of basic assumptions, (b) invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, (c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, (d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, (e) is to be taught to new members as the (f) correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems*".

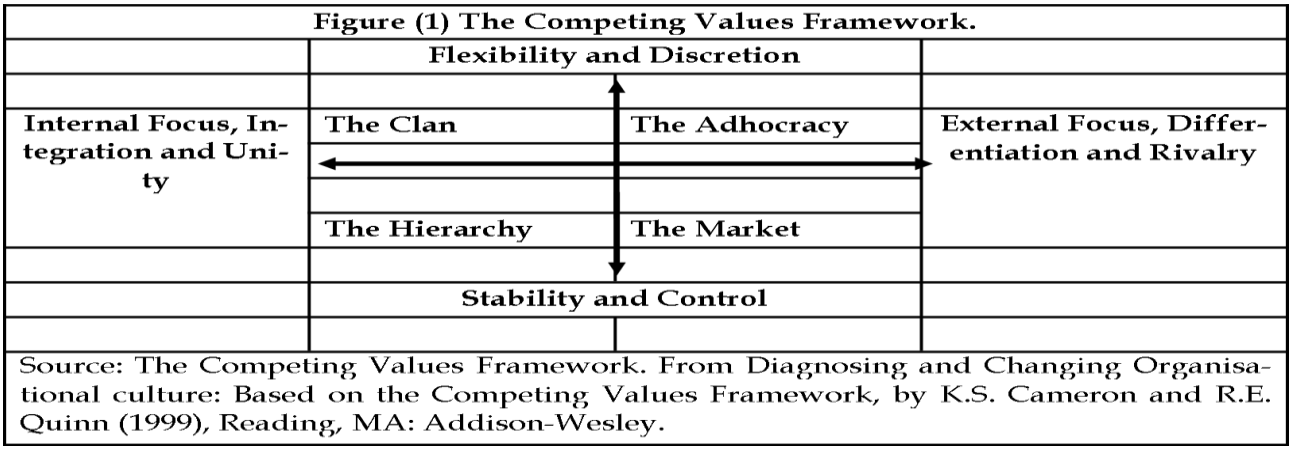
Organisational culture can be assessed along many dimensions, resulting in conceptually different, but fundamentally similar (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009). For instance, Wallach (1983) developed three types of organisational cultures (innovative, supportive and bureaucratic). Wallach (1983: 32-33), defined the above three cultures types and developed an index for their measurement. He defined them as follows**:** a bureaucratic organisational culture **is** one in which there are hierarchical, procedural and structural components. In other words, there are clear lines of responsibility and authority. The work is organized and systematic; these cultures are usually based on control and power. The companies are stable, careful, and usually mature. A high score on bureaucracy means the organisation is power-oriented, cautious, established, sold regulated, ordered, structured, procedural and hierarchical; an innovative organisational culture is one, which is creative, results oriented, and has a challenging work environment. In other words, innovative cultures are exciting and dynamics. Entrepreneurial and ambitious people thrive in these environments. They are creative places to work, filled with challenge and risk. The stimulation is often constant----------innovative environments, however, are not easy places in which to work, burn-out and stress are routine occupational hazards---------and; supportive organisational culture is one that exhibits teamwork, and a friendly, people oriented, encouraging, trusting work environment. In other words, supportive cultures are warm; "fuzzy" places to work. People are friendly, fair, and helpful to each other. They are open, harmonious environments almost like an extended family. They trust, safe, equitable, sociable, encouraging, relationship-oriented and collaborative. Various studies in various industries and countries showed that innovative and supportive cultures had strong positive effects on commitment and job satisfaction, while bureaucratic cultures had a negative impact (Wallach, 1983), Thus, we hypothesize that

H4: Bureaucratic organisational culture will be negatively correlated to employee job satisfaction.
H5: supportive organisational culture will be positively correlated to employee job satisfaction.
H6: Innovative organisational culture will be positively correlated to employee job satisfaction.

Furthermore, the competing values framework was developed by Deshpande' et al. (1993), Moorman (1995) and Cameron and Quinn (1999) for organisational analysis, focusing on organisational effectiveness. It is built along two dimensions emphasising competing values: (a)

focus (external versus internal) and (b) structure (control versus flexibility), as illustrated in figure (3.2). When applied to organisational culture, these two dimensions yielded a matrix with four quadrants, each representing a different type of culture; (1) clan (Consensual), (2) adhocracy (Developmental), (3) hierarchy (Hierarchical), and (4) market (Rational) (Quinn and Mc Grath, 1985; Quinn, 1988; Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

Figure (1) The Competing Values Framework.



Source: The Competing Values Framework. From Diagnosing and Changing Organisational culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework, by K.S. Cameron and R.E. Quinn (1999), Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

The vertical dimension of the framework differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasise flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from criteria that emphasise stability, order, and control. Microsoft is an example of organisations that are viewed as organic, and capable of changing. On the other hand, government agencies are examples of more stable, predictable, and mechanistic organisations. The horizontal dimension differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasise an internal orientation, integration and unity from criteria that emphasise an external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry. IBM is recognised by their internal consistency; on the other hand, Toyota is focused on interacting or competing with the others outside their boundaries.

Consequently, the clan culture emphasised employee commitment, loyalty, empowerment, openness, morale, participation in decision making, teamwork, personal involvement and cohesiveness, putting emphasis on flexibility, internal focus, and the development of human resources. It represents a friendly place to work. Clan cultures are related to increased levels of trust, while they limit conflict and resistance to change.

It is dramatically opposed to market culture, which focuses on goal achievement, control, task accomplishment, profitability planning, goal setting, productivity with an external orientation and setting objectives and efficiency. The adhocracy culture emphasised entrepreneurship, creativity, and innovativeness in discovering new markets and directions for growth. It is characterised by flexibility, adaptability, and resource acquisition, with an external focus. It stands in contrast to the hierarchy culture, which stresses stability, order, uniformity, certainty, control, rules and regulations, documentation and record keeping, job descriptions, hierarchical authority, definitions of responsibilities, centralisation of decision making, monitoring, standardisation of procedures, measurement, dependability and reliability, which are values that are deeply supported in hierarchy cultures. In hierarchy cultures, coordination and problem-solving is assigned to higher levels of hierarchy. Employees may not be able to recognise problems as they come up due to their limited understanding of the overall process.

Even when employees recognise the problem, they do not have the authority to resolve them without the approval of the upper management. Hierarchy cultures are in close alignment with stable environments (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). As supported by Cameron and Freeman (1991), Quinn et al. (1991) and Deshpande´ et al. (1993), each culture represents a different set of basic assumptions, orientations, and values, which constitute organisational culture. There is no preferred type as combinations can vary in each organisation and under different conditions and situations (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009).

Quinn et al. (1991) study indicated a strong positive relationship between adhocracy and clan culture and employee satisfaction. Goodman (2001) examined the relationship between organisational culture and quality of work life in seven hospitals; findings indicate that clan cultures are positively related to organisational commitment, job involvement, empowerment, and job satisfaction and are negatively related to intention to leave the organisation. Hierarchical cultures are negatively related to organisational commitment, job involvement, empowerment, and job satisfaction and are positively related to intention to leave the organisation. Lund (2003) examines the impact of organisational culture types on job satisfaction. The results indicate that job satisfaction levels varied across corporate cultural typology. Both clan culture and adhocracy culture elicited significantly higher levels of employee job satisfaction than market culture and hierarchy culture. It is, however, emphasised that while overall job satisfaction in clan and adhocracy organisational culture types is higher than overall job satisfaction in market and hierarchy cultures, it does not imply that employee performance will be correspondingly higher in adhocracy and clan cultures than in market and hierarchy cultures. It is also interesting to note that the findings on culture types and job satisfaction are also theoretically consistent with the competing values model from which the study conceptual framework was derived (Quinn, 1988). For example, employees report higher levels of job satisfaction in the clan culture in which members exhibit a strong sense of pride in fraternity and interdependence. In contrast, positioned in the diagonally opposite quadrant, lower levels of job satisfaction are observed among members of the market culture which typically encourages a strong sense of independence and individuality. Similarly, the competing values of the adhocracy culture produce higher job satisfaction levels than those of the hierarchy culture positioned in the diagonally opposite quadrant. Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009) conducted a study to examine the influence of organisational culture and job satisfaction on the quality of services provided in higher education. They found that specific culture typologies are linked with different dimensions of higher education service quality. Hierarchy culture proved to be the most prevalent among administration staff, followed by clan and market archetypes, while adhocracy was ranked as the least favoured while clan and hierarchy typologies dominated among faculty members. They emphasised the importance of the diagnosis and analysis of organisational culture typologies, in order to provide a clear map of organisational strengths and weaknesses. Thus, we hypothesize that

H 7: Clan Culture will be positively correlated to employee job satisfaction.
H8: Adhocracy will be positively correlated to employee job satisfaction.
H 9: Hierarchy Culture will be negatively correlated to employee job satisfaction.
H 10: Market Culture will be negatively correlated to employee job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction

Hoppock initially proposed the concept of job satisfaction in 1935 (Tsai et al., 2007). Job satisfaction is a subjective term, defined in various ways, however it was generally agreed that job satisfaction is considered a global feeling about the job (Vakola and Bouradas, 2005; Wan, 2007; Sahinidis and Bouris, 2008; Fitcher and Cipolla, 2010; Cho et al., 2012; Pantik et al., 2012; Yucel and Bektas, 2012). Locke (1969: 316) defined job satisfaction as "*the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values''*. Churchill et al (1974: 255) defined job satisfaction as "all characteristics of the job itself and the work environment which salesmen find rewarding, fulfilling, and satisfying, or frustrating and unsatisfying". Locke (1976: 1297) defined job satisfaction as "*a positive relationship characterized by pleasurable or positive state of mind resulting from the job experience*". Various researchers defined job satisfaction as a set of evaluative feelings that staff members' have toward their job or position situation (Chen, 2006; Le Rouge et al., 2006; Cho et al., 2012; Pantik et al., 2012; Yucel and Bektas, 2012). Job satisfaction is the extent to which staff members' feel positively or negatively about his/her job (Locke 1969, 1976; Kim et al., 2005; Arnold et al., 2009; Alniacik et al., 2011; Yamaguchi, 2012).

Job satisfaction is the most frequently measured organisational variables in the empirical research settings because job satisfaction is considered an important indicator of how staff members' feel about their jobs committed to their organisation and a predictor of turnover (Yucel and Bektas, 2012).

Organisational commitment

Porter et al. (1974: 604) defined organisational commitment as "*the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation*". Mowday et al. (1979: 226) defined organisational commitment as "*an active relationship with the organisation such that individuals are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organisation's well-being*". In essence, organisational commitment is a psychological state that reflects a sense of shared values, identity, loyalty, support and pride a staff member feels towards their organisation (Kim et al., 2005; Le Rouge et al., 2006; Aghdasi et al., 2011; Cho et al., 2012). A common theme of organisational commitment definition is that staff members with higher levels of organisational commitment have a sense of belonging, believe in, accept and have the desire to pursue the organisational goals, activities and values, willingness to remain (less likely to leave) and to devote themselves to offer their best effort for their organisation's well being (Porter et al., 1974; Mowday et al., 1979; Mowday et al., 1982; Golden and Veiga, 2008; Yang and Chang, 2008; Alniacik et al., 2011; Yamaguchi, 2012; Yucel and Bektas, 2012). Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that there were three types of organisational commitment: continuance, affective and normative. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972: 556) defined continuance commitment as ''a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual–organizational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investments over time''. Mowday et al. (1982: 27) defined affective commitment as ''the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization'. Normative Commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. The concept of organisational commitment is close to Meyer and Allen (1991: 67) definition of affective commitment "*the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation*". Furthermore, employees with strong affective organisational commitment perform better, more satisfied and committed with less declaration of any intention to leave the organisation than those with lower levels of affective organisational commitment

(Aghdasi et al., 2011). This was further confirmed by various researchers that conceptualized organisational commitment as an affective attachment to an organisation as a consequence of an individual sharing the organisation's values, their desire to remain in the organisation, and their willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation (Porter et al., 1974; Mowday et al., 1979; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993; Alniacik et al., 2011; Zeinabadi and Salehi, 2011; Yucel and Bektas, 2012).

Turnover intentions

Turnover intention is an important issue for any organisation. Surprisingly, however, this subject has tended to be neglected in the literature. Among various antecedents, job satisfaction, job performance and organisational commitment appear to be good predictor of turn over intention (Chen, 2006; Alniacik et al., 2011). Tett and Meyer (1993: 262) defined turnover as "the termination of an individual's employment with a given company" and they also defined turnover intention as "the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions, a set to which thinking of quitting and intent to search for alternative employment also belongs". Furthermore, various researchers ageed that turnover intention is a conscious psychological willingness to leave an organisation (Tett and Meyer, 1993; Griffeth et al., 2000; Ohana and Meyer, 2010; Alniacik et al., 2011; Panatik et al., 2012). It is worth to mention that Beadles et al. (2000) and Watrous et al. (2006) classified employee turnover into functional, if employees performed poorly, or dysfunctional, if employees performed well.

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Despite the wide-ranging literature available on job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the focus of the relationship between these two constructs is still disputed in a way that there are still some important questions considered to be a matter of controversy (Vilela et al., 2008; Armutlulu and Noyan, 2011). There are two approaches; the first one is job satisfaction as an antecedent to organisational commitment; in other words, the staff members' opinion about their job is shaped before their opinion about the organisation (Smith et al., 1969; Porter et al., 1974; Koch and Steers, 1978; Mowday et al., 1982; Mengüç, 1996; Martin and Bennett, 1996; Udo et al., 1997; Schwepker, 2001; Kim et al., 2005; Vilela et al., 2008; Yang and Chang, 2008; Aghdasi et al., 2011; Zeinabadi and Salehi, 2011; Yucel and Betkas, 2012). Mowday et al. (1979: 226) stated that "employees are likely to have a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values". Furthermore, Deconinck (2009) and Rutherford et al. (2009) stated that there are a positive relationship between some factors of job satisfaction such as overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with pay and organisational policy and support and organisational commitment. Paulin et al. (2006) proposed that job satisfaction influences organisational commitment, as the greater the job satisfaction, the greater the organisational commitment. Kim et al. (2005) argued that high employees satisfaction with job have higher levels of organisational commitment than dissatisfied employees with job. Moreover, Morbarak et al. (2006) and Wu and Norman (2006) suggested that there is a reciprocal and positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Also, Moser (1997) and Alniaik et al. (2011) argued that job satisfaction is so important that its absence often leads to reduced organisational commitment. Various researchers argued that job satisfaction would develop more quickly than organisational commitment as commitment is a "psychological bond" to an organisation and job satisfaction is more a response to a specific job. Thus job satisfaction is considered an antecedent to organisational commitment (Vandenberg and Lance, 1992; Shin and Reyes, 1995; Currivan, 1999; Chen, 2006; Zeinabadi, 2010; Armutlulu

and Noyan, 2011; Zeinabadi and Salehi, 2011). On the other hand, a study carried out among National Health Service of Darper et al. (2004) indicated that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The second approach is job satisfaction as a consequence of organisational commitment (Vilela et al., 2008); in other words, the staff members' are committed to the organisation when they makes a job choice before feeling of satisfaction emerge (Vilela et al., 2008; Yucel and Betkas, 2012).

Although findings are mixed, there is strong evidence that staff members who feel pride, pleasure and satisfaction from their jobs are more likely to identify with and be involved in their organisation, thus the first approach is the most common (Schwepker Jr, 2001; Kim et al., 2005; Guleryuz et al., 2008; Vilela et al., 2008; Aghdasi et al., 2011; Salehi and Gholtash, 2011; Larsen et al., 2012; Yucel and Betkas, 2012). To test the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the model proposed on this study assumes that job satisfaction is causally antecedent to organisational commitment. The model assumes higher job satisfaction produces higher organisational commitment, thus, we hypothesize that:

H11: Job satisfaction will be positively correlated to affective organisational commitment.
H12: Job satisfaction will be positively correlated to normative organisational commitment.
H13: Job satisfaction will be negatively correlated to continuance organisational commitment.

Job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention

Various researchers emphasised the importance of understanding the antecedents (the cause) and the consequences (the effect) of job satisfaction because they have an important effect on organisational commitment, turnover intentions and could influence human resource policies and practices (Armutlulu and Noyan, 2011). Mueller and Price (1990)'s empirical examination of the antecedents of the turnover intentions indicated that job satisfaction was less strongly correlated with turnover intention than with organisational commitment. In addition, path analysis indicated that job satisfaction did not directly influence turnover intentions. Michaels and Spector (1982) concluded that lack of job satisfaction and organisational commitment increased the possibility for employee turnover intentions and consequently led to increased turnover. Several studies have identified job satisfaction and organisational commitment as the principal antecedent of turnover intentions (Porter et al., 1974; Ohana and Meyer, 2011). However, it remains unclear which is the most important predictor of turnover intentions (Armutlulu and Noyan, 2011; Alniaik et al., 2011; Gieter et al., 2011).

Early comprehensive empirical research conducted by Porter and Steers (1973) and Muchinsky and Tuttle (1979) showed a negative relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions. Also, evidence indicated that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. In general, the longer the employees remained in their jobs, the stronger they were to report higher levels of job satisfaction, the lower the level of turnover intentions, on the other hand, the higher the level of job dissatisfaction the higher the intention to leave the organisation for other job conditions (Aghdasi et al., 2011; Alniacik et al., 2011; Kim and Brymer, 2011; Yucel and Bektas, 2012), thus, we hypothesize that:

H14: Job satisfaction will be negatively correlated to turnover intentions.

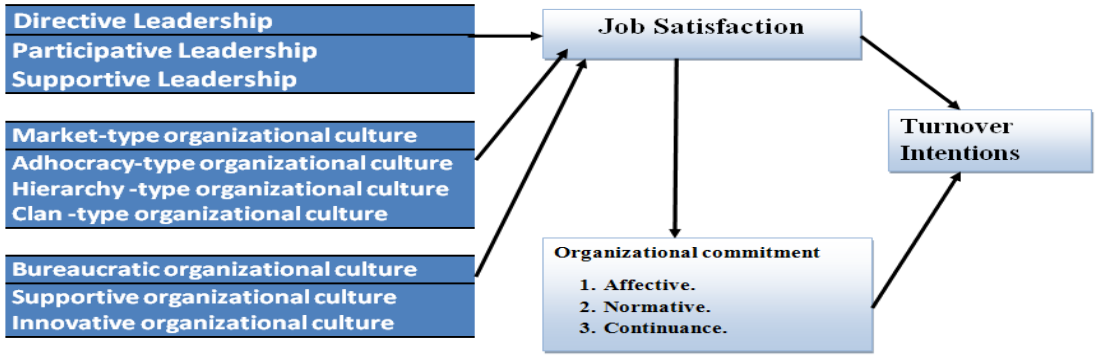
Various researchers examined the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions and found that a negative relationship between these two constructs (Mowday et al., 1979, 1982; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Schwepker, Jr, 2001; Wang and Law, 2002; Kim et al., 2005; Yang and Chang, 2008; Yang, 2010; Kim and Brymer, 2011). Carbery et al. (2003) applied a hierarchical regression analysis to a sample of 89 hoteliers and showed that individual affective commitment accounted for a significant amount of variance in turnover intentions, that job satisfaction did not explain managers' levels of commitment to a significant extent, and that job satisfaction and affective, but not continuance, commitment were important factors in predicting the turnover intentions of employees. These findings were also echoed by Iverson and Deery (1997), thus, we hypothesize that:

H15: Affective organisational commitment will be negatively correlated to turnover intentions.
H16: Normative organisational commitment will be negatively correlated to turnover intentions.
H17: Continuance organisational commitment will be positively correlated to turnover intentions.

Research questions and model of the study

1. Is there a significant relationship between leadership behaviour styles (directive, participative, and supportive) and employees' job satisfaction?
2. Is there a significant relationship between organisational culture (Market, clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, bureaucratic, supportive and innovative) and employees' job satisfaction?
3. Is there a significant relationship between employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance)?
4. Is there a significant relationship between organisational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance) and turnover intentions?
5. Is there a significant relationship between employees' job satisfaction and turnover intentions?

Model of the Study



Research Methodology

Sample and data collection

Survey data was collected from the employees of a large construction organization. As a matter of fact, 700 questionnaires were distributed randomly among the entire employees. Also, the entire respondents were selected randomly from a database related to the host company. Where, 455 questionnaires were returned and were useful for our analyses (no missing values), resulting in a 65 per cent response rate. 45.3 per cent of the sample was male and 54.7 per cent of the sample was female. By the way, the age of the employees ranged from 20 years to less than

50 years. 55.4 per cent of the sample ranged from 20 years to less than 30 years, 42 per cent of the sample ranged from 30 years to less than 40 years and 2.6 per cent of the sample ranged from 40 years to less than 50 years, Furthermore, their work experience was ranged from three years less than five years. Finally, 79.6 per cent were a university graduate and 20.4 per cent holds a master degree, and their monthly salary was above 4000 Egyptian pound.

Measures

A questionnaire survey was used to obtain measures of leadership behaviour style, organisational culture, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. All of the scales were translated from English into Arabic using the double translation method. A pilot study based on 40 returned questionnaires showed that respondents were clear about the content of the questions and instructions. Thus no change was necessary for the questionnaire to be used in the main study. The reliability and validity for Egyptian use were established using the sample from the pilot study as well as the final one.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument used in this study comprised six established scales. The measure of leadership behaviour style was adapted from House (1971) and House and Dessler (1974), which in turn was partially based on the earlier work of Fleishman (1975) and Stogdill (1963). It consists of three dimensions: directive; participative; and supportive. The instrument comprises 13 items, with four items assigned to both directive and supportive leadership behaviour style. On the other hand, five items assigned to participative leadership behaviour style. This measure of leadership behaviour style has been widely used in the marketing literatures and considered a good measure of employees' perception of leadership behaviour style (Teas, 1981; Kohli, 1989; Harris and Ogbonna, 2001). The second is related to Deshpande et al.'s (1993) who developed the competing values framework of organisational culture typology in terms of four dimensions: clan; adhocracy; hierarchy; and market. The instrument showed its applicability in the marketing context. The third is related to Wallach's (1983) organisational culture index (OCI) that describes organisational culture in terms of three dimensions: bureaucratic; innovative; and supportive. The instrument comprises 24 items, with eight items assigned to each of the three dimensions of organisational culture. The fourth is related to job satisfaction developed by Hackman and Oldham (1974, 1975); Dubinsky et al. (1986); Hartline and Ferrell (1996); and Sohi et al. (1996). The fifth is related to organisational commitment (OCQ) adapted from Mowday et al. (1982) in terms of three dimensions: affective; normative; and continuance. The instrument comprises 18 items, with six items assigned to each of the three dimensions of organisational commitment. The sixth is related to turnover intentions adapted from Mitchel (1981); Good et al. (1992, 1996); Keaveney (1992); and Ganesan and Weitz (1996). All of the rating is accomplished on a five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) except the three dimensions of organisational culture. The rating of organisational culture is accomplished on a four-point scale ranging from does not describe my organisation (1) to describe my organisation most of the time (4).

Analysis and Results

The researchers used the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). The first statistical analysis to be performed was coefficient Cronbach's alpha to measure the internal reliability analyses to examine various scales. Reliabilities of these scales were as follows, directive

leadership 0.711, participative leadership 0.716, supportive leadership 0.758, bureaucratic organisational culture 0.839, innovative 0.820, supportive 0.776, market 0.672, adhocracy 0.854, clan 0.895, hierarchy 0.764, affective organisational commitment 0.857, normative 0.817, continuance 0.800, job satisfaction 0.946 and turnover intentions 0.915. On the other side, discriminate validity was measured by using Chi-square test. Based on the results of the chi-square analysis, the researchers found that all of the variables were valid. Furthermore, Table (1) and (2) will illustrate the correlation between the variables under investigation.

s	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Directive	1										
2	Participative	0.068	1									
3	Supportive	0.170**	0.297**	1								
4	Market	0.040	0.001	0.146**	1							
5	Adhocracy	-0.217**	0.223	-0.055	0.143**	1						
6	Clan	-0.037	0.159**	-0.052	0.070	0.205**	1					
7	Hierarchy	-0.271**	0.078	-0.109*	0.102	0.320**	0.165**	1				
8	Bureaucratic	0.007	0.167**	-0.009	0.259**	0.002	0.104*	0.597**	1			
9	Innovative	0.085	0.092	0.083	0.123**	0.435**	0.194**	0.288**	0.295**	1		
10	Supportive	-0.221**	0.137**	0.080	0.325**	0.281**	0.109*	0.467**	0.626**	0.479**	1	
11	Job satisfaction	0.048	0.142**	0.270**	-0.083	-0.083**	-0.089	-0.258**	-0.184**	-0.049	-0.142**	1

Table (1) Correlation Coefficient between leadership behaviour style, organisational culture and job satisfaction.
Source: the researcher, based on data analysis

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

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

s	Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1	Affective commitment	1				
2	Normative commitment	-0.351**	1			
3	Continuance commitment	-0.325**	0.861**	1		
4	Job satisfaction	0.199**	-0.216**	-0.271**	1	
5	Turnover intentions	0.008	0.030	0.142**	-0.684**	1

Table (2) Correlation Coefficient between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions
Source: the researcher, based on data analysis

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

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

Evidence in table (1) showed that there was a significant positive relationship between participative leadership behaviour style and job satisfaction (r=0.142, P<0.1) and between supportive leadership behaviour style and job satisfaction (r=0.270, P<0.1). On the other hand, it was hypothesised a negative relationship between directive leadership and job satisfaction, however, evidence in table (1) showed a positive but not significant relationship between them(r=0.048, P>0.5). This implies that creating enhanced work environments that strengthen and supports leadership for employees are essential for accelerating job satisfaction. Consequently, boosting job satisfaction will ultimately lead to reduced turnover intentions, absenteeism, and role stress and will increase productivity and performance. Thus H1 was not supported, H2 and H3 were supported. Furthermore, results in table (1) showed that there was a negative relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction as market (r=0.083, P>0.5), adhocracy (r=0.023, P<0.1), clan (r=0.089, P>0.5), hierarchy (r=0.258, P<0.1), bureaucratic (r=0.184, P<0.1), innovative (r=0.049, P>0.5), and supportive (r=0.142, P<0.1). These results imply that job satisfaction levels varied significantly across organisational cultural typologies which can help management assess intrinsic strengths and weaknesses of their strategies. Several cultures have opposing values and emphasis; thus, managers' should be sensitive to the existence of these paradoxes of opposing values and be keen to direct them towards strategies that are more effective. Thus, H4 and H9 were supported, while *H5, H6, H7, H8, H10* were not supported.

Evidence in table (2) showed that there was a significant positive relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction (r=0.199, P<0.1). This implies that the employees' emotional attachment towards the organisation is very high. This was further confirmed with the significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (r=0.684, P<0.1). Thus, H11 and H14 were supported. However, results in table (2) showed that there was a significant negative relationship between both continuance and normative commitment and job satisfaction as (r=0.216, P<0.1) and (r=0.271, P<0.1) respectively. This implies that they feel obligated to continue and to remain with the organisation as they need to do so due to their awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. This idea was further confirmed by the results of organisational commitment and turnover intentions as there is a significant positive relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction (r=0.142, P<0.1) and a positive but not significant between both affective and normative commitment and job satisfaction (r=0.008, P>0.5) and (r=0.030, P>0.5) respectively. Thus, H13 and H14 were supported and H12, H15, H16 and H17 were not supported

Variables		B	Beta	T	Sig of T	Classification
Constant		3.70				
1	Directive	-0.143	-0.119	-2.392	0.017	Significant influence.
2	Participative	0.145	0.196	4.056	0.000	Significant influence.
3	Supportive	0.247	0.190	4.029	0.000	Significant influence.
4	Market	-0.009	-0.012	-0.262	0.794	Insignificant influence.
5	Adhocracy	-0.234	-0.313	-5.516	0.000	Significant influence.
6	Clan	-0.022	-0.044	-0.986	0.325	Insignificant influence.
7	Hierarchy	-0.069	-0.107	-1.759	0.079	Insignificant influence.
8	Bureaucratic	-0.130	-0.167	-2.356	0.019	Significant influence.
9	Innovative	0.133	0.173	3.120	0.002	Significant influence.
10	Supportive	-0.037	-0.042	-0.635	0.526	Insignificant influence.
Multiple R		0.455				
R Square		0.207				
Adjusted R Square		0.189				
Significance of F		.000 (very significant)				
Table (3) regression analysis of leadership behaviour style, organisational culture and job satisfaction.						
Source: the researcher, based on data analysis						

As shown from table (3) that the multiple regression model equation is expressed as: Y = 3.750 - 0.143 directive + 0.145 participative + 0.247 supportive – 0.009 market – 0.234 adhocracy – 0.022 clan – 0.069 hierarchy – 0.130 bureaucratic +0.133 innovative – 0.037 supportive.

Evidence from table (3) showed that the adjusted R^2 of 0.189 indicates that 18.9 per cent of variance in the employee satisfaction towards their job can be explained by leadership behaviour style and organisational culture types. This is a statistically significant contribution, as indicated by the significant F change value for this line (0.000). The ANOVA table of indicates that the model as a whole is significant {F (10, 454) = 11.61), P < 0.0005}. In order to find out how well each of the variables contributes to the equation, the researchers used the stepwise regression. The results showed the first was supportive leadership, the second was adhocracy organisational culture type, the third was participative leadership, the fourth was bureaucratic organisational culture type, the fifth was innovative organisational culture type, and the sixth was directive leadership.

Variables		B	Beta	T	Sig of T	Classification
Constant		2.613				
1	Affective	0.047	0.033	0.683	0.495	Insignificant influence.
2	Continuance	0.750	0.453	5.026	0.000	Significant influence.
3	Normative	-0.618	-0.349	-3.827	0.000	Significant influence.
Multiple R		0.233				
R Square		0.054				
Adjusted R Square		0.048				
Significance of F		.000 (very significant)				
Table (4) regression analysis of organisational commitment and turnover intentions.						
Source: the researcher, based on data analysis						

As shown from table (4) that the multiple regression model equation is expressed as: Y = 2.613 + 0.047 affective + 0.750 continuance – 0.618 normative.

Evidence from table (4) showed that the adjusted R^2 of 0.048 indicates that 4.8 per cent of variance in turnover intentions can be explained by organisational commitment dimensions. This is a statistically significant contribution, as indicated by the significant F change value for this line (0.000). The ANOVA table of indicates that the model as a whole is significant {F (3, 454) = 8.631), P < 0.0005}. In order to find out how well each of the variables contributes to the equation, the researchers used the stepwise regression. The results showed the first was continuance commitment followed by the second one normative commitment. Affective commitment did not make any contribution.

	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment	Turnover intentions
Multiple R	0.199	0.271	0.216	0.684
R Square	0.040	0.074	0.047	0.468
Adjusted R Square	0.037	0.072	0.045	0.467
Significance of F	.000 (very significant)	.000 (very significant)	.000 (very significant)	.000 (very significant)
Table (5) regression analysis of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions.				
Source: the researcher, based on data analysis				

As shown from table (5) that the multiple regression model equation of affective commitment is expressed as: Y = 2.494 + 0.297 job satisfaction.
As shown from table (5) that the multiple regression model equation of continuance commitment is expressed as: Y = 4.401 - 0.342 job satisfaction.
As shown from table (5) that the multiple regression model equation of normative commitment is expressed as: Y = 4.351 -0.255 job satisfaction.
As shown from table (5) that the multiple regression model equation of turnover intentions is expressed as: Y = 8.153 – 1.429 job satisfaction.

Evidence from table (5) showed that the adjusted R^2 of 0.037 indicates that 3.7 per cent of variance in affective commitment can be explained by job satisfaction. Furthermore, the adjusted R^2 of 0.072 indicates that 7.2 per cent of variance in continuance commitment can be explained by job satisfaction. Also, the adjusted R^2 of 0.045 indicates that 4.5 per cent of variance in normative commitment can be explained by job satisfaction. In addition, the adjusted R^2 of 0.467 indicates that 46.7 per cent of variance in turnover intentions can be explained by job satisfaction. This is a statistically significant contribution, as indicated by the significant F change value for this line (0.000). The ANOVA table of indicates that the model as a whole is significant; as for the affective commitment {F (1, 454) = 18.632), P < 0.0005}; as for the continuance commitment {F (1, 454) = 35.967), P < 0.0005}; as for the normative commitment {F (1, 454) = 22.268), P < 0.0005}; and as for the turnover intentions {F (1, 454) = 399.091), P < 0.0005}.

Checking the Methodological Assumptions

A number of assumptions should be checked before conducting any analysis on the data,

Normality of the error:

The first assumption is the normality of the error. Normality means that the residuals (residuals are the differences between the obtained and the predicted dependent variable

scores), as a measure of the error, should be normally distributed with a mean of zero and constant variance. This has been checked by inspecting the histograms of the residuals of each sample. There should be almost a straight line (roughly), not a curve (the residuals should have a straight line relationship with predicted dependent variable values). By inspecting the residuals scatter plot and the normal probability plot of the regression standardized residuals for the samples, it was obvious that all points are lying in a reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right. This would suggest no major deviations from normality.

Linearity:

The second assumption is linearity. It means that the relationship between the dependent and independent variables should be linear. This can be verified by looking at a scatter plot of the residuals against predicted values. The scatter plot of the standardised residuals should show a roughly rectangular distribution, with most of the scores concentrated in the centre (along the 0 point). This is the case with this data and there is no clear or systematic pattern to the residuals and the linear relation is significant.

Homoskedasticity:

The third assumption is homoskedasticity, which means that the variability in errors (the residuals) for variable X should be similar at all values of variable Y. This has been checked by looking at the scatter plot of the residuals, which should show a fairly even cigar shape along its length, which is also the case for the data; therefore, it is assumed that the variance of the error term is constant and that there is no violation of this assumption in our model.

Autocorrelation:

The fourth assumption is the need to avoid autocorrelation, which means that the residuals should be independent. One way to test the autocorrelation of the residuals is a Durbin-Watson test. This statistic range is from 1-4 and if there is no autocorrelation among our variables this figure should be around 2, this is the case in the data as shown in the following table (6):

Variables	Durbin-Watson test values
Leadership behaviour style, organisational culture and job satisfaction	2.372
Organisational commitment and turnover intentions	2.044
Job satisfaction and affective commitment	1.629
Job satisfaction and continuance commitment	1.337
Job satisfaction and normative commitment	1.118
Job satisfaction and turnover intentions	1.726

Table (6) summary of Durbin-Watson Values

Multicollinearity

The fifth assumption is multicollinearity. Tests of multicollinearity were performed to assure independence of the variables. The correlation matrices of the independent variables were examined for evidence of multicollinearity problems. Although there are several significant relationships among the Pearson correlation coefficients, none of them is sufficiently high enough to suggest multicollinearity. In addition, SPSS performs "Collinearity Diagnostics"

on the variables, the value labelled "Tolerance" helps us to judge if we suffer multicollinearity or not. Tolerance is calculated by the formula 1 – R^2 for each variable. If this value is very low (near 0), then this indicates that the multiple correlation with other variables is high suggesting the possibility of multicollinearity. Neither the tolerance (TOL) for each variable nor the variance inflation factor (VIF) shows signs of material multi-collinearity. This refers to the relationship among the independent variables. Multicollinearity exists when the independent variables are highly correlated (r = 0.9 and above) (Pallant, 2001). Moreover, the VIF (variance inflation factor) column was checked to make sure that all values are below 10, which suggests no multicollinearity as shown in table (7). This can also be reinforced by the levels of correlation coefficients between the independent variables which are acceptable. For such type of social studies, it is not unusual to have some insignificant multicollinearity among the research variables. Therefore, it is assumed that there is no severe multicollinearity among the independent variables. This is the case in the data as shown in the following table (7)

Variables	Tolerance	VIF
Directive leadership	0.723	1.383
Participative leadership	0.762	1.313
Supportive leadership	0.807	1.240
Market	0.812	1.232
Adhocracy	0.556	1.799
Clan	0.911	1.098
Hierarchy	0.481	2.080
Bureaucratic	0.357	2.803
Innovative	0.597	1.728
Supportive	0.411	2.435

Table (7) Multicollinearity statistics Diagnostics Tests of employee.
Dependent variable: job satisfaction

Variables	Tolerance	VIF
Affective commitment	0.875	1.143
Continuance commitment	0.258	3.881
Normative commitment	0.253	3.958

Table (8) Multicollinearity statistics Diagnostics Tests of employee.
Dependent variable: turnover intentions

Discussion and Conclusion

The main aim of the research is to fill the preceding gap in the literature by introducing the first empirical investigation of the impact of leadership behaviour style and organisational culture on employees' job satisfaction and the relationship between employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Using Pearson correlation and multiple linear regressions provide unique insight results as illustrated into number of areas that will be illustrated. The unique quality of this study lies in providing evidence to make helpful recommendations for future practices.

Consistent with researchers' expectation, it was found that there is a positive relationship between leadership behaviour style and employees' job satisfaction. Both participative and

supportive behaviour styles were highly significant. A possible reason for these findings is that the term "leadership" has recently became highly relevant in the Egyptian industry especially after the 25th of January as the Egyptian revolution played a central role in reshaping the leaders' role to be more supportive, participative, sympathetic, amicable, and considerate of employees' needs. Employees learn the organisations' acceptable ethical standards by observing their leaders' actions and behaviours (Kim and Brymer, 2011). Ethical leadership is more than good behaviour; it is the key factor that contributes to the organisation's long-term success. Leaders who are fair, considerate, open, sincere, and honest play a critical role in enhancing their employees' job satisfaction. Another possible reason for the insignificance of the directive leadership behaviour style is that employees' capabilities are high in the organisation compared to the job demands; thus, the supervisor direction and telling them exactly what they are supposed to do is not as appreciated as they believe in themselves and in their contributions to develop an increased self-efficacy to achieve their work role that can really make a difference in the organisation. Furthermore, the congruence between the employees' goals and the organisations' goals leads to a high motivation to achieve those goals and enhances their perception of the usefulness of the path they have to tread in order to meet those goals. If an employee see a specific pathway to attain a specific goal and all barriers were removed, the employee will opt for that specific path immediately. Another possible reason is the different perspectives of those employees, which results in different judgements about the extent to which the same leadership behaviour is supportive; or they may have different levels of contact with the immediate leaders or the same leader may treat employees in the group differently. These are called dyad leader-follower relationships. Perhaps the most critical step is for the leaders to become customer experts themselves. These finding are consistent with previous studies such as those of Locke and Latham (1990), Brown and Peterson (1993), Podsakoff et al. (1993), Netemeyer et al. (1997), Carless (2005), Erdogan and Bauer (2005), Wan (2007), Vasconcelos (2008), Salimaki et al. (2009), Schyns et al. (2009) and Yiing and Ahmad (2009).

Organisational culture types have less pervasive effects than expected on job satisfaction. Only two (H4 and H9) of the seven hypotheses relationship were supported. Consistent with researchers' expectation, it was found that there is a highly significant relationship between bureaucratic type and hierarchal type of organisational culture and employees' job satisfaction. A possible reason for these findings is the existence of high power distance values and a bureaucratic culture in Egypt is well acknowledged. Owners and executives are on top of any bureaucratic structure. Direction and orders tend to be top-down and there is little delegation and empowerment. On the contrary, this is generally the reverse in western firms. Bureaucratic structure and rules mainly used to coordinate activities and reporting purposes. Egyptians see bureaucracy as ownership, control and centralised decision making. Employees must follow instructions without questions. Contrary to the researchers' expectation, it was hypothesised a positive relationship between clan culture and employees' job satisfaction, but the results supported a negative but not significant relationship between them. A possible reason for this finding may be that the employees feel unsafe, lack a very high degree of trust, and weak communication and brainstorming sessions, that are utilised to generate, organise and share knowledge. Furthermore, it was hypothesised a positive relationship between innovative, supportive and adhocracy organisational culture type and employees' job satisfaction, but the results supported a negative and significant relationship between employees' job satisfaction and both supportive and adhocracy organisational culture type and a negative but not significant in innovative organisational culture. A possible reason for these findings is that

change is observed as more and more civil servants are competing with contractors for their jobs and winning as part of the competitive sourcing effort. Management is reluctant to make changes for fear that they may not realise a return for their expenditure. Because the common attitude in Egyptian culture has always been "if it worked in the past it will continue to do so in the future", job satisfaction is less than optimal and there is increasing criticism concerning some supervisory and management practices. Organisations should not engage in any change with the aim to achieve cultural congruence. The aim needs to be adaptation to the external environment. Highly complex environments may require cultures that are flexible enough to adapt to environmental conditions. Congruent cultures, which force the various dimensions of culture toward one dominant culture, may not satisfy this requirement (Denison, 1990). To sum up, in a global environment characterised by increasing cultural diversity and complexity, organisational survival may depend on the capacity of organisations to promote the creation of structures that enable the adaptability with the environmental changes depending on their needs and strategies, facilitate self-managing teams, assign duties, plan and schedule work, make production or service-oriented decisions, and take action on problems. Consistent with researcher's expectation and previous studies (Cameron and Quinn, 1999; Goodman, 2001; Lund, 2003; and Trivellas and Dargenidou, 2009), it was found that there is a negative but not significant relationship between market culture and employees' job satisfaction. A possible reason for this result is that managers pride themselves on being reliable, effective and efficient coordinators and organisers who facilitate smooth-flowing production (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). It would be against all evidence to assume that Egyptian top managers and top bureaucrats were somehow all backward, stupid, uneducated, and simply unfamiliar with modernity or techniques necessary to conduct a coherent process of reform. While errors occur everywhere in policy-making, the level of 'errors' that occurred in Egypt and other dictatorial countries where regimes try to make the best of externally induced economic reforms that could no longer be avoided forbids such naive assumptions (Nasr, 2009). On the contrary, they are much more experienced than their Western counterparts (who come to train them) in the logic of ensuring private interests and socialising losses according to the neo-patrimonial rules of a primarily political, not economic game. A possible reason that might be considered also as a contribution is the culture effect; as Humphreys (1996) argued, differences in work-related values are the result of an underlying difference in culture. This does not mean that expertise, knowledge and practice cannot be transferred into another culture, but rather that they must be sensitive to the corresponding culture. It is unwise to assume that the management theories and practices developed in the West will be appropriate to and applicable in Egypt (Brown and Humphreys, 1996). Bureaucratic organisations tend to be very efficient and effective, while they are well controlled, and rather inevitably governed by stiff rules and procedures. Even though bureaucratic organisations are designed with the aim of enhancing effectiveness and efficiency, they are characterised by a number of disadvantages such as inflexibility, conservative, lateness in decision-making, inability to deal with technological change, dissatisfaction among staff members due to the lack of a "soft side" or "human face", promotions based on seniority, rather than performance and competence, and finally, the existence of "red tape", which creates problems such as obstructing creativity and innovation and reducing motivation. Consistent with researchers' expectation, it was found that there is a positive and significant relationship between affective commitment and employees' job satisfaction and positive but not significant between affective commitment and turnover intentions. Contrary to the researcher' expectations it was found a negative and significant relationship between normative and continuance commitment and employees' job satisfaction and positive but not significant between normative

and continuance commitment and turnover intentions. A possible reason for these results is that the mismatch between employees' experience prior to entry and during employment in terms of familial culture and organisational socialisation, however they are emotionally attached. Organisations should be directed towards good hiring decisions with candidates who value customer satisfaction and service quality excellence and being trained intensively for the improvement of their technical and social skills. it was not surprising to find poorly organisational commitment and turnover intentions. The main reason why they ruin their business is that they are not aware of how to use the managerial tools to achieve high performance and to fulfil their objectives and goals. Overall, such organisations would not be able to achieve organisational goals, objectives and effectiveness. This would generate low morale, frustration, and stress in the employees. This issue is fascinating but a full investigation is beyond the scope of this study. Employees and people vary in their needs, wants and abilities just as jobs vary in their incentives and requirements. When there is a poor fit between the characteristics and demands of the employee and the relevant characteristics and demands of the job, there will be a decrease in the employee's well-being. This implies that employees with personality characteristics that matches and fit are congruent with their chosen vocations should find that they have the right talents and abilities to meet the demands of their jobs, are thus are more likely to be successful at, and satisfied with, their jobs. Last but not least, it was found a negative and significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This results implies that the higher the employees' satisfaction towards their job, the lower the intention to leave the organisation. A possible reason for this finding is that management are trying to increase the meaningful work by setting clear goals that do not contradict with the employee's values, beliefs and personal goals. Another way would be to make sure employees know how they fit into the big picture of the bank. Showing employees how their jobs fit into the big picture of the bank; showing employees how their jobs fit into the bank's aim and objectives and how the tasks they complete affect the outcomes of the bank may increase their perception of meaning.

Research limitations and direction for future research

The current study offers insights into the unique contribution and interesting relationships between the constructs under investigation and provides a clear understanding of the importance and critical role of job satisfaction. Nevertheless, the findings must be tempered by several limitations: first, although the use of quantitative methods alone relying on cross-sectional data as the only source of information in establishing and making causal statements about the hypothesized relationships between variables is considered valuable, it is however a weak method when attempting to identify the reasons for those relationships. Therefore, using quantitative research along with qualitative research such as focus group sessions, structured interviews, and other supplemental sources of data in the future will provide richer data and greatly support the research design and the findings to account for more rigorous tests of causality. The longitudinal studies might offset the disadvantages of cross-sectional research. Second, Most employees completed questionnaires during work hours, and therefore encountered interruptions in their job which in turn may have affected the quality and accuracy of their responses. Some employees were reluctant to complete their questionnaires, or even to participate at all for various reasons which in turn may have affected the responses of their colleagues. Third, this study was conducted in Egypt, and therefore, as often shown in this kind of research, there may be a number of possible problems related to cross-national or cultural research. Even though much care was taken in the translation of scale items, it cannot be

completely guaranteed that there is exact linguistic equivalence between the original scales and translated ones. Also, there exists some possibility of response biases occurring, such as acquiescence, social desirability, and leniency or passion effect. Egyptian people are more likely to have collectivistic cultural values than individuals from the west, which may produce some systematic biases in response to measures. However, despite possible problems, the researcher cannot find any reason to believe that the theoretical relationships assessed in the Egyptian sample here would be dissimilar to findings on these issues in other countries. Fourth, there may be concerns about the generalisability of these findings. It might be beneficial to obtain data from other types of companies in the same industry or even different industries to examine whether this model can be generalized. Overall, this research's measurement results were acceptable in terms of reliability and validity, but there is certainly a need for additional work to perfect measures. In addition, when employees know that they are being evaluated, they might perform better, which could produce the Hawthorne effect. However, the researcher did not believe these issues seriously affected the assessments of the hypothesized relationship in this study. Future research can be conducted to overcome these limitations.

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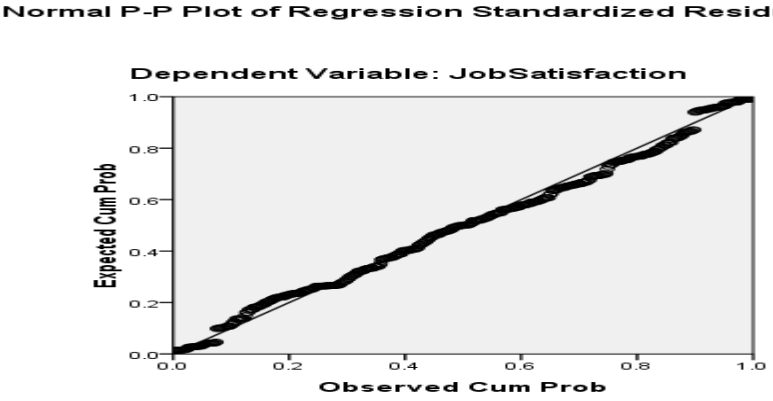
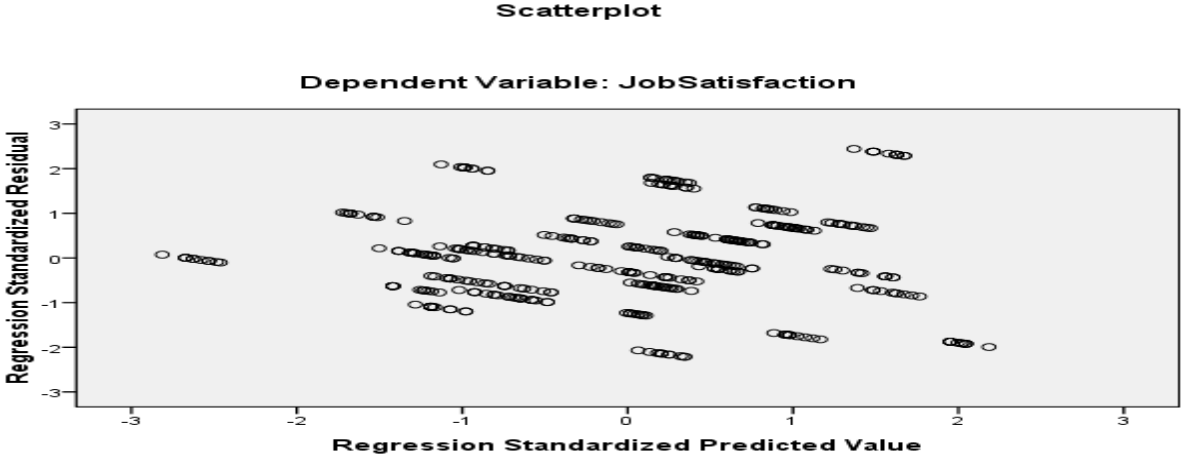
Appendices

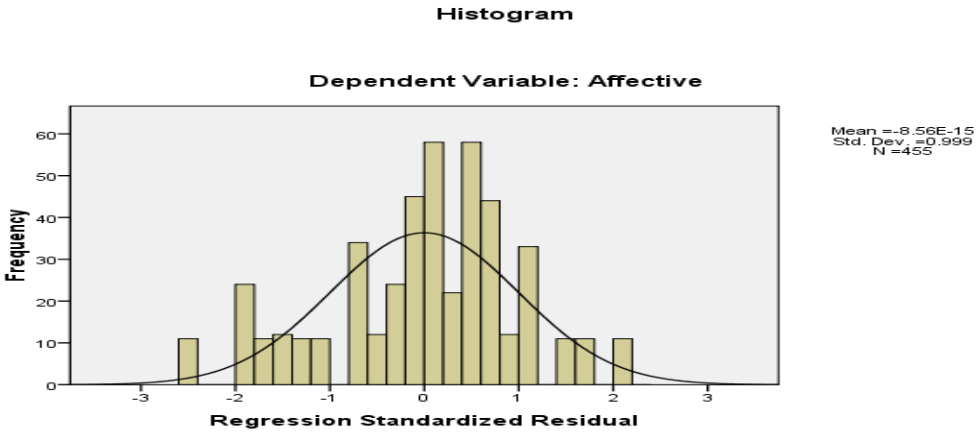
Regression of leadership behaviour style, organisational culture and job satisfaction

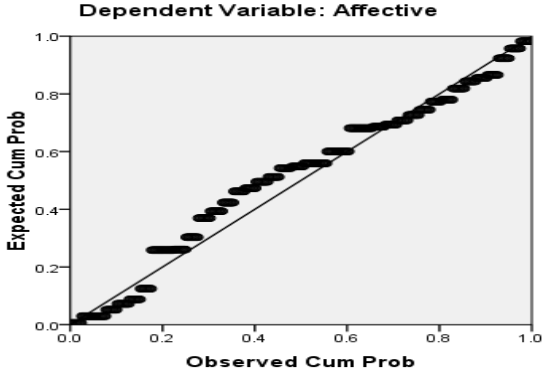
Charts

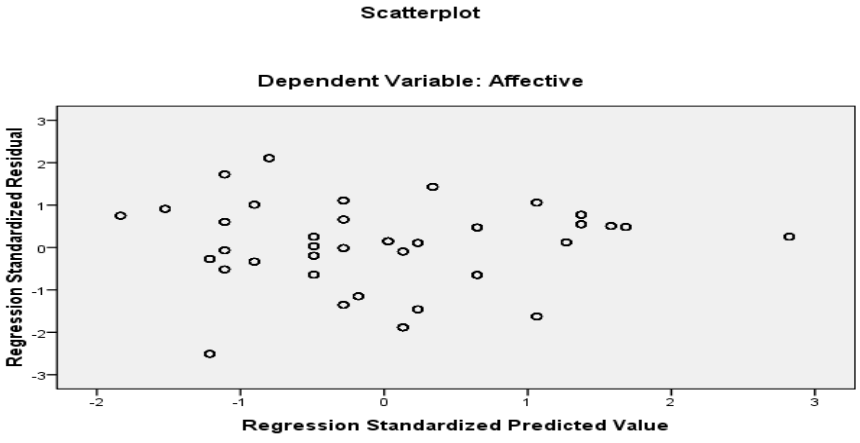




Regression of job satisfaction and affective commitment
Charts

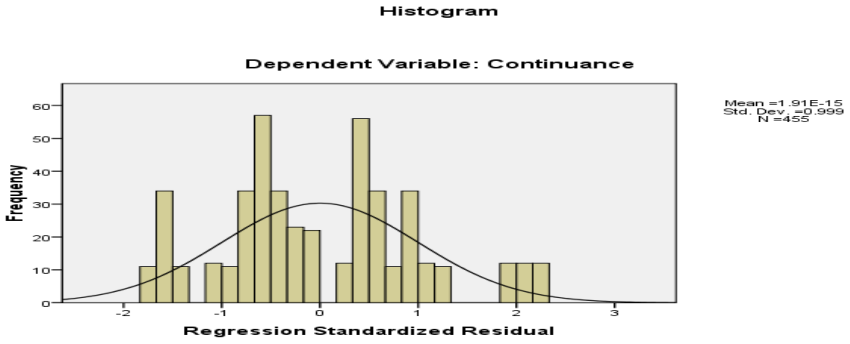


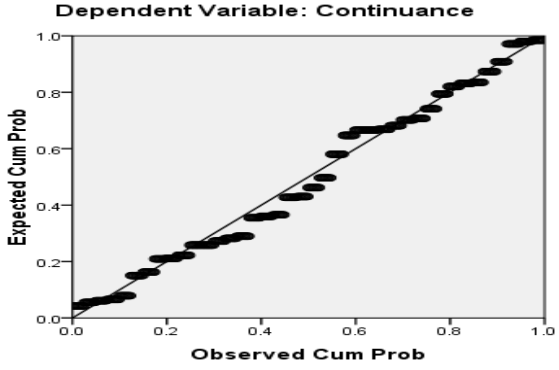


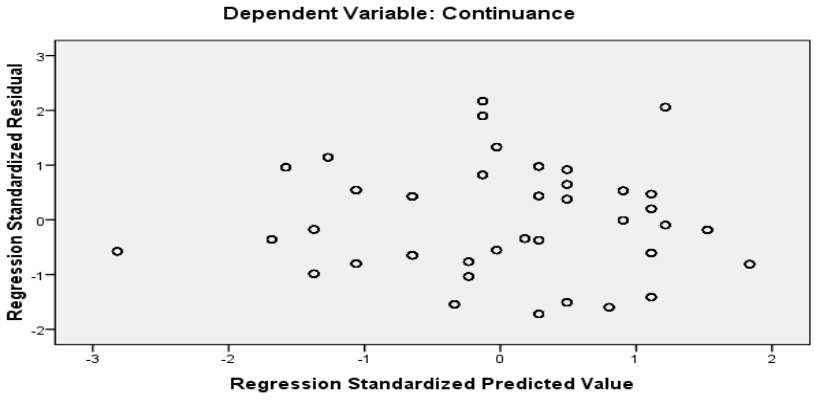


Regression of job satisfaction and continuance commitment

Charts

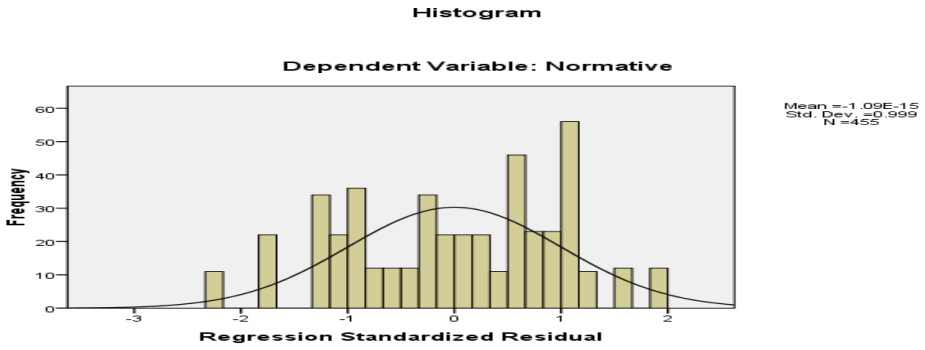


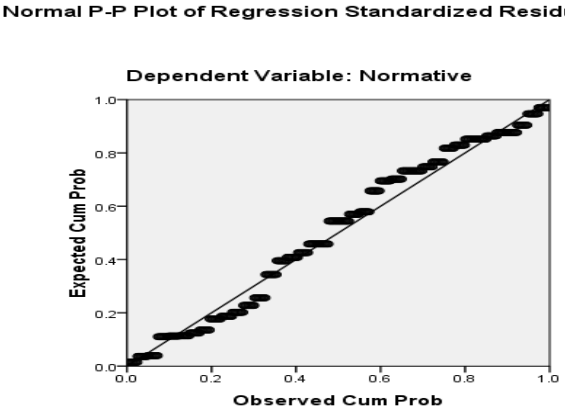


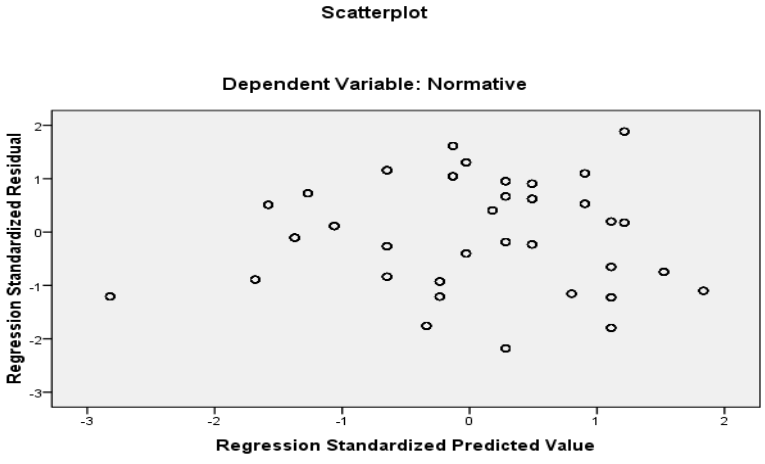


Regression of job satisfaction and normative commitment

Charts



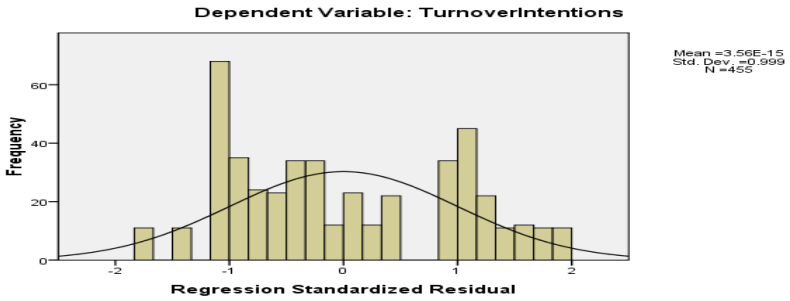




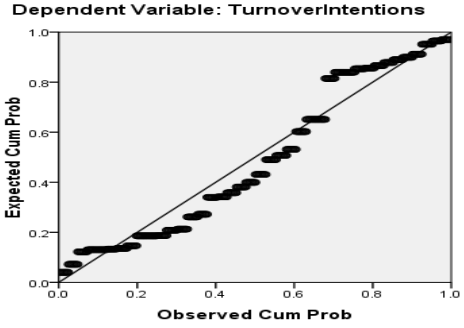
Regression of job satisfaction and turnover intentions

Charts

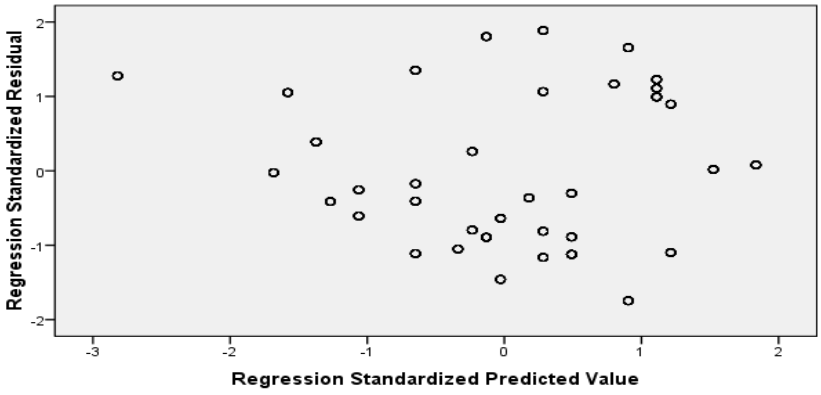
Histogram



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



Scatterplot



Regression of organisational commitment and turnover intentions

Charts

Histogram

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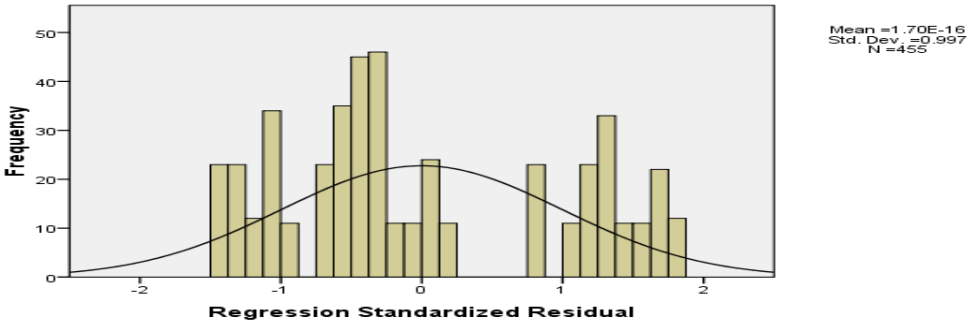
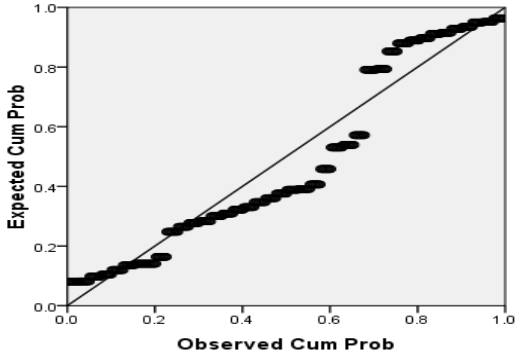


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: TurnoverIntentions



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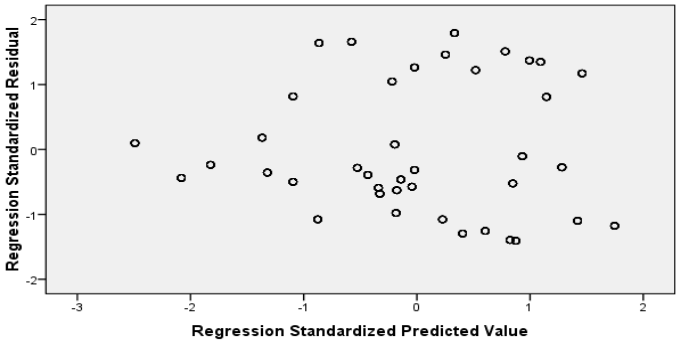
Dependent Variable: TurnoverIntentions