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MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP STYLE IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR IN
JORDAN

BY:
FUAD N. SHAIKH

A THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE PH.D DEGREE TO:
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES, GLASGOW BUSINESS
SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.

1988

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DEDICATION:

To MY:

Parents, wife, son , brothers and sisters

DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in this study has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualifications of this or any other university or other institution of learning.

The Author

ABSTRACT

This thesis consists of a study of the leadership performance among 114 top managers in 44 companies in Jordan, measured by their views on how organisational decisions should be taken and their actual performance in decision taking. The companies concerned represent organisations operating in both the manufacturing and in the financial sector in the private sector in the Jordanian economy.

The general thesis of this research is that managerial styles of leadership may be as much influenced by culture and environment as by the skills, training and experience of those who hold top management positions. How far performance in different nations and cultures can be explained by general theories of leadership and management and how far top managers influence and are influenced by their cultural norms is a matter of considerable debate. Without additional empirical evidence derived specifically from Arab countries no general theory can be accepted as providing adequate explanations of management performance in these societies.

The research is therefore designed as a contribution to the existing research on management in these countries on

the basis of which proposals can be made both for the future management development of executives and for further research intended to provide an effective base from which general theories of management in the Arab World might be developed.

The research was carried out by fieldwork during 1987 in Jordan. But the conclusions are also influenced by the author's own experience and his knowledge of related but unpublished research undertaken at some universities, including Glasgow University, by contemporaries.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I am most grateful to all those whose co-operation made this project possible. My first thanks are to all staff members of Glasgow Business school, Department of Management Studies and in particular to my supervisor, Professor David Weir, Head of the Department of Management Studies and to Mr. Robert Mair, previously of the University of Glasgow, for their encouragement, valuable comments and advice.

I am indebted to the respondents who were very patient and cooperative despite their heavy duties and responsibilities. I am also grateful to Mrs. Mary Latham for her help in preparing the data for the computer and familiarising me with the SPSSX.

I should also thank my colleagues in Jordan particularly Dr. Naim Nusair, Dr. Nael Awamleh and Mr. Ghazi Kana'an of Yarmouk University, Irbid for their comments and help in formulating and translating the questionnaire into the Arabic and re-translating into the English. I should also like to thank my colleagues in the Doctoral programme in Glasgow whose support and criticism were very constructive.

Ady, my lovely son, deserves special recognition and love, who gave me relief after long days of hard work.

Above all, it has been the patience, encouragement and understanding of my wife, Sawsan, that has made this venture possible.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1. Background

Over the past thirty years, substantial numbers of management scholars, economists, and industrial scientists have been involved in an argument about whether management follows or precedes economic and social development.¹ Regardless of whether management is a result or a cause of development, developing countries have no choice where to start but to work simultaneously on both aspects.

Jordan, as a developing country with meagre natural resources is in need of developing one of its most important resources: human capital. Probably managers are the most important group of human capital that needs to be developed. This is because they are the change initiator influencing all people in the country. Peter Drucker writes on the importance of managers " It can be said without too much oversimplification that there are no underdeveloped countries. There are only undermanaged ones".²

In line with the above reasoning, the need for well-equipped managers is very critical for any country. Organisations are becoming larger and more complex, markets are becoming complicated, environmental pressures are increasing day by day. All these factors put

increasing pressures on organisations to invest in the human capital. Kerr et al maintain:

" The managers of enterprises, public and private, and their technical and professional associates are part of every industrializing elite. They are crucial to the success of any industrialization effort. Their policies and practices have far-flung influence in shaping the labor problems which emerge in industrializing societies".³

Obviously the above applies to those at the apex of organisations more than anybody else. Therefore, "Top Managers" are the centre of this study. "Top Managers" are defined in this study similarly to the definition used by Stewart. They are those who are on the board of directors or who report to the managing director. To distinguish them from middle managers, the latter are those below the first level who have other managers or highly paid specialist reporting to them, or who are graded as "middle management" by their companies.⁴

"Top Managers" were chosen as the subject of this study for several reasons. Foremost among these are:

- (1) "Top Managers" have the greatest power in the organisation. They are responsible for the entire organisation or for a large segment of it.
- (2) "Top Managers" have an impact on all employees in the organisation, and on the community or society in general. The nature of their positions at the top of

socio-economic units and as leaders of many workers make their social and economic roles very crucial. Hence, it can be stated that one of the most important factors that determines the firm's ability to reach its objectives is the quality of "Top Managers". In this regard Harbison and Myers maintain:

"In the hierarchy of management, the organization builder has a crucial role. He may be the owner of the business a professional manager, or a government official. In any case, he is the top manager who builds the hierarchy. He is the keystone in the arch of management: he cannot be separated from his organization but is fused with it. His function is to establish the conditions under which the other members of management can achieve their own personal goals through performing the tasks which they are assigned in the organisation as it achieves its goals".⁵

As Jordan is a free country, in terms of its economic policy, and because the government has been taking substantial moves toward more involvement of the private sector in the economy, "Top Managers" in the private sector are playing and will continue to play a pivotal role in shaping the future of the country. Hence, "Top Managers" in the private sector are the subjects in this study.

2. The Assumptions To Be Tested

The study hypothesizes that because "Top Managers" in Jordan operate and live in an environment different from

the environments in other countries, they are likely to have distinctive characteristics. Despite the fact that the country (Jordan) has lots of similarities with the other Arab countries, the differences in recent history, social, political and economic systems have also some influence on Jordanians.

Based on the above, the study assumes that there are some reasons for the differences. Hence, examining these reasons and explaining how they affect "Top Managers" will also be attempted in this study. However, it must be stressed here that the study does not rule out the existence of similarities between respondents and their counterparts in other countries. The reasons for these similarities and their impact on managerial practices are examined in some depth.

The study hypothesizes that even though the Jordanian "Top Manager" is put under many pressures from different sources in the environment, he is expected to be rational as a leader for his organisation. Put simply, because some of his interests and the interest of the organisation are mutual, he is likely to be highly concerned about his organisation and profession.

3. Existing Data and Literature and Need for the Study

This study examines the data and literature available on "Top Managers", their roles, leadership styles, and

relationship with their environments. A careful reading of the literature reveals that most researchers tend to belong to one of two major schools of thought attempting to explain the behaviour of managers. On one side, is the "universal school", which argues that since managers are doing the same thing, their behaviour is similar, regardless of the country in which they operate. On the other side, the "cultural school" claims that the culture of managers is one of the most important factors that determine their behaviour.

A scrutiny of management literature reveals the following points:

- (1) The bulk of studies were done on managers in the developed/industrialised countries. Hence, a large part of the world is excluded.
- (2) Even studies conducted in developing countries were not all based on pure empirical research, but on general observations of the cultures of the countries studied. In addition, many of these studies depended heavily on the impressions of the writers.
- (3) Authors of many studies conducted in developing countries are inclined to generalise or draw their findings to other countries that have similar cultural background, such as similarity of language, religion, and history.

The present study takes the stand that neither the

universal school nor the cultural school suffice to explain and understand the behaviour of managers. Therefore, this study suggests that the literature available has some gaps that need to be filled if generalisations are to be made about the validity of the universal or the cultural school in explaining managerial practices. Therefore, the present study investigates the style of managers in a developing country which shares cultural similarities with twenty one other countries. It has also similarities, such as the level of industrialisation and economic development, with a large number of countries around the world.

If this study satisfies its objectives, it should be helpful in seeing whether cultural differences are in general very important or have little value, in explaining differences in managerial thinking. This study also attempts to compare the results with studies conducted on other Arab countries. If managers' thinking in Jordan is similar to that of their counterparts in other countries, then it will be a step forward in testing the claim that there is a "style" of management that is specific to the Middle East. By contrast, if results were different it would be easier to conclude that subcultures also influence managerial philosophy and practices. Indeed, this study has the assumption that the Jordanian "Top Manager" is influenced by both his environment including the culture, and by his experiences inside and outside the country.

If the foregoing expectations stand, this implies that they contradict many previous studies which tended to prescribe the same remedy for management problems in all Middle Eastern countries. Therefore, the findings of this study can be considered at the very least a more precise diagnosis of problems of "Top Management" in Jordan. This in turn will be helpful to identify the right solutions for problems encountered, which will also enhance our ability to develop "Top Managers". This would not only enhance the performance and efficiency of our respondents, but would also have a greater impact on organisations managed by those "Top Managers".

4. Limitations of the Study

The study has the following limitations:

- (1) Most of the questions included are based on a five-point scale. This implies that respondents are forced to choose one of the five choices provided which may not reflect his opinion accurately.
- (2) The assignment of values for each of the five alternative answers on the scale may be subjective and yield inaccuracies.
- (3) The use of personal interview may sensitise the respondents' answers. This may be the result of the interviewer's influence on the interviewees.

However, the use of the other additional techniques can help to offset some of the problems mentioned above.

5. Structure of the Study

To cover the points discussed earlier in this chapter the thesis consists of several chapters. After this introductory chapter which is aimed at familiarising the reader with the importance of this study, its objectives, structure, and limitations the study consists of the following chapters:

Chapter Two examines the environment in which management operates. A brief account of the country, its people social structure, economy, business environment and manpower characteristics are included in this chapter.

Chapter Three reviews theories of leadership and management style to provide a theoretical framework for the study. It also points out the deficiencies and misconceptions in the literature about management and managerial behaviour especially in Arab countries.

Chapter Four covers the different designs and methods available for the researcher and justifies the methodology used in the light of the objectives of the study.

Chapter Five is the first chapter that relies on the data gathered. Descriptions of "Top Managers", including background characteristics, age, education, number of years in positions, their training, professional membership ..etc. are covered in this chapter.

Chapter Six analyses the respondents' attitudes to leadership by looking at four categories of attitudes: leadership and initiative, sharing information and

objectives, participation, and locus of control.

Chapter Seven analyses respondents' decision-making approach/es and correlates them with their attitudes as expressed in the previous chapter. It also investigates whether the Jordanian "Top Manager" uses different approaches in different situations or for different decisions.

Chapter Eight looks at "Top Managers'" affiliation to some groups and investigates why certain groups are more important than others, and how that affects managerial practices.

Chapter Nine is the final analysis chapter. It examines the relationship between respondents and the environment and how this relationship influences or puts pressures on them as "Top Managers". It also examines the implications of this relationship for the role of the "Top Managers" in Jordan.

Chapter Ten The final chapter in this study includes a summary of the findings and conclusions based on these findings. It also includes some implications for parties who might have an interest in the study. Finally, it offers some suggestions for future research.

Notes

- (1) See for example: Peter Drucker, "Management New Role", Harvard Business Review, Vol.47, November-December 1969, pp.49-54; Fred Riggs, Administration in Developing countries, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964 ; S. B. Prasad and Ananti Neghandi, Managerialism for Economic Development, The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1968; Jamil E. Jreisat, "Administrative Reform in Developing Countries: A Comparative Perspective", Public Administration and Development, Vol.18, No.1, 1988, PP.85-97.
- (2) Peter Drucker, op.cit., p.51.
- (3) Clark Kerr, John Dunlop, Fredrick Harbison and Charles Myers, Industrialism and Industrial Man, London: Heinemann, 1962, p.133.
- (4) Rosemary Stewart, Managers and their Jobs, London: Macmillan, 1967, p.166.
- (5) Fredrick Harbison and Charles Myers, Management in the Industrial World, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959, p.16.

Chapter Two

Jordan: Its Background and Environment

1. Introduction

The management of any organisation should recognise the need for it to be aware of the environment in which it operates. Such a need is becoming very critical as organisations' objectives are very much influenced by the constraints and opportunities available in a specific country.

In fact, understanding the environment of management in developing countries is even more important. It is so because the social life and careers of people in these countries are not separate. This also applies to Jordan and to all other Arab countries, where social and cultural values are not only very much interwoven with work values, but with all aspects of life.

Based on the above, this chapter attempts to introduce the country in which this study is conducted. Understanding the environment will prepare the framework for a better understanding of management and leadership prevailing in this part of the world. Therefore, a brief review of the history, geography, population, manpower characteristics, social and cultural environment will be made. Such an understanding will enable us to come up with some idea about what kind of person the Jordanian "Top Manager" is likely to be. Finally, bearing in mind

these characteristics, and the personal characteristics and experiences of "Top Managers", some general assumptions about "Top Managers" who are the subjects of this study will be made.

2. Recent History

The history of Jordan goes back several thousand years. Archaeological evidence has shown that Jordan was inhabited by several civilisations. The kingdoms of Gilead, Moab, and Nabateans all took Jordan or parts of it as their homes. In AD 636. Jordan became part of the Islamic Empire and it was governed at different times from several places such as Damascus, Baghdad and Cairo.¹

The history of modern Jordan begins with the drive to rid the country of Turkish rule. Until the First World War the area was part of the Ottoman Empire, and Jordan was part of Great Syria (Belad Al-Sham). In an attempt to obtain independence from the Ottoman Empire Sherif Hussein proclaimed the Arab Revolt against Turkish rule in June 1916. By the end of the First World War nearly all of current Jordan was in Arab hands. However, Jordan's fate had already been determined by outside forces. By the terms of the Sykes-Picot Agreement of May 1916, Britain and France divided Great Syria into four areas (What is presently known as Syria, Trans-Jordan, Palestine and Lebanon). In 1918 Syria and Lebanon came under French colonisation, whereas Trans-Jordan and Palestine came under British Mandate.²

In March 1921 Prince Abdullah, the grandfather of the present king (Hussein), established a principedom in Trans-Jordan but Britain remained the mandatory power. In May 1923 the British Government formally recognised the independent government of Trans-Jordan under Prince Abdullah. However, Jordan did not achieve its full independence from the British mandate until 1946. In that year Jordan became known as the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan.³

In 1948 the Arab-Israeli war resulted in the creation of Israel, and the East Bank of the Jordan River received around 350.000 refugees. In 1950 the West Bank was united with the East Bank of the Jordan and the population of the new state grew by another 460.000 persons.

King Abdullah was assassinated in Jerusalem in 1951. Immediately after his assassination, his son Talal was proclaimed King. However, due to king Talal's incapacity he was exempted and king Hussein was proclaimed Monarch in 1952.⁴ The Arab-Israeli war in 1967 resulted in the fall of the West Bank into Israeli occupation.

3. Geographical and Physical Features

Jordan is an Arab country located in the heart of the Middle East. It shares borders with Syria on the north, Iraq on the northeast, Saudi Arabia on the south and east and the West Bank on the west. Jordan covers an area of approximately 92.000 square kilometers (excluding the

West Bank).

The country can be divided into four physiographic regions.⁵ These are:

- (1) The Eastern Desert. This area is arid and unsuitable for farming.
- (2) The Western Depression. The Depression is warm year-round, and with new irrigation projects it has enabled Jordan to develop and increase arable land. Citrus, bananas, and some vegetables are grown in this area.
- (3) The Mountains. The mountains can be divided into four administrative districts: Ajlun, Balqa, Kerak and Ma'an. Fruits, and cereals are the main agricultural crops in this area.
- (4) The Plateau. The plateau is located between the desert and the highlands. Wheat and other cereals, olives and tobacco are the main crops in this area.

The rainy season in the country starts in November and finishes in March, but the heaviest rain falls in December and January. Summer starts in June and ends in September. However, the average temperature varies from one area to another and from one season to another.⁶

4. The Political and Constitutional Systems

Until 1928 there was no written constitution in Jordan. It was in this year that an Organic Law was promulgated and a unicameral legislature was set up. This body was

elected for three years to serve as the Legislative Council.⁷ Legislative power was vested in the Council and the Prince. However, the Prince had wider power. For example, he had the power to appoint and dismiss the prime minister and dissolve the Legislative Council.

In 1946 Jordan took its independence and a new constitution for the Kingdom was promulgated. The Legislative Council became known as the National Assembly (Majlis Al-Umma) consisting of two Houses: the House of Representatives or the lower house, and the House of Notables or the upper house.

The period from 1946-1952 witnessed many events in the history of Jordan and the region. Paramount were: the Arab-Israeli War in 1948 which resulted in the establishment of Israel, and the unity between the East and the West Bank of Jordan River. These events and some other changes led to the promulgation of a new constitution in 1952. According to this constitution, the King is recognised as the Head of the State. Therefore, the executive power is vested in the King and Cabinet. The Cabinet or the Council of Ministers consists of the Prime Minister and the Ministers. The Monarch has the power to appoint and dismiss the Prime Minister and Cabinet Ministers. He also has the power to dissolve the House of Representatives, appoint senators, veto bills passed by the Parliament, and issue decrees with the consent of the Prime Minister and at least four members

of the Cabinet .⁸

According to the 1952 constitution, the Parliament consists of two Houses: the House of Representatives, whose members are elected directly; the Senate or House of Notables, whose members are appointed by the King.⁹ In each house there is equal representation for the East and the Occupied West Bank. Before 1986 the Senate had 30 members and the House of Representative had 60 members. In 1986 the parliament approved a law to increase the membership of the House of Representatives from 60 to 142.¹⁰

5. Social-cultural Environment

Two reasons made us look at the social environment within the context of the entire region (Arab World). These are: first, the existence of similarities in many aspects of the social environment, second, lack of literature related to all aspects of the social environment in Jordan.

It was felt that understanding the social and cultural environment would enable us to understand the environment of management in Jordan. Familiarisation with the different groups which may influence Jordanians is the first step to understanding the environment.

The above argument is based on the assumption that one of the most important characteristics of a human being is that he is a social animal. Therefore, every person

maintains membership in several groups. However, individuals do not join groups only to satisfy social needs but to get support and assurance that their behaviour is right and accepted.¹¹ Furthermore, groups are the means by which individuals can perform cooperative functions that cannot be performed individually. This may explain why groups are an old phenomenon. In fact the existence of groups might be traced back to the old Greeks' quest for knowledge which was carried out in groups.¹²

In return for the support that individuals get from groups, they are expected to conform to standards and norms which influence members' behaviour. In fact, influencing group members' attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour is the basic purpose of some groups, such as religious groups, political education groups, and physical fitness clubs.¹³

Managers are no exceptions. It is widely recognised by scholars of management that managers spend a great deal of their time with other people working in groups. Students of management should be aware of the importance of this fact. Indeed the importance of studying management from a group point of view has led some theorists in management to support what is called the group approach to study management. This approach simply argues that individuals, as members of several groups, are influenced by norms of these groups.¹⁴

However, as far as this study is concerned, the purpose of this section is not to argue about the best approach to study management. But it must be mentioned that some studies have found that group norms have an influence on the performance of members.¹⁵ Peer groups were also found to have a great influence on members. For instance, the impact of college or university attendance on students' attitudes and values seems to be significant. A study by Albert Siegal and Sidney Siegal which aimed at examining the impact of reference groups and membership groups came to the conclusion that the greatest change in attitudes was in subjects who came to take the imposed initially nonpreferred membership group as their reference group. Those who were forced to be in a certain group, but were unwilling to be identified by that group, experienced little change in their attitudes.¹⁶

Another study by Charles and Newcomb on university students found that attitudes of students changed and rearrangement of group importance to them also changed.¹⁷

It is clear that many studies support the argument that attitudes change as a result of peers and reference group influences. However, these studies do not tell us about the degree of change in attitudes. Such change is more likely to differ from one person to another. Personality factors, degree of interaction and involvement in college, degree of identification with different groups, positions of individuals in their society or community, and some situational factors are responsible for the

variance in the amount of change or degree of influence that each group has.

5.1. What Are the Most Important Groups ?

It has been mentioned earlier that every individual possesses membership in several groups. Also it should be stated that a certain group may act as a positive reference group sometimes and a negative reference group other times. These findings imply that the importance of groups to the individual varies from one situation to another.

Arabs, in general, are said to be influenced heavily by their families as is the case with other nonindustrial societies.¹⁸ Religion is also reported to be influential on almost every aspect of the Arabs' life. These two groups are discussed below.

5.1.1. Family Family has been documented to be the most important factor in shaping Arab attitudes. According to Patai, the Jordanian family can be characterised by five characteristics: Extended, patrilineal, patrilocal, patriarchal and endogamous.¹⁹ A brief description of each of these characteristics is presented below:

- (1) Extended or multigenerational families in which one or more married sons, with wife and children, live together with the father, who retains authority over them during his lifetime. According to the latest sources available, the average size of families for

three different social classes in Amman, the capital of Jordan, is shown in table 2.1.

Table 2.1

The average size of families for three social classes in Amman.

Social Class	Husbands	Wives
Upper Class	7.8	6.6
Middle Class	7.3	6.8
Lower Class	7.0	7.4

Source: Terry Prothro and Lutfy Diab, Changing Family Patterns in the Arab East, Beirut: American University of Beirut, 1974, pp. 105-106.

- (2) Patrilineal. Which means that each man is regarded as belonging to the family to which his father belongs, and not to the family of his mother.
- (3) Patrilocal. Generally upon marriage the young couple is more likely to take up residence near the bridegroom's father's home if not in the same home. This means that the brothers and their wives either live together in the same house or near each other in the same area.
- (4) Patriarchal. In patriarchal families the father is the master of his own nuclear family, whereas the elderly male is the head of the whole extended family.
- (5) Endogamous. It is not strange to have marriage between cousins. In fact this type of marriage used to be preferable over marriage from non-blood relatives.

Another study by Peter Gubser on Al-Karak, a town in south Jordan, found that people may vote for their

relatives during municipality council elections, even though their relatives may not be well qualified candidates.²⁰

However, it should be mentioned that the impact of families on attitudes and behaviour of members is a universal phenomenon. Timothy, for example, found some similarities between American parents' political beliefs and those of their children.²¹ But the degree of influence that families have varies from one culture or subculture to another. Jordanians, for instance, are taught that the group interest is paramount. Westerners by contrast are more individualistic and care less for being helpful.²²

Despite the fact that Jordanians are still influenced by their families, change has swept over all aspects of life in the country. Children have much more freedom than they used to have thirty years ago. Some children even question the validity of their parents' authority. Women are increasingly becoming involved in managing the family affairs. The patrilocal family is declining as a result of sons taking jobs in cities or places far away from their family residence. All these factors are changing the characteristics of the Jordanian family.

5.1.2. Religion Another important factor which is expected to influence Jordanians' behaviour is religion. In a country like Jordan which has about 96 percent of its population as Moslems, it is no wonder that religion permeates many aspects of life.

In order to be able to understand how religion is influential on Jordanians it is worth explaining briefly the basic tenets or pillars of Islam:

- (1) Pronouncement of the oneness of God. This means that every Moslem must believe that there is no god but Allah and Mohammed is the messenger of God.
- (2) Prayer. Every adult Moslem must pray five times a day at prescribed times.
- (3) Alms or Zakat. Alms are similar to taxes. They are taken from the rich to be distributed to the poor.
- (4) Fasting. Every adult Moslem who is physically capable must fast from sunrise to sunset during Ramadan. (Ramadan is the ninth month of the year in the Arabic Calendar).
- (5) Pilgrimage. Every adult Moslem who is financially and physically capable must visit the holy places of Mecca and Medina once in his life.

There is no doubt that religion to Moslems is more influential than for Westerners. However, even in Western countries, studies have shown that religion has some influence on people's behaviour. In a study conducted by the University of Michigan in the U.S.A, results showed that forgiving was the second value in importance for those attending every week prayers. It was also found that forgiving decreased in importance for nonchurch goers. Furthermore, forgiving was valued as sixth in importance for those regarding religion as important and thirteenth for those regarding it as unimportant.²³

Islamic teachings are significant in terms of their impact on life in Jordan. Islam is the religion of the state. Legal, political, social and cultural systems are influenced by religion by various degrees. Take, for example, the legal system. It derives some codes and laws that govern divorce, marriage and inheritance from Islamic teachings. In the economic sphere, Moslems are not allowed to engage in transactions which are usurious. They are however permitted to buy stocks on the market at no rate of interest with price fluctuation is the only determinant of profit and loss.

A final question is worth asking. That is whether the impact of religion and groups, in general, on Jordanians is the same as in all communities? The answer is simply "no". The tribal society, for instance, which is represented by bedouins who form only 1 percent of the population ²⁴ is different from both the urban and rural societies.

It would be exaggerated to claim that severe division exists between the different social communities. But one can state that educated people and to some extent city dwellers are more likely to be exposed to people from different religions, village or town origins, or even different backgrounds. Hence, they are expected to be more tolerant of other people.

Nevertheless, it would be simplistic to claim that educated people and urban dwellers are not at all

influenced by their families and religious groups. In summary, these groups have some influence on behaviour and attitudes of Jordanians but that varies from one situation or individual to another. For instance, the family is less likely to be most of the time, a positive reference for educated people. On the contrary, old people are expected to have the family as their reference group.

6. Population

According to the first population census, which was conducted in 1952, the population of Jordan (West and East bank) was 1.33 million.

In addition to the refugee problem, other factors have contributed to the growth of the population. The natural growth rate, the excess of births over deaths, and the improvement in health, economic and social conditions have contributed significantly in the rapid increase of population and the decline in death rates.

The second population census was conducted in 1979. The population in that year was reported to be 2.147,000. The rate of growth was as high as 3.8 percent. This rate makes Jordan's population growth one of the highest in the world.²⁵ An estimation for the year 1986 suggested that the country had about 2.8 million in population. (see table 2.2). In the year 2000 the population is expected to be 6.6 million and 12.3 million in 2020.²⁶

Table 2.2

Growth of the population in Jordan since 1928 until 1986.

Year	EastBank	WestBank	Total
1928	350,000		350,000
1952	587,000	742,000	1,329,000
1961	901,000	805,000	1,706,000
1975	1,810,000	—	1,810,000
1979	2,147,000	—	2,147,000
1986	2,796,100	—	2,796,100

Source: Department of Statistics, Housing and Population Census, Amman, 1979, p.1.
 Department of Statistics, Statistical Yearbook, Amman, 1986, p.2.

Life Expectancy at birth was 52.6 years for males and 52 years for females during the period from 1959-1963.²⁷ In 1985, life expectancy at birth was 65 years.²⁸ The improvement in life expectancy is due to enhancement in social, economic and health conditions. Maternity and infant clinics increased and became more accessible to most people. The number of physicians in the country increased from 180 in 1952 to 3007 in 1985. Physicians per 10,000 persons rose from 1.5 to 11.3 physicians respectively.²⁹

Table 2.3

Governorates' population in 1985.

Name of Governorate	Population
Amman	1,160,000
Zarka	404,500
Irbid	680,200
Ma'fra	98,600
Balqa	193,800
Karak	120,100
Tafiela	41,400
Ma'an	97,500
Total	2,796,100

Source: Department of Statistics, Statistical Yearbook, Amman, 1986, p.2.

The population is heavily concentrated in the northwestern corner of the country. This part of the country is more fertile than other areas, which may explain, to some extent, why the area has more density in terms of population. Table 2.3 shows the distribution of population by governorates according to the 1979 census and estimation for 1986. It can be seen from table 2.3 that about 80 percent of the total population of Jordan lived in the governorates of Amman, Zarka and Irbid.

Overall, urban dwellers represent about 60 percent of the total population compared to 44 in 1961.³⁰ The main reason behind the dramatic increase in the urban population is not only accounted for normal population increase but also the continuous migration from rural to urban areas. The motives for this migration are several. The most important is the fact that most industries are concentrated in the main cities, especially the capital. Lack of incentives to work in agriculture and the tendency to prefer office work is another reason for migration. Fluctuations of income generated from farming because it depends heavily on the rainfall and because agriculture is mainly seasonal make farming less attractive.

7. Education

Even though education is relatively new in Jordan, Jordanians are among the best educated people in the Middle East. In 1976 the rate of literacy was reported to

be 69 percent. This rate is one of the highest in the area.

Prior to 1921, Transjordan had a traditional system of education. It was restricted to a few Moslem religious schools known as kuttabs and a handful of elementary schools. In 1923 the first secondary school was established in Al-Salt. By 1930 there were 5239 students in 54 government schools with 122 teachers.³¹ In 1946 there were 70 elementary and secondary schools on the East Bank. By 1952 the number in the East and West Banks had increased to 854. In 1985 there were 3366 schools on the East Bank only.³²

There are three educational cycles in Jordan. Elementary, preparatory and secondary cycles. The length of the first cycle is 6 years, whereas it is 3 years for both the preparatory and the secondary cycles. Secondary schools are of three types: the general, the vocational and the comprehensive. Education is free and compulsory in the first nine grades. In addition to the schools, there are more than 50 community colleges. Furthermore, the country has 4 universities which offer programmes at the Bachelor, Master, and sometimes Ph.D level.

Education in Jordan is provided by the public and the private sectors. Most schools at all educational cycles are run by the Ministry of Education. However, most kindergartens are run by the private sector. Higher

education after the secondary level, except for universities, was also run by the Ministry of Education until 1985. In that year a new Ministry was established- the Ministry of Higher Education- to be concerned about what are called intermediate community colleges. Universities in the country are autonomous bodies. Each one has its own Board of Trustees or its Council.

Table 2.4
Distribution of Jordanian students by educational level
for the school year 1984/1985.

Educational level	Number of Students
Elementary Schools	504226
Preparatory schools	204802
Secondary schools	98602
Secondary Vocational	29026
Community colleges	27205
Nursing Colleges	761
Universities in Jordan	25929
Higher education institutions abroad	22229
Total	912780

Source: Department of Statistics, Statistical Yearbook,
Amman, 1985, pp.67-73.

Students' enrollment during the early fifties was very low. Only 9.1 percent of the total population were enrolled in schools. This percentage increased to 35 percent by 1981.³³ Table 2.4 shows the number of students in all educational cycles, including higher education institutions. It can be seen from the table that during the academic year 1984/1985 there were 912780 students in all educational cycles. Thus, every third person is a student. Statistics for the academic year 1983/1984 show that 16.6 % of children in the 3-5 year- age group were attending kindergarten. It also shows that 89.3 percent

of children in the 6-11 age group were attending school. In addition, 91.2 percent and 68.2 percent of children in the age groups 12-14 years and 15-17 years respectively were attending school. Finally, enrollment of the age group 18-23 years in higher education institutions was reported to be 22 percent.³⁴

The dramatic change in education in Jordan can be attributed to several factors: most Jordanians believe that education is one of the best means to improve status; the dramatic increase in the number of schools and educational institutions; introduction of compulsory education in the first nine grades; socialisation and communication with other countries which opened new avenues for Jordanian young people to carry on their studies to higher levels.

Female participation in schools and educational institutions used to be low. In 1952, about 25 percent of all students were female. During the academic year 1983/1984 the female percentage of the total number of students was around 47 %.³⁵ In Jordanian universities, females represented 39 % of the total number of students enrolled in 1985.³⁶ Twenty five years ago a small percentage of Jordanians were willing to accept the idea of enrolling their daughters in universities. Therefore, a dramatic change in the attitudes of Jordanians is taking place.

Another important aspect of change is related to the

preference of high school (secondary school) graduates. Over the past fifteen years more students became inclined to join Business or Management schools. Careers in the private sector became more attractive. According to statistics published in 1985, almost 16% of the Jordanians studying at universities and higher education institutions, inside and outside Jordan, were enrolled in departments of administrative sciences and economics.³⁷

This reflects the country's orientation to business and the increase of the organisations' awareness of management as a profession and a science.

8. Manpower: Its Characteristics and Distribution

8.1. Characteristics of Manpower

At the outset it should be stated that the census of 1979 and estimates for 1985 have indicated that the number of males in Jordan outnumbered the females. The male population represents 52.30 percent of the total population, (see table 2.5). In other words 109 males per 100 females.³⁸ However, this situation does not apply to

Table 2.5.
Distribution of Jordanians according to sex.

Year	Male		Female	
	Number(000)	%	Number(000)	%
1979	1115.8	52.3	1017.2	47.7
1985*	1409.1	52.3	1284.6	47.7

*Estimation.

Source: Department of Statistics, Statistical Yearbook, Amman, 1985, p.3.

all age groups. For instance, the male/female ratio in the 20-29 year group drops to 87 males per 100 females. This is explained mainly by the fact that most emigrant workers to other Arab countries in the Gulf are young and many of them are in the age group 20-29 years.³⁹

Despite the fact that women represent about 47.7 percent of the total population of Jordan, female participation in the labour force is still low. It was 4 percent in 1961 and 7.5 percent in 1979. It rose to 10.2 percent in 1982 and rose again to 12.5 percent in 1985.⁴⁰

Regarding the occupational distribution of women, a high proportion of them are involved in professional and technical jobs. In 1979, professional and technical female workers constituted around 34.3% and 21.9% respectively rising to 35.4% and 36% in 1984. However, women's participation in senior management remain low, especially at the planning and decision-making levels.⁴¹

Why is female participation in the Jordanian labour force low ? There are several reasons. Chief among these are:

- (1) High fertility rates which put pressures on women to be more concerned about bearing and rearing children more than anything else.
- (2) Cultural values which continue to have a great impact on attitudes toward working women. Some Jordanians still believe that the woman's best place is at home.
- (3) Higher rates of female enrollment in all educational

cycles and institutions.

One of the most important structural characteristics of the population of Jordan is that most of the population are young people. It can be seen from table 2.6 that the population census of 1961 indicated that 45.5 per cent of the population were between 0-14 years of age. In 1979 this percentage increased to 50.7. The estimation for 1985 showed a decline in the percentage of this age group to 48.1. The table also shows that those who were in the working age (15-64 years) declined from 50.7 per cent in 1961 to 46.5 per cent in 1979, but rose to 49.3 per cent in 1985.

Table 2.6
Distribution of Jordanians according to age.

Age Groups	Percentages		
	1961	1979	1986
0-14	45.5	50.7	48.1
15-64	50.7	46.5	49.3
65+	3.8	2.8	2.6
Total	100	100	100

Source: Department of Statistics, Housing and Population Census, Amman, 1979, pp.11, 18.

Department of Statistics, Statistical Yearbook, Amman, 1986, p.11.

As a result of the high percentage of young people (below 15 years), the dependency ratio increased from 100 persons of working age in 1961 to 120 dependents for every 100 persons of working age in 1979. The increase in the dependency ratio is caused by the increases in youth dependency. The old age dependency did not change and

remained at about three percent of the total population in both years. In spite of this fact, the actual dependency ratio is at 434 non-workers per 100 workers as compared, for example with 205 in England.⁴²

Based on the previous discussion, it is not surprising that the economically active population is very low. In 1979 the ratio of the economically active population amounted to 20 percent.⁴³ The estimation for 1985 indicated no change. The low ratio of the economically active population is due to several factors. Foremost among these are: the dependency ratio is very high compared with other countries, especially the industrial ones; large number of Jordanians working abroad, especially in the oil exporting countries such as Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates; and the high rate of schooling.⁴⁴

8.2. Distribution of Manpower

Jordan is both an exporter and importer of labour. In 1985 the total labour force was estimated at 645000, of which 143000, or 22% were "guest workers", mainly from Arab countries. On the other hand, in 1961 the number of Jordanians working abroad was around 64000 workers in the Gulf region. Census figures were not available about the number of Jordanians working in other countries. In 1985 Jordanians working abroad were estimated at 328000, of which 262000 in Arab countries, especially oil-producing countries and 44000 in other (mainly Western) countries.⁴⁵

Table 2.7

Jordanian manpower according to economic activity.

Economic Activity	1961		1979		1985	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Agriculture	72977	33.5	46728	11.5	39237	7.8
Mining & Manf.	22278	10.2	34935	8.6	53053	10.6
Electricity & Water	925	.4	2472	0.6	5526	1.1
Construction	22187	10.2	52645	13.0	55263	11.0
Trade, Comm & Fin. Services	25076	11.5	79191	19.6	114596	22.8
Social Services, Public Admin & defence	74397	34.2	189303	46.7	234718	46.7
Total	217840	100.0	405274	100.0	502393	100.0

Source: Ministry of Planning, Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1986-1990, Amman, 1985, p.63.

Table 2.7 shows the distribution of the Jordanian work force for the years 1961, 1979 and 1985. It can be seen from the table that considerable change has been experienced. In 1961 workers in agriculture represented 33.5 percent of the total. This percentage declined drastically to 11.5 in 1979, and 7.8 in 1985. By contrast, manpower in mining and manufacturing roughly maintained the same level.

The persistent decline in the number of workers in the agricultural sector reflects the fact that Jordanians are continuously becoming unwilling to work in agriculture and land. This trend is due to different factors. Some of the most important are: Jordanians, in general, have little desire to work on farms; agriculture in the country is seasonal and heavily dependent on the fall of rain; large cities are expanding at the expense of some

fertile areas.

However, the lack of Jordanians to work in certain sectors has been compensated for by foreign workers. Indeed importing workers from abroad is a new phenomenon in Jordan. As late as 1979 there were only 41,000 foreign workers in the country. This number increased four fold by 1985 to 143,000 (see table 2.8). However, most of them are unskilled and concentrated in two sectors- construction and agricultural.

Table 2.8
Foreign manpower in Jordan by economic activity.

Economic Activity	1979		1985	
	Number	%	Number	%
Agriculture	3615	9.54	49078	34.32
Mining & Manufacturing	2735	6.66	11354	7.94
Electricity & Water	168	.41	1430	1.00
Construction	17036	41.51	44330	31.00
Trade	3965	9.66	12155	8.50
Communication	616	1.50	7865	5.50
Financial Services & Insurance	415	1.01	2860	2.00
Social Services, Public Admin & defence	12192	29.71	13928	9.74
Total	41042	100.0	143,000	100.0

Source: Mohammed A. Al-Akel " Labour Force Migration: Theory and Practice with Special Reference to the Jordanian Experience", Al- Amel (Labour), Vol.34, 1986, P.43. (In Arabic).

Better opportunities and financial rewards are the most important reasons that make Jordanians look for jobs abroad. The same motives apply to workers coming to Jordan from other countries. Unfortunately, little data is available on the occupational classifications of Jordanians working abroad. Nonetheless, estimates

indicate that 26 percent of Jordanian workers in Kuwait are highly qualified manpower.⁴⁶ Furthermore, some studies have shown that Jordanian workers in the Gulf area work mainly in technical and professional positions that require high skills and qualifications.⁴⁷

9. The Economy

In spite of the fact that Jordan is one of the least-endowed countries in terms of natural resources, and its economic development process has been hampered by many difficulties, the country has experienced a rapid economic growth. Indeed this growth was recognised by many analysts. The World Bank report of 1985, for instance, considered Jordan as one of the countries that enjoy "Upper-middle" income.⁴⁸ Table 2.9 presents a comparison between the gross national product (GNP) of selected nations measured *per capita* and as percentages of annual growth rates for the period 1965-1985.

Table 2.9 shows also that the average annual growth rate in GNP for the period 1965-1985 was 5.8%. This percent is higher than many countries, both Arab and non-Arab. Between 1974-1984 Jordan had one of the highest growth rates in the world, with the East Bank region's gross national product (GNP) expanding, in real terms, at an average annual rate of more than 8%.

Table 2.9
GNP per capita and annual growth rates for Jordan and selected countries during the period 1965-1985.

Country	GNP in U.S Dollars	Annual growth rates
<u>Arab countries:</u>		
Jordan	1560	5.8
Syria	1570	4.0
Algeria	2550	3.6
Oman	6730	5.7
Libya	7170	-1.3
<u>Other countries:</u>		
U.K	8460	1.6
Greece	3550	3.6
Spain	4290	2.6
Italy	6250	2.6

Source: World Bank, World Development Report, New York : Oxford University press, 1987,p.203.

In addition to the limited natural and physical resources of the country, the continuous influx of Palestinian refugees to the East Bank created economic problems and increased the demand for social and health services. However, the unity between the East and West Banks led to market expansion, an increased supply of money and opened up new avenues for investment.

The process of economic development can be divided into four stages or periods. Each of these stages is discussed separately in the following sections.

9.1. The Period 1952-1966 Traditionally Jordan is an agricultural country. Until 1954 nearly 75 percent of the population were dependent on agriculture. Therefore, the contribution of the agricultural sector to GDP amounted to well over 30 percent of the total GDP. Before the first economic plan which commenced in 1963, GDP grew at

a high rate averaging 11.5 percent per annum. This growth was achieved within the framework of relative price stability.⁴⁹

During the earlier years of the period the government concentrated mainly on developing the necessary infrastructure and expanding the educational and health services. The private sector contributed through financing and implementing large-scale projects, such as the phosphate, cement, and the oil refining industry. Therefore, some structural changes in the Jordanian economy took place which influenced the share of economic activities in GDP. As a result of that, the industry became increasingly more important in the economy, whereas the relative importance of agriculture declined.

The 1960s witnessed preparation for two plans. The Five-Year Plan 1963-1967 and the Seven-Year Plan 1964-1970. Brief accounts of the two plans are given below:

9.1.1. The Five-Year Plan 1963-1967 This plan was the first economic and social development plan in the history of modern Jordan. Its main objectives were: Increasing *per capita* income as rapidly as possible; reducing unemployment; and finally improvement of the trade balance.⁵⁰

The total expected investment of the Plan amounted to about JD. 127 million. The highest single allocation was given to the development of irrigation projects, namely the East Ghor Canal and Soil and Water Conservation. The

public sector was expected to invest about JD 66.9 million and JD 60.1 million by the private sector. This plan was also expected to be financed by outside sources. Unfortunately, failure of these sources to finance the Plan led to its termination.

9.1.2. The Seven-Year Programme 1964-1970. This plan came to replace the five year plan discussed above. The main objectives were: Increasing the GDP by 7% annually; reducing the balance of trade deficit; reducing the general budget reliance on foreign aid; reducing of the level of unemployment.⁵¹

The economy experienced fast growth. During the first year of the plan, the growth in GDP averaged at 8%. It increased at a higher rate in 1966. Unlike the previous period (1954-1962), the agricultural sector manifested an upward trend in the value added during this period. The annual increase in agricultural output averaged 6 percent which was a result of good agricultural seasons and the completion of irrigation projects in the East Ghor Canal.⁵² However, the services sector achieved only moderate growth rates. On the other hand, income generated by industry rose to remarkable rates, thus amplifying the rise in the growth rates of GDP. The growth in the Jordanian economy during the period from 1962-1966 was disrupted by 1967 Arab-Israeli war which led to the loss of the West Bank and the influx of more refugees to the East Bank.

9.2. The Period 1967-1972 Israeli occupation of the West Bank in 1967 resulted in the loss of 80% of the fruit growing area and 45% of the area under vegetables, and had a serious effect on cereal production and tourism. The exodus of about 350,000 refugees from the West Bank and Gaza Strip into the East Bank of Jordan created many economic and social problems. Foremost amongst were: unemployment, and the lack of social services.

Lack of stability as a result of military defence consideration hampered the country from utilisation of lands in the East Bank. At the same time the civil war of 1970 reduced security and led to a decline in investment expenditures by the public and private sectors.⁵³

Consequently, GDP grew at a relatively low rate of growth during the period 1967-1972. It grew at an annual average rate of 4.6% , notwithstanding the fact that in 1970 real GDP at factor cost dropped by 11% as against the previous year.⁵⁴

9.3. The period 1973-1980 The relative political and economic stability experienced in the country during the 1970s stimulated the economy, and encouraged preparation of two development plans for the period 1973-1980.

9.3.1. The Three- Year Plan 1973-1975 This plan aimed at the following: realising an 8 percent average annual growth rate in GDP; developing economic and social

activities in different areas especially rural areas; increasing employment opportunities by creating 70,000 new jobs; increasing the reliance of the general budget on domestic revenues; strengthening the balance of payments and reducing the relative increase in the trade deficit.

The plan period witnessed a growing activity in the industrial sector. New jobs were created. The private sector played a significant role in boosting the nature of investment. However, the real average growth rate of GDP at factor cost during the plan period was 5.9 percent, as against 8 percent envisaged in the plan. The period also witnessed an increasing rise in the cost of living, a reduction in the share of agriculture and services in GDP and a substantial increase in the share of manufacturing and mining sectors. The trade deficit increased in both absolute and relative terms, even though the value of commodity exports during the plan period rose. The ratio of trade deficit to GDP at market prices reached 55.5 percent compared with 37.6 percent in 1972. In spite of these results the plan was considered successful in reactivating economic conditions and economic growth.⁵⁵

9.3.2. The Five-Year Development Plan 1976-1980 The five year development plan could be considered as succession to the previous plan (1973-1975). The main objectives were: furthering the development momentum attained during the previous plan for 1973-1975, within a

comprehensive framework of development strategy, with the objectives of achieving an annual rate of growth of 12 percent in GDP; increasing the reliance of the general budget on domestic revenues and a reduction of the balance of trade deficit. The plan envisaged total investment of JD 765 million, evenly divided between the public sector and private sector.⁵⁶

Performance of the economy during the plan period yielded annual average growth rate in GDP of 12.1% at factor cost, as against 12% envisaged by the plan.⁵⁷ On the whole, the period achieved accelerated growth in all economic sectors, favourably affecting the entire period of the plan. Indeed the most important significant change occurred in the industrial sector.

Table 2.10
The relative importance of the economic sectors in GDP.
Percentages

Sector	1973	1980
Manufacturing & Mining	11.2	18.8
Agriculture	12.1	7.1
Electricity and water	1.5	1.9
construction	8.0	11.0
Total commodity producing sectors	32.8	38.8
Other Sectors	67.2	61.2
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Planning, Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1986-1990, Amman, 1985, p.13.

As can be seen from table 2.10 the relative importance of manufacturing and mining increased significantly from 11.2 percent in 1973 to 18.8 percent in 1980. The rise is

attributed to a rapid increase in the volume and value of industrial products due to expansion of the production base, especially cement and oil derivatives.

9.4. The period 1981 Onward The growth experienced in the Jordanian economy during the seventies, especially the period from 1976-1980 motivated planners to assume that the same economic conditions would continue during the eighties. It was also assumed that the inflow of capital from the Arab countries would continue. Based on these assumptions the second Five-Year Plan for 1981-1985 was being prepared. The government of Jordan which has adopted and encouraged the principle of free enterprise emphasised the private sector role in development.⁵⁸ Therefore, the government attempted to stimulate the private sector by creating a more conducive climate and passed new investment laws. However, in light of the achievements of the plan for 1981-1985 a new plan for 1986-1990 was drawn up.

9.4.1. The Five-Year Plan 1981-1985 The main objectives of the plan were: Increasing the productive sector's share in GDP to 44.8 percent; realising an annual rate of growth of 10.4 percent; reducing the deficit in the balance of trade; increasing the government's domestic revenues to 35.4 percent in 1985; providing basic necessities to the citizens.

The actual performance of the economy during this period

fell below expectations. This is attributed to the lack of political and economic stability in the entire region because of the wars in the Gulf area and Lebanon. These factors resulted in: reduction in the size of transfers to the central Government from JD 415 million in 1981 to JD 290 million in 1985; a fall in the real annual growth rate of commodity exports (including re-exports) to 7.4 percent, compared to 28 percent envisaged by the plan. a fall in remittances by Jordanians working abroad.

As a result of the above factors the real growth of GDP at market prices, during the period reached only 5.3 percent annually, which is far below the percent envisaged by the plan. Increase in real GDP dropped from 17.6% in 1980 to 9.8% in 1981, 5.6% in 1982, 2.5% in 1983, and 0.80 in 1984. However, it recovered to 3% in 1985.⁵⁹ In addition, rates of growth, in almost all sectors did not reach the percentages targeted in the plan.⁶⁰

9.4.2. The Five-Year Plan 1986-1990 The planning authorities in Jordan have come to emphasise the importance of planning by taking into consideration the long-term objectives in economic and social development. Therefore, this plan is designed to remedy existing imbalances in economic structure and to stimulate all economic activities. The plan is also designed to urge and encourage the private sector to be more involved in the development process.

The main goals of the plan are:⁶¹

- (1) Realisation of a GDP growth rates of 5% per annum.
- (2) Creation of 97.000 employment opportunities in all economic activities.
- (3) Reducing the disequilibrium in the labour market.
- (4) Reducing the existing disproportion between total public and private consumption expenditures on the one hand and GDP on the other so that domestic production may keep up with consumer demand.
- (5) Increasing domestic revenues of the central Government
- (6) Reducing the deficit in the balance of goods and nonfactor services from JD 663 million in 1985 to JD 657 million in 1990.
- (7) Fostering Joint Arab economic action by furthering labour market integration and developing joint ventures.

Despite the fact that the Jordanian economy is still influenced by the the Iraqi-Iranian war, lack of stability in Lebanon, and by the decline in oil prices, the GDP growth has recovered during 1986. Improvement in the performance of the economy can be attributed to the efforts made by the Government to encourage exports by providing tax incentives, and encouraging foreign investors to invest in Jordan. The rate of growth of GDP increased to an estimated 3.7% in 1986 compared to 3% in 1985. A growth rate less than envisaged in the plan.

10. Business Environment in Jordan

Jordan has a free market economy and depends on individual initiative. Therefore, the private sector plays an extensive role in the economy. However, government intervention can be noticed in some activities, and the period 1948-1961 can be described as the era of government control over many companies. Indeed government's participation goes back to 1951. In that year it participated in establishing the Cement Company which was the second oldest public share holding company in the country. The first one had already been established about 21 years before (1930) without government participation. Other public share holding were also established later in the same decade (1950s). One of the most important reasons that made the government participate in establishing these companies was to motivate the private sector in a newly developing country. To do so, governments used different incentives. For instance, they gave some newly established companies long-term monopolies. The Arab Potash Company, for example, has been given a 100 year monopoly. Another reason that explain government intervention is that some companies can be considered as vital to the economy. Jordan Phosphate Mining Company is a case in point. This intervention is attributed to the fact that phosphate is the main export of the country.

In spite of the fact that some new state-owned enterprises were established during the 1970s, the

government' strategy during this period had changed. Motivated by making the entry of potential competitors easier, the government used a more liberalized economic system. Therefore, monopoly and protection were rarely practised.⁶²

Consequently, the private sector became more confident over the years. This phenomenon was clearly seen in the investment made by this sector during the Three -Year Development plan 1973-1975. Its share of total investment in that plan was about 44%. This share increased to 50% of the Five-Year plan for 1976-1980. Such a trend was clearly manifested by the investment made by the industrial sector during 1981-1985 which was about 90% for both the mixed and the private sector.⁶³

The present decade is expected to witness a wave of "privatisation". The government of Jordan is in the process of privatising some public enterprises. Five possible privatisation targets have been identified. The largest among these is the Royal Jordanian Airline, worth around 500 million dollars.⁶⁴

In addition to the economic and political stability of the country, probably one of the most important factors that encourages private investors, whether Jordanians or foreigners, is the attractions of the country. Jordan's investment law is one of these attractions. According to the investment laws, foreign investors are given similar treatment to local ones. Profits, interest and capital

can be transferred outside the country without restrictions.⁶⁵

Moreover, Jordan has a well developed infrastructure. Communications and transportations are facilitated. The English language is widely spoken and used by businesses. Finally, governmental offices are relatively efficient.

The financial and banking systems are also efficient. Apart from commercial banks, the number of financial institutions grew three-fold in the decade 1973-1983. Some of the commercial banks operating in Jordan are foreign banks, and many of these have several branches in Jordan. Furthermore, foreign insurance companies represent one third of the total population of insurance firms.

Consequently, the climate in Jordan seems to be stimulating and conducive to investment. As a result of procedures and laws passed, many foreign investors and multi-national corporations (MNC) established regional business headquarters in the country. For instance, during the period 1975-1980 more than 50 American firms established regional offices in Amman, the capital.⁶⁶

11. Summary and Implications for the Study of Top Management

This chapter aimed at familiarizing the reader with some background information about the country in which "Top

Managers" operate. It has been pointed out that Jordan and its people are likely to be similar in many aspects to other developing countries and in particular to other Arab countries. Nonetheless, Jordan and Jordanians have also some distinctive characteristics. This is attributed to differences in history, and educational and economic systems that have been developed since the third decade of the present century.

As this study is concerned about the Jordanian "Top Managers", who are presumably leaders of their organisations, it would be useful to finish it by drawing an expected profile to them. In order to do so, the major possible dimensions of the Jordanian culture are likely to give some idea about the Jordanian personality. Whether of a manager, an engineer, a shop keeper, a farmer or a labourer. However, it must be mentioned that the Jordanian "Top Managers" are also expected to be influenced by other factors. The two types of factors or dimensions are discussed below:

Cultural Dimensions Probably the most important cultural dimension is the family. When a child is born, the first lessons in his life are taught by his/her parents. The Jordanian family shows affection and gives careful attention to its children. Even though such love is felt toward babies regardless of their sex, male children are preferred over female because they continue to bear their fathers' and families' names. This does not apply to females after marriage. As children grow they

are taught to show respect to their parents, grand parents, other members of the extended family and people (particularly old people) in the neighborhood or community.

Only at an advanced age are young people expected to act independently. However, they are expected to maintain their respect and obligations to their parents and family. If the family has more than one child, the eldest one replaces his father upon his absence and becomes the head of his nuclear family. Hence, he is given the opportunity to exercise the art of influencing others (leadership).

The patriarchal system of the Jordanian family is not as strong as it was, for instance, 30 years ago. Nonetheless, the family upbringing in Jordan continues to be authoritarian, with emphasis on leadership qualities resided in the eldest male. This type of upbringing is more likely to foster dependency of the young on the old.

The second major cultural dimension is the tradition of and preference for consultation. This can be attributed to tribal traditions and Islamic influences. Long before Islam politics was practised and organisations were formed at the tribal level. The head of the tribe used to involve followers in matters that were considered important for the entire tribe. This practice had been developed and adopted by many Arab leaders, and it was exemplified through the practice of majlis, in which once

a week all citizens are allowed to attend a meeting to discuss the issues raised.⁶⁷ Later a Diwan (office) was created which is similar in many aspects to the Ombudsman. Therefore, tribal politics displayed some democratic characteristics.

The second major influential factor on consultation is Islam. It urges leaders to use consultation. This is explicitly stated in the Quran (the holy book of Moslems) In fact, one of the 114 verses of the holy Quran is called the Shura (Consultation). Islam requires leaders to give their subordinates the chance to express their opinions. In fact, leaders who do not provide this chance are considered as working against divine rulings. By the same token, subordinates are urged to criticize their leaders if they see incorrect actions.

Although tribes have declined in terms of their importance, their influence is not forgotten. Also the reader must be reminded of what has been stated earlier about the degree to which all aspects of life in Jordan are influenced by religion. In spite of the fact that none of the present day Islamic countries apply Islam completely (though some claim to do so in their search for legitimacy), social, economic, and legal systems are affected by Islamic teachings by various degrees. Hudson writing on the consultative nature of the Arab society argues that:

" The participant character of tribal governments and the egalitarian social norms of Islam constitute two significant strands in Arab political culture, which has otherwise favored absolutism".⁶⁸

The political system in Jordan is another dimension that may influence the Jordanian personality. As it has been indicated earlier in this chapter, Jordan is a constitutional monarchy, but the king holds almost absolute power. However, the country has a parliament, which has some freedom but it is not unlimited. Political parties were allowed to be formed for a short period during the 1950s but were banned later in the same decade. The only exception to that is the Moslem Brotherhood Party.

Unfortunately, local politics in the country is interwoven with the familial structure and relationships. A Substantial percentage of Jordanians are likely to vote for their relatives during the election of mayors, municipality councils and even members of the Parliament. But educated people may vote for people whom they consider more qualified and capable of serving the interests of their group.

Overall, one can conclude by saying that if Jordanians are influenced only by cultural variables, it would be hard to claim that they are likely to be participative or delegative. Their behaviour would be very much influenced by family relationships and structure. "Top Managers" are

not an exception.

Other Dimensions Apart from the culture, other forces play a pivotal role in intensifying the salience of social change in Jordan. Chief among these forces are: large numbers of educated people, the exposure to modern values and communication with the outside world.

"Top Managers" in Jordan are among the groups that possess the characteristics mentioned above (this will be seen in chapter 4). Bearing in mind that "Top Managers" are leaders of business organisations, one is lead to speculate that other factors (apart from culture) are very important dimensions in shaping the "Top Manager'" personality. For a "Top Manager", personal success and organisational effectiveness are inseparable. Empirical evidence in Jordan has shown that leadership style is one of the most important factors that determine the firm's ability to reach its objectives.⁶⁹

Achieving the objectives of an organisation requires, among other things, "Top Managers" to behave rationally. This might be sometimes in direct conflict with the social and family obligations that "Top Managers" are expected to fulfill. Nonetheless, in certain situations they have to have the courage to decide. Upon making a decision profession and organisation are expected to be given great consideration. Therefore, one may conclude that social values are, to some extent, different from work values. In fact, some studies' findings referred to in this chapter are also consistent with the above

argument. This will also be seen clearly in chapter 8 of this study.

In line with the above reasoning, one may say that new reference groups have been emerging. These groups have substantial influence on Jordanians, including "Top Managers". Probably peer groups at college are the most important. Highly educated people are likely to be knowledgeable about things more than others. Normally, they are more exposed to people from other cultures, religious and social backgrounds. As a result of that, they are expected to be less dogmatic and more tolerant and understanding. Evidence suggests, at the universal level as well as in developing countries, that college attendance changes attitudes of authoritarianism to democracy.

Exposure does not occur only at the college and educational institutions but in many places outside. Travel, training, and communication with the outside world are also likely to influence the Jordanian "Top Manager's" thinking and behaviour. This chapter has indicated how Jordan is more exposed than other neighbouring countries to the outside world. Hence, the traditional groups are not the only reference groups to Jordanians. This is especially true for young and highly educated people.

As the reader proceeds in this study, he will soon realise that some of our respondents are true believers

and have strong faith in participative and democratic attitudes. This is clearly manifested in their attitudes about capacity of subordinates for leadership.

One may argue that the role which "Top Managers" play would be minimal. However, it is not suggested that this group will be able to change the situation in a fortnight, but its role is not minimal at all. "Top Managers" are the change initiators, and manipulators. It is not only the social responsibility that put them in this position, but work, economic and organisational forces make this role inevitable.

As far as the private sector in Jordan is concerned, it will continue to have a pivotal function in the economy, and "Top Managers" are the main actors in this episode. It has been indicated in the previous section of this chapter that the government is in the process of privatising some public enterprises. This will include five of the largest public enterprises in the country. Bearing in mind the business orientation of the country, the task of "Top Managers" is not only significant, but the demand for them and for new managerial talents is expected to soar.

Based on the foregoing argument, this study has chosen "Top Managers" to be its subject. Also based on the above description of the country and its people, an expected profile of the Jordanian "Top Manager" and his managerial

thinking has been drawn. This can be summarised as follows:

(1) Despite the fact that Jordan has similarities with the other Arab countries, Jordanians have some distinctive characteristics. This is specially true for "Top Managers".

(2) Family structure and obligations, and other cultural variables will continue to influence Jordanian "Top Managers'" attitudes and behaviour. However, the organisational and economic forces put them in a position to give a great amount of consideration to other groups, such as the profession and the organisation.

(3) "Top Managers" are likely to hold relatively democratic views about subordinates. Consistent with this, they are likely to endorse some kind of power-sharing approaches.

(4) As a highly educated elite, exposed to people, and leaders of their organisations, our respondents are expected to perform many other functions that are not related to business. This will in turn influence negatively their performance and effectiveness.

To what degree the above characteristics or assumptions are true, remains to be seen in the last four chapters of this study.

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Chapter Three

Review of Leadership Theories

1. Introduction

Since management involves the integration of human and material resources to reach organisational goals how to handle human resources should be of great importance to management. In order to be able to do so, managers should possess the power to influence others. This power could be obtained from their position, personal characteristics, expertise or other sources. However, a person may possess power but that does not make him a manager. Leaders, normally, have some power but they are not necessarily managers. Because of such confusion which may arise a distinction should be made between the two concepts.

2. Managers and Leaders

At the outset it must be stated that many leaders are not managers. A man may have power and influence without having a formal managerial position. He may be an informal work-group leader; a union leader; or the chairman of a civic committee.¹ By contrast, most managers are leaders because leadership is one of the functions of management. Thus, management is a much broader function dealing with contradictions and directing resources toward the accomplishment of given objectives. On the other hand, leadership is a much narrower activity that

involves influencing the way people behave in organisations. Therefore, managers, to be effective, must be good leaders, but a good leader is not necessarily a good manager.

3. Definition and Theories of Leadership

Most definitions of leadership seem to agree on the idea that leadership involves influencing others. Mescon et al., define leadership as "the ability to influence individuals and groups to work toward attaining organisational objectives".²

It can be seen from the above definition that the ability to influence individuals or groups is a prerequisite for leadership. Belasco et al , point out:

"It is not an understatement that leadership, like beauty, exists in the eye of the beholder. A leader is a leader, therefore, only when he can convince others to follow the direction in which he wishes to lead. A leader without a follower is not a leader at all".³

A question which may be raised here is; how can the leader convince others to follow him ? There are five reasons why a person might follow a given leader.⁴ These are :

- (1) Coercion : This flows from the ability of the leader to punish the individual member. Punishment may take several forms, such as verbal abuse, physical abuse,

and the assignment to a less attractive job.

- (2) Expertise: This power stems from recognition of members that the leader is better at something. For example keeping the boss happy, or being the strongest.
- (3) Reference: A leader is in the position of having influence over members of a group if they feel that he has outstanding qualities. Therefore, the followers tend to identify with the leader.
- (4) Reward: This technique is the opposite of the first one. The leader dispenses rewards in return for, for example, an outstanding performance. Members are expected to behave in a way that may lead to obtaining these rewards.
- (5) Legitimacy: The formal position that the leader holds could make him able to influence the behaviour of members. The latter in this case believe that the leader has a legitimate right to do so.

It would be simplistic to claim that any one of the above techniques is the best in all situations. The effective leader is the one who is capable of developing as many sources of influence as possible.⁵ This discussion leads us to raise the following questions: Is there a universal approach that may be prescribed for leaders?; Is there a best style of leadership which is effective in all situations ? Theories of leadership have been trying to answer these questions for many years. The

main theories are discussed below.

3.1. Traits Theory

Traits theory is the oldest theory of leadership. It is also called the Great Man Theory. It is based on the assumption that some individuals emerge as leaders because they have been born with the necessary leadership traits. In other words, leaders are born and not made. If these traits exist in the person he will be able to be an effective leader, but if these characteristics are not present he is unable to be an effective leader.

A similar, though not identical, theory is the Zeitgeist Theory. The word "zeitgeist" is a German word meaning "Spirit of the times". It is implied in this theory that a leader is the product of his time, and leaders will emerge if they have the traits needed to meet the demand of their times.⁶

Using the basic idea of the Traits Theory, a large number of studies was conducted to determine which traits are necessary for effective leadership. Different researchers suggested different characteristics, such as intelligence, initiative, responsibility, dependability, appearance, and height. Consensus on a set of traits that distinguish a great leader was not reached. A study by Bird found that very few traits of leadership were agreed upon by four or more investigations among hundreds of studies.⁷

Had the trait approach been right in its assumptions, it would have been very easy to develop leaders. In other words, if certain traits were agreed upon by researchers and suggested by practitioners to be indispensable for leadership, the job of developing leaders would have been made simpler. Furthermore, that would make this theory the best theory of leadership. Sisk et al attribute the failure of the Trait Theory to the following causes:⁸

- (1) Traits specification does not indicate how much of the trait is needed.
- (2) Traits are usually poorly defined and overlapping.
- (3) The tests used to measure traits are unreliable and lack validity.
- (4) The trait approach fails to distinguish between traits that are necessary for success in a certain situation and traits that are desirable for supervisory jobs.

3.2. Behavioural Theory

The behavioural approach concentrates on what the leader does and on how he behaves in conducting his or her function, rather than what the leader is. It emphasises the assumption that a leader's behaviour vis-a-vis followers determines leadership success.⁹ In fact there are different behavioural theories. But almost all of these theories base their analysis of leaders' behaviour on two dimensions:

- (1) Concern for task.
- (2) Concern for people.

Different concepts or terms are used by different researchers to refer to these two dimensions. For example, "boss-centered", "job-centered", and "concern for task", can be seen as interchangeable terms. On the other hand, "consideration", "people oriented", "human relations-oriented", are referred to as synonymous with "concern for people".

The leader who has a high concern for task usually defines and describes the responsibilities of members, urges task completion, and sets accurate standards, whereas, the leader who has high concern for people, emphasises a friendly atmosphere, warm relationships with subordinates, and sensitivity to followers' needs.

The two dimensions of leadership, "concern for task" and "concern for people", are based on the two traditional styles: democratic, and authoritarian. The democratic style assumes that the power of leaders is generated by the group they lead, whereas, the authoritarian style of leadership behaviour is based on the assumption that the power of the leader is derived from the position he occupies. However, these ideas are similar to what is called by McGregor Theory Y and Theory X. These two theories will be discussed briefly in the following section.

3.2.1. Theory Y and Theory X

McGregor considers the assumptions which managers hold

to be the factors that determine their approach to managing people. Therefore, McGregor describes two sets of assumptions which he calls Theory Y and Theory X as below.

Theory X: The main assumptions of people or managers who hold to Theory X are :¹⁰

- (1) The average person prefers to be directed, has little ambition, and tends to avoid responsibility.
- (2) The average human being has an internal dislike of work and when possible will avoid it.
- (3) To get people to make an effort for the sake of achieving objectives they must be coerced, controlled, directed or threatened with punishment.
- (4) The average human being wants security overall.

The above discussion shows that the manager who holds to Theory X assumptions is expected to show people low esteem. He tends to see himself as a member of a small elite who have unusual capacities, but most people are limited in their capacities.

Theory Y: In contrast, Theory Y has a different set of assumptions about people. These are:¹¹

- (1) that the average human being does not inherently dislike work. Work is as natural a phenomenon as play or rest. People may seek responsibility if the conditions are favourable.
- (2) that the external threats and punishment are not the only means to get people to make an effort to achieve objectives. If people are committed to the

organisational objectives they will be willing to exercise self-control and self-direction.

- (3) that the capacity to exercise creativity in the solution of organisational problems is widely distributed in the population.

Organisations in which Theory Y assumptions prevail are decentralised. Managers of these organisations do not feel that people in general are stupid, dishonest, and lack responsibility.

Theories Y and X seem to adopt two opposite extremes in their assumptions about human behaviour. In reality, few people hold strictly to Theory X or Theory Y assumptions. Put crudely, most people's views are less clear cut than the two theories suggest. In fact, neither Theory Y nor Theory X is consistent with research findings.¹²

3.2.2. Likert's Four Systems

Another theory which categorises managers on a continuum ranging from extremely job-centered to extremely employee-centered is the Four System theory by Likert. He and his colleagues at the University of Michigan compared high-performance groups to low performance groups within various organisations.

According to Likert, there are four systems of management styles. These four systems are plotted on figure (3.1).¹³

- (1) System 1 "Exploitative-Authoritative". This type of manager tends to centralise authority. He highly structures the work of subordinates and allows them little or no latitude in decision-making. System 1 managers have no trust or confidence in subordinates. They seldom get ideas and opinions from subordinates in solving job problems, and often use threats and punishment to get the work done.

Figure 3.1.

Likert's four systems.

Exploit- ative Authorit- ative	Benevol- ent-Auth oritative	Consult- ative democra- tic	Particip- ative
System 1	System 2	System3	system4

Source:Rensis Likert, The Human Organization, New York:
McGraw-Hill, 1967, p.24.

- (2) System 2 "Benevolent-Authoritative". The Benevolent-Authoritative leaders communicate in a downward manner to subordinates. They may allow a limited amount of subordinate involvement in decision-making. These managers motivate by the use of rewards and some actual or potential punishment. They show condescending confidence and trust, such as to servants.

- (3) System 3 "Consultative- Democratic". They have substantial but not complete confidence and trust in subordinates. They wish to keep control of decisions, get ideas from subordinates and try to make constructive use of them. Subordinates in this system feel free to discuss aspects of the job with their superior.
- (4) System 4 "Participative-Democratic". According to Likert, this is the most effective style. Managers have complete confidence and trust in subordinates. Subordinates feel completely free to discuss aspects of the job with their superiors. Managers get ideas and opinions and try to make constructive use of them. They motivate by the use of economic rewards based on compensation systems developed through participation. Members of the organisation have strong feelings of responsibility. Information flows up to managers and laterally to peers. On the other hand, downward communication is generally accepted, but if not, openly and candidly questioned.¹⁴ Likert's research indicated that high-performance managers emphasised the human aspects of subordinates' problems, and used the group style of management rather than the individual style. Even though some researchers reached results similar to Likert's studies, Likert's theory did not show that his results are always valid.

Despite the criticism of Likert's theory, which concentrate mainly on the claim that system 4 is the most

effective style of management, some of his colleagues are calling on managers, especially in the United States, to use what they call a more powerful system, that is system 5. Likert and Atarki argue that system 5 is similar to system 4 with little modification. In system 4, the leader is responsible for the health of the organisation. He must make sure that the climate of the organisation is conducive to the free flow of communication. In contrast, in system 5 organisation, this obligation is more widely shared. The leader does not have the main responsibility for the climate of the organisation and its effective operation. Furthermore, in system 5, the policy might be initiated by any group, and decisions are made when consensus has been reached.¹⁵ Likert and Atarki maintain:

" Likert envisioned system 5 as an extension of system 4. He believed that it would be possible for an organisation to move toward system 5 only if its leaders and members understand system 4 principles and were proficient in their application. He was not convinced that organisations had reached that goal in his lifetime and so were not ready to entertain the even more radical idea, the loss of hierarchical authority which system 5 entails. Now that the principles of system 4 are being accepted and used in many different segments of the American society, it may be time to take the next step and move on to the development of an even more effective

system, a system without "a boss".¹⁶

System 5 management suggested by Likert's associates goes beyond system 4. It is clear that if this system were applied it would make the principle of hierarchical authority very loose or almost nonexistent. Advocates of this system base their argument on the idea that system 4 principles are being accepted and used in many different segments of American society, so this is the right time to use system 5. More generally, the use of system 4 by some organisations does not justify the move from this system to the new one. The most important point to consider is whether the use of system 4 was effective or not. Studies have shown that system 4 was not valid or the most effective in all situations. For instance, Henry Ford who was a very effective manager, especially at getting people to work for their organisation, cannot be described as a system 4 manager. However, more research is needed on system 5. The future use of the system by organisations would be helpful to reach some solid conclusions about its validity.

3.2.3. Ohio State University Study.

A group of researchers at Ohio University Bureau of Business Research made an extensive study of leadership. They found that a leader's behaviour could be classified along two dimensions: structure and consideration.

The consideration dimension means mutual trust, respect,

and a friendly relationship between supervisors and subordinates, whereas the structure dimension involves defining the superior relationships and activities of the group in assigning tasks, and establishing methods for doing things.

The most important thing about the Ohio study is that some scholars found that a high score on one dimension does not necessitate a low score on the other. Furthermore, some studies have indicated that the highest performance was associated with leaders who were strong on the two dimensions.¹⁷

3.2.4. The Managerial Grid

One of the most prominent leadership theories is the Managerial Grid developed by Blake and Mouton. They proposed five basic styles of leadership.¹⁸

- (1) Impoverished or "1.1 Management". Managers of this type have little concern for production and people.
- (2) Country club or "1.9 Management". Leaders emphasise human relations, but have little concern for production.
- (3) Task or "9.1 Management". The leader is very concerned about task, but has little concern for people.
- (4) Middle of the road or "5.5 Management". The leader has moderate concern for people and production.
- (5) Team Management or "9.9 Management". The leader has high concern for both people and production.

Figure 3.2.

The Managerial Grid

1,9								9,9
				5,5				
1,1								9,1

Source: Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, The New Managerial Grid, Houston: Gulf Publishing company, 1978, p.11.

Blake and Mouton argue that the most effective style of leadership is the 9.9 leader. According to them, once the person's concern for production and people is recognised, his style could be determined on the grid shown in figure 3.2. After that, an appropriate training programme can be designed to help shift the person's leadership style toward the preferred direction of high concern for people.

Blake and Mouton's theory is a valuable theory, because it suggested that the individual leader is not classified as being either job-centered or employee-centered. It has stated that the leader could have different combinations of qualities but the most effective type of leadership,

according to Blake and Mouton, is the 9.9 Management.

The inclination of the Blake and Mouton theory to claim that a 9.9 manager is the best and the most effective is appealing. But the question that must be raised is whether this theory is feasible or not. Unfortunately, the answer is no. A leader is usually influenced by his background, upbringing, personality and the forces in the internal and external environments. By using the Managerial Grid technique in management development, something can be done to make changes in the above-mentioned variables. But what is questionable is the degree of effectiveness of the Managerial Grid in making sweeping changes in all these variables.¹⁹

3.2.5. General Evaluation of Behavioural Theory

The Behavioural approach to leadership is distinguished from that of the Trait approach. The latter emphasises the characteristics that should be available in the person to make him an effective leader, whereas the first tends to assume a particular style of leadership to be more effective than other styles.

In fact, the tendency of the Behavioural theories to claim a certain style (normally participative) to be more effective is a limitation in itself. Such a claim is morally and intellectually appealing. This is especially true for those who are highly concerned about humanisation of the workplace. This may also be true for industrial countries where lower-level needs are expected

to be satisfied.²⁰

However, the empirical evidence is not consistent with the Behavioural theories' argument. Both task-oriented and relationship-oriented leaders were found to be effective in some cases but not in others. Hence, the Behavioural theory ignores the situation in which the leadership takes place. In this regard, Schermerhorn observes:

"It is now recognized that there is no consistent relationship between participative or democratic leadership and leadership success. The best that can be said is that these styles tend to result in high follower satisfaction. Productivity, however, is a more complex factor that depends on things other than leadership style alone".²¹

As far as developing countries are concerned, the Behavioural theories seem to fall short of recognising the environmental and cultural variables. Put simply, most of the Behavioural theories are based on studies conducted in developed countries, particularly the U.S.A. To what degree these theories can generalise their propositions to developing countries is a matter that needs further and careful investigation in developing countries.

The Contingency or the Situational theory came to emphasise some of the issues that were not considered in the Behavioural theory. This will be covered in the following section.

3.3. Contingency or Situational Theory

The search for one best style to lead people will never end. Everyday more researchers and managers conclude that leadership effectiveness cannot be answered with simplistic solutions. What seems to be the best answer is, " It all depends".²²

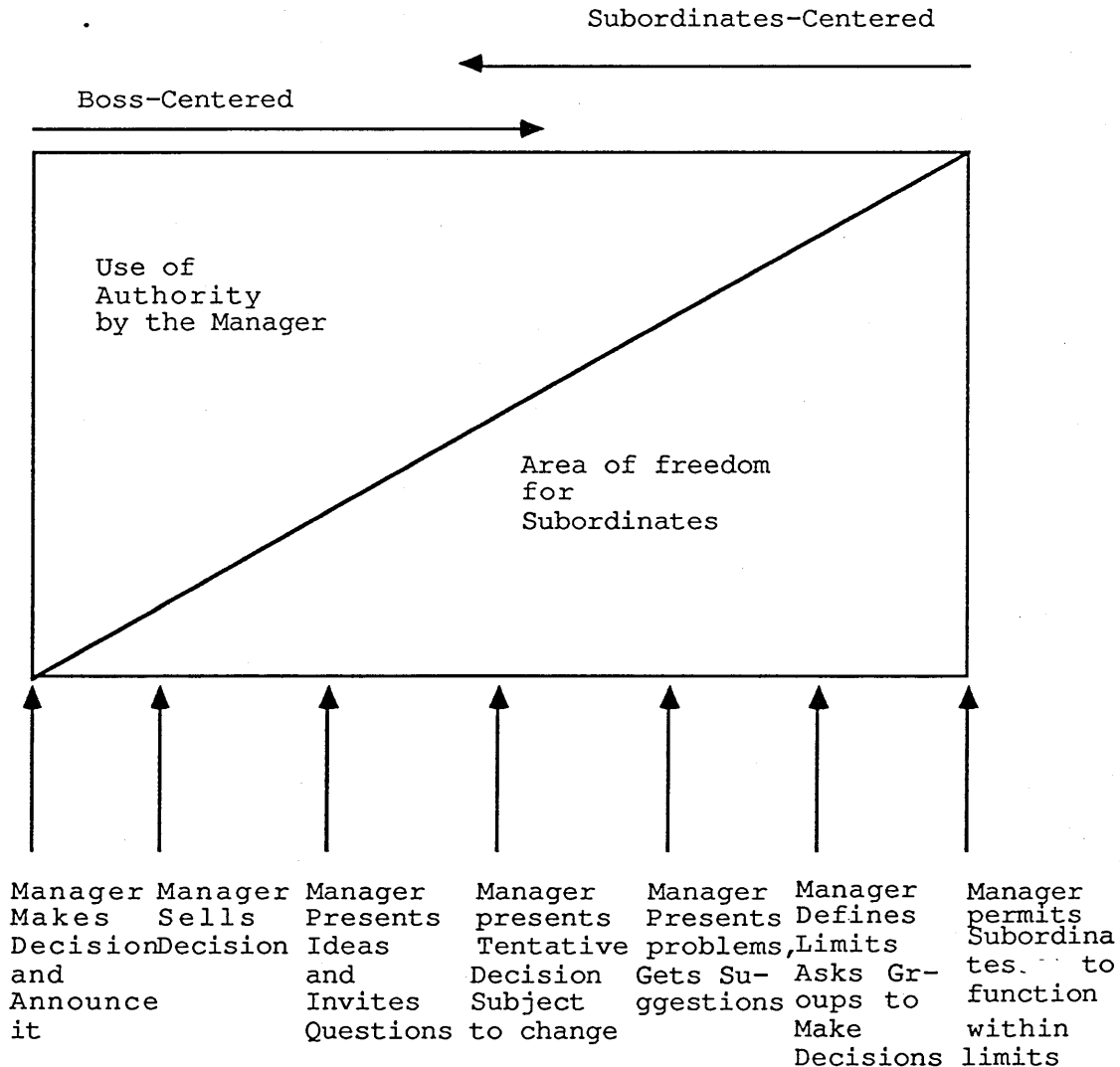
Therefore, the essence of the Contingency theory is that, there is no one best way to lead. What works well in some situations will not necessarily be applied successfully in another. In other words, it is hard to generalise and say, for example, the democratic leader or boss- centered leader is always effective or ineffective. This section reviews five situational theories.

3.3.1. Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Theory

This theory is one of the earliest situational theories of leadership. Tannenbaum and Schmidt offered a theory which is based on the assumption that the appropriate leadership style depends on the situation. They identify three factors that determine the manager's choice of any leadership style.²³ These are: (A) forces on the manager. (B) forces on the subordinates. (C) forces on the situation.

Figure 3.3.

Continuum of leader behaviour.



Source: Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern", Harvard Business Review, Vol.51, May-June 1973, p.164.

These forces will determine the position of the leader on the continuum suggested by Tannenbaum and Schmidt. The continuum (as can be seen in figure 3.3) goes from boss-centered leadership on one side to employee-centered on the other. In order to be able to master how these forces influence the position of the leader on the continuum

more explanation of these forces is required.

A. Forces on the Manager The manager's value system, whether or not he believes that individuals should have a share in making decisions, will influence his position on the continuum. In addition, the degree of confidence in subordinates, the inclination of managers to direct others or involve them, and their feeling of security in uncertain situations, will determine his position.

B. Forces on the Subordinates. The manager can permit his subordinates greater freedom if the following conditions exist:

- (1) if subordinates have high needs for independence.
- (2) if subordinates have readiness to assume responsibility.
- (3) if subordinates have a relatively high tolerance for ambiguity.
- (4) if subordinates are interested in the problem.
- (5) if they identify with the goals of the organisation.
- (6) if they have the necessary knowledge and experience to deal with the problem.
- (7) if they have learned to expect to share in decision making.

C. Forces on the Situation Among the more critical situational factors are:

- (1) type of organisation. Values and traditions of the organisation influence the manager's approach.
- (2) work group. If the group has experience in working together it is more likely that such a group will

develop the habits of cooperation.

- (3) the problem itself. The question that managers should ask here is: do subordinates have the knowledge or experience to handle the problem ? If the problem is very complex the situation may force one person to work it out.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt's theory was first published in 1958. In 1973 they updated the theory because many changes in organisations and in the world had taken place. Therefore, the organisation is viewed in the new version of the theory as an open system with emphasis on subsystem interdependency. The interaction of an organisation with its environment and the social environment were added as very important on the continuum.

Tannenbaum & Schmidt's theory is useful in identifying the various alternatives of behaviour available to the manager. However, the theory does not go far beyond common sense, nor is it precise in suggesting the particular choice a manager should make on the continuum.²⁴

3.3.2. Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership

In line with thinking that effective leadership styles are situational, Fiedler developed a model of leadership. Fiedler identified three situational dimensions.²⁵ These are :

- (a) leader-member relations. This refers to the degree of trust and confidence between the leader and subordinates, and how attractive the leader's personality is to followers.
- (b) task structure. This dimension refers to the degree of clarity or ambiguity of the subordinates' task. Whether or not it is well defined, and structured.
- (c) position power. This is related to the power possessed by the leader arising from organisational authority. This kind of power does not include personal power, referent or charismatic power.

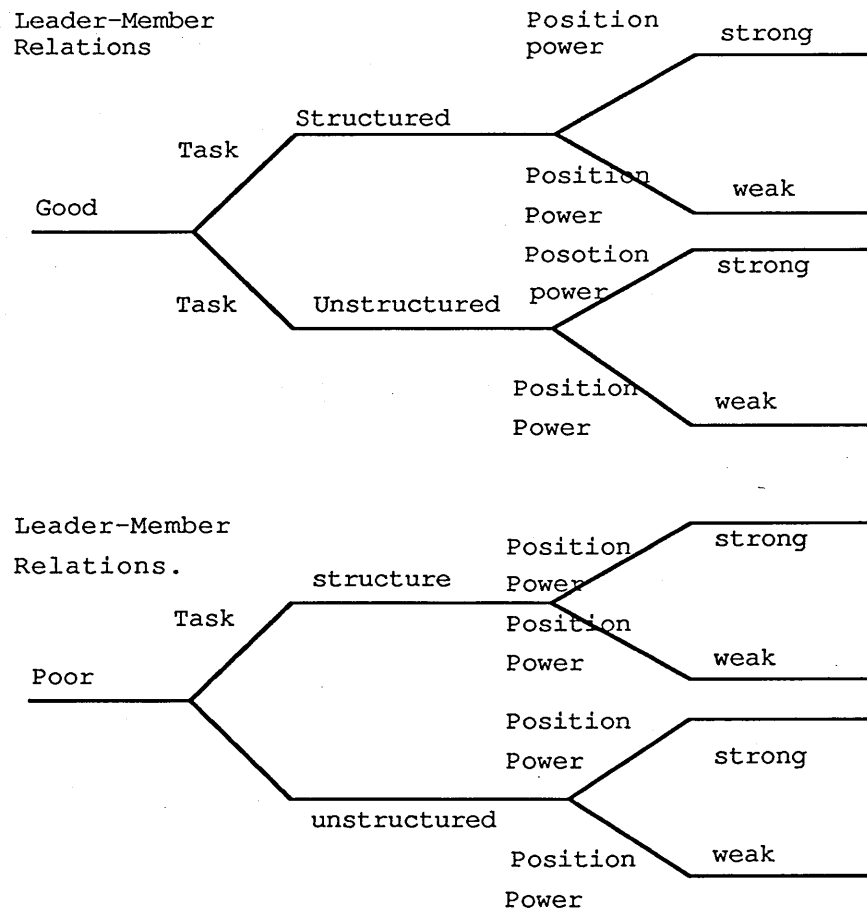
The above three dimensions, according to Fiedler, determine the favourableness of the situation. By favourableness, Fiedler means the degree to which the leader can control the situation. In situations where high control or low control are possessed by the leader, a task-oriented leader will be more successful. But in situations where only a moderate amount of favourableness exists for the leader, a human relationships-oriented approach will be more effective.

It can be seen that neither task-oriented nor human relations-oriented is suggested to be effective in all situations. Figure (3.4) shows 8 different situations that require different styles of leadership. In situation 1, where relationships are good, the task is structured, position power is strong, and in situation 8, where the task is unstructured, leader-member relations and

position power are weak, the task-oriented approach is more effective.²⁶

Figure 3.4.

Fiedler's contingency model of leadership.



Source: Michael Mescon, Michael Albert and Franklin Khedouri, Management, New York: Harper and Row, 1985, p.501.

The relationship-oriented type manager is more effective when the situation is moderately favourable. In this case the leader does not have enough power to obtain sufficient cooperation from followers, but followers do not seek out opportunities to rebel. In such a situation subordinates will be inclined to do whatever they are

asked by the leader. If the latter uses the task-oriented approach in this situation, he or she is taking the risk of resistance among followers which will reduce the leader's influence.

Fiedler's contingency theory is a promising one. It identifies the fact that effectiveness could be increased by altering one of the two variables, style or situation. However, he admits that changing the situation is much easier than changing the style. Fiedler's theory is a valuable one to organisations. It encourages managers to identify the dominant leadership style being exhibited by the leader and then to create a situation to fit.²⁷ Empirical evidence suggests that Fiedler's model can have some practical implications for the recruitment, selection and placement of leaders.²⁸

This theory has been criticised on the grounds that Fiedler only examined a limited range of groups such as basketball teams, and members of small co-operatives. Fiedler was also criticised that his data was not convincing enough to support his assumptions.²⁹ Finally, the theory classifies style of leadership into two types only, task-oriented and human relations-oriented. Such classification is simplistic.

3.3.3. Path-Goal Theory

Another contingency theory which urges leaders to match the style to the situation is the Path-Goal Theory of

Robert House. According to this theory, the effective leader is the one who defines for subordinates the paths to achieve organisational goals and personal goals. House suggests four basic styles of leadership: ³⁰

- (A) directive leadership. Directive leadership is involved in letting subordinates know what is expected from them, scheduling work to be done, maintaining clear standards for performance, and providing subordinates with guidance how it should be done.
- (B) supportive leadership. This type is concerned about making the work pleasant, being friendly, and showing concern for needs of subordinates.
- (C) achievement-oriented leadership in which the leader sets challenging goals, emphasises excellence in performance, sees improvement in performance, and shows a high degree in confidence that subordinates will assume responsibility.
- (D) participative leadership. In this the leader consults with subordinates, and seeks subordinates' suggestions before making decisions.

The style that should be used by the leader depends on two major factors: First; characteristics of the leader, second; environmental pressures. If subordinates have a high need for self-esteem and affiliation, a supportive style is most appropriate, but if subordinates have a high need for autonomy and self actualisation, they are likely to prefer task-oriented leaders. On the other

hand, when the nature of the task is ambiguous, again task-oriented leader is preferable, whereas, when the nature of the task is unclear, a supportive style would be more appropriate. The participative leadership is more appropriate when subordinates feel they should be involved in making decisions, whereas when subordinates have confidence in their ability to attain challenging goals, the achievement-oriented leadership will be most appropriate.

The path-goal theory seems another promising theory like Fiedler's. Research findings have indicated that the Path-Goal theory is valid for upper-level positions and professional tasks, where leaders are in the position to have considerable influence on providing the climate for performance.³¹ However, since this theory is relatively new, more research is needed in order for it to be validated.³²

3.3.4. Vroom-Yetton's Theory

Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton formulated another contingency theory which focuses on the decision-making process. They propose that there are five styles from which a manager can choose according to the degree that subordinates are allowed to participate in decision-making. The five styles represent a continuum that varies from authoritarian or autocratic (A1,A11) to consultative (C1,C11), to a participative style (G11). These five styles are presented in table 3.1.

Table 3.1.

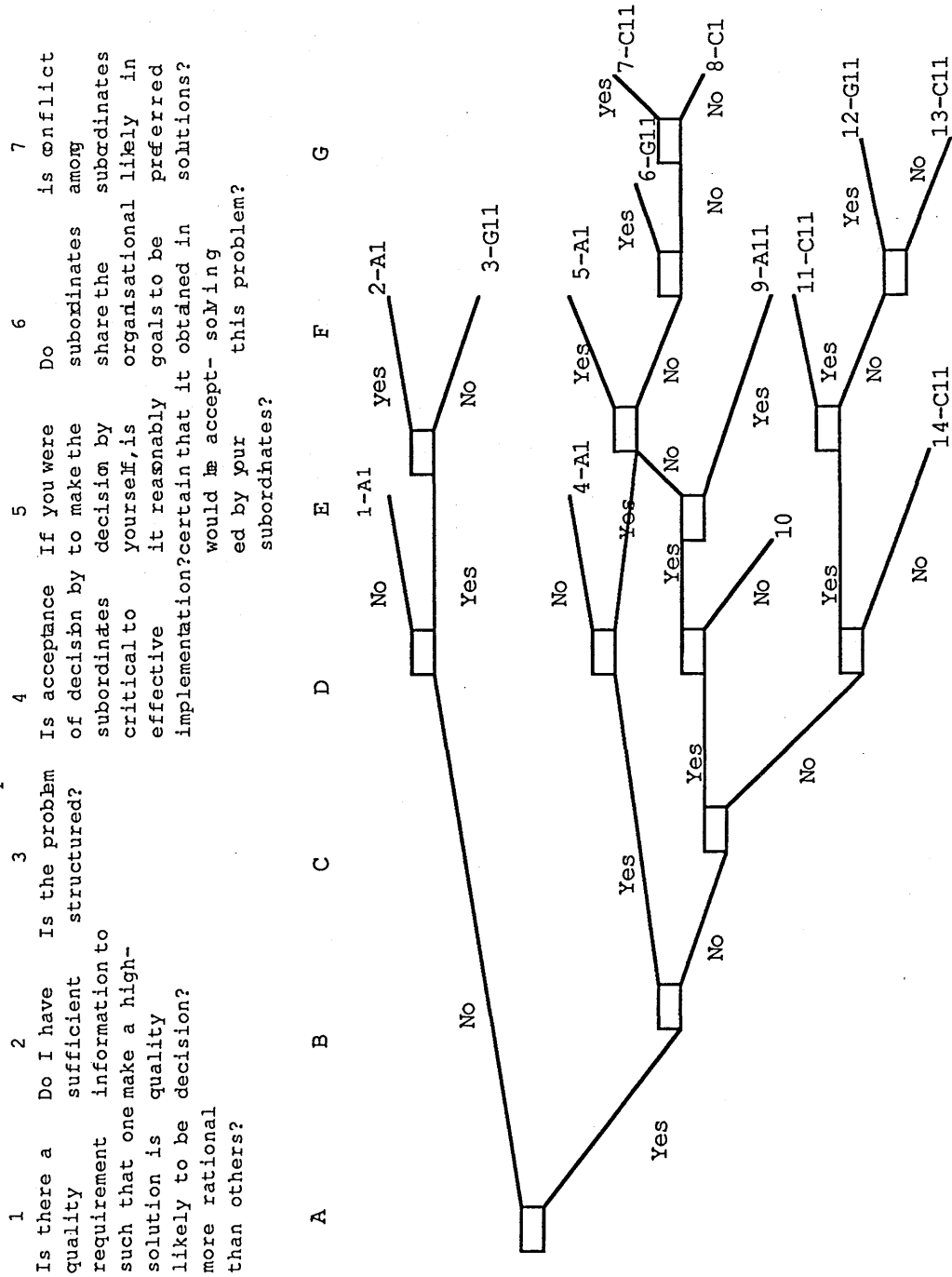
Vroom-Yetton Five Styles of Decision Making.

-
- (1) You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at that time.
 - (2) You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is when getting the information from them.
 - (3) You solve the problem with relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision that may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.
 - (4) You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, collectively obtaining their ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision that may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.
 - (5) You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. You do not try to influence the group to adopt your solution, and you are willing to accept and implement any solution that has the support of the entire group.
-

source: Victor H. Vroom, "A new look at Managerial Decision Making," Organizational Dynamics, Vol.1, No.4, 1973, p.67.

Figure 3.5.

Decision process flow chart.



Source: Victor H. Vroom, "A New Look at Managerial Decision Making",

Organisational Dynamics, Vol. 1, No. 4, 1973, p. 70.

Vroom and Yetton developed seven problem attributes in order to help managers evaluate the situation. These attributes are presented in figure (3.5). Each of the seven attributes can be changed into a question that a manager can ask himself to evaluate the situation, and then determine the style of decision-making approach to be used. The decision tree presented in figure (3.5) explains how the manager should do that in order to assess the situation and determine the appropriate style.

Vroom and Yetton's theory offers another illustration of the practicality of Situational theory. It shows that any of the five styles presented by the theory can be useful depending on the situation. In fact, some studies' findings are consistent with this theory. However, the theory has been criticised that it is complicated. It is so, because it would be hard to work through the questions and go through all the details to determine the effective style of leadership. Another important criticism has to do with the capability of the manager to be flexible enough and change his style depending on the situation. Such capability seems to be highly questionable. Most managers are comfortable with one main style and complete flexibility is unlikely.

3.3.5. Hersey and Blanchard's Model.

Another contingency model is Hersey and Blanchard's situational model or what is called the Life-Cycle Theory of leadership. It argues that since effectiveness of

leaders depends on how their leadership style interrelates with the situation in which they operate, an effectiveness dimension should be incorporated into the two-dimensional model (relationship and task). In order to be able to do that, maturity of the followers (subordinates) or group should be assessed to determine the effective style of leadership.

Maturity is defined by Hersey and Blanchard as "the capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or a group".³³ Maturity in this context is concerned about psychological age not chronological age. However, chronological age might be a factor.

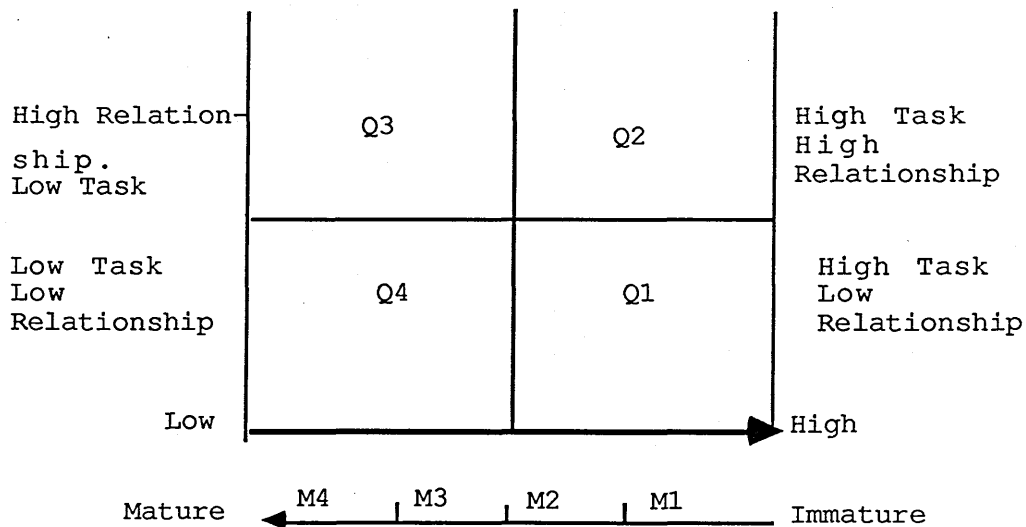
Hersey and Blanchard give the relationship of children and parents as an example on the Life-Cycle Theory. As children begin to mature parents tend to (or are supposed to) provide opportunities for their children to be more responsible. The same situation applies to the appropriate leader behaviour. As the level of maturity of subordinates increases leader behaviour not only require less structure (task) while increasing consideration but should eventually entail decreases in socioemotional support (relationships).

According to the Model, maturity is divided into four levels.

- (1) low level of maturity. This level is referred to as maturity level M1.
- (2) low to moderate , or maturity level M2.
- (3) moderate to high or maturity level M3.
- (4) high level of maturity or maturity level M4.

Figure 3.6.

Hersey and Blanchard's model of leadership.



Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behaviour, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1975, p.167.

According to this model, when subordinates have a low level of maturity (M1), a high task/low relationship style has the highest probability of success. When subordinates have a low level to middle level of maturity (M2), a high task/high relationship style appears to be most appropriate. People who are of moderate to high maturity (M3), need a leader who is high on relationship and low on task. Finally people or subordinates who have a high maturity level (M4) need a leader low on both task

and relationships. Figure (3.6) shows how the match is made between maturity level and leadership styles.

The figure is divided into four quadrants: Q1, Q2, Q3, and Q4. Below the figure is a line which represents a continuum of maturity, which also consists of four levels: M1, M2, M3, and M4. For example, if one wants to know which style of leadership is most effective on a point in maturity level 2, draw a line from the point to reach the bell shaped curve. The line should make a 90 degree angle on the point of maturity on the continuum. For instance, in the figure it can be seen that subordinates have a low to middle level of maturity (M2). If a line is drawn from that quadrant it will hit the second level of maturity.

Hersey and Blanchard's Model is distinguished from other theories or models because it urges managers to be dynamic by taking into consideration the subordinates' level of maturity. However, it fails to take into consideration the nature of the job to be performed and the personal characteristics of managers.

3.3.6. General Evaluation of Contingency Theory

It is evident that the Contingency or the Situational theories are more logical and broader in perspective than the Trait or the Behavioural approaches. The Situational theories neither concentrate only on the leader's characteristics nor on his behaviour. On the contrary,

the Situational theory is a multi-dimensional approach. Empirical evidence points out in that direction.

However, the Situational theories are relatively new, hence more research is required to validate them. Another important point has to be raised about the validity of the Situational theories in developing countries. Unfortunately, most of these theories are based on studies carried out in Western countries (especially in the U.S.A). Therefore in order to validate these theories, more research is required in developing countries as well as in developed countries.

Furthermore, the Situational theories, probably with the exception of the Tannenbaum and Schmidt's theory, do not give careful consideration of or even exclude the values and cultures prevailing in each organisation. These values may have a substantial influence on the managerial style of managers in a certain organisation and thus the organisational culture dimension should have been included in those theories.

Recently, a model by Nicholls offered an approach to leadership which goes beyond the more simplistic situational approaches. His model argues that the job of the leader goes far beyond evaluating the situation. The following section will review this model in more detail.

3.4. Congruent and Transforming Models

John Nicholls criticises Hersey and Blanchard's Model

and offers what he calls a correction to it. According to Hersey and Blanchard, subordinates at the four different levels of maturity or development, have the characteristics presented in figure (3.7).

Figure 3.7.

Leadership style related to development level proposed by Hersey and Blanchard's model.

Development Level			
High	←		→ Low
Delegate	Particip- ate	Consult	Tell
Able Willing	Able Unwilling	Unable Willing	Unable Unwilling

Source: John Nicholls, Beyond Situational Leadership," European Management Journal, Vol.4, No.1, Spring 1986, p.43.

Nicholls criticises how subordinates' willingness in Hersey and Blanchard's Model changes from one level to another (figure 3.7). In the first level they are unable and unwilling. At the second level, although still unable, they develop to become willing. At the third level willingness disappears even though subordinates develop ability. Again in the fourth level willingness reappears and the group becomes both willing and able. Therefore, the continuum is not very continuous. Nicholls also argues that Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model says nothing about the leader role in developing his subordinates.³⁴

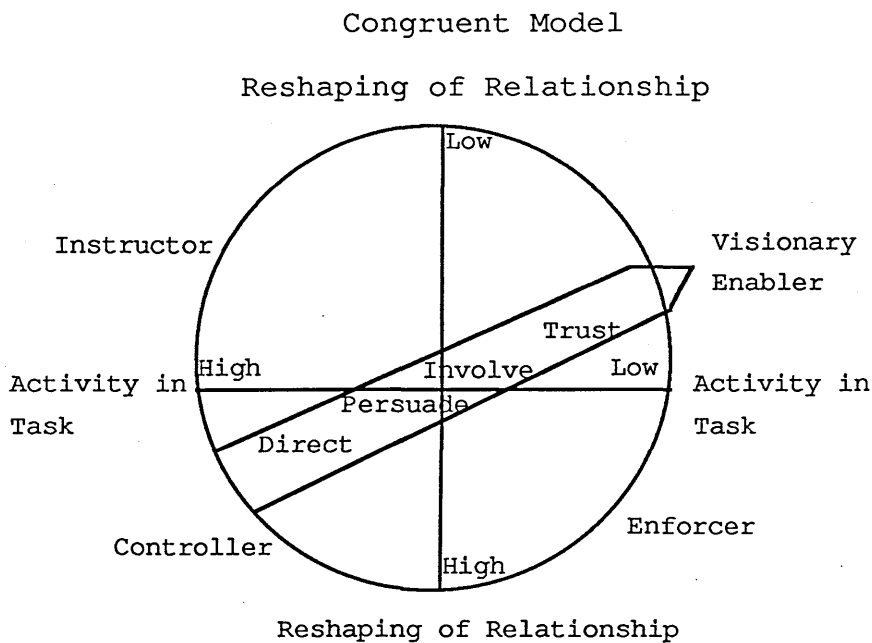
The Congruent Model, claims Nicholls, corrects Hersey

and Blanchard's Model and presents it differently, the task and relationship axes crossing each other at the center rather than forming a square. The axes are labelled. " activity in task", and "reshaping of relationship". In figure (3.8) it can be seen how the leader in the "controller" role is high in both activity in task, and in reshaping of relationships. As subordinates develop their abilities and willingness, the leader moves diagonally from "direct" through "persuade" and "involve" to "trust". These four terminologies are based on Hersey and Blanchard's model, which in turn is based on Tannenbaum and Schmidt's model discussed earlier in this chapter. In other words, the four terminologies represent four different styles of leadership, which were renamed by Nicholls, to represent the following terminologies respectively: Tell, consult, participate, and delegate.

Nicholls argues that the progression from lack of willingness and ability to willingness and ability is systematic. The "visionary enabler" role which the leader should use after full development of subordinates, is the opposite of the controller role. In that quadrant, the leader is low on, activity in task, as well as in reshaping of relationship. The Congruent Model assumes that ability and willingness will develop symmetrically in a group. If subordinates' ability develops before their willingness, the progression will be toward the

Southeast, starting from the quadrant in which the leader plays the role of enforcer. The term "enforcer" was used in order to stress the necessity of using a firm stance, if needed. In this situation subordinates are able but not willing. On the other hand if subordinates' willingness develops before their abilities, the progression will be from the Northwest in the quadrant in which the leader plays the role of the instructor.

Figure 3.8.



Source: John Nicholls, "Beyond Situational Leadership- Congruent and Transforming Models for Leadership Training", European Management Journal, Vol.4, No.4, Spring 1986, p.49.

Nicholls argues that as technology changes the complexity of industry and commerce require higher levels of individual skills and management expertise. Therefore, "transforming" leadership will be of great help in accelerating the shift toward the visionary enabler role.

This is done by having leaders who place on the team members the responsibility of making decisions.

The Congruent and Transforming Models of leadership add new thoughts to the theory of leadership which other contingency and behavioural approaches seem not to take into consideration. Nicholls emphasises the role that the leader can play in what he calls Congruent and Transforming roles. These are performed by creating a "new reality". This is done by altering perceptions, and influencing latent energies of subordinates.

Nicholls admits that determining the ability and willingness of employees could be subjective because of organisational biases and personal psychological factors. However, subjectivity is also involved in other leadership models such as Hersey and Blanchard's Model.

In short, Nicholls' Model can be considered as different from other models or theories in that managers should be dynamic and influential on their subordinates to create a "new reality". This model needs more research to validate it, as is the case with situational theories.

4. Some Notes on Theories of Leadership

The previous review of leadership theories highlights the following points.

- (1) There is no consensus among scholars of management or theorists about the best approach to leadership.
- (2) Some of these theories emphasise the idea that some

styles are the best in all situations. Behavioural theories are inclined to support this trend. However, the behavioural theories have been challenged by the situational theories and the latter have gained a lot of popularity. This could be attributed to the supposition that there is no "best style" in all situations.

- (3) Some of the theories are relatively new. Situational theories and congruent and transforming models need more research to test their validity.

Consequently, it appears hard to conclude that a universal style of leadership can be prescribed for managers in all situations. Hence, the idea of universality of management is far from being a reality. Nevertheless, this idea has its own advocates.

5. Universality of Management.

Over the past twenty years studies of managerial attitudes and behaviour have been abundant. Researchers interested in managerial thinking and behaviour are increasing in number. This interest is intensified by the fact that many organisations have become international in their operations, and many more have the same ambition.

Researchers interested in international management and cross-cultural studies may be classified into three main groups.³⁵

- (1) The universal school believes that no great difference

exists in managerial behaviour across cultures. Managers are expected to perform the same functions regardless of culture. Therefore, their behaviour is determined by their functions rather than by their cultures.

- (2) The Economic Cluster School argues that manager's behaviour is the product of a nation's economic and industrial development.
- (3) The Cultural Cluster School suggests that culture is the major independent variable in explaining managerial behaviour and attitudes. Therefore, international and behavioural differences are the result of the divergent values within different cultural spheres.

Each of the three schools has its advocates and opponents. The literature on this subject is full of contradictions. Studies conducted on different countries came to different conclusions. Haire, Ghiselli and Porter's study of over 3600 managers in fourteen countries revealed that substantial similarities exist among managers in all the countries studied.³⁶

Other comparative studies on managers in different countries support the findings of Haire et al. For example, D. B. Stephans studied managers in the U.S.A and Peru and found that the style of managers in these two countries is similar. Differences found were related to the perceptions of American and Peruvian managers about subordinates. The former had a more positive view about

the capacity of subordinates to take responsibility than their Peruvian counterparts.³⁷ Richard Pascale found a wide area of similarity and commonality between Japanese and American managers concerning communications and decision-making practices.³⁸ Naseer's study supported the idea that similarities exist among views of managers. The respondents in Nasser's study represented many countries and regions around the world. They came from different cultural backgrounds such as Western Europe, North America, the Middle East and Eastern countries such as Korea, Thailand, India, Pakistan, and Japan.³⁹

The economic cluster school argues that managers' behaviour is influenced by the level of development in the respective countries. The most prominent advocates of this school are Harbison and Myers. They argue that the level of industrialisation in the country greatly influences the approach used by managers in dealing with subordinates. They described Egyptian management as being gravely concerned with its authority and the preservation of its prerogatives. They describe management in India as follows:

"It is rather widely recognized in India that many Indian top management are authoritarian in their relationship with subordinates in management and with workers. This was also true of foreign management before independence in its dealing with Indian subordinates, and these authoritarian attitudes, combined with racial prejudices, undoubtedly contributed to the strength of the Indian nationalist movement. But

authoritarianism in the superior-subordinate relationship has deeper roots in the Indian culture and in the stage of industrialization, as is all too evident in any visit to the head office of a private firm or government department when a subordinate is "summoned" to the seat of power for a command or a reprimand".⁴⁰

McClelland, in line with Harbison and Myers, argues that belief in rewarding a man directly for what he accomplishes in business is closely associated with the stage of economic development of the region from which the managers are drawn. McClelland maintains that there is a close correlation between the average achievement drive of the managers in each country and the relative levels of economic development of that country. In his study of managers in the U.S.A, Italy, Turkey and Poland he found that the American managers had the highest achievement score followed by the Polish, then the Italian and finally the Turkish.⁴¹

The cultural school also has many supporters. Clark and McCabe in their study found that Australian managers hold leadership beliefs similar to those of managers in England and the United States.⁴² Peterson conducted a cross-cultural study of chief executives in the U.S.A, Western Europe, Latin America, and Commonwealth countries. He found that cultural relativity was very important in executives' attitudes.⁴³ Another cross-cultural study by Schaupp found that the countries studied clustered into three groups: Western Countries,

Less Developed Countries and Japan.⁴⁴ Research on many countries like Nigeria by Ejiogu;⁴⁵ the U.K, France, Canada and Japan by Kanungo and Wright;⁴⁶ have supported the importance of culture on managerial thinking. Ali and Al-Shakis reached similar results in their study of Saudi managers.⁴⁷

Probably the most extensive study is Hofstede's in which he studied over 116000 personnel from a U.S-based multinational corporation (MNC) operating in many countries around the world. Hofstede identifies four dimensions of any national culture.⁴⁸ These are:

- (1) Power Distance. This indicates the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organisations is distributed unequally.
- (2) Uncertainty Avoidance. This indicates the degree to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater stability, and establishing more formal rules.
- (3) Individualism -Collectivism which refers to the degree to which a society focuses on individuals or groups as resources for work and social problem-solving.
- (4) Masculinity. The extent to which the dominant values in society are masculine such as assertiveness, independence, and the acquisition of money and things.

Based on the results of this study Hofstede calls on managers to tailor their practices to fit local cultures.

It can be seen from the previous review of the literature that the results of these studies are often contradictory. Some of the findings support the idea that management is universal, while others emphasise the impact of cultural factors on managerial attitudes and behaviour.

Studies to test the argument of the Economic Cluster School, which is interpreted by some writers to be part of the Cultural School, also reached different conclusions. Cummings and Schmidt studied managers in Greece, which has cultural similarities with some southern European Countries and the same level of industrialisation as some developing countries. The findings of this study claim to refute the explanation based either on industrialisation or cultural differences to account for managerial attitude differences.⁴⁹

5.1. Distinction Between Principles and Practices

As an alternative to the different "schools" of thought on international management, some theories look at this issue from a different point of view. These theorists draw a distinction between management fundamentals and management practices. Koontz and O'Donnell are the advocates of this distinction. They state:

"It is important in any study of the transferability of knowledge to separate the fundamentals of management from their application to given situations. For example, one might well

expect, as these authors do, that basic management theory and principles have universal applicability, and yet equally expect that management approaches and techniques would vary in different cultures. In other words, the only approach toward comparative management believed to be valid is to distinguish between management fundamentals, or the science of management, and management practice".⁵⁰

The argument of Koontz and O'Donnel was supported by the findings of other studies. For instance, Kiggundi et al reviewed the literature on developing countries and paid special attention to the degree of "correspondence" or what they called "fit" between Western- based theory and its application in developing and developed countries. They found that administrative techniques were easily applied by organisations in developing countries. For example, job evaluation, performance appraisal and wage or salary administration techniques were used effectively by some developing countries. Kiggundi et al., argue that the theory can be applied in both developing and industrialised countries where the effects of the intervening variables are limited to the organisations's technical functions, or where the organisation can deal freely with the variables that have minimum effect on the environment.⁵¹

There is no doubt that the literature on management transferability and similarities or differences between managers in different countries is abundant. However, the question that should be raised at this point is: whether

the literature available is sufficient to come up with generalisations about the possibility of transferability of management, and the differences and similarities between managers in different countries. Carefully, reviewing the literature reveals the following points:

- (1) Some parts of the world are excluded from these studies. Most of these studies concentrate on the developed and some on developing countries.
- (2) The studies conducted on management in developing countries tend to apply their generalisations to other developing countries which have some similarities. For example, the few studies conducted on some Middle Eastern countries tend to generalise their findings to all countries in that part of the world.

5.2. Management in the Arab World

The previous section has reviewed the issue of universality of management at considerable length. Though the literature is abundant on this subject, it is not sufficient to draw generalisations about similarities of management in many countries or regions in the world. For instance, management in the Arab countries is normally thought by many scholars to be similar. However, such a claim is not mainly based on empirical studies, but on the cultural similarities which in turn are based on the cultural school discussed in the previous section.

The area which represents what is called the Arab World

is very large. It extends from the Atlantic Ocean in the west, to Iran in the east, and to the Mediterranean Sea and Turkey in the north.

Even though this area is very large, there is no doubt that there are cultural similarities between the populations. They have more common things to share than, for example, Western Europeans or probably more than any other region in the world. Chief among these commonalities are: the language; despite the fact that there are many dialects, Arabs speak the same language; Islam is the second common thing among Arabs. It is the predominant religion with Christianity the second most common. After the emergence of the Prophet Mohammed and for several centuries after him, the Arabs built a widespread empire and contributed significantly at the cultural and scientific level to the heritage of man. Therefore, similarity of history is another common aspect among the present day Arab countries.

From the beginning of the 16th Century, the Arabs were ruled by the Ottoman Empire and this lasted about 400 hundred years until the First World War. After this war, the area was divided between the French and the British governments. It remained that way until the Arab countries took their independence from France and Britain and formed separate independent states. That resulted in the establishment of 21 countries and left the Palestinian people without a homeland.

Influenced by the British and French political, economic, educational, and legal systems, each Arab country developed its own systems which led to differences between these countries. Differences also resulted from the different political and economic systems influenced by the American and Soviet models.

Consequently, one can conclude by saying there are both differences and similarities between Arab countries. To what extent management practices and managers' behaviour are similar, needs some investigation. In other words, is it possible to say that there is an Arab School of Management? Probably the best way to acquaint ourselves with this issue is to review the studies conducted on management in this area.

5.2.1. Arab Management in General

At the outset it should be emphasised that there is no comprehensive study that covers management in all Arab countries. A relatively comprehensive one in terms of its coverage is Muna's study. Muna surveyed 52 senior managers from six Arab countries. Table 3.2 shows the distribution of Muna's sample by country and sector of business. The main findings of Muna are:⁵²

- (1) that consultation is rooted deeply in the Arab culture. This was reflected in the results which indicated that the senior managers surveyed have a preference for consultation.
- (2) that the Arab executives are put under pressure from

friends, relatives and communities. They are expected to be helpful to their community members and relatives.

Table 3.2.
Distribution of Muna's sample by country and sector of business.

Country	Number	Mfg.	Trade&serv.	Conglom- erate
Egypt	9	7	2	-
Jordan	10	7	2	1
Kuwait	9	1	5	3
Lebanon	8	3	5	-
Saudi Arabia	10	5	3	2
UAE	6	1	4	1
Totals	52	24	21	7

Source: Farid Muna, The Arab Executive, London: Macmillan Press, 1980, p.126.

- (3) that the Arab executive experiences relatively low opposition from his immediate subordinates. The executive reduces the frequency of conflict either by authoritarian behaviour and/or by frequent consultation with his subordinates.
- (4) that the older the Arab Executives, the more autocratic they tend to be, sharing less of their decision-making with subordinates.
- (5) that the executives without university education tend to share more of their power with subordinates when compared to university-educated executives.

The above characteristics, especially the first three, are often quoted by writers and scholars of management when they describe management in any Arab country. The

following section is devoted to management in different sub-regions in the Arab World. Because few studies exist on each separate country, the following sections will look at management in the Gulf region and some other countries separately.

5.2.2. Management In the Arabian Gulf

Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, Iraq, Oman and UAE are all Gulf States. In addition, they are oil-producing and exporting countries. With the exception of Iraq, these countries have more than a similar culture to share. Their political and economic systems are very much the same and they are all members of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). Because of these similarities, researchers tend to look at these countries as one region or subregion. This study takes the same approach.

Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth conducted a study on 381 senior managers in Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Qatar, and the UAE. The managers held positions in 10 multinational organisations in the Gulf and came from various regions in the world such as the Middle East, Far East, Europe and North America. Managers perceived to be operating in the system 3 mode of management. System 3 management, according to Likert's scale, is a consultative style. The study also found that there were no significant differences between managers from the various regions. The results also indicated that managers tended to share the same participative inclinations as those in more

developed regions.⁵³

Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth also compared managers in the Gulf with those in the U.S.A and found that American managers were more inclined to use a participative approach. However, the difference between the managers' performance in the sample and those in the U.S.A was not very great. Both of them were in the same Likert category.

M.K.Badawy studied managers in the same region. The countries included in this study were: Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, and the UAE. Badawy found that organisational design is highly bureaucratic, and overcentralised, with power and authority at the top. Decisions are made at the highest level of management, and the leadership style prevailing is highly authoritarian. Badawy also found that attitudes of managers are influenced by the level of education, age, and length of experience.⁵⁴

Naseer's study of managerial attitudes and needs in Saudi Arabia found that there were no significant differences between Saudi and non-Saudi managers about their attitudes toward subordinates. Comparing the results of this study with similar studies in the developed countries, Naseer found that these results do not suggest that managers in the developing countries are authoritarian or that in the developed countries they are democratic.

Naseer also found that managers demographic characteristics had an impact on the attitudes they held.⁵⁵ This study was supported by Ali and Al-Shakis in their study on managerial value systems prevalent in Saudi Arabia. They found that managers' values differed according to sector of enterprise, region of childhood, social class background, income, and educational level.⁵⁶

Altuhiah and Van Fleet studied another aspect of managerial practice in Kuwait and found that family connections are very important and influential factors on Kuwaiti managers. The Kuwaiti managers studied perceived tribe/family connections to be, at least partially, one of the bases that managers relied on in making managerial decisions, such as hiring new employees.⁵⁷

5.2.3. Management in Iraq

Sulieman surveyed 44 senior managers in the Iraqi manufacturing industry (both in the public and private sectors). The main findings of Sulieman's study can be summarised as follows:⁵⁸

- (1) The authoritarian style of management was predominantly preferred by Iraqi senior managers.
- (2) Individual behaviour was found to be greatly influenced by family and tribal relationships. Even though educated city dwellers were relatively free from such pressures, they were nevertheless to some extent influenced by these pressures.

- (3) He found that it is hard for senior managers to distinguish between family and business affairs.
- (4) Nepotism and patronage prevail in all spheres of life.

Another study by Ali and Schaupp of managerial value system for working in Iraq found that belief systems of Iraqi managers differed across income, educational level, field of education and social backgrounds.⁵⁹

5.2.4. Management in Egypt

Studies of management in Egypt reveal the following characteristics:

- (1) Managers tend to emphasise centralised decision-making, management by extensive procedures and undue red tape. They seem also to lack the ability or initiative for a long-term vision of the country's future which may result in "the transitory manager" phenomenon.⁶⁰
- (2) Egyptian managers place a high value on prestige, influence and power. This was found to be influenced by the society's traditional values which concentrate on the importance of family and class.⁶¹
- (3) Little trust and confidence exists between management and the labour force. In addition, workers are treated harshly by managers, which could be attributed in part to the management's desire to have a thoroughly subordinated labour force.⁶²
- (4) Egyptian managers tend to have little belief in the ability of subordinates. Hence, managers do not

involve their subordinates in making decisions or share information with them. Egyptian managers are more concerned about their orders, and they expect subordinates to accept orders and show greater loyalty to superiors than their Western counterparts such as the British.⁶³

- (5) Team work and collaboration is very weak. A considerable amount of time and effort is lost because people very often work more in opposition to each other than in support of each other.⁶⁴

5.2.5. Management in Jordan

Little is known about management in Jordan. The few studies available are not comprehensive. Each one of them covers only certain aspects, and most of these studies were concerned with the public sector. Therefore, management in the private sector is almost excluded.

Al-Faleh studied the phenomenon of bureaucracy in the public sector in Jordan and found the following:⁶⁵

- (1) In the departments where a large number of "specialists" are employed who take much more responsibility for management at every level, the style of management is different from the departments that hire "generalists". In the first, peer group relationships among professionals are common, but extensive control is exercised especially at middle management level, by staff with specialist backgrounds. In the latter, supervision tends to be

formal and hierarchical, levels of seniority of management are followed more strictly.

- (2) Nepotism and favouritism were found to be crucial factors that are considered in Jordan upon making recruitment decisions in the public sector.

Favouritism was also reported in another study by Al-Faleh who also studied promotion policies in business firms in Jordan. In a question about the promotion principles used, the respondents expressed dissatisfaction. For instance, 55 percent of the respondents perceived that favouritism was an important criterion used by the organisation to promote employees.⁶⁶

Ayoubi found in his study of the organisational structure of some industrial firms that the greater the degree of government ownership the more centralised was the organisation.⁶⁷ Ghoseh recognised some problems in public sector management. He argues that the process of change in the Middle East, including Jordan, suffers from the consequences of growth. With growing size, in terms of employees and complexity of structure, there emerges the need for the division of functions. Ghoseh identifies that where the span of control is wide, little delegation of authority is being practised. Executives in the public sector are often involved in minute details such as signing letters and communicating with others which could be performed at lower levels in their respective organisations. Hence the executives cannot devote more

time to other and more important issues.⁶⁸

5.2.6. General Characteristics of Arab Management

Despite the fact that some of the findings of studies reviewed in the previous section are not consistent, one can come up with some conclusions.

- (1) Managers in the Arab countries are highly concerned about power and prestige.
- (2) As a result of this and other cultural and social factors, little delegation of authority is being practiced. However, consultation was found to be used frequently by top managers. This supports the finding that consultation is rooted deeply in Arab culture.
- (3) Decision-making is heavily influenced by the prevalence of paternalistic and familial factors.
- (4) Subordinates are expected to be obedient and respect authority. Hence there is little resistance from subordinates.
- (5) Managers' behaviour is greatly influenced by cultural values and historical backgrounds.
- (6) Managerial practices, behaviour, value systems and attitudes differ according to the background, social class, level of education, and region of birth of the manager.

The above characteristics are frequently used by scholars of management as a basis for their argument about management in the Arab World. However, by an in-

depth reading of these findings, examining the countries studied, and the respondents interviewed or studied, the following conclusions can be obtained:

- (1) Not all Arab countries were covered. In fact, the author never came across any empirical study in either Arabic or English of many Arab countries.
- (2) There are serious problems in the methodologies used by some researchers. For instance, Muna studied 52 senior executives in 6 countries. The sample chosen from each country is neither representative of the population of these countries, nor of all types of top managers.
- (3) Another methodological problem is inherited in some studies. Many studies based their findings merely on general observations of the people in a certain country and generalised them to all the people in that country.

Whyte's and Stephen's studies on Peru are good examples to show that views about leadership may differ between the general citizenry and managers.⁶⁹ The above-mentioned problems will be covered in greater detail in the following chapter. However, it should be stated here that research must be conducted on managers (the exact sector or type of managers) to be able to generalise. This need should be well recognised because some studies have shown that subcultures in the same country may have a great impact on managerial behaviour. This study is an attempt in that direction.

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Chapter Four

Research Methodology

1. Introduction

Having said in the previous chapter that most of the studies conducted on leadership style have some problems, it should be important to spell out these problems. Because most of those studies are related to the methodologies used, special emphasis will be put in this chapter on the methodology used in this research.

However, it should be stated that the methodology adopted by any study must be appropriate for the objectives of that study. Hence, the following section will be devoted to spelling out the main objectives of this study. Then, a review of the different research designs available is made. By doing that, it will be possible to justify the research design used in the present study. After discussing the appropriate research design, the alternative research methods are reviewed. This will enable us to justify the main method used in this research and pinpoint its merit compared with the methods used in previous work on leadership. Then, a brief account of the different sections included in the interview and the additional methods will be provided.

Finally, this chapter covers the population size, the sample chosen, justification for choosing the sample, the data processing and statistical techniques used.

2.Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study are:

- (1) To explore the Jordanian "Top Managers'" views about leadership. This consists of their attitudes about the capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative, sharing information and objectives, participation and internal control.
- (2) To find out the approach/es used by the Jordanian "Top Managers" in making decisions and to investigate whether they use one or more styles in making different types of decisions. This objective is also intended to check whether respondents' practices are consistent with their views (the first objective) or not.
- (3) To find out which group is the most important (if any) to the Jordanian "Top Managers", In addition, to analyse how that might influence the behaviour and managerial thinking of the respondents.
- (4) To compare the results of this study with other studies conducted on managers in different countries. Such comparison will be made to explore whether managerial styles in Jordan are different or similar to styles of management in some developed countries and other Arab countries.
- (5) To investigate the relationship between the respondents and their environment and to analyse how this might affect the behaviour of "Top Managers". Also to explain whether this relationship put

pressures on them or not.

- (6) To investigate some personal and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and to analyse their influence on managerial behaviour.

The degree to which the above objectives are obtained depends very much on, among other things, the research design and the research methods used. These two issues are reviewed in the following two sections.

3. Research Design

By and large, the process of research involves several activities in which researchers are involved to come up with results concerning their enquiries. Research design is one and an important activity among these. Research designs could be classified into two broad categories: experimental design and quasi-experimental design.

3.1. Experimental Design

This design is the traditional type used by physical scientists such as biologists, chemists and so on. It involves setting up an experiment to test an hypothesis or theory. In addition, it involves experimental and control groups which are randomly assigned.¹

The experimental design allows for more flexibility. The researcher is able to manipulate the introduction and variation of the predictor, thus helping him to illuminate the direction of causation from predictor to

predicted variables. This makes the design strong on internal validity.

However, the experimental design is weak on external validity. Furthermore, the use of this type of design can be very difficult for social and ethical considerations. This barrier is especially true for the environment in which the present study was conducted. Consequently, the value of the experimental design is limited for the purpose of the present study. This is why another type of design was sought.

3.2.The Quasi-Experimental Design

Because of the inherited difficulties and weaknesses in the experimental design, the quasi-experimental design could be an alternative. The quasi-experimental design may take several forms: case study and survey.

(1) Case study. Usually case studies aim at studying one unit of population at one point in time, describing this unit rather than testing hypotheses, studying the unit in detail and interpreting the results.²

The case study is an appropriate design to obtain in depth data thus going beyond general observation. Unfortunately, this type of design is weak on internal validity. It also lacks the statistical validity of samples.³ Hence, it is weak on external validity which makes it hard for the researcher, who is concerned about either internal or external validity, to use. This

applies to the present study. As will be seen in the following section, external validity for this research is a must. Therefore, the case study is not the appropriate design.

(2) Survey: Surveys are more common in the social sciences than other types of design. Oppenheim defines the survey of as follows:

" A form of planned collection of data for the purpose of description or prediction as a guide to action or for the purpose of analyzing the relationship between certain variables".⁴

The survey can take one of two forms: the descriptive survey, and the analytic survey. The first is concerned about describing rather than explaining relationships between variables, whereas the second aims at explaining and finding associations between variables. The analytic survey may also take several forms. The panel; which repeats observation on the same sample, the longitudinal which attempts to measure the phenomenon being studied before the respondents are exposed to the experiment variables and afterwards; the correlational or the cross-sectional design only uses the post-test control group by applying some statistical techniques. An example of this type of design would be to ask respondents about their dispositions and to analyse these dispositions by investigating the effect of some variables (independent variables).

As far as this study is concerned, it seems that the

correlational design is more appropriate than other types of analytic survey. The longitudinal design is not appropriate because this study does not investigate the effect of introducing specific variables on the dependent variable. It only considers variables that might have an influence on respondents' managerial style and thinking. The panel design, on the other hand, does not meet the objectives of this study. This is attributed to the fact that it would have been hard to obtain a representative sample. Even if such a sample was achieved, it would have been hard to secure the willingness of people for long periods. Put simply, some of the respondents may lose the interest or change their jobs. Furthermore, limitation of time available to the research makes this approach impractical.

The rationale explained above combined with the following factors makes the cross-sectional design more appropriate to the present study.

- (1) This study attempts to ask respondents about their predispositions.
- (2) It intends to identify the leadership style of the Jordanian "Top Managers" by examining the effect of a wide array of variables. In other words, explaining associations.
- (3) It is the first comprehensive study of its type to be conducted on "Top Managers" in the private sector in Jordan.

The above variables make the need to secure external validity crucial. Put simply, generalisations for this study are much more important than internal validity (control). There is no doubt that this study would be more objective if the two validities (external and internal) were obtained. Unfortunately, internal validity has to be sacrificed for the sake of external validity. Furthermore, it is widely accepted that research which is usually strong on one area is weak on another.⁵ However, the use of statistical techniques to control some variables accompanied with the selection of random sample may help us to offset this deficiency.

Based on the same reasons mentioned above, most of the studies of leadership have used the survey as their main research design. ~~These studies~~ (which is true for the present one) were concerned about making generalisations on the population studied. Furthermore, most of these studies were conducted for the first time. Hence, their aim was to explore the prevailing leadership style in the countries studied.

The above discussion shows only the broad strategy of this research and evaluates the different designs available against some criteria. However, determining the appropriate design for the present research is not sufficient. The methods available should also be reviewed and choice justification should be made. By doing so, the rationale for the entire research will be more apparent.

This topic is covered in the following section.

4. Research Methods

Research methods can be classified into three main categories: observation; unobtrusive measures; and asking questions.⁶ Observation normally utilizes human observers such as participants or judges, or mechanical observers such as cameras and tape recorders. Unobtrusive measures, on the other hand, could be of two types: physical traces and archival records. Physical traces may also take different forms such as erosion and accretion measures. An example of the erosion traces is the wear on library books, whereas an example of accretion measures would be the analysis of blood by police. Archival records may include analysis of records of several sources, such as government documents, the mass media and other types of records.

The third research method and the most common in social sciences is asking questions which also takes the form of the questionnaire or the interview.

In principle, observation and unobtrusive measures are not appropriate for the purpose of the present study. Time and again, social and ethical considerations make it difficult to use observation techniques. This difficulty is even more applicable to the situation of this study. It would be almost impossible to persuade respondents to be observed. However, even if respondents were persuaded, it would have been hard to obtain a sufficient number of

respondents to participate. Time and limited resources do not allow us to use the method of extended open participant observation. The survey is a more efficient method of data collection.

The nature of the issues covered in the present research does not allow us to use physical traces. The same thing applies (probably with less accuracy) to the archival records. However, these techniques can be used as supplementary to the techniques used in this study. Because the present study is concerned about external and internal validity, our ability to rely mainly on archival records was limited. However, this method was used as an additional technique to the main one.

Consequently, asking questions is a more appropriate method for this research. Most of the previous work on leadership style has used this technique in one way or another. Unfortunately, many of these studies suffer from serious methodological problems to which they either gave little or no consideration or ignored. For instance, most of the studies conducted on leadership style tend to make no distinction between attitudes and behaviour of managers. In fact, most of these studies rely mainly on studying attitudes of managers and making generalisations to the style of managers. In other words, they take the assumption of the association between attitudes and behaviour for granted.

Several examples can be given to show that the above assumption is widespread among scholars of management. Haire, Ghiselli and Porter's international study of more than 3600 managers in 14 different countries claims that studying the views of managers about certain things is likely to reveal how organisations are run.⁷ Cummings and Schmidt's study on Greek managers makes the same assumption.⁸ As far as Arab countries are concerned, Badawy's study on four Arab countries also used this approach.⁹ Therefore, the validity of the above-mentioned studies is questionable. The present study (chapter 7) will show how there is a discrepancy between the attitudes of the managers and their behaviour represented by their decision-making style.

In order to eliminate this deficiency and avoid repeating the same mistake as other researchers, the present study has included two different sections. The first looks at the views of managers which is their expressed attitudes, whereas the second considers their behaviour. In other words, some kind of reliability measure of respondents' views has been introduced.

The other methodological problem that some studies have is related to the type of sample chosen. Many researchers have depended on small and unrepresentative samples. Muna's study of managers in Arab countries has this problem. Muna included only 52 senior managers distributed among 6 Arab countries. For instance, Muna

included 9 managers from each of Kuwait and Egypt, and 6 managers from UAE.¹⁰ This sample is not representative because Egypt's population is about 40 times the population of Kuwait, and 80 times the population of UAE. The numbers chosen from each country neither represented the population of the country nor all types of senior managers.

Suliaman's study of Iraqi managers also suffers from the same problem.¹¹ Suliaman studied 44 senior managers from the manufacturing sector in Iraq. The sample was drawn from the private and the public sector. This sample is not only unrepresentative of all senior managers in Iraq, but represents only one sector in the Iraqi economy.

Another problem is related to the sampling techniques. Many studies have chosen convenient samples. For instance, Cummings and Schmidt's study of Greek managers, and Badawy's study of middle managers in the Arabian Gulf region depended for their findings on convenient samples. Muna's study, on the other hand, adopted a combination of snowball sampling and convenient sampling techniques. Consequently, one can have little confidence in any of the above-mentioned researches. Lack of representativeness simply means that the reliabilities of these studies is highly questionable.

Now let us turn to another methodological problem. Some studies conducted on leadership and management relied heavily on general observation of the culture rather than

on empirical studies. Harbison and Myers' famous book, *Management in the Industrial World*, is of this type.¹² As far as Arab countries are concerned, the same drawback applies also to Pezeshkpur's work on the importance of organisations, family, and superiors to employees in Arab countries.¹³

Another drawback of some studies has to do with the inclination of these studies to generalise on groundless bases. Some studies were carried out on a small number of managers in one or a few countries, and on the bases of these studies' findings, generalisations were made. Yucelt's study of managers in Turkey, which can hardly be considered a Middle Eastern country, made generalisations about all Middle Eastern countries.¹⁴

Last but not least, is the tendency of some researchers to study certain sectors or groups in the country and to make generalisations about all the people in the entire country. For example, William and Whyte's study of Peruvian high school students mistakenly made this judgment.¹⁵ Later, Stephen's study of managers in the same country has produced findings which are substantially different from Whyte's.¹⁶

Based on the foregoing, it should be emphasised that studies should not ignore the fact that certain groups in a specific country may prove to be different from the average population. Put simply, the personal characteristics of some groups, for one reason or

another, or being in certain positions may force them to be different from the average population. In fact, one of the findings of this study (as will be seen in the following chapters) supports this argument.

This study takes the stand that in order to make valid judgments about certain groups or occupations, empirical studies should be conducted on a very specific group or holders of a particular occupation. This study recognises this fact and "Top Managers" in Jordan were thought to be the right people to study rather than any other group.

5. Data Collection

With an eye on the deficiencies in previous work on management and leadership, a structured interview was developed to meet the objectives of the study. Moreover, and in order to compensate for the weaknesses of this method, other additional techniques (which will be explained in the following section) were also utilised.

Most of the questions included in the structured interview were based on closed-ended questions. Even though closed-ended questions limit the respondents to preconceived answers, and give them little room to answer freely, the use of the structured interview is more powerful than questionnaires. Rich data can be obtained by probing and asking additional questions.

The author does not ignore the fact that in-depth interviews are better at obtaining rich data, but

covering a wide range of issues requires a willingness on the part of the respondents to devote sufficient time. Even if their willingness is secured (which is highly unlikely) the number of respondents would be decreased substantially.

Bearing in mind that each of the techniques discussed above has its weaknesses, and given the resources available for the researcher, a structured interview was preferred to a questionnaire. Below are some of the merits of the interview compared with the questionnaire.¹⁷

- (1) Greater flexibility. The interviewer is able to explain the objectives of the study, clarify or explain any question or term that is not clear. In the questionnaire, if the subject misinterprets a question there is little that anything can be done to remedy the situation.
- (2) The interviewer is also capable of controlling the order in which the questions are presented.
- (3) The interviewer can probe by asking supplementary questions. Therefore, he has the advantage of getting detailed and in depth information.
- (4) High response rate. Unlike questionnaires, personal interviews are likely to obtain a higher participation rate. The typical response rate for a personal interview is about 95 percent, whereas that for a mail survey is between 20 and 40 percent.
- (5) The skilful interviewer can establish a rapport with

respondents, which encourages trust and enhances their willingness to participate. Hence, respondents are more likely to be honest with the interviewer.

- (6) Evidence has shown that most people enjoy talking more than writing.

The second section of the interview used the Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter questionnaire to test managers' attitudes to leadership.¹⁸ This method was used for two main reasons:

- (1) It was believed that using the same questionnaire which was used extensively by many other researchers¹⁹ would enable us to make comparisons between the present study's results and results from previous studies.
- (2) From the standpoint of validity and reliability, the questionnaire has been used extensively and in many languages. Therefore, it is cross-validated.

Some questions in the third part of the interview were adopted from a study conducted on white-collar workers in the U.K., which was also used by other researchers.²⁰

The fourth part of the interview depended on Heller's study of decision-making which was also used by many researchers. Hence, it is cross-validated.²¹ This also helps to make comparisons between the findings of this study and those of other studies.

6. The Interview and the other Techniques

6.1. The Interview

The face-to-face interview used in this study was based on closed-ended and some open-ended questions. All the interviews were conducted in the respondents' organisations. However, some of these interviews were conducted early in the morning or late in the afternoon. This was done upon request from some respondents who were extremely busy during normal working hours. In fact, that helped some interviews to be conducted without interruption by subordinates or customers, and also enabled the researcher to conduct many interviews within a reasonable period of time. A complete version of the interview is included in the last part of this study. The interview can be divided into the following sections:

- Background and general information about respondents. This included questions about education, age, number of years in positions, area of specialty, place of birth, and a host of other personal and socio-economic factors about respondents.

- Attitudinal questions. This contained four subsections. Each subsection consisted of two related questions. Both questions were designed to examine the views of respondents about a particular issue. These are categorised into four issues: First: capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative, Second; sharing information and objectives, Third; participation

of subordinates in goal-setting, Fourth; locus of control.

The questions were scored on Likert's five-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Numerical values were assigned to each of the five choices on the scale. Respondents who agreed strongly with the statement were given five points, whereas those who disagreed strongly were given one point. However, the values given were reversed depending on the way the questions were stated. In this case the respondents who strongly agreed were given one point, whereas those who strongly disagreed were given five points. Nevertheless, in both cases, the scaling system was designed to reflect that the higher the score obtained by respondents, the more "democratic" their viewpoints were.

- Group importance. Respondents were asked about the degree of consideration that each of their professions, organisations, extended families, religious groups, and superiors should be given by the "Top Managers".

Replies to these questions were also based on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". But the only difference in this section is that "Strongly agree" was always given the value of 5, whereas "strongly disagree" was given the value of one.

- "Top Manager's" status. This section contained three questions. They dealt respectively with perceptions of

managers about: their own status; family status; and their status compared with family status.

The scaling technique used here was also based on a five-point scale. Respondents were asked to choose one of the five alternatives given to them. These alternatives ranged from much above average or above family status, to much below average or below family status. The values assigned were 5 for "much above average" and 1 for "much below average".

- Decision-making approach/es. The fourth section of the structured interview consisted of ten different decisions, which were postulated to respondents along with five different alternative approaches to making each decision. These approaches range from making decisions without any explanation to subordinates about why this decision was made, to asking subordinates to make the decision by themselves.

Respondents were asked to indicate the approach that they would choose upon making each decision. The first approach, which is the most "authoritarian", was assigned the value of one, whereas the last (fifth) approach, which is the most "democratic", was assigned the value of five.

- Perceptions of respondents about some selected issues. It was intended to explore perceptions of respondents about how promotion is made in the Jordanian environment,

and what characteristics they thought to be the most important for promotion. They were also asked about the characteristics which they perceived to be the most significant in any job. Responses to the above questions were based on alternative answers provided to respondents, who were asked to choose the one they believed to be the most applicable.

- The last section concentrated on the pressures that "Top Managers" may face in their job. Such pressures may be put on them by relatives or community members. Respondents were asked open-ended questions about the services that community members and relatives expect of them. They were also asked about the problems they felt that they could help society to solve. The last open-ended question in this section was about the social pressures "Top Managers" face at work and the consequences for their effectiveness as managers.

6.2.Observation

In addition to the structured interview discussed above, the researcher tried to observe what was going on in the organisations. This was done during the interviews, or while waiting for respondents in their secretaries' offices, or in an informal discussion before or after conducting the structured interviews. Marginal note-taking technique was used for this purpose.

The marginal notes were thought to be helpful because they tackled issues and unveiled some information which

would have remained uncovered without this technique. Thus, some in depth information was gathered, which helped very much in the analysis process.

6.3. Archival Records

Data from governmental departments was gathered. Many publications issued by the Department of Statistics, Ministry of Labour, Ministry of Planning (formerly National Planning Council), Ministry of Trade and Industry, Ministry of Education, and the Central Bank of Jordan were consulted.

Moreover, several publications, annual reports, and programmes or year schedules for many quasi-governmental and private organisations were also gathered.

6.4. Interviews with Key Informants

Some key informants were interviewed. These included some university professors, senior managers in insurance, banking and manufacturing companies. The interviews aimed at consulting interviewees about some selected issues in the business and management environment in Jordan, and about the items included in the structured interview. These interviews helped to enrich the analysis and throw light on the findings from different points of view.

7. The Sample

The sample consisted of 114 "Top Managers". It was selected from the companies listed in the Amman Financial

Market (AFM). Therefore, the sample frame was the list of companies in the annual report of the AFM for the year 1986, the most recent available at the time of conducting this study. The sample was chosen to reflect equally (1) financial, and (2) manufacturing enterprises. The reasons that these two sectors were chosen are:

- (1) Companies in the two sectors represented 83% of the total listed.
- (2) The rest of the companies (17%) had many organisations with substantial percentages of government participation. It was believed that if these corporations were included, the results obtained may have been inaccurate. In other words, it was thought that "Top Managers" of these organisations might have different orientations.²²

According to the AFM annual report for 1986, there were 45 listed companies in the financial sector and 42 listed companies in the manufacturing sector.²³ Table .1 shows the number of corporations in each sector and the number of corporations in which "Top Managers" were interviewed.

Table 4.1
Companies Listed in the Amman Financial Market (AFM).

Sector.	Number of corporations	Number of corporations in the sample.	%
Financial sector	45	23	52
Manufacturing sector	42	21	48
Total	87	44	100

The table shows that around 50% of each type of company were randomly chosen to represent the scope of each type of industrial activity. Companies where control lay abroad (i.e. multi-nationals) were eliminated. Within every company the author sought to interview the "Top Managers". The latter are defined as the persons responsible for taking all final decisions below board of directors level, or the persons who might replace them. The achieved sample consisted of 44 chief executives or directors general, of whom 23 (or 52%) were from the financial sector and 21 (or 48%) from the manufacturing sector. The number of vice presidents who were interviewed was 70, of whom 37 were from the financial sector, whereas 33 were from the manufacturing sector.

Consequently, the sample chosen took into consideration the weight of each sector. In addition, the sample was representative because 50 % of all organisations should be a very good sample in terms of representing the population.

7. Data Processing and Statistical Analysis

As the questions were pre-coded ones, the researcher coded the answers of each respondent after finishing the interview. The modified version of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, SPSS^X, was used to punch the data into the computer and analyse it.²⁴

The nature of the data gathered, which was based mainly

on a combination of nominal and ordinal scales, restricted the ability to use more sophisticated statistical techniques. Even though some of the variables were based on a ratio scale, and the researcher has come across several studies and Ph.D. theses which employed sophisticated techniques on data similar in nature to the data collected in this study, he believes that using less sophisticated techniques is much better than using some advanced ones on groundless bases.

Several statistical techniques were employed in the study. For a general view of have the results, some descriptive statistical measures, such as the arithmetic mean, percentages, and frequency distribution were helpful. Because "Top Managers" in this study were drawn from two different types of organisations, T-test was used to test for the differences between the means of the two samples. However, since the T-test is a parametric technique, another nonparametric statistical measure (Mann-Whitney U-test) was employed to get rid of the assumption inherent in the T-test, and to double check the results obtained from such a test.

Moreover, correlation coefficient techniques were utilized in order to test the relationships or associations between the main variables and the different issues tackled in the research. Partial correlation coefficients were also used to make sure the relationships between independent and dependent variables

are not influenced by relationships between the independent variables themselves. Null hypotheses were tested to come up with conclusions about the association between selected variables and some selected issues. Chi-Square statistics were used for this purpose.

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Chapter Five

Backgrounds Of The Jordanian "Top Managers"

1. Introduction

This chapter aims at investigating in some detail backgrounds of the "Top Managers" interviewed. Age, education and a host of other factors are expected to have some influence on the respondents' style of management. However, the impact of these variables on styles of management will not be covered in this chapter.

The impact of personal characteristics on managerial behaviour has been documented in a substantial amount of literature. Therefore, the results presented in this chapter are compared with previous studies, when available, on backgrounds of managers in both Arab countries and some western countries. Such comparison is believed to be helpful to judge where the Jordanian "Top Manager" stands vis-a-vis his counterparts in other countries.

The chapter intends to look at several aspects of the "Top Managers'" background. Special emphasis is put on the variables that were considered important in terms of their impact on management styles. Each of these variables is examined for managers in each of the two sectors. That is done to examine whether the two sectors are well integrated sectors or not. Such results are expected to help us in analysing the differences or

similarities between top executives in the two sectors in terms of their management style.

However, the meaning of "Top Managers" must be recalled before presentation of their backgrounds. The term "Top Managers" refer to those who are on the board of directors or who report to the board; or who report to the managing director (if they are not themselves managing directors); or persons who, in the absence of the managing director are empowered to take decisions in his name. To separate "Top Managers" from "Middle Managers", the latter might be defined as persons below top management level who have others reporting to them, who are responsible for professional/technical services or have such specialists reporting to them or who are graded middle managers (as opposed to top managers) by their companies.

2. Age

Age was included in this study to examine whether it has relationship with styles of management used by "Top Managers" in Jordan. This variable was also included to test the hypothesis that the less developed the country the younger its managers are likely to be. Table 5.1 shows the distribution of the different age groups and the mean of ages of "Top Managers" in the two sectors.

It can be seen from the table that most "Top Managers"

were in the age group 40-49. About 57 percent of the respondents in the financial sector were in this group, whereas about 46 percent of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector were in the same group. Nevertheless, the mean of ages are not greatly different. They were 47.017 and 47.315 years for "Top Managers" in the financial and the manufacturing sectors respectively. Such a result can be viewed as an indication of the reliability of the finding, which will be discussed in detail later in this study, that little differences exist between "Top Managers" in the two sectors concerning their views about subordinates. In other words, because ages of "Top Managers" are not greatly different between the two sectors their views are also expected to be not very different.

Table 5.1.
Distribution of "Top Managers" by age groups.

Age Group/ sector	Financial sector (percent)	Manufacturing (percent)
30-39	13.3	14.8
40-49	56.7	46.3
50-59	25.0	31.5
60-65	5.0	7.4
Total	100.0	100.0
Means in Years	47.017	47.315

The mean age group of the Jordanian "Top Manager" is not very different from the mean age of the Iraqi manager.

Sulieman found that Iraqi top managers had a mean age of 46.75 years.¹ Another study on Libyan managers found that the mean age of the Libyan managers sampled was 35 years.² Kuwaiti managers were also found younger than Iraqis and Jordanians. Approximately 89 % of Kuwaiti managers were found to be under 40 years.³ Therefore, "Top Managers" in Kuwait and Libya are younger than their counterparts in Jordan and Iraq. As far as the results of this study and the few studies available on managers in developing countries are concerned, stage of economic development could be responsible for such difference. Libya and Kuwait started their development at a later stage. Therefore, their managers are expected to be younger. In other words, finding of the present study supports the hypothesis that the more underdeveloped the country the younger its managers.⁴

3. Formal Education

Many studies have concluded that education plays a pervasive role in influencing views and behaviour of managers. A comparison between the formal education obtained by managers in the financial and the manufacturing sectors is reflected in table 5.2.

It is rather noticeable that "Top Managers" in the financial sector had on the average less formal education than those in the manufacturing sector. This result is significant at $p < .05$. Table 4.2 shows that about 75 percent of "Top Managers" interviewed from the financial

sector held at least one university degree, whereas around 87 percent of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector held at least one university degree. In addition, considerable number of "Top Managers" from both sectors had Masters degrees, and a small number had Ph.D degrees.

Table 5.2.

Distribution of top managers by their formal education.

Level of formal education	financial sector (percent)	manufacturing (percent)
Completed only high school or some college	25.0	13.0
Completed the first degree or higher	75.0	87.0
Total	100.0	100.0
Means in years of formal education	14.98	16.093

Generally speaking, "Top Managers" in Jordan are well educated. The lowest educational level obtained by respondents was high school. Indeed only 9 percent of the respondents in the two sectors -combined- completed only high school. In Sulieman's study only 59 percent of Iraqi top managers finished the first university degree or some higher degrees. Glueck and Abu Buera's study on Libyan managers found also that 59 percent of the Libyan managers as having the first university degree or higher.⁵

A study on British managers identified 65 percent of

them as having at least one degree.⁶ On the other hand, Kakabadse and Margerison's study found that 86 percent of American managers hold at least one degree.⁷ French managers are also highly qualified. Ninety percent of a sample of chief executives of the largest French enterprises had a university level education.⁸

Generally speaking one can conclude that the Jordanian "Top Managers" are well educated. This leads one to speculate that Jordanian "Top Managers" are more likely to be exposed to people from various cultures and backgrounds which may influence their views and behaviour. Findings of this study which will be discussed in later chapters support this argument.

4. Area of Specialty

"Top Managers" in Jordan appear to be coming from different areas of specialty at the university level. In addition, areas of specialty for "Top Managers" in the two sectors are different (Chi-Square value or $\chi^2=22.13$ significant at $p < .05$). This means that there are significant differences between respondents in terms of their areas of specialty at the university level. Table 5.3 presents the different areas of specialty for "Top Managers" who held university degrees.

Table 5.3
Areas of specialty for "Top Managers".

Area of specialty	Financial sector (Percent)	Manufacturing s e c t o r (Percent)
Business-Economics	76.1	43.8
Engineering	4.3	22.9
Science	—	6.3
Arts	10.9	4.2
Law	8.7	6.3
Others	—	16.5
Total	100.0	100.0

It can be seen from the table that "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector had a wider range of degrees than their counterparts in the financial sector. However, most respondents held degrees in business-management or economics. About 76 percent of managers in the financial sector, and 44 percent of managers in the manufacturing sector held degrees in this area.

The second common degree held by respondents is engineering for "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector and arts for those in the financial sector. Almost 23% of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector held engineering degrees, whereas around 11% of "Top Managers" in the financial sector held arts degrees.

The dominance of business-economics graduates in the two sectors is probably attributable to the conception that

used to be held by employers in both the public and the private sectors, that a business graduate's place is in business organisation. Another factor could be responsible. Both the establishment of large organisation and specialising in business are relatively new in Jordan. The proliferation of organisations almost coincided with the increasing awareness of high school graduates about business studies.

By contrast areas of specialisation of Libyan managers seem to be different. Only around 30% of Libyan managers had identified business as their areas of specialty at university.⁹ In the U.K social and educational backgrounds of British managers appear to be important factors in becoming managers. That may explain why some British top managers, whose social and educational backgrounds were felt to equip them to become "generalists", have public school background or arts degree from prestigious schools or universities. Engineering and scientific skills are still widely defined in the U.K as "specialists". Although those who have studied these subjects form the largest single group by education they are not a majority in top managerial positions.¹⁰

Areas of specialty for French top managers are different. Earlier it has been mentioned that French top managers are probably the best educated in Europe. Ninety percent of chief executives of the largest French enterprises had a university-level education with 60% of

these being engineers by training, and 30% having qualified in business and law. Qualifications of German executives are also various. Law, engineering and business economics are the main types. However, engineering graduates are dominant. It has been suggested that 1/3 of the top German managers are graduate engineers.¹¹

5. Number of Years in the Same Position.

Table 5.4 presents an analysis of whether there are great differences between "Top Managers" in the two sectors, in terms of number of years spent in the position.

The majority of "Top Managers" in the two sectors had from 1-10 years in the same position. Table 5.4 also shows that about 52 percent of the respondents in the financial sector had been in their positions only from 1-5 years. The mean of the number of years spent in the same position is also shorter for the financial sector than for the manufacturing sector.

Table 5.4.

Length of service in the same position.

Length of period	financial sector (percent)	manufacturing sector (percent)
1-5	51.7	35.2
6-10	30.0	42.6
11-15	6.6	11.1
16 and over	11.7	11.1
Means in years	7.367	8.093

However, the results may be attributed to the proliferation of national and international financial institutions in Jordan during the period from 1975-1985. The establishment of new national banks or opening new branches or subsidiaries of some international banks offered managers new and more opportunities in the same organisations or outside. Moreover, economic and political instability in Lebanon combined with stability and promulgation of new investment encouragement laws prompted some MNC to shift their regional offices to Amman, Jordan. All these factors increased the demand for, and led to some competition between organisations for "Top Managers".

6.Span of Control

Number of subordinates supervised by managers or what is called "span of control" is another factor which was added in this study.

Throughout almost all sections of this study, number of subordinates supervised by "Top Managers" has been included to test its impact on "Top Managers'" views and decision making style. Table 5.5 presents the results of comparison between span of control of managers in the two sectors.

Table 5.5

Span of control for "Top Managers" in the two sectors.

Span of control	Financial sector (percent)	Manufacturing sector (percent)
1-5	65.0	53.7
6-10	26.7	29.6
11-16	8.3	11.1
20-30	-	5.6
Total	100.0	100.0
Means	5.233	6.940

The table shows that most of the "Top Managers" interviewed had between 1 and 5 subordinates. The average span of control for "Top Managers" in the financial sector was narrower than that for "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector. It was 5.23 subordinates for the first and 6.94 for the second. The difference between the two spans of control was found to be significant at $p < .05$. This implies that span of control of "Top Managers" in the financial sector is narrower than span of control of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector.

However, the above result does not necessarily suggest that "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector concentrate authority in their hands more than those in the financial sector. The appropriate span of control depends on many variables. Similarity or complexity of the function supervised, level of technology used, and physical proximity of functions are among other factors that determine the appropriate span of management.

7. Region of Birth

There is little evidence to suggest that significant differences exist between "Top Managers" coming from urban or rural areas. Table 5.6 shows the distribution of managers by their regions of birth (urban or rural) for the two sectors.

Table 5.6
Distribution of "Top Managers" by their region of birth.

Region	Financial sector (percent)	Manufacturing sector (percent)
Urban	66.7	63.0
Rural	33.3	37.0
Total	100.0	100.0

It can be seen from the table that most "Top Managers" were born in urban areas. Around 67 percent of the respondents in the financial sector and 63 percent of their counterparts in the manufacturing sector were born in urban areas. On the other hand, it seems hard to

conclude that "Top Managers" coming from rural or urban areas are likely to concentrate mainly in any of these two sectors (Chi-Square value or $\chi^2 = .0471$ not significant at the .05 level). Earlier in chapter 2 it was mentioned that population of urban and rural areas represented 60 and 40 percent for urban and rural population respectively. Hence, one can conclude that there are more "Top Managers" coming from urban areas. Thus, rural dwellers are under-represented in top managerial positions. Such a conclusion may have some truth but it does not tell the whole story.

To understand the whole story it is necessary to go back about thirty years. Rural young men who were fortunate enough to finish university or some higher education were reluctant to join the private sector. This sector was newly developed and less attractive than the public sector, which was thought to be a more prestigious and stable source of income than the first. Another reason has to do with the changes in the demographic characteristics of the country. Some places which were considered as cities in this research were not more than towns or big villages about thirty years ago. Furthermore, the accelerating growth of population as represented both by natural growth, and by the influx of Palestinian refugees, caused by the Israeli occupation of the West Bank, were among other factors that made towns grew quickly into small cities.

8. Membership in Professional Associations

It has been argued by some theorists of management that labour organisations and trade unions place pressures on management to use a more democratic approach.¹² However, it is not intended in this section to examine the amount of pressures placed on "Top Managers" in Jordan, but to investigate the percentage of "Top Managers" who maintain membership in professional associations and/or trade unions. Therefore, as far as the purpose of this study is concerned, there will be no difference between professional associations and trade union. Nevertheless, familiarisation with the different types of associations or trade unions may be helpful. Professional associations and trade unions can be categorised into two main broad categories: those whose membership is voluntary such as the Association of Bankers or the Society of Banking, Travel and Tourism employees; and those whose membership is compulsory or which are professional accreditation organisations for groups such as doctors, engineers, and lawyers. However, being a manager does not necessitate maintaining membership in any professional association or trade union.

Around 43% of "Top Managers" in the financial sector, and 65% percent of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector maintained membership in some professional associations or trade union.

The noticeable difference between "Top Managers" in the two sectors does not necessarily mean that "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector are more activist than "Top Managers" in the financial sector. The reason could be attributed to the fact that there were more "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector who had degrees in engineering, or pharmacy than "Top Managers" in the financial sector.

People who have degrees in Engineering, Pharmacy, Medicine and Law are all members in professional associations. These professional associations require holders of the above degrees to join their respective associations if they would like to practice careers in these fields. This does not apply, for instance, to the Accountants Society. On the other hand, "Top Managers" do not have any professional association to which they belong. Another reason is related to the fact that there are more "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector who hold degrees like engineering and are supposed to join their respective associations. Nonetheless, later in this study it will be seen how "Top Managers" who had membership in professional associations were not in any sense more inclined to use a more democratic approach.

9. Training

Normally training programmes aim at improving the efficiency of the trainees through development of their

skills and influencing their attitudes and behaviour. Continuous training is essential even if managers are highly educated because education can become out of date. The results of this study have shown that "Top Managers" who had some training tend to hold more democratic attitudes toward subordinates. In contrast, "Top Managers'" approach to decision-making was not influenced by training programmes. In order to investigate whether the Jordanian "Top Managers" are well trained or not, respondents were asked to indicate if they had any training during the preceding ten years.

About 67% of "Top Managers" in the financial sector had one or more training programmes. On the other hand, only 61% of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector had some training during the same period. Even though the difference is not significant at the .05 level, the minimal difference could be attributed to the attempts made by some financial institutions to develop the skills of their managers. These attempts are probably sparked by the availability of some international financial institutions which are in direct competition with the national organisation. The latter may view training programmes as one way to offer a competitive edge over other competing firms. This does not apply to the manufacturing sector because some manufacturing firms are protected by the government. Nonetheless, the percentages of managers who did not have any training is substantial in both sectors.

Because respondents are "Top Managers", their willingness to be engaged in training might be minimal. This might be traced to the assumption that some senior managers may hold about going to training programmes. I.e. they indicate a clear recognition of lack of capabilities. Another possible reason may be the belief that the skills taught in training programmes are well below their level of expertise and "Top Managers" know better from experience than anything these programmes can offer them. Another practical difficulty, which is beyond the control of managers, is related to the extensive travel that "Top Managers" make, or their being busy in some other issues. An additional reason often cited is the fear that time off on training may mean they miss promotion opportunities. The only cure for this is to make promotion training-related. Though some or all of these reasons could be responsible for the low rate of participation in training, it is not intended here to look for excuses or suggest that training is not necessary for "Top Managers".

The Jordanian "Top Manager" seems to be more trained than his counterparts in another Arab country, Libya. Only 55% of Libyan managers were found to have post job training. However, training of "Top Managers" seems not to be distributed properly in Jordan. Some respondents, for instance, mentioned that they attended more than 30 training programmes during their career life. That may be traced to the value given to training by different

organisations, and to the variations of opportunities offered to managers.

Regarding training syllabuses, below are some of the most frequently mentioned:

- (1) Management by objectives.
- (2) Managing people.
- (3) Financial analysis.
- (4) The human side of management.
- (5) Industrial management.
- (6) Improving the company effectiveness and efficiency.
- (7) Decision making.
- (8) Managing expectations.
- (9) Project management.

By examining training syllabuses one can easily see that these programmes are oriented toward people and production at the same time. Many of these programmes were conducted in countries outside Jordan. Barclays Bank, Bank of England in the U.K and City bank, Bank of America, and the International Bank in the U.S.A. were some of the places mentioned where training took place.

10. Positions of "Top Managers" when Commenced

In order to examine whether managerial positions in Jordan are open to employees from different levels or not, this section was included. Table 5.7 shows the percentages of "Top Managers" who started their careers as senior, middle and low level employees or managers.

Table 5.7

Positions of "Top Managers" when commenced with the organisation.

Level*	Financial sector (percent)	Manufacturing sector (percent)
Top level	58.8	50.0
Middle level	30.6	42.6
Low level	10.6	7.4
Total	100.0	100.0

*Definitions of levels are the same definitions explained earlier in this chapter.

The table shows that percentages of respondents who started as "Top Managers" when they joined their organisation is higher than that in the manufacturing sector. About 43% of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector started with their organisation as middle level managers, whereas around 31% of "Top Managers" in the financial sector commenced as middle level managers. Nevertheless, the results do not suggest that top level positions are more "blocked" in the financial sector. Earlier it was found that managers in the financial sector spent on average slightly fewer years in their positions than their counterparts in the manufacturing sector. However, the manpower structure of most banks in Jordan reflects a taller organisational pyramid than the structure of most manufacturing firms. This could be partially responsible for the less percentage of senior managers who started at the middle level in the financial sector.

11. Previous Experience

Respondents were asked about the experience they had previously (if any) and the sectors they worked in. Table 5.8 represents the replies to this question.

The sector in which the majority of respondents stated that they had had experience in is the same sector they work for now. Around 47% of the respondents in the financial sector stated that they have had experience in banks. In addition, 12 percent said they had had experience in the insurance sector. Similar results were also obtained about the manufacturing sector. Around 35% mentioned that they came from the manufacturing sector.

Government was the second most common sector of work experience. Nearly 26 percent of the respondents in the manufacturing sector had experience in the government sector, whereas approximately 16% of the respondents in the financial sector came from the government. Consequently, the two sectors (the manufacturing and the financial sectors) seem to be attractive places to work in, especially for government employees. They are attractive because they offer better rates of salaries than the public sector. Such conclusion is consistent with a preceding finding on Jordanian bureaucrats by Al-Faleh who found that many Jordanian bureaucrats are inclined to work in the private sector.¹³

Table 5.8.

Previous work experience of "Top Managers" by sectors.

sector	Financial sector (percent)	Manufacturing sector (percent)
Manufacturing	3.5	35.2
Banking	47.0	3.7
Insurance	12.0	1.9
Government	15.5	25.9
Services	10.0	11.1
Total*	88.0	77.8

* The remaining 12% and 22.2% for the financial and manufacturing sectors respectively did not have previous experience before commencing with their present organisations. In other words, they worked "up from the bottom to the top".

12. Parents Occupations

Some management theorists have argued that a very high proportion of managers in less developed countries normally come from the upper and upper-middle classes.¹⁴ To investigate whether top managerial positions were inherited from parents or came from upper classes, respondents were asked about their parents occupations.

Interestingly enough, only 3 mothers of "Top Managers" studied had paid jobs. This is a reflection of the fact that female participation, especially among old ones, in the Jordanian work force is low. Hence, our analysis will

be limited to fathers' occupations.

Table 5.9 shows distribution of "Top Managers" by occupations of their fathers. As can be seen from the table, most fathers of the respondents in the manufacturing sector engaged in farming. Those totalled about 35 percent. On the other hand, about 32 percent of fathers of "Top Managers" in the financial sector engaged in business.

The second common occupation of fathers of the respondents was businessman/merchant for the manufacturing sector, and government employee for the financial sector. Government employee was the third common occupation for fathers of managers in the manufacturing sector, while farming was the third common occupation for fathers of those in the financial sector. Only about 5 percent of fathers of the respondents worked as managers in either the private or the public sectors.

It can be seen that a substantial percentage of "Top Managers" in the two sectors are descendants from fathers who work in business. However, management seems not to be inherited from fathers because - as shown in table 5.9 - only around 5% of fathers of the respondents worked as managers. Nevertheless, the high percentage of fathers working in business may give some clues that fathers had some influence on their sons -directly or indirectly- to take management as their careers.

Table 5.9

Fathers' occupations of "Top Managers".

Occupation	Financial sector (percent)	Manufacturing sector (percent)
None	5.0	3.7
Farmer	13.3	35.2
Businessman/Merchant	31.7	27.8
Manager	5.0	5.6
Government employee	20.0	24.0
Others	25.0	3.7
Total	100.0	100.0

Despite the above finding it seems hard to conclude that "Top Managers" in Jordan come from certain "elitist" groups or families. They may come from any group. This applies to both the financial and the manufacturing sectors. The reason may be traced to the fact that these organisations are the largest in the economy, and only very few private companies which are publicly-held corporations (PLC) in Jordan are owned by individuals or families that own more than 10% of the shares. Therefore, the patrimonial type of management in which ownership, and most of the top jobs in the hierarchy are held by members of an extended family is not prevalent in these type of organisations. Kerr et al, write on the impact of industrialisation on patrimonial management:

"The process of industrialization universally tends to change management from patrimonial and political to professional, but the patterns of change

in management vary with the ideal type elites".¹⁵

Though the country is making relatively good progress in the industrial arena, it is not intended here to claim that management of enterprises in Jordan is a professional type management, by which major policy-making, and the majority of the top positions are held by individuals on the bases of their qualifications. Later in chapter 9 it will be evident that "Top Managers" themselves admit that knowing the right people and family positions are still some of the factors that determine how the person moves up in the Jordanian environment. This may be right in many countries around the world, but with varying degrees of truth. Fiedler and Cheners admit that even in the U.S.A qualifications are not completely accepted. Other factors such as political affiliation and race are somehow incorporated in making decisions.¹⁶

13. Summary and Conclusion

Based on the assumption that backgrounds of "Top Managers" and their personal characteristics may have some influence on their practices this chapter was included in the study.

The average Jordanian "Top Manager" is around 47 years of age and relatively highly educated compared with his counterparts in other Arab or even some western countries. Also the average "Top Manager" holds a

university degree in one of many areas of specialisation, with business studies and economics being the most likely, followed by engineering and arts. This may be attributed to the fact that business organisations in Jordan is a new phenomenon and a business degree graduate's place is believed to be in business organisations.

Most "Top Managers" have spent 8 years in their present positions and originally have come from urban areas. Almost one half of "Top Managers" maintain membership in some professional associations or in one of the different trade unions that combine a wide range of employees in the same union. However, managers (at all levels) are not required to belong to any trade union or professional association and there is no association for managers in Jordan, which could be similar in anyway to the American Management Association (AMA).

Most "Top Managers" in Jordan attended one or more training programmes. However, it seems that little imbalance exist in terms of the number of training programmes attended by "Top Managers".

Regarding positions of respondents when commenced with their present organisations, most of them started as "Top Managers". Nevertheless, it was found that some "Top Managers" commenced as middle level or low level managers or employees by lateral transfer. Substantial percentages

of the respondents worked previously in the same sector they are working for at the present time.

Finally, occupations of the respondents' fathers are/were various. Even though substantial percentage of "Top Managers" are descended from fathers who are/were businessmen/merchants, some respondents came from fathers who have never had any kind of paid job. Hence, there is little reason to believe that "Top Managers" in Jordan come from a certain elite group.

Notes

- (1) Moyaid Sulieman, Iraqi Senior Managers: Their Background and Attitudes, Unpublished Ph.D thesis, University of Glasgow, 1984.
- (2) Abu Bakr Buera and William Glueck, "Stage of Economic Development and the Managerial Elite: The Case of Libya", Management International Review, Vol.18, No.1, 1978, pp.33-41.
- (3) Salem Altuhaih and David Van Fleet, "Kuwait Management: A Study of Selected Aspects", Management International Review, Vol.18, No.1, 1978, pp.13-22.
- (4) Abu Bakr Buera and William Glueck, op.cit.
- (5) Ibid.
- (6) Andrew Kakabadase and Charles Margerson, "The Management Development Needs of Chief Executives", In Valerie Hammond (ed.), Current Research in Management, London: Frances Printer, 1985, PP.110-127.
- (7) Ibid.
- (8) I. A. Glover , "Executive Career Patterns: Britain, France, Germany and Sweden, Energy World, No.33, December 1976, pp.3-12.
- (9) Abu Bakr Buera and William Glueck, op.cit.
- (10) I. A. Glover, op.cit.
- (11) Ibid.
- (12) Fredrick Harbison and Charles Myers, Management in the Industrial World, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959.
- (13) Mahmoud Al-Faleh, Career Development in the Bureaucracy of Jordan, Unpublished Ph.D. thesis,

University of Glasgow, 1983.

- (14) J. D. Harborn, "The Dilemma of an Elite Group: The Industrialists in Latin America", Inter-American Affairs, Vol.19, NO.1, 1965, PP.43-62.; David McClelland, The Achieving Society, Princeton: D. Van Nostrand, 1961.
- (15) Clark Kerr, John T. Dunlop, Frdrick H. Harbison and Charles Myers, Industrialism and Industrial Man, London: Heinemann, 1962, p.146.
- (16) Fred E. Fiedler and Martin M. Cheners, Leadership and Effective Management, Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman, 1974.

Chapter Six

The Jordanian "Top Managers" Attitudes to Leadership

1. Introduction

This chapter sets out to investigate the views of the respondents about four sets of issues: capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative; sharing information and objectives; participation; and internal control. Each of these sets is represented by two questions in which "Top Managers'" views are investigated.

Mean responses to each of the four sets of questions is based on a five-point scale. Then an index is created, which represents the means of respondents' replies in each subsection. This allows four indexes to be obtained, one for every set of questions. In addition, means for each sector are calculated. A comparison between means of the two sectors is made to see whether the difference is statistically significant or not. T-test will be used to test these differences (if any). This test is normally used for two independent samples to examine existing differences between random samples from two different populations.¹ Because T-test is normally used for interval scaling, the alternative technique (Mann-Whitney-U-test) will be used to double check our results concerning differences between sectors.

Since this study assumes that some variables have relationship with views of respondents, correlation coefficients between these variables and views of respondents will be obtained. However, the nature of some variables, such as region of birth (urban or rural) of "Top Managers" do not permit us to use ordinary correlation. An alternative is to use the Chi-Square technique, which enables us to accept or reject the null hypothesis, which in turn can help to find the degree of association between variables (if any).

2. Capacity for Leadership and Initiative.

In order to explore attitudes of "Top Managers" about the capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative two questions were asked. The first is stated as follows: The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition. The second question reads as follows: Leadership skills can be acquired by most people regardless of their particular inborn traits and abilities. The first statement represents what Haire, Ghiselli and Porter call the classical approach; whereas the second represents what they call the modern approach.²

The mean responses of "Top Managers" attitudes are presented in table 6.1. The table includes the results of the overall means reported by Haire , Ghiselli and Porter in their international study on more than 3600 managers

in fourteen countries. The means of every group of countries in Haire et al's study are also included in the same table. In addition, the table also has results of a similar study conducted on managers in four Arab countries in 1980.³ All these results were included in the same table to facilitate comparisons between the results of this study and some previous investigations.

It can be seen from the table that the Jordanian "Top Managers'" view about capacity of their subordinates for leadership and initiative is more positive than in any other country or group of countries. The index shows the mean of 3.61 and the second highest after Jordan is the mean reported by Badawy (3.30) in his study of managers in four other Arab countries.

Within this study the mean within the financial sector was found to be higher than in the manufacturing sector, 3.72 and 3.49 respectively. In order to see whether this difference is statistically significant the T-test was used. Table 6.2 shows the results of this test.

It can be seen from table 6.2 that despite the fact that differences exist in absolute terms, these differences are not statistically significant. Hence, there is little reason to claim that "Top Managers" in the financial sector are more inclined to hold more democratic views about the capacity of subordinates for leadership.

Table 6.1

Comparison between the results of the present study and other studies' results.*

Country or group of countries	Capacity of subordinates for leadership & objectives	Sharing information	Participation**	Internal control	Number of the sample
Jordan (Shaikh)	3.61	2.83	3.43	3.40	114
Haire et al's International study.	2.59	3.55	3.54	3.73	3639
Nordic European count. (Haire et al)	2.42	3.58	3.51	3.89	1289
Latin European countries. (Haire et al)	2.41	3.75	3.63	3.76	1002
Anglo American countries (Haire et al)	2.93	3.88	3.52	3.57	703
Developing countries Argentina, Chile & India (Haire et al)	2.75	3.00	3.33	3.55	471
Japan (Haire et al)	2.88	3.58	3.98	3.77	165
Middle Eastern countries (Kuwait, U.A.E Bahrain & S.A.) (Badawy)	3.30	2.86	2.42	3.31	248

*The higher the mean over 3 the more democratic the attitude.

**Participation means involving subordinates at the formative stage of decisions.

Source: Mason Haire, Edwin Ghiselli and Lyman Porter, Managerial Thinking: An International study, New York: John Wiley, 1966.

M.K.Badawy, Management Styles of Middle Eastern Managers, California Management Review, Vol. 22, No.3, 1980, PP.51-58.

Table 6.2

Attitudes of "Top Managers" about subordinates capacity for leadership.

Sector	Number of cases	Mean	St.Dev.	t	DF
Financial	60	3.72	.85	n.s	
				1.46	112
Manufacturing	54	3.49	.86		

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level by two tail test.

3. Sharing Information and Objectives.

The second part of this section is intended to review the extent to which "Top Managers" believe in sharing information and objectives with subordinates . An index was created which is the results of "Top Managers'" responses to the following two questions.

- (A) A good leader should give detailed and complete instructions to his subordinates, rather than giving them merely general directions, and depending on their initiative to work out the details.
- (B) A superior should give his subordinates only information needed to do their immediate tasks.

In contrast to the previous part, the two questions represent the classical viewpoint. The mean of the entire sample was found to be 2.83. This mean is significantly lower than the means in other countries except for the mean of Middleastern managers (2.86). Indeed the second closest mean is the mean of managers in the developing

countries group.

To examine whether the differences between the financial sector and the manufacturing sector are significant T-test was also used. Table 6.3 shows the results of this test. The financial sector mean was reported to be 2.91, whereas the manufacturing sector was 2.75.

Table 6.3.

Attitudes of "Top Managers" about sharing information and objectives with subordinates.

Sector	Number of cases	Mean	St.Dev.	t	DF
Financial	60	2.91	.94	n.s	
Manufacturing	54	2.75	.82	-.95	112

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level by two tail test.

Overall, the financial sector average is higher than the manufacturing sector. However, the difference is not statistically significant. One can conclude by saying there is little evidence to claim that "Top Managers" in the financial sector are more inclined to hold democratic views about sharing information and objectives with subordinates.

4. Participation.

The third category in this section looks at participation. As is the case with the previous categories an index was created to combine the results of

the two questions. The two items represent the modern approach. These items are:

- (A) In a work situation, if the subordinates cannot influence me then I lose some of my influence on them.
- (B) Group goal-setting offers advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal-setting.

The mean for the 114 respondents is 3.43. It can be seen clearly from table 6.1 that this result is higher than the results obtained by Badawy though lower than for other countries, except for the developing countries. But the difference between the Jordanian "Top Managers'" mean and the Europeans' and the American managers' means are not as great as the difference between the Jordanian "Top Managers'" mean and their counterparts in the Middle East. However, it is still lower than the means obtained by the American and European managers reported in Hiare et al's study.

To extend our analysis to the difference between the two sectors, table 6.4 shows the results of T-test. It is clear from the table that the difference is significant at $p < .05$. This result conflicts with the results obtained from the two sections on capacity for leadership and initiative, and sharing information and objectives.

The tendency of "Top Managers" in the financial sector to involve subordinates in participation more than "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector may be attributed

to the fact that financial institutions deal directly with money. Any mistake made by managers can be very risky and its consequences can be traced immediately. Indeed many "Top Managers" interviewed told the researcher that their job is extremely sensitive and risky. Therefore, extra care should be taken before making any decision.

Table 6.4.
Attitudes of "Top Managers" about participation.

Sector	Number of cases	Mean	St.Dev.	t	DF
Financial	60	3.60	.79	*	
				2.19	112
Manufacturing	54	3.24	.96		

* Significant at $p < .05$ by two tail test.

One can say, if this argument were right, executives would refer to executives at higher levels. In the situation of managers included in this study this is not possible, because executives included here are at the highest level of the organisation hierarchy. Therefore, they can only refer to their subordinates on matters where the latter may be more knowledgeable about some specialised issues.

5. Internal Control.

The last part of this section examines "Top Managers" views about internal control. The answers were combined

together to create an index to show the mean responses.

The questions included in this section are:

- (A) The use of rewards and punishment is not the best way to get subordinates to do their work.
- (B) The superior's authority over his subordinates in an organisation is mainly economic.

The first question represents the modern approach, whereas the second question represents the classical approach. The overall mean for the entire sample is 3.40 which is lower than that for other countries. Time and again, the mean of the financial sector is higher than the manufacturing sector's mean. Table 6.5 presents the results of the T-test on the two averages.

Table 6.5.
Attitudes of "Top Managers" about internal control.

Sector	Number of cases	Mean	St.Dev.	t	DF
Financial	60	3.51	.89	n.s 1.42	112
Manufacturing	54	3.28	.89		

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level by two tail test.

The results obtained on the four categories of managerial views do not support the argument that managers in developing countries tend to hold authoritarian attitudes about subordinates. On the contrary, managers in this study showed an inclination to hold relatively democratic views, except for sharing

objectives and information. Though they hold a less democratic approach on internal control, sharing information and participation than western managers, they hold a more democratic views about the capacity of subordinates for leadership. Indeed it was the most democratic view among all countries included in table 6.1.

Even though the results suggest that some similarities exist between managers in Jordan and other Arab countries, especially concerning sharing information and objectives, and capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative, they do not give credence to the wider claim that managers in Arab countries are very similar in attitudes.

The above findings about views of managers concerning capacity of subordinates for leadership support Badawy's results on the four Arab countries.

" Arabian traditions place a high value on the man as the leader of the family unit. Yet because Arabian, especially in the Gulf area, are used to a kin-oriented and closed society, it is not surprising that some have a classical attitude to sharing information and objectives, and participation".⁴

However, Badawy's analysis on participation does not apply to the results obtained from this study. The Jordanian manager, in contrast to his counterpart in

other Arab countries, seems to hold a more positive view about participation and involving subordinates in goal-setting.

Badawy's overall findings are that managers in the Middle East are highly authoritarian. However, neither his study nor earlier ones conducted on managers in other Arab countries are exhaustive. The North-African Arab countries such as Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria and Libya have been excluded from those studies which attempt to generalise their findings to all Arab countries.

Even though this study shows that some similarities exist between managers in Jordan and in some other Arab countries, it cannot be claimed that they are completely similar. Indeed the results of this study might be used to refute the argument of similarity. Another study on conflict management styles in Jordan support our finding. Kozan found that collaboration strategy to solve conflict was used by Jordanian managers more than any other strategy. In collaboration strategy superiors bring out in the open the ideas of their subordinates and their own ideas and work out a solution together. Compromise was found to be the second common strategy after collaboration. By contrast, forcing was only used more often when conflicts involve responsibilities and compliance with rules.⁵

One may ask why the Jordanian manager tends to hold a relatively democratic view. The author believes that the

answer lies with the fact that Jordan has one of the highest rates of literacy in the Arab World. It has been mentioned in chapter 2 that education was found to be influential on university students' views by making them less authoritarian. Since 1/3 of the population in Jordan go to schools and higher education institutions the impact of education could be pervasive. Another possible reason is that Jordan, especially over the past twenty years, has maintained good relationships with most countries around the world. Jordanians have larger amount of freedoms than populations of other neighbouring countries to travel to any place in the world. Jordanian scholars are found in almost every nation around the world, whereas in several Arab countries students are not allowed to study in some countries. For instance, students from Saudi Arabia and some other Arabian Gulf states are not permitted to study or even travel to the Eastern 'bloc' of Europe.

Another possible reason that can be used to explain the tendency of Jordanian managers to hold relatively positive views about subordinates has to do with the economic system. It has been mentioned that the Jordanian economy is based on a free-enterprise system. This system, in general, gives more opportunities than the socialist system for individual initiative. The same thing is expected to apply when comparing the public sector and the private sector. Since this study is

dealing with "Top Managers" in the private sector, workers are expected to have more latitude in their work. However, this is a reflection of the freedom that their superiors enjoy. In a study conducted on industrial managers in Turkey, Yucelt found that managers in state-owned organisations lean more toward exploitative authoritarian leadership, whereas managers of private firms lean more toward participative management.⁶

The situation in centralised economies appears to be different from the free-economy system. Top executives in the former type of economies are expected to carry out the orders of central authorities. Therefore, some decisions and management practices are more likely to be politicised. The results obtained by Sulieman on Iraqi public managers support this argument. He found that senior managers in the Iraqi public sector do not have power to make what he called "radical changes" in their organisations. On the contrary, Sulieman argues, the private sector managers have more power to make decisions related to their organisations. In other words, decisions in the Iraqi public sector are highly centralised.⁷

The above argument is also based on the assumption that organisations in the private sector are mainly motivated by profit. Therefore, if certain practices, such as involving subordinates in decision making, are believed to be more effective, these organisations, may at least, make an attempt to use them.

Before this section comes to an end, some points should be mentioned about the difference between the means of the two sectors included in this study. It has been observed that the mean scores of the financial sector were higher than the means for the manufacturing sector. The T-tests indicated that no significant differences exist between the means, except for participation. Because T-test is a parametric technique and since the data in this study is measured by an ordinal scale, the use of nonparametric techniques, to make sure about the accuracy of the results obtained from running the T-test, looks essential. The following section is devoted to that issue.

6. The Mann-Whitney U-Test.

Mann-Whitney U-test is an alternative to the parametric T-test when the researcher wishes to avoid the T-Test assumptions, or when the measurement in the research is weaker than interval scaling.⁸

Table 6.6 presents the results of Mann-Whitney Test. It is clear from the table that the results support the findings obtained from the T-Test. There are no significant differences between the means of the two sectors on capacity for leadership and initiative, sharing information and objectives, and internal control. In addition, consistent with the T-test statistics the Mann-Whitney Test shows that the difference between the two sectors on participation is significant at $p < .05$.

Table 6.6.

Mann-Whitney U-test for the financial sector and the manufacturing sector means of attitudes of "Top Managers".

Type of attitude	U
Capacity of subordinates leadership & initiative	n.s 1359.5
Sharing information & objectives	n.s 1453.0
Participation	* 1276.5
Internal control	n.s 1390.0

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

* : Significant at $p < .05$.

Despite the fact that the differences are not significant, consistency of these results may suggest the existence of a pattern. Therefore, the two different sectors will be examined individually in addition to looking at the entire sample as one group.

7. Correlation of Selected Variables with Managerial Attitudes.

To examine whether managerial views are influenced by certain variables, correlation statistics were run. Since the attitudes of managers are measured on ordinal scales, the use of parametric correlation such as Pearson, is misleading. Therefore, nonparametric correlation

technique is used to explore these relationships. Because of the nature of the data gathered, and because the results are expected to have many ties, Kendall's correlation coefficient was used. In other words, many managers are expected to have the same value on the scale (5 point scale). Kendall correlation coefficient is also more appropriate because it can be used to calculate partial correlation coefficients.⁹ Hence, it will be used to look at relationships between each of the selected independent variables and attitudes of managers while holding the other independent variables constant.

The dependent variables are the values obtained by each respondent on every group of questions for the four sets of questions explained earlier. The mean score in each section for every respondent is calculated and correlated with such variables as age and total years in formal education.

7.1. The Entire Sample.

Correlation statistics will be run on the entire sample and then for every sector separately. Table 6.7 shows the results of correlation between managers' attitudes for the four sets of questions with age, education, number of years in the same position and number of subordinates. These variables were chosen as independent variables because age and education are the most mentioned factors in terms of their influence on attitudes. Number of years in the position and number of subordinates were included

because it is thought that the manager will use a more democratic style as he has more years in his position and more subordinates. This assumption is based on common sense which suggests that large span of control enables managers to use time saving approaches. In addition, longer periods in the same position is thought to be sufficient to develop a climate of trust with subordinates.

Table 6.7.

Correlation between attitudes of "Top Managers" (the entire sample) and some selected variables.

Variables/ Attitudes	Age		Years in education		Years in position		Number of subordinates	
	Tau	P	Tau	p	Tau	p	Tau	P
Capacity of subordinates for leadership & initiative	-.3859	.000	.2148	.002	-.1187	.045	-.056	n.s
Sharing information & objectives	-.2552	.000	.2152	.002	-.0285	n.s	.0316	n.s
Particip- ation	-.3194	.000	.2660	.000	-.0409	n.s	-.0186	n.s
Internal control	-.2178	.001	.1675	.011	-.0467	n.s	-.0294	n.s

Tau: Kendall's correlation coefficients.

p : Level of significance.

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

It can be seen from the table that age correlates negatively with managerial views about capacity of

subordinates for leadership. In other words, age and the democratic attitude of managers vary in an opposite direction. Total years in formal education correlate positively with managers' views. A slight but significant negative correlation between years in the position and attitudes of "Top Managers" was found. In contrast, nonsignificant negative correlation was obtained between managerial views about subordinates capacity for leadership and number of subordinates.

Correlation between sharing information and objectives and age was found to be negative. On the other hand, positive correlation between number of years in formal education and attitudes of "Top Managers" was observed. The correlation with number of years in the position and with number of subordinates are not significant.

Similar results were obtained for relationship between attitudes of "Top Managers" about participation with the four variables. Age correlated negatively, whereas education correlated positively with participation. Nonsignificant results were obtained for the other two variables. (number of years in the position and number of subordinates).

Table 6.7 shows also the results of correlation obtained between respondents' views about whether subordinates should be controlled by the use of rewards and punishment or not, and the same variables used previously.

Significant negative correlation was found between age and attitudes of the respondents, whereas significant positive correlation between number of years in formal education and attitudes of "Top Managers" was observed. However, the relationship between number of years in the position and number of subordinates with managers' attitudes are not statistically significant.

It is clear that the results obtained have a pattern. For instance, age correlated negatively with the four categories of attitude assessment. This means that younger managers are more likely to hold relatively more democratic views about subordinates. The same thing applies to those who had more years in formal education. Correlation between this variable with attitudes of "Top Managers" was found to be positive. This implies that the more informed the "Top Manager" the more likely to hold democratic views.

The correlation coefficients, though small, suggest that at least correlation of that much exists. This finding can be explained by the fact that young people are more influenced than old people by democratic attitudes. Old people, in general, tend to consider young men as less capable and lack the necessary experience to get things done. In fact some of the old "Top Managers" interviewed claimed that young people are irresponsible.

The above findings were supported by other studies. Hellers' study on senior American managers found that the

judgments of managers were more favourable to themselves than to their subordinates.¹⁰ Such a finding implies that those "Top Managers" who believe young people to be irresponsible may be unwilling to delegate authority to their subordinates. Given the fact that "Top Managers", like anyone else, are strictly limited in the work they can do in a given amount of time, the only way to get work done is through better use of people. If "Top Managers" fail to do so this simply means that they are wasting one of their most valuable commodities (time). As a result of that, inadequate time is devoted for important managerial duties.¹¹

The results concerning the important impact of education is supported by the findings about age. Because the spread of education is relatively new in Jordan, young people are expected to be more educated than old people.

Education exposes people to others from various backgrounds. In addition, affiliation with new groups in universities and outside the family might facilitate changes in their attitudes. In fact studies on Arab university students found that university students thinking, attitudes about stereotypes, and dogmatism changed dramatically from the first year to the last year of college or university.¹²

Because age and education may have a relationship with each other, which may in turn affects the relationships

between attitudes of "Top Managers" and these two variables (age and education) partial correlation coefficients were derived. In other words, education was held constant when correlations were obtained between age and attitudes. Alternatively, age was held constant when correlations were derived between education and attitudes. However, because years in the position and number of subordinates (span of control) did not have significant association with each other, it was thought that there is no need to derive partial correlation coefficients between these two variables.

Table 6.7A

Partial correlations between attitudes of "Top Managers" and their age and education.

Attitude/Variable	Age	Education
Capacity of subordinates for leadership & initiative	-.3403	.0944
Sharing information and objectives	-.1974	.1401
Participation	-.2516	.1753
Internal control	-.1732	.1007

Table (6.7A) shows the results of partial correlations. By comparing the results in table 6.7 with these in table 6.7A it can be seen that each of education and age had little influence on each other. Table 6.7A points out that age maintained negative correlations with the four types of attitudes, whereas education maintained positive

correlations with the same attitudes. These results are similar to the results obtained from Kendall's tau correlations presented in table 6.7.

Turning to the correlations between number of years in the same position and number of direct subordinates: most of the attitudes tested show that these variables are not significant in terms of their impact on managers' views. This finding looks illogical because it was expected that attitudes of managers were likely to be more democratic if they had had a larger number of subordinates or had spent more years in the position.

This means that "Top Managers" are not willing to use a "modern" approach and devote their time to something else even if their span of control was large. It also means that the length of period they spend in the position has nothing to do with changing their attitudes about the approach they use with subordinates. Therefore, the results indicate that having a democratic attitude or an authoritarian one is not the function of situational factors but personal factors, such as education and age.

The nature of some variables included in this study do not enable us to obtain correlation coefficients with the dependent variables. For instance, some nominal variables like being born in a city or a village cannot be applied to ordinary correlation statistics. Consequently, the Chi-Square technique is applied to see whether there are

associations between these variables and attitudes of managers. This statistic will be run in the next section for the entire sample. Unfortunately, it will not be possible to do that for each sector because expected frequencies in many cells in each contingency table will be less than 5.

8. Association between "Top Managers" views and Some Additional Variables.

This section intends to look at the impact of three variables on managers' views. These variables are: region of birth of "Top Managers"; membership in professional associations; and training.

8.1. The Impact of Region of Birth

It has been argued that people originating from rural areas tend to be more authoritarian than people coming from urban areas. In order to see whether this is true for "Top Managers" in Jordan, application of a Chi-Square test is appropriate. It is intended to test the differences (if any) between attitudes of "Top Managers" in the four categories.

The five point scale was collapsed into three. This was done to eliminate the possibility of having many cells with expected frequencies less than 5. Attitudes of "Top Managers" obtained from this study can be classified into three types. Respondents who obtained 2.5 (or less than

that) were considered as authoritarian. Respondents who got 3.5 or more were viewed as democrats. This was done for each of the four groups of attitudes.

Table 6.8 shows a summary of the results of cross-tabulations and testing of the null hypotheses about region of birth of "Top Managers", and their views about capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative, sharing information and objectives, participation and internal control. It can be seen from the table that there are no significant differences between people coming from urban areas or rural areas on any of the four categories of attitudes.

Table 6.8

Association between region of birth of "Top Managers" and their attitudes.

Type of attitude	Chi-Square	Significance	Testing the null hypothesis
Capacity of subordinates for leadership & initiative.	.7497	n.s	Accepted
Sharing information & objectives.	2.4919	n.s	Accepted
Participation	2.2673	n.s	Accepted
Internal control	3.3168	n.s	Accepted

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

Null hypothesis was rejected when $p < .05$.

The results obtained suggest that region of birth and respondents' attitudes are independent of each other. This finding can be explained by the fact that urbanisation in Jordan is relatively new. No more than forty years ago Amman ,the capital and the largest city in Jordan, was still a small town. Even nowadays in Irbid the third largest city in the country which has about 150,000 population, people know each other fairly well.

An observant visitor to Amman, the capital of Jordan, can easily see that many people who come from the same hometown live in the same area or nearby areas. Furthermore, he can also observe that some members of a single linguistic or minority group live together in the same quarter. The Armenians' and the Circassians' quarters are examples of that.¹³ In addition, many city dwellers who live in areas where little or no segregation exists and who originally came from rural areas tend to spend many of their weekends with their joint families.

Consequently, peoples' behaviour in these areas is more likely to be influenced by their neighbourhood. All these factors combined do not facilitate the formation of a strong city or "urban" culture which is different from "rural" culture.

8.2.The Impact of Professional Associations.

Now let us turn to the issue of the impact of possessing membership in professional associations and attitudes of respondents. In reply to the question ' Are you a member in any professional association? The respondents were asked to answer 'yes' or 'no'. Responses of "Top Managers" on each of the four sets of attitudes were collapsed into three categories, as in the previous section.

Table 6.9 shows the results obtained from the cross tabulations of attitudes of "Top Managers" about capacity of subordinates for leadership, sharing information and objectives, participation and internal control, by membership in professional associations.

It can be seen from the table that attitudes of "Top Managers" and being members in associations are not related to each other. The statistical results obtained showed that the relationship is not significant. The only exception to that was attitudes of "Top Managers" about sharing information and objectives. This finding can be attributed to the fact that some respondents interviewed were members in strong professional associations such as engineers. During the election campaign for the councils of the associations candidate support groups develop among the membership. In the 'political' activity which follows candidate groups lobby for support and share

information among members in the same group, their common objective being the success of their common candidate.

Table 6.9.

Association between having membership in professional associations and attitudes of "Top Managers".

Type of attitude hypotheses	Chi-Square	Significance	Testing the null
Capacity of subordinates for leadership & initiative	2.4624	n.s	Accepted
Sharing information & objectives.	6.1343	.0466	Rejected
Participation	2.6843	n.s	Accepted
Internal control	1.7150	n.s	Accepted

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

Null hypothesis was rejected when $p < .05$.

Ironically, this category was the lowest in terms of the means obtained compared with other categories. This finding suggests that attitudes of the respondents about sharing information can be developed to be more democratic by encouraging them to join some active and strong professional associations. Democratic attitudes are more endorsed through practices.

Generally speaking, being members in professional associations does not have a great impact on the

attitudes of managers in Jordan. These associations are not strong or potent enough. Despite the fact that some associations, (e.g. physicians' and lawyers' associations) and even government regulations require physicians and solicitors to join their respective associations if they want to practise their careers, the roles of these associations are limited indeed.

8.3. The Impact Of Training.

Training is another variable which was expected to have some influence on respondents' thinking. In this part, the respondents were asked whether they had had any training over the preceding ten years. The five alternative answers were also collapsed into three. Table 6.10 contains the results obtained from cross-tabulations of managers' attitudes by amount of training.

The table indicates that training has an impact on "Top Managers'" thinking. The associations were found to be statistically significant at $p < .05$ except for participation, however significance was established at $p < .10$, not at the traditional level (5%).

There is evidence that attitudes are formed at childhood. In the Arab culture these attitudes foster an authoritarian approach. Clearly the above findings implies that "Top Managers'" views can be influenced by training. Hence, training is a very effective tool to change attitudes of managers if such change is desired.

Table 6.10.

Association between training and attitudes of "Top Managers".

Type of attitude	Chi-Square	Significance	Testing the null hypotheses
Capacity of subordinates for leadership & initiative	15.4888	.0004	Rejected
Sharing information & objectives	6.8216	.0330	Rejected
Participation	4.7118	.0948	Accepted
Internal control	6.6178	.0366	Rejected

The null hypothesis was rejected when $p < .05$.

Type of training programmes offered may be responsible for the lack of significant relationship between managerial views and training. These programmes must be tailored to match the objectives or aims of training. Indeed some of the training programmes were found, by some observers, to be failures in terms of their contribution to the career development of some employees, which reflects the fact that there was a lack of manpower career development strategy.¹⁴

9. Attitudes of "Top Managers" in the two sectors

It has been mentioned earlier that because the financial sector and the manufacturing sector were found to be

slightly different from each other, our analysis will look at these two sectors separately. The same variables used previously by this study are used here. Unfortunately it is not possible to produce cross-tabulations for each sector, for the nominal variables, because many cells are expected to be less than 5 in their expected frequencies. Consequently, analysis of this section will be limited to the correlation statistics only.

9.1. The Financial Sector.

Table 6.11 shows the results of correlations between the selected variables and the financial sector "Top Managers'" views. The results in this table are similar to the results obtained previously on the entire sample. Age and education correlate with attitudes of managers. The first correlates negatively with all categories except for internal control, which showed nonsignificant correlation. Whereas correlations between education and attitudes about capacity for leadership and participation are significant and positive. Even though this correlation is positive with sharing information and internal control it is not significant. Years spent in position and number of direct subordinates maintained a nonsignificant correlation with the four categories of attitudes.

Table 6.11.

Correlation between attitudes of "Top Managers" in the financial sector and some selected variables.

Variables/ Attitudes	Age		Years in education		Years in position		Number of subordinates	
	Tau	P	Tau	p	Tau	p	Tau	P
Capacity of subordinates for leadership & initiative	-.3691	.000	.2364	.010	-.1296	n.s	.0291	n.s
Sharing information & objectives	-.1896	.024	.1384	n.s	.0261	n.s	.0941	n.s
Particip- ation	-.2703	.003	.1922	.030	.0200	n.s	.0065	n.s
Internal control	-.1992	n.s	.0335	n.s	-.0731	n.s	-.0067	n.s

Tau: Kendall's correlation coefficients.

P : Level of significance.

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

9.2. The Manufacturing Sector.

Table 6.12 consists of the correlation statistics between the four variables (age, education, years spent in the position, and number of direct subordinates) and the four attitudes of "Top Managers".

It can be seen from the table that age correlates negatively with "Top Managers'" attitudes about the four categories. This implies that the younger the respondent the more likely to have a "modern" approach. Despite the fact that correlation is low, significance levels suggest

that some relationship exists. In contrast to findings about age, education was found to correlate positively with managers' thinking. Number of years spent in positions and number of subordinates have very low correlation, but are statistically nonsignificant.

Table 6.12.

Correlation between attitudes of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector and some selected variables.

Variables/ Attitudes	Age		Years in education		Years in position		Number of subordinates	
	Tau	P	Tau	p	Tau	p	Tau	P
Capacity of subordinates for leadership & initiative.	-.4016	.000	.2432	.011	-.0945	n.s	-.0707	n.s
Sharing information & objectives	-.3503	.000	.3311	.001	-.0364	n.s	-.0192	n.s
Particip- ation	-.3874	.000	.3989	.000	-.1036	n.s	.0008	n.s
Internal control	-.2803	.003	.3469	.001	-.0237	n.s	-.0287	n.s

Tau: Kendall's correlation coefficients.

p : Level of significance.

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

The findings about the manufacturing sector are consistent with the findings about the financial sector, and about the entire sample. This means that there are no great differences between "Top Managers" in Jordan, whether one is talking about the financial sector or the

manufacturing sector, in terms of the correlation between attitudes and the different variables tested.

10. Summary and Conclusion

The respondents were asked about their views concerning four issues. These issues dealt with capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative; sharing information and objectives; participation; and internal control of subordinates. "Top Managers'" responses reflected a positive view about ability of subordinates for leadership and initiative. Indeed their views were more democratic than in any other group of countries included in table 6.1. All these countries or groups of countries were included in the table for purposes of comparison with the present study.

Responses on this category indicated some similarity with responses of managers in four other Arab countries studied in 1980. Nevertheless, the Jordanian "Top Managers" interviewed in the present study had even more democratic views than their counterparts in the other Arab countries. However, attitudes of respondents about sharing information and objectives with subordinates were not positive. The same thing was observed previously by Badawy about managers in other Arab countries. Furthermore, responses of Jordanian "Top Manager" on internal control matters were relatively positive as was the case with managers in the four Arab countries.

Time and again, results about sharing information and objectives, and internal control represent the impact of culture on "Top Managers" views in both Jordan and in the other Arab countries. However, this similarity does not apply to the respondents' stance about participation. Jordanians were found to bear relatively democratic views about participation, but that was not the case for managers in the other Arab countries.

Accordingly, it can be concluded that culture plays some role in determining managerial views about subordinates. However, similarities also exist between "Top Managers" in Jordan and their counterparts in other countries which have no cultural similarities with Jordan. Therefore, neither culture nor level of industrialization can be considered the single most important independent variable that determine managerial attitudes.

Notes

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- (3) M .K. Badawy, "Styles of Middle Eastern Managers", California Management Review, Vol.22, No.3, 1980, pp.51-58.
- (4) Ibid, p.55.
- (5) Kamil Kozan, "Conflict Management Style Of Jordanian Managers", A Seminar Presented At Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan, 1986.
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Chapter Seven

The Jordanian "Top Managers" Style(s) of Decision Making

1. Introduction

It has been mentioned in the first chapter that one of the objectives of this study is to find out the predominant approach (if any) used by the Jordanian "Top Manager" in going about his decisions. Reading the literature on managers' views gives the careful reader a widespread assumption that leaders who endorse democratic attitudes are those who practice them in reality.

Despite the fact that many studies have pointed out that attitudes and behaviour are generally similar, that is not always the case. Indeed the gap between expressed attitudes and behaviour have been reported by many studies. Probably the most popular example is Lapiere's study in 1934. Lapiere travelled extensively around the United States with a young foreign-born Chinese couple. In about 10,000 miles of travel, the group was served at 250 establishments and rejected at only one. Six months later Lapiere sent each establishment a questionnaire asking 'will you accept members of the Chinese race as guests in your establishment'?. Nine respondents said it would depend on the situation, and 118 said 'no'.¹

In a country like Jordan, which is experiencing

substantial changes in almost every aspect of life a gap between attitude and behaviour could be possible. To examine how far the "Top Managers'" attitudes and actions correlated, a study of reactions to particular types of decision situations was included in the research.

Decision making behaviour is the the most appropriate test, if our interest is in testing managerial leadership style. It pervades everything a manager does to achieve the organisational objectives. It can be considered an integral part of every managerial function.

2. The decisions

Respondents were given 10 different types of business decisions. These decisions did not represent every single item included in the attitudinal section, but some conclusion can be reached from the responses of respondents to these decisions.

The decisions included in the present study are:

- (1) The decision to launch a new plan or programme.
- (2) The decision to increase the salary of one of the employees supervised by one of your direct subordinates.
- (3) The decision to increase the number of employees working for your subordinate.
- (4) The decision to enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) The decision to fire one of your subordinates'

employees.

- (6) The decision to make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) The decision to hire one of several applicants to work for your subordinate.
- (8) The decision regarding what targets or work quotas should be set for your subordinate.
- (9) The decision to purchase for your department a necessary piece of equipment or furniture costing more than JD 200 .
- (10) The decision to increase the dinar allocation for one of your subordinates' department, during the preparation of the organisational budget.

The decisions included in this section were mainly adopted from Heller's study.² Most of these decisions were also used by some researchers, such as Muna and Sulieman.³ The same decisions were chosen because they represent all types of organisation decisions. Furthermore, using the same decisions enables the researcher to make comparisons between results of the present study and similar studies' findings.

3.The continuum

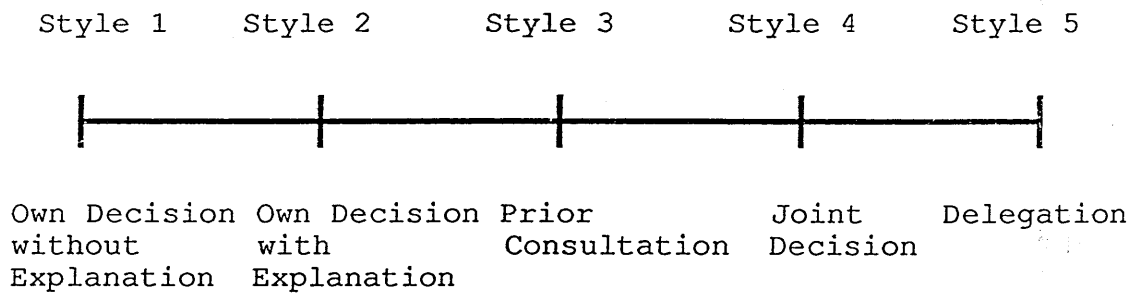
Questions relating to these ten decisions were asked of the respondents. Every respondent was provided with five types of decision making alternatives. They were also asked to write "not applicable" beside the decision if it

did not apply to their situation. However, only two managers reported that decision 9 was not applicable to them.

The five "styles" of decision making were taken from a continuum developed by Heller. It assumes that styles of decision making can be plotted on a continuum based on a five point scale. Figure 7.1 shows the five styles on the continuum.

Figure 7.1.

The influence power sharing continuum



Source: Frank Heller, The Managerial Decision Making,
London: Tavistock, 1971, p.27.

The five styles or options provided for respondents are:

- (1) Own decision without explanation.

You make the decision without previous discussion of consultation with subordinates, and no special meeting or memorandum is used to explain the decision.

- (2) Own decision with explanation.

The same as above, but afterwards you explain the

problem and the reasons for your choice in a memo, or in a special meeting.

(3) Prior consultation with subordinates.

Before the decision is taken, you explain the problem to your subordinate and ask for his advice and help. You then make the decision by yourself. Your final choice may, or may not, reflect your subordinates influence.

(4) Joint decision making with subordinates.

You and your subordinate(s) together analyse the problem and come to a decision. The subordinate(s) usually has as much influence over the final choice as you. Where there are more than two in the discussion, the decision of the majority is accepted more often than not.

(5) Delegation of decision to subordinate.

You ask your subordinate to make the decision regarding a particular subject, you may or may not request him to report his decisions to you. You seldom veto his decisions.

The continuum was used by other researchers with some modifications. Muna's study on Arab executives and Sulieman's study on Iraqi managers are examples. The two authors eliminated style 2 in Heller's continuum. Both agree about this elimination:

"It was felt that Heller's style 2 cannot be considered a distinct style, but rather an elaboration on style 1 (own decision without explanation). To explain or to 'sell' the decision to subordinates is not likely to change either the power wielded by the executive or the influence exerted by his subordinates on the outcome of a decision he had already made".⁴

The author of the present study agrees with Muna and Sulieman that power will still reside with the executive. But selling the decision to subordinates, can be seen as a sign of consideration rather than ignoring them, as it is the case in the first style. However, even if managers use consultation this does not mean that the power is transferred from "Top Managers" to their subordinates. On the contrary, the power is still wielded by the "Top Manager" since the final decision may not necessarily reflect subordinates' influence.

Consequently, the five-point scale was thought to be more appropriate than the four-point scale. Indeed many "Top Managers" interviewed thought that style 2 was less authoritarian than style 1. Some managers interviewed mentioned that in some situations time constraints do not permit them to be consultative. The alternative way to deal with these circumstances is to explain the reason for the decisions made.

4. Analysis of the Results

In order to investigate whether respondents use one predominant style, regardless the type of decision or situation, the results obtained for each question are presented. Table 7.1 shows the distribution of decision making styles for the ten decisions.

It can be seen from the table that consultation (style 3) was used 43 per cent of the time. On the other hand, style 2 (own decision with explanation) was used 24 per cent of the time, whereas style 4 (joint decision) was used 21 per cent of the time. Style 5 (delegation) was the least used type (4%).

The above results have some similarities with other studies on top managers in different Arab countries. Muna's study and the present study both found that consultation was the predominant style. By contrast, Sulieman's study findings on Iraqi top managers are different. He found that style 1, which is the most authoritarian, was the predominant type. In addition, Muna found that style 1 was the second most common after style 2. Such results are different from the present study's results. Style 2 (Own decision with explanation) was found to be the second common among the Jordanian "Top Managers". Muna also found that joint decision was only used 13 per cent of the time, whereas in this study it was found to be used 21 per cent of the time.

Table 7.1

Distribution of decision making styles for the ten decisions (the entire sample).

Decision number	Own dec.	Make the dec. Then explain	Consult sub.	Joint dec.	Delegation	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
1	2	10	50	38	-	100
2	11	37	45	1	-	100
3	7	16	59	18	-	100
4	2	9	39	50	-	100
5	8	27	51	11	3	100
6	7	24	29	39	1	100
7	10	20	54	5	11	100
8	10	38	31	12	9	100
9	12	32	34	11	11	100
10	8	30	37	22	3	100
All Decisions	8	24	43	21	4	100

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

Despite the fact that the second style is also an authoritarian type, or probably benevolent authoritarian, the use of this type can be viewed as a sign of

consideration to subordinates. It can help to make them feel as if they are participating in the decision making process. Furthermore, it can give some kind of role to subordinates rather than ignoring them completely. "Top Managers" themselves can be saved from severe criticism from others, especially their subordinates, if they choose to consult prior to making decisions.

Turning to the use of Joint decision (21%), its use may be explained by the desire of respondents to involve subordinates in the decision making process. It also reflects a recognition from "Top Managers" that subordinates have something to offer.

The above findings lead one to conclude that management styles are not mainly determined by the culture in which management operates. There is no doubt that the Arabian culture is an authoritarian one. However, the results of this study do not give complete credence to that. If the cultural school of management were right in its argument the results of this study would have been different.

The findings also do not support the argument that level of industrialisation is the most important determinant in management styles. Table 7.2 compares the results of this study with another study on American top managers.

It is clear from the table that the Jordanian "Top Manager" is not greatly different from his American counterpart. Even though delegation was used 7 per cent

of the time by Americans and 4 per cent of the time by Jordanians, the difference between managers does not reflect the great differences between the two countries' level of industrialisation.

Table 7.2

Comparison between results of the present study and Heller's study.

Percentages

Nationality	Style 1+ Style 2	Style 3	Style 4	Style 5	Total
Jordanians	32	43	21	4	100
Americans	36	37	20	7	100

Source: Frank Heller, Managerial Decision Making, London: Tavistock, 1971.
Present survey.

5. Do "Top Managers" Use Different Styles For Different Categories of Decisions?

This section intends to look at the results from a different aspect. Since the decisions included in the study cover ten areas of activity, it is worth investigating whether styles of decision making differ from one category to another. "Decisions" included can be classified into four categories. These are:

- (1) Decisions related to the entire organisation. This category includes decisions 1,4 and 6.
- (2) Decisions related to the employees working for respondents' subordinates. This category consists of decisions 2,3,5 and 7.

(3) Decisions related to subordinates. Decision 8 and 10 are of this type.

(4) Decisions related to the department. Decision 9 is in this category.

Table 7.3 shows the distribution of decision styles by the four categories. It can be seen from the table that styles of decisions vary from one category to another. Assuming that consultation is the point where subordinates start to have influence on decisions, then power was shared in 82 per cent of the organisational decisions. This is a relatively high percentage. This could be explained by the fact that these decisions are very important and critical for the entire organisation. Any misjudgement or mistake made by "Top Managers" in going about these decisions can be costly and risky for the whole organisation.

In the second category of decisions (employee-related decisions) power was shared 66 per cent of the time, a level which is substantially lower than in the previous category. Even though delegation was being used 5 per cent of the time, "Top Managers" seem to involve themselves in decisions that are supposed to be taken by subordinates or even their subordinates' employees. In other words, since "Top Managers" involve subordinates 82 percent of the time in decisions related to the entire organisation, they are even expected to be more inclined to involve subordinates in employee-related decisions.

Table 7.3
Distribution of decision styles by categories of decisions.

Percentages.

Category of decisions	Style 1	Style 2	Style 3	Style 4	Style 5	Total
Organisational 1,4 & 6.	4	14	40	42	—	100
Employee-related 3,3,5&7.	9	25	52	9	5	100
Subordinates 8 &10	9	34	34	17	6	100
Departmental 9.	12	32	34	11	11	100

With reference to the decisions related to subordinates and departmental decisions. Table 7.3 shows that power was shared 57 per cent for the first category and 56 per cent for the second category. The difference is not significant. Power is expected to be shared more for decisions related to subordinates. This result is contrary to what common sense suggests.

From the above results one can conclude that the Jordanian "Top Manager" tends to look for suggestions and help from subordinates about the most important decisions. In other words, they rather "play it safe". Table 7.3 indicates that the respondents do not delegate

organisational decisions at all. This implies that the Jordanian "Top Manager" insists on being, at least partially, involved in making all organisational decisions.

Another point can be revealed from the amount of power shared in the decisions related to employees, subordinates and department. This is that respondents insist on being part of all types of decisions made in the organisation at different levels. Such findings suggest that the Jordanian "Top Managers" does not give the right priorities to his involvement in the decision taken. Furthermore, it also means that he is not devoting enough time to other matters which are more important than the decisions related to employees at lower levels in the hierarchy. In addition, the findings also shows that he continues to see himself accountable for all types of decisions, regardless of who make these decisions.

6. Styles of Decision Making in the Two Sectors.

This section sets out to answer the following question. Do "Top Managers" in the financial sector differ from "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector regarding their decision making style? Earlier in this research it was observed that views of "Top Managers" in the financial sector were slightly more democratic than their counterparts in the manufacturing sector. It was also observed that the result of the T-test showed that the

difference between the two sectors was not significant.

This section intends to look at the distribution of decision making for each sector separately.

6.1. The Financial Sector.

Table 7.4 shows the distribution of styles of decision making for the financial sector "Top Managers". They used consultation 40 per cent of the time. The second and the third most popular styles were style 2 then style 4. They were adopted 25 per cent and 22 per cent of the time respectively.

Considering "consultation" to be the borderline where subordinates may have some influence over the decision made it can be concluded that "Top Managers" in the financial sector involved subordinates 65 per cent of the time. The percentage obtained (65%) is lower than the percentage obtained for the entire sample. However, if joint decision is viewed as the point where subordinates have real influence on decisions, this implies that "Top Managers" involved subordinates 25 per cent of the time, which is similar to the entire sample.

Table 7.4

Distribution of styles of decisions for the financial sector "Top Managers".

Percentages

Dec. num.	Own dec. without explanat.	Make the dec. Then explain	Consult subordinates	Joint dec.	Delegation	Total
1	3	12	52	33	-	100
2	20	40	38	-	2	100
3	10	23	45	22	-	100
4	3	13	35	49	-	100
5	8	28	47	17	-	100
6	8	22	32	36	2	100
7	13	20	50	7	10	100
8	8	40	32	13	7	100
9	16	29	31	15	9	100
10	8	30	35	23	4	100
All decisions	10	25	40	22	3	100

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

6.2. The Manufacturing Sector

Distribution of decision making styles for "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector are shown in table

7.5. Consistent with the results obtained about the financial sector, consultation was the predominant style (46%) followed by style 2 (23%) and style 4 (20%). The table also shows that delegation was adopted by "Top Managers" in this sector more than in the financial sector.

Assuming "consultation" to be the borderline, one may conclude that the decision making process was shared 72 per cent of the time. This percent is higher than the amount of power shared with subordinates in the financial sector. However, if the borderline is considered the joint decision, then the amount of power shared with subordinates would be 26 per cent. This per cent is only slightly higher than that for both the entire sample and for the financial sector.

The results presented above about decision making style(s) in the two sectors may not offer a clear description of the differences. Probably the decision centralisation index can help to give a clearer idea.⁵ Its basic idea is that each style is assigned the value it carries as has been explained previously. For instance, delegation is assigned the value of 5, whereas consultation is assigned the value of 3 and so on. Then the frequency score is multiplied by the scale value divided by 100. This gives the decision centralisation index.

Table 7.5

Distribution of decision styles for the manufacturing sector's top managers.

Dec. num.	Own dec. without explanat.	Make the dec. Then explain	Consult subordinates	Joint dec. inates	Delegation	Total
1	-	8	48	44	-	100
2	2	33	52	2	11	100
3	4	7	74	15	-	100
4	-	6	42	52	-	100
5	7	26	56	6	5	100
6	6	28	26	40	-	100
7	7	21	57	4	11	100
8	11	35	32	11	11	100
9	8	35	37	7	13	100
10	7	30	39	20	4	100
All decisions	5	23	46	20	6	100

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisation chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

By using the decision centralisation index it can be found that the index has the value of 2.99 for the manufacturing sector, Whereas 2.83 is the value of the index for the financial sector. Therefore, manufacturing

"Top Managers" are more inclined to involve subordinates (in decision making) than their counterparts in financial sector.

The above results are contradictory to the results obtained from investigating "Top Managers'" views. Even though it was found that the difference between "Top Managers'" views in the two sectors were not significant, the means of attitudes of managers in the financial sector were higher for the four categories of attitudes. Hence, a gap between managers' views and their actual behaviour can be detected.

Discrepancy between behaviour and views were detected in many other studies. Wicker, for instance, examined more than 30 studies and concluded that in most cases verbal measures of attitudes were only slightly related or even unrelated to the expected behaviours. Unfortunately, these studies were not conducted on managers in a way which would have made the comparison entirely accurate.⁶

Accordingly, it is imperative to scrutinise the enormous amount of literature conducted on managers' views about subordinates. Such scrutiny is needed because most of these studies draw generalisations on management style based on their findings by studying attitudes of managers only. The famous study by Haire et al on more than 3600 managers in fourteen different countries around the world is just one example. They maintain:

"The crucial point here is not what abilities and traits the employees actually have, but rather what their capabilities are as seen by their immediate and higher level superiors. It is for this reason that it is important to learn about managers' assumptions concerning human nature and about their attitudes toward the way in which subordinates should be supervised. Their assumptions may be incorrect, and the management practices which they advocate may be ineffective, but , nevertheless, such assumption and beliefs are likely to determine how organizations are in fact, operated ".⁷

7. Relationship between Styles of Decision Making and Some Selected Variables.

In chapter 6 some variables were chosen to investigate whether they have relationships with managerial views about subordinates or not. The same variables are used in this section to examine their impact (if any) on styles of decision making behaviour.

Correlation statistics are run between the five styles of decisions and the selected variables. The continuum used, to measure how much power is shared with subordinates, is based on a five-point ordinal scale. Hence, Kendall's correlation is considered an appropriate correlation statistic for this purpose. The use of Pearson correlation as used in many researches with similar types of data is misleading. According to the

scale in this study, respondents who use, for instance, style 1, are assigned the value of one for that decision. Similarly, those who use style 4 are assigned the value of four and so on.

The variables used to run correlation statistics were: Age, total years in formal education, number of years spent in the same position and number of subordinates or span of control. All these variables can be considered "continues". Unfortunately, nature of the other variables, namely: Region of birth, membership in professional associations and training, force us to use other techniques, such as the Chi-Square statistic. It is an appropriate technique to test the null hypothesis and to test whether there is any relationship between each of these variables and certain styles of decision making. All of the above is done for the entire sample first, and then for each sector separately.

7.1.The Entire Sample

Table 7.6 shows the values of correlation coefficients between styles of decision making and the four variables. It can be seen from the table that age correlated negatively with styles of decision making. The younger the manager the more likely to share power with subordinates.

Table 7.6.

Correlations between styles of decision making and some selected variables.

Variab/ Dec.	Age		Years in education		Years in the position		Number of subordinates	
	Tau	p	Tau	P	Tau	P	Tau	P
1	-.3006	.001	.1815	.011	-.1090	n.s	.0107	n.s
2	-.3032	.001	.2453	.001	-.0406	n.s	-.1214	.054
3	-.2950	.001	.2545	.001	-.0213	n.s	.0114	n.s
4	-.3707	.001	.1183	n.s	-.1442	.030	.0390	n.s
5	-.3279	.001	.2118	.003	-.1090	n.s	-.0449	n.s
6	-.1632	.013	.1673	.015	-.0380	n.s	.0340	n.s
7	-.0844	n.s	.1776	.011	-.0936	n.s	.0382	n.s
8	.0388	n.s	.0112	n.s	.1908	.005	.0928	n.s
9	.1035	n.s	.0599	n.s	.0940	n.s	.0021	n.s
10	-.0908	n.s	.1499	.025	-.1675	.012	.0624	n.s

Tau: Kendall's correlation coefficients.

p : Level of significance.

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

However, the above finding does not apply to decisions 8,9 and 10. On the other hand, total years in formal education maintained positive correlations with decision making approaches for most of the decisions. Even though

correlation of all the decisions with education was positive, it was not significant for all of them. The overall conclusion is that the more educated the "Top Manager" the more likely to use a democratic style.

The above results about age are consistent with many studies. To name a few, Muna's study on Arab executives and Yucelt on Turkish executives.⁸ However, Muna's findings about formal education are different from Yucelt and the present study. In addition, the results obtained from this section reinforce the previous chapter results. Age and education were found to have similar relationships to the ones with decision making behaviour. Nevertheless, care should be taken here because the decisions included in this section are not directly related to the attitudes of "Top Managers" investigated in the previous chapter. The conclusions are derived by inference.

In order to make sure that the relationships between styles of decisions and each of age and education are not influenced by the possibility of association between age and education, partial correlation coefficients were obtained. This was done by deriving the relationships between each of the ten decisions with age while holding education constant. Also, when the relationships between education and the ten decisions were derived, age was held constant. Partial correlation coefficients were also derived to eliminate the impact of number of subordinates

on years in the position. This was only done for the decisions that maintained significant relationships with years in the position. This applies only to three decisions (4, 8, and 10). On the other hand, none of the decisions had significant relationships with number of subordinates. Hence, it was presumed that there is no need to calculate partial correlation for this purpose.

Table 7.6A

Partial correlations between style of decision making and age and education.

Variables/ Decisions	Age	Education	Years in the position
1	-.2578	.0869	—
2	-.2403	.1572	—
3	-.2280	.1704	—
4	-.3538	.0109	-.1427
5	-.2778	.1112	—
6	-.1139	.1197	—
7	-.0249	.1589	—
8	.0454	.0022	.1968
9	.1325	.1024	—
10	-.1491	.1268	-.1640

By comparing the results in table 7.6A, which shows the results of partial correlation coefficients, with these in table 7.6 one can see clearly that the relationships between each of education and age with decision making maintained the same pattern in the two tables. Hence, age and education have little influence on each other in terms of their relationships with decision making styles.

Furthermore, the values of partial correlation obtained between number of years in the position and the three decisions, holding number of subordinates constant, are very close to the values obtained from Kendall's tau correlation coefficients.

Turning to the correlation between styles of decision making and number of years in the same position, one can see that most of the relationships were not significant at the .05 level. The exception to that were decisions 4, 8 and 10. Decisions 4 and 10 indicated a negative correlation, whereas decision 8 showed a positive correlation. Generally speaking, it can be stated that number of years in the position did not have a great impact on the styles used by respondents.

Concerning span of control, the results in table 7.6 are not consistent with what common sense suggests. Common sense suggests that the wider the span of control the more likely that "Top Managers" use delegation or participative approaches. Even though, some of the correlation were positive, none was significant. Therefore, span of control also did not have any associations with the styles used by respondents. Time and again, such conclusion reinforce the findings in the former chapter. That is, situational factors are not great determinant of the styles used by the Jordanian "Top Managers". On the contrary, personal factors are more important in explaining their approaches to decision

making.

A careful reading of the results obtained above may lead to the conclusion that those people who have more years in their positions are more prone to use autocratic styles. This finding also is not consistent with the argument that the more senior the managers the more secure they are and the more they are expected to be delegative. Even though that correlation was found to be nonsignificant, the negative coefficients' values may suggest that the more years in position the more likely respondents were inclined to be autocratic. If this speculation is right it implies that those young "Top Managers" may gradually become autocratic. In other words, the use of democratic approaches is temporary, until experience is acquired by those managers.

7.2. Association between Decision Making Styles and some Nominal Variables.

The nature of some variables makes the application of ordinary correlation impossible. Nonparametric techniques are the alternative in these situations. The five styles of decision making discussed earlier in this chapter, which are based on the five-point continuum by Heller, were collapsed into three (authoritarian, consultative and democratic). The first and the second styles on the original continuum were considered authoritarian, whereas the democratic style combined the fourth and the fifth

approaches. Finally style 3 (consultation) was left as a different type. This aggregation can be justified on two grounds. First; the five styles can be collapsed logically into three. Second; if the five styles were used many expected frequencies would have been less than 5.

The same nominal variables used in the previous chapter are also used here. Null hypotheses were tested. Normally the null hypothesis is rejected when the .05 level of significance cannot be achieved. The results obtained for each of the variables (region of birth, membership in professional associations and training) are presented in the following three sections.

7.2.1. Region of Birth

Table 7.7 shows the association between decision making behaviour and "Top Managers" regions of birth. By looking at the table one can see whether associations exist or not. If the null hypothesis is accepted then there is no association. On the other hand, if the null hypothesis is rejected one can say region of birth and decision making behaviour are positively related.

Clearly the table shows that most of the decisions have no association with region of birth of "Top Managers". The only exception to that were the second and the fifth decisions, which have to do with increasing salaries of the employees supervised by respondents' subordinates,

and dismissal of staff. Respondents who came from rural areas showed a tendency to share power with subordinates. Conversely, those who came from urban areas showed this tendency regarding decision 5.

In general, the results in table 7.7 are in line with the present study findings in the previous chapter about the impact of region of birth on managerial views. In other words, neither managers' views nor their decision making approaches have a clear association with their region of birth.

With the exception of decision 2 and 5 the results also support our argument that there is little or no line of distinction between village and urban cultures in Jordan. Jordan is a country which has relatively new history in terms of urbanisation. Therefore, clear lines between the two cultures have not yet developed or reached a stage of maturity. Probably size of the country, in terms of population and area may be a factor which is worth some consideration. Furthermore, the reader should be reminded of what has been said earlier in this study about the relationships that city dwellers may maintain with rural areas and their inhabitants. By the same token, the latter tend to maintain good ties with their relatives in the cities. These interactions are likely to reduce the differences in styles of thinking between rural and urban people.

Table 7.7

Association between decision making behaviour and social origin of managers.

Decision hypothesis	Chi-Square	Significance	Testing the null hypothesis
1	.7951	n.s	Accepted
2	6.4646	.0359	Rejected
3	1.8099	n.s	Accepted
4	.9318	n.s	Accepted
5	7.0089	.0301	Rejected
6	2.4625	n.s	Accepted
7	3.0151	n.s	Accepted
8	2.0615	n.s	Accepted
9	1.4413	n.s	Accepted
10	.2309	n.s	Accepted

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

Null hypothesis was rejected when $p < .05$.

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

7.2.2. Membership in professional Associations

The second nominal variable which was examined is possessing membership in professional associations or societies. It was intended to find out about the

differences (if any) between respondents who maintained membership in such associations or not. The five styles of decisions were also "collapsed" as in the previous variable (region of birth). In addition, the null hypothesis was applied for the ten decisions.

Table 7.8 shows that there were no differences between respondents who had membership in some professional associations and those who did not. This finding supports the finding in the previous chapter about the impact of being members in professional associations on managerial viewpoints.

By and large, professional associations and labour unions in Jordan are not strong enough to influence members' behaviour. Furthermore, they are not in the position to put pressures on management as is the case in the United Kingdom and some other countries. Many members of these societies or associations join their respective associations because they are supposed to do so. Lawyers, physicians and pharmacists are examples. Indeed one of the main functions of these societies is to provide some kind of accreditation for their members' qualifications. However, if any association make or attempt to make any action considered as a threat to the national security, such action is highly unwelcome by the government.

Table 7.8

Association between decision making behaviour and possessing membership in professional associations.

Decision number	Chi-Square	Significance	Testing the null hypothesis
1	.0372	n.s	Accepted
2	1.6298	n.s	Accepted
3	2.2560	n.s	Accepted
4	3.2025	n.s	Accepted
5	.5447	n.s	Accepted
6	4.6859	n.s	Accepted
7	1.0222	n.s	Accepted
8	2.3948	n.s	Accepted
9	2.3007	n.s	Accepted
10	1.7270	n.s	Accepted

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

Null hypothesis was rejected when $p < .05$.

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

7.2.3. Training

Training is the third variable which was investigated to analyse its impact on decision making behaviour. Because training is very important and it may be used as a means to change people's behaviour, it was examined in terms of

its impact on managers behaviour embodied by decision making practices. The same procedures were used in training as for the previous two variables. Table 7.9 presents the results of the Chi-Square and tests for the null hypotheses.

Table 7.9
Association between decision making behaviour and training of "Top Managers".

Decision number	Chi-Square	Significance	Testing the null hypothesis
1	2.0433	n.s	Accepted
2	2.0668	n.s	Accepted
3	5.2418	n.s	Accepted
4	4.2349	n.s	Accepted
5	5.3718	n.s	Accepted
6	6.2690	.0435	Rejected
7	4.2181	n.s	Accepted
8	1.1247	n.s	Accepted
9	.3636	n.s	Accepted
10	9.3667	.0092	Rejected

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

Null hypothesis was rejected when $p < .05$.

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

A discrepancy between "Top Managers'" views about subordinates and their behaviour may be detected. Simply, the results suggest that views of "Top Managers" about subordinates are influenced by training, but that is not the case for their decision making behaviour. In conclusion, one can speculate that training programmes were effective enough to change attitudes of "Top Managers", but not effective enough to influence their behaviour. Hence, a careful review of these programmes is essential if changes in behaviour are required. Such review has to look at many aspects of training programmes offered. Methods of training and contents of training programmes are some of the aspects that should be considered if organisations are concerned about changing the attitudes into behaviour embodied in practices of "Top Managers".

8. Relationship between Decision Making Styles and some Selected Variables in the two Sectors

This section sets out to investigate the impact of some variables on styles of decision making in the two sectors. The same variables used for the entire sample are used here. The reason that each sector is examined separately is to find out if certain variables are more important for one sector than another.

8.1. The Financial Sector

Table 7.10 includes the values of coefficients of correlation for the financial sector. The table shows

that increased age and decision making had significant negative correlations for most of the decisions. Therefore, the younger the "Top Manager" the more likely to use power sharing approaches. Total years in formal education maintained a positive relationship with the styles for most of the decisions included. That is, the more educated the "Top Manager" the more likely to adopt democratic styles.

Understandably, and consistent with the previous results negative relationships were found between the approaches adopted and number of years spent in the position. However, this relationship was only significant for two decisions (1 and 4). Both are organisational decisions. The only decision which had positive correlation was decision 9 which is departmental decisions.

Concerning span of control, some decisions showed significant positive correlations with the approaches used. The "Top Managers" with wide span of control used "time saving approaches". By "time saving approaches" the author means that managers involved subordinates in these decisions and devoted their own time to something else. However, that does not necessarily imply that such approach is the fastest way to make decisions.

The above result is in line with what common sense suggests. By using time saving approaches managers can devote their time to more important issues. Last but not

least delegation offers a chance to subordinates to gain the necessary skill to be decision makers.

Table 7.10.

Correlations between decision styles used by "Top Managers" in the financial sector and some selected variables.

Variab/ dec.	Age		Years in education		Years in the position		Number of subordinates	
	Tau	p	Tau	P	Tau	P	Tau	P
1	-.3703	.002	.1214	n.s	-.2607	.007	.1210	n.s
2	-.2590	.006	.2380	.015	.0101	n.s	-.1214	n.s
3	-.3015	.001	.2382	.013	-.0014	n.s	.0292	n.s
4	-.3188	.001	.0475	n.s	-.2120	.022	.0589	n.s
5	-.2129	.018	.2024	.030	-.0834	n.s	-.0159	n.s
6	-.1018	n.s	.1140	n.s	-.0758	n.s	.1834	.040
7	-.1390	n.s	.2775	.005	-.1583	n.s	.1898	.035
8	.0108	n.s	.0364	n.s	.1061	n.s	-.0303	n.s
9	.0811	n.s	.1151	n.s	.1670	.051	.0578	n.s
10	-.2326	.011	.2896	.004	-.0876	n.s	.1404	n.s

Tau: Kendall's correlation coefficients.

p : Level of significance.

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) TO set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) TO purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) TO increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

In summary, there is no reason to believe that association of variables with the approaches adopted by "Top Managers" in the financial sector are greatly different from the entire sample.

8.2. The Manufacturing Sector

Table 7.11 shows the values of correlation coefficients for the same variables used earlier. These correlations are for the manufacturing sector. The table indicates similar results to those recorded in table 7.10. Age had a negative relationship with the styles for many decisions. Total years in formal education had positive correlation with the styles. Therefore, young and educated "Top Managers" were found to be inclined to use participation more than others.

Regarding the variable: years spent in the same position, the relationships obtained were slightly different from those for the manufacturing sector. The only relationships which were significant were for two decisions. Decision 8 had a positive correlation, whereas decision 10 had a negative relationship with the styles. On the other hand, span of control's relationship with the styles used were significant for two decisions only. Decision 2 had a negative correlation, whereas decision 8 had a positive relationship.

Table 7.11.

Correlations between styles of decisions used by "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector and some selected variables.

Variab/ dec.	Age		Years in education		Years in the position		Number of subordinates	
	Tau	p	Tau	P	Tau	P	Tau	P
1	-.3051	.003	.1896	.053	.0353	n.s	-.1365	n.s
2	-.4212	.001	.2131	.032	-.1518	n.s	-.2208	.024
3	-.2932	.004	.2345	.022	-.0485	n.s	-.0545	n.s
4	-.4429	.001	.1815	n.s	-.0650	n.s	.0332	n.s
5	-.4698	.001	.2316	.021	-.1335	n.s	-.0563	n.s
6	-.2334	.015	.2150	.028	.0130	n.s	-.1125	n.s
7	-.0289	n.s	.0544	n.s	-.0009	n.s	-.1361	n.s
8	.0582	n.s	-.0194	n.s	.2708	.005	.2369	.013
9	.1239	n.s	-.0036	n.s	.0017	n.s	-.0617	n.s
10	.0552	n.s	-.0009	n.s	-.2343	.015	-.0180	n.s

Tau : Kendall's correlation coefficients.

p : Level of significance.

n.s : Not significant at the .05 level

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

Consequently, there is little reason to believe that there are great differences between "Top Managers" in the two sectors. The correlation statistics maintained very similar results.

9. The Relationship between Views of "Top Managers" and their Decision making styles

Earlier in this chapter it was found that the decision centralisation index for the manufacturing sector was higher than the decision centralisation index for the financial sector. Such a finding is different from the results obtained in the previous chapter. This suggests that the financial sector's "Top Managers" were more inclined to hold more positive views about subordinates than their counterparts in the manufacturing sector. Even though these results were found to lack statistical significance, our intention in this section is to look at another technique and examine whether there is relationship between views of "Top Managers" in the two sectors and their behaviour or practices represented by the decisions made by them. Correlation statistics were thought to be the best method to satisfy this aim.

Each of the four sets of views discussed earlier was correlated with the ten decisions included in the study. This was done for the entire sample and for "Top Managers" in each sector separately.

9.1. The Entire Sample.

Table 7.12 shows the results obtained about correlation between views of "Top Managers" about capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative; sharing

information and objectives; participation; internal control; and their decision making styles.

Table 7.12

Correlation between attitudes of "Top Managers" and their decision making styles.

Decision Capacity of number subordinates for leadership	Sharing info. & objectives		Participation		Internal control	
	Tau	p	Tau	p	Tau	p
1	.2223	.003	.2526	.001	.1772	.013
2	.1351	.042	.0217	n.s	.0883	n.s
3	.1804	.011	.0864	n.s	.2741	.000
4	.2866	.000	.1076	n.s	.1929	.008
5	.2849	.000	.2045	.005	.2210	.002
6	.2120	.003	.0594	n.s	.2675	.000
7	.1497	.026	.0444	n.s	.1739	.012
8	-.0116	n.s	.1165	n.s	.1080	n.s
9	.0698	n.s	.0356	n.s	.2164	.002
10	.1272	.048	.0602	n.s	.1142	n.s

Tau: Kendall's correlation coefficients.

P : Level of significance.

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

It can be seen from the table that the relationships are not statistically significant for all the ten decisions. A careful reading of the results in the table reveals that most of the relationships were not significant for almost all the four categories of views for the last three decisions (8,9 & 10). These three decisions are related to departments of subordinates and "Top Managers". On the other hand, the correlation for decisions related to the entire organisation and to employees working for the respondents' subordinates have more significance. This means that views of "Top Managers" about subordinates are less consistent with the styles used in making the last three decisions.

The above mentioned result is very significant and one can read into such results that "Top Managers" only pay lip service to capacity of subordinates and their ability to be responsible and independent. In other words, the "Top Managers'" views about participative approaches are just "window dressing". The reason for that could be the tendency of "Top Managers" to show themselves as participative type managers by expressing only positive views about subordinates. If "Top Managers'" views were similar to their practices they would have been viewed by others as "old-fashioned managers". And in this they may not in practice be very different from managers in Western countries.

9.2. The Financial Sector.

Table 7.13 shows the relationships between views of "Top Managers" in the financial sector and the decision making styles. It shows that not all decision making styles are significantly correlated with views of "Top Managers" about the four categories of attitudes. However, the results in table 7.13 are different from the results obtained in table 7.12. In table 7.12 it was observed that the styles used in making the last three decisions were not consistent with the views held by "Top Managers". This simply means that lack of consistency between views of "Top Managers" in the financial sector and their decision making styles is not specific or clear in making certain decisions.

9.3. The Manufacturing Sector

Table 7.14 points out the correlations between styles of decision-making and views of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector. The table shows that some correlations are significant statistically, which suggest the existence of some consistency between views of "Top Managers" and styles of decision making. But the table shows more clearly than the previous two tables (7.12, and 7.13) that the last three decisions (8,9 and 10) did not significantly correlate with the styles used.

Table 7.13

Correlation between attitudes of "Top Managers" in the financial sector and decision making styles.

Decision number	Capacity of subordinates for leadership		Sharing info. & objectives		Participation		Internal control	
	Tau	p	Tau	p	Tau	p	Tau	p
1	.2426	.033	.2299	.020	.1964	.037	.1590	n.s
2	.2421	.034	.1019	n.s	.1335	n.s	.2118	.028
3	.2616	.024	.0475	n.s	.3007	.003	.1405	n.s
4	.3808	.002	.1100	n.s	.1961	.037	.2273	.021
5	.3540	.003	.1553	n.s	.2306	.017	.1823	.048
6	.1754	n.s	-.0330	n.s	.2800	.004	.1053	n.s
7	.2604	.024	.0433	n.s	.2190	.020	.1493	n.s
8	.0203	n.s	.1943	.036	.2908	.003	-.0515	n.s
9	.0630	n.s	.0366	n.s	.2981	.002	-.0476	n.s
10	.3798	.002	.1271	n.s	.1866	.040	.3278	.001

Tau: Kendall's correlation coefficients.

p : Level of significance.

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

Table 7.14

Correlation between attitudes of top managers in the manufacturing sector and decision making styles

Dec. number	Capacity of subordinates		Sharing info. & objectives		Participation		Internal control	
	Tau	p	Tau	p	Tau	p	Tau	p
1	.2656	.012	.2989	.006	.1785	n.s	.2856	.007
2	.1944	.046	.0505	n.s	.1041	n.s	.1321	n.s
3	.1727	n.s	.1758	n.s	.2648	.012	.2053	.038
4	.2945	.006	.1330	n.s	.2041	.043	.2107	.036
5	.2648	.010	.2446	.016	.2015	.039	.3239	.002
6	.2865	.006	.1507	n.s	.2626	.010	.1773	.057
7	.0801	n.s	.0455	n.s	.1117	n.s	.1232	n.s
8	-.0394	n.s	.0501	n.s	-.1093	n.s	.0121	n.s
9	.0849	n.s	.0422	n.s	.1097	n.s	-.0362	n.s
10	-.0420	n.s	-.0197	n.s	.0305	n.s	.0353	n.s

Tau: Kendall's correlation coefficients.

p : level of significance.

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

The decisions are:

- (1) To launch a new plan.
- (2) To increase the salary of an employee supervised by your subordinates.
- (3) To increase the number of employees working for your subordinates.
- (4) To enter a new market or launch a new product.
- (5) To fire one of your subordinates' employees.
- (6) To make changes in the organisational chart.
- (7) To hire one of several applicants.
- (8) To set targets for your subordinates.
- (9) To purchase a necessary piece of equipment.
- (10) To increase the financial allocation of one of your subordinates' department.

The above result is a clear indication that views of managers in the manufacturing sector are not being put into practice. That applies specifically for the last

three decisions.

Therefore, researchers should be very careful before making generalisations about management and leadership styles by merely relying on exploring the views of managers. Unfortunately enormous amount of research on management style is of this type.

10. Summary and Conclusion

This part of the research aimed at investigating the decision making style/s used by the Jodanian "Top Managers". Because a gap might exist between views and behaviour or practices of "Top Managers" this section was included. Decision situations were thought to be appropriate for this study if our interest is to reveal "true" management style of those "Top Managers".

The results have indicated that consultation was used more often than any other style. Comparing results of this study with previous studies on Arab countries one can conclude that "Top Managers" in Jordan are more likely to share power with their subordinates than their counterparts in other Arab countries. Therefore, it can be concluded that culture and level of industrialisation are not the most important determinant factor of management styles. This finding is consistent with our finding in the previous chapter.

The results suggest that "Top Managers" in Jordan involve themselves in less important issues than they

need to. For instance, decisions related to employees and subordinates were not highly shared with/or delegated to subordinates. On the contrary, organisational decisions were highly shared with subordinates. Therefore, if subordinates are trusted enough or believed to be competent enough to consult them about decisions related to the entire organisation, they should be viewed as reliable enough, or even more competent to make less important decisions by themselves.

Decision-making approaches were not very different between the two sectors (financial and manufacturing sectors). But power-sharing approaches were used slightly more by "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector. This finding is not consistent with our finding in the previous chapter. Hence, researchers should be extremely careful when studying attitudes of managers and basing their generalisations on these attitudes.

Consistent with the results obtained previously, age and number of years in formal education generally maintained significant correlations with styles of decision-making. Negative correlation exists between age and styles of decision-making, whereas positive correlation exists between education and styles. Also consistent with the previous results, span of control and number of years in the position did not have significant correlation with the approaches of decision makers.

Region of birth of "Top Managers", membership in professional associations, and training did not have significant relationships with styles of decision-making. With the exception of training, these results were also consistent with the previous findings in this study. Such results lead one to speculate that training, which had statistically significant correlation with views of "Top Managers", did not have significant correlation with styles used and was not effective in terms of influencing behaviour of "Top Managers". Consequently special emphasis must be put on training programmes and their contents, and the methods in which training is administered. Such an emphasis is critical if behaviour of "Top Managers" is to be changed.

Notes

- (1) Stuart Oskamp, Attitudes and Opinions, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 1977.
- (2) Frank Heller, Managerial Decision Making, London: Tavistock Publishing Ltd., 1971.
- (3) Farid Muna, The Arab Executive, London: Mcmillan, 1980; Moyaid Sulieman, Senior Managers in Iraqi Society : Their Background and Attitudes, UnPublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Glasgow, 1984.
- (4) Farid Muna, op.cit., p.45.
- (5) Frank Heller, op.cit.
- (6) A. W. Wicker, "Attitude Versus Actions: The Relationship of Verbal and Overt Behavioural Responses to Attitude Objects", Journal of Social Issues, Vol.25, No.4, 1969, pp.41-78.
- (7) Mason Haire, Edwin E. Ghiselli and Lyman W. Porter, Managerial Thinking: An International Study, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966, p.17.
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Chapter Eight

The Jordanian "Top Manager" Affiliation To Groups

1. Introduction

The argument that is often quoted about behaviour of Arabs, is that they are influenced by family and religion more than any thing else. This chapter intends to investigate the Jordanian "Top Managers" affiliation to groups. Such investigation enables us to see whether Jordanian "Top Managers" are or are not greatly influenced by these groups.

In addition, this chapter aims at explaining why certain groups (if any) are more important than others. Examining the differences between importance of groups for "Top Managers" in the two sectors is also one of the objectives of this chapter. Finally, the chapter aims at finding the relationship between some selected variables and importance of groups for "Top Managers".

2. Importance of Groups to Managers

Investigating the degree to which the Jordanian "Top Manager" believes that certain groups to which he belongs are important helps to provide insights about managers' practices. For instance, if "Top Managers" are more affiliated to the organisation this may reveal something about their commitment and performance. This assumption

is based on some studies' findings about the differences in productivity growth. These studies found that workers' higher productivity is attributed to higher level of commitment.¹ Even though practices of "Top Managers" may be different from expressed opinions, answers to questions in this section can provide some indications about their behaviour.

Typically, the "Top Manager", as much as any individual, may be influenced by different types of groups. However, our intention is not to examine the effect that these groups have on behaviour of "Top Managers". Only five groups will be included. These five groups are identified by many researchers as most important. Extended families, religion, and superiors are probably the most cited groups in terms of their influence on people in developing countries in general, and Arab countries in particular.² Therefore, these groups were incorporated in this study.

Profession and employing organisation were added to the list of groups to gain some insights how "Top Managers" think about their importance. These two groups were added because, to the best of the author's knowledge, they were not tackled previously, in any Arab country, in terms of their impact on managerial practices. That enables the researcher to conduct some comparison between the perceived importance of these groups for the Jordanian "Top Managers" and for managers in different countries.

The term "religious group" was used in order to be as specific as possible about the impact of religions espoused by "Top Managers". If the respondents agree on its importance, then one can expect a sense of kinship with his colleagues in that specific group. Being, for instance, Moslem or Christian does not tell the whole story about affiliation of the person.

"Top Managers" were asked about the degree of consideration and importance that should be given to each group compared with the other groups. An index for group importance was created which represents the mean of the interviewees' responses to the following five questions:

- (1) The managerial leader should give consideration to his profession more than any other group.
- (2) The managerial leader should give consideration to his organisation more than any other group.
- (3) The managerial leader should give consideration to his extended family more than any other group.
- (4) The managerial leader should give consideration to his religious group more than any other group.
- (5) The managerial leader should give consideration to his superiors more than any other group.

After each of the above questions, "Top Managers" were provided with five different choices. These choices go from strongly disagree to strongly agree, with strongly disagree given the value of 1, whereas strongly agree given the value of 5. In other words, the more the

respondents agreed with the statement the higher the score would be. This scoring method was used because it enables us to create an index for each group. This index represents the mean of "Top Managers" responses.

3. The Results.

The results obtained about the importance of each group are presented in table 8.1. It can be seen from the table that about seventy five percent of the respondents agreed strongly on the importance of organisation. Also the table shows that about sixty three percent of the respondents agreed strongly on importance of profession. However, that does not apply to family, religious groups and superiors. Only 9 percent, 4.4 percent, and 4.4 percent agreed strongly about the importance of superiors, religious groups and family respectively.

Consequently, one can conclude that organisation and profession are considered by the respondents as the most important. In order to explain this result in more details the means of answers (indexes) obtained can give a clearer idea.

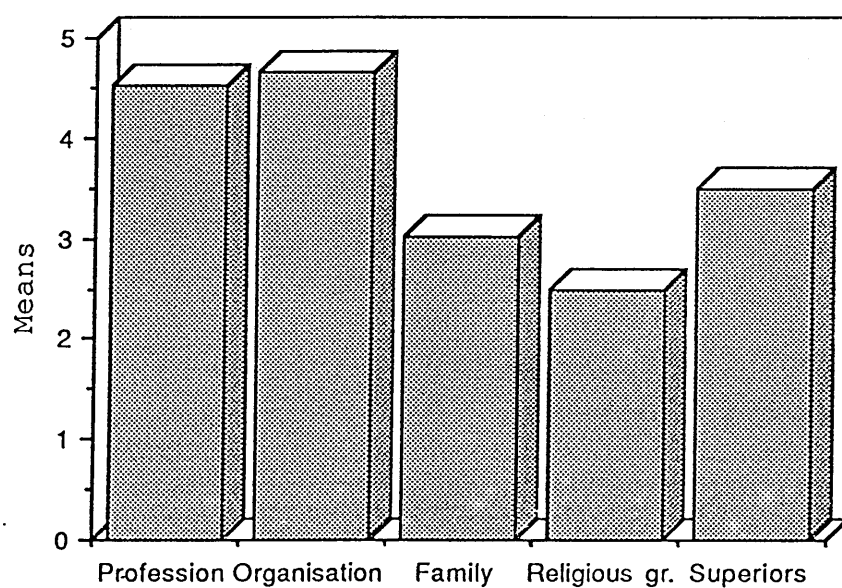
Figure 8.1 shows that organisation obtained the highest mean (4.667) followed by profession (4.526). Superiors, family and religious groups followed with the means of 3.50, 3.009, and 2.482 respectively. The two values obtained for organisation and profession are relatively high. That gives the observer some indications about

Table 8.1.

Importance of groups to the Jordanian "Top Managers.

Percentages

Scale	Profession	Organisation	Family	Religious groups	Superiors
%	%	%	%	%	%
Strongly disagree	—	—	6.1	18.4	1.1
Disagree	4.4	3.5	27.2	38.6	23.1
Uncertain	1.8	.9	30.7	23.7	13.2
Agree	30.7	21.1	31.6	14.9	53.6
Strongly agree	63.1	74.5	4.4	4.4	9.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Figure 8.1.
Means of the five groups

* The higher the mean the more important is the group to the respondents.

importance of the two groups to the Jordanian "Top Managers". Indeed this result was not surprising because the managers included in this study are top level managers who are expected to have more years in their organisations and in the same profession.

The little difference obtained between the two means for profession and organisation, is not so surprising. Many respondents said it was hard for them to distinguish between the importance of the two groups. Furthermore, they said both of the two groups are complementary. One of the "Top Managers" interviewed observed.

"I am 55 years old. I have been working in this bank for more than 25 years. I am a banker and, I think, the banker cannot or does not enjoy any job but banking. I do not imagine myself to be able to work for another bank. Some of my subordinates think that I behave as if it is my own bank. Even though I do not own any share in this organisation, it is really as if it is my own property. I spend most of my waking hours in this place. Therefore, it is not strange to have this feeling. It is not only my subordinates but even my wife accuses me that my job is more important to me than her."

The above quote shows clearly the strength of identification with both the organisation and the profession. It also reveals that the organisation is a very central thing in some "Top Managers'" lives. This conclusion is in sharp contrast with the argument that

level of industrialisation is the independent variable that determines the concern of managers. This argument asserts that as level of economic development decreases executives in these countries are often more concerned with adjusting relationships among people than with solving a problem more efficiently, whatever the cost in personal relationships.³

People who think that work is central thing in their lives are likely to be committed to their organisations. This conclusion is consistent with previous studies on organisational commitment and views of employees who thought that their jobs were the central thing in their lives. In an investigation on about 1000 American employees it was found that those who considered their work experiences constitute a central life interest were more attracted to their organisations than others. It was also found that the relationship between central life interest and attractiveness of several features in the organisation was significant.⁴

The previous results give some indication about organisational commitment of "Top Managers" in Jordan. This, the author believes, enables us to speculate that "Top Managers" are inclined to stay with their organisations and work hard to obtain their goals. Such speculation is based on three primary components of organisational commitment identified by Porter et al: a strong belief and acceptance of the organisation's goals;

willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and strong desire to remain with the organisation.⁵

Turning to the importance of extended family as perceived by the respondents. The mean obtained was 3.009. Such a mean is substantially lower than the previous two means. This result shows that the influence of the extended families in Jordan is well understood. But such values have not been carried completely into the organisation. Table 8.1 shows that the percentage of people, whose response was uncertain, is higher than for any other group. Hence, one can conclude that "Top Managers" in Jordan are under cross pressures. They are supposed to be highly loyal to their organisation but cannot ignore the importance of family at the same time.

Overall, this study found that the importance of both the organisation and profession outweigh the importance of the extended family. This result is consistent with another study findings on workers in Kenya and Nigeria.⁶ In addition, results of this study can be explained by the fact that "Top Managers" try to distinguish between work life and family. In an earlier study on Jordanian teachers it was found that work values were different from social values of family life and were absorbed earlier in industrialisation. As society industrialises, family loyalty becomes redefined so that work values are excluded from the domain of family obligation. However,

the findings of this study are different from Muna's study findings. The latter found that business in Arab countries is very much influenced by social-cultural environment, whereas the present study does not reflect that. On the contrary, this study found that the profession and organisation are important for "Top Managers" in Jordan. Hence, they may play the role of change agents in developing the 'executives' culture.'

Table 8.1 also shows the importance of religious groups. The index shows a mean of 2.482. However, this does not mean that religion is not perceived to be important to them. On the contrary, many "Top Managers" told the author that the religious person should be fair and honest with himself and with the organisation he works for. One "Top Manager" said: "being religious does not necessarily imply being biased toward the group you identify yourself as affiliated to".

The above result shows that religious groups are not the most important reference group to the Jordanian "Top Managers". Even though the Jordanians identify themselves to be either Christian or Moslems, that does not necessarily mean that these groups are source of their evaluations of others or situations. This explanation is in line with the argument that these groups are not positive reference groups. In other words, they do not play the comparison function of reference groups because they do not influence greatly their judgment.⁷ Many

respondents have referred to some of the decisions discussed earlier such as hiring or firing people in their organisations and said that if they were biased in making these decisions they would have been irrational. One respondents observed.

" The manager must distinguish between his own beliefs and interest of the organisation. I am a religious person and people consider me so, but that does not imply that I should be biased to my religious group. About 10 years ago when I was transferred to the headquarter in Amman I was a bank branch manager and I had to make recommendations to the top management in Amman about the person who I believed to be able to replace me. I had two assistants. One of them was religious and a friend of mine. So people expected me to recommend him to be the new branch manager. But I did not because the other assistant was more qualified."

The last group included in this section was superiors. The importance of this group, as perceived by "Top Managers", obtained a mean score of 3.500. This mean is relatively higher than for the religious group and the extended family group but lower than for profession and organisation. Such a finding is not consistent with the widespread assumption about developing countries that loyalty to superiors outweighs loyalty to organisations. Pezeshkpur, comparing between loyalty of employees in the Arab world and the U.S.A, maintains:

"Subordinates serve as a buffer for their superiors. In case something goes wrong, loyal Arab employees will always attempt to shield the manager and blame other (preferably uncontrollable) factors for the problem. In the Middle East loyalty can be felt toward people; in America, the conception of loyalty can also apply to non human entities like the organisation. The loyalty that some U.S executives feel toward their organisation influences them to stress competence over and beyond individual loyalty in their personal selection.⁸

Despite the above results, it would be naive to think that superiors are considered nonimportant by "Top Managers". The mean score obtained (3.50) indicates that "Top Managers" still think that superiors are always worth respecting. Jordanians, as is the case with people in other developing countries, respect those in authority. This is what is called by Hofstede high power distance.⁹

One can attribute the reason behind the tendency to respect superiors to the effect of Arabic culture which urges subordinates to respect their superiors. Indeed, some verses from the Koran urge Moslems to respect the God, the Prophet Mohammed and even those who stand in charge as long as they work for the well being of their people. Furthermore, Arabs in general have respect for old people. Age in the Middle East, as is the case with most eastern countries, reveals experience and wisdom. Since superiors are more likely to be older, they are

respected by subordinates. Another reason is the referent power (discussed in chapter 3) that superiors may have, which makes subordinates believe that their superiors are worth respecting.

However, the results suggest that superiors are not as important to "Top Managers" as their organisations or professions. In other words, the traditional loyalties are not as strong as loyalties to organisation and profession. At the first glance, the results may look contradictory. But "Top Managers" are highly educated compared with the general population, affected by their experiences, travel, and concern about their positions and reputations. Put simply, the importance of organisations to "Top Managers" should not be over exaggerated. This concern is not only for the organisational interest but for their own personal interest as well. This simply means that "Top Managers" are supposed to be concerned about shareholders because performance of their organisations reflect their own performance and affect their own careers.

Consequently, there is little reason to believe that extended families and superiors are more important than other groups. Nevertheless, it is not suggested that they are being ignored. "Top managers" are under pressure from different sources. Hence, they have to live with it or change their environment. Both choices are difficult. The latter, the author believes, is much more difficult to

do in the short run. However, if "Top Managers" believe strongly in change, such a choice is not easy.

4. Does Group Affiliation Differ from One Sector to Another?

The previous section investigated the degree of group affiliation of "Top Managers" for the entire sample. This section intends to find out whether there are differences between "Top Managers" in the two sectors in terms of the importance of groups. An attempt to explain these differences (if any) will also be made.

Table 8.2.

Importance of groups to the Jordanian "Top Managers" in the two sectors.

Scale	percentages									
	Profession		Organisation		Family		Religious groups		Superiors	
	Fin.	Manuf.	Fin.	Manuf.	Fin.	Manuf.	Fin.	Manuf.	Fin.	Manuf.
Strongly disagree	—	—	—	—	5.0	7.4	16.7	20.4	2.0	—
Disagree	3.3	5.6	5.0	1.9	25.0	29.6	40.0	37.0	27.2	18.5
Uncertain	1.7	1.9	—	1.9	30.0	31.5	21.7	25.9	17.0	9.2
Agree	35.0	25.9	26.7	14.8	31.7	31.5	15.0	14.8	45.4	63.0
Strongly agree	60.0	66.6	68.3	81.4	8.3	—	6.6	1.9	8.5	9.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The same procedures used earlier are adopted in this section. Table 8.2 shows the responses of "Top Managers" in the two sectors. About 67 percent and 60 percent of

"Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector and the financial sector respectively agreed strongly on the importance of profession. Furthermore, about 82 percent of "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector and 68 percent of those in the financial sector agreed strongly on the importance of their organisations.

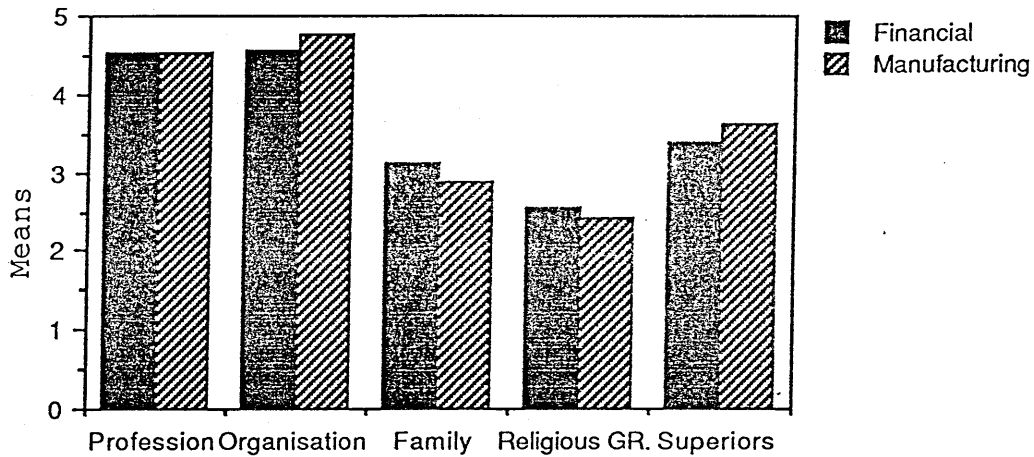
Only about 8 percent, 7 percent, and 9 percent of "Top Managers" in the financial sector agreed strongly on the importance of their families, religious groups and superiors respectively. Interestingly none of the respondents in the manufacturing sector agreed strongly on the importance of their families. Finally, only around 2 percent and 9 percent of the respondents in the manufacturing sector who agreed strongly about the importance of religious groups and superiors.

One can conclude by saying that "Top Managers" in the financial sector are more inclined to give stronger consideration to their families and religious groups than their counterparts in the manufacturing sector.

Indexes for the importance of different groups are created for each sector. Figure 7.2 shows these means for the two sectors. Comparing the results in figure 7.2 with these in figure 7.1 one can conclude that importance of groups for each of the two sectors are ranked equally. Organisation was ranked first followed by profession. Superiors, extended family and religious groups followed in their importance respectively.

Figure 8.2

Mean importance of groups for respondents in the two sectors.



In order to see whether the difference between the means for each sector is statistically significant, T-test was used. Table 8.3 shows the results of this test. It can be seen from the table that the importance of the five groups to the respondents from the financial and the manufacturing sectors are not statistically different from each other. This conclusion is consistent with the previous findings about the differences between the two in terms of decision making styles and views about subordinates. Hence, one can conclude that the "Top Managers'" society in Jordan is a relatively integrated one.

Table 8.3.

T-test scores for mean importance of groups among "Top Managers" in the financial and the manufacturing sectors.

Groups & Sectors	Number of cases	Means	St.Dev.	t	DF
Profession					
Fin.	60	4.52	.701	n.s	
Manuf.	54	4.54	.794	-.15	112
Organisation					
Fin.	60	4.58	.743	n.s	
Manuf.	54	4.76	.581	-.1.40	112
Family					
Fin.	60	3.13	1.049	n.s	
Manuf.	54	2.87	.953	1.40	112
Religious groups					
Fin.	60	2.55	1.141	n.s	
Manuf.	54	2.41	1.037	.70	112
Superiors					
Fin.	60	3.38	1.121	n.s	
Manuf.	54	3.63	.896	-1.29	112

n.s: Not significant at the .05 level.

5. Relationship between the Importance of Groups and Some Selected Variables

The results displayed in table 8.1 do not tell the whole story about the importance of groups to the respondents. Investigating relationship between the perceived importance of groups and some variables are the intention of this section.

The same variables used earlier in the previous two chapters are used here. The exceptions to that are the the nominal variables. The nominal variables were excluded because the results are expected to have many cells with expected frequencies less than 5.

In line with our previous argument, nature of scales and variables employed make the use of nonparametric techniques more appropriate. In addition, the relationship between all the variables with each other are included to see whether there are correlations between the answers on the five questions or not.

It can be seen from table 8.4 that the highest significant and positive correlation is for profession with organisation ($\tau=.7290$). This supports the previous argument that the two groups are highly related. However, all the other groups were found to be correlated in terms of their importance, but such relationships were not as high as the relationship between profession and organisation.

Age and years in formal education did not have any correlation with the importance of profession as viewed by the respondents.

In other words, identification with the profession is not associated with age or education of the respondent. However, identification with the organisation was found to be associated with age but not with education. This

implies that the older the "Top Manager" the more likely to have greater identification with their organisations.

Table 8.4
Correlations between the importance of groups for "Top Managers" and some selected variables.

Organisation	.7290							
	**		*					
Extended family	.2163	.1702						
	**		***					
Religious group	.2246	.0932	.4712					
	***	***	***	***				
Superiors	.3077	.2934	.3592	.2955				
		*			*			
Age	.0952	.1371	.0412	-.0709	.1434			

Education	-.1034	-.0163	-.0404	.0862	-.0401	-.3450		
						***	*	
Years in position	-.0259	-.0670	.0630	-.0310	.0219	.2081	-.1359	
	*	*	*					
Span of control	.1312	.1653	.1500	.0338	.0969	-.0020	.0492	-.0535
	Prof.	Org.	Ext. fam.	Relig. group	Super.	Age	Educ.	Year. post.

* Significant at $p < .05$.

** Significant at $p < .01$.

*** Significant at $p < .001$.

In order to double check our results, and to eliminate the possible relationships between age and education which may affect the results, partial correlation

coefficients were obtained. Also sought were partial correlations between number of subordinates and the groups that maintained significant relationships in Kendall's tau correlations (table 8.4). This was done by holding number of years in the position constant. Table 8.4A shows the results of these partial correlations.

Table 8.4A
Partial correlation coefficients between groups and some variables.

Groups	Age	Education	Number of subordinates
Profession	—	—	.1303
Organisation	.1400	—	.1623
Extended family	—	—	.1538
Religious groups	—	—	—
Superiors	.1382	—	—

Table 8.4A shows clearly that the values obtained are not different from the original values in table 8.4. Therefore, the relationships between groups and age is not contaminated by the influence of education on age. Because education did not have any significant relationships with any of the groups partial correlation for this variable was not calculated. Consistent with the results obtained in table 8.4 the values of partial correlations (table 8.4A) between number of subordinates and the groups are very close.

The above findings are consistent with expectations. Old "Top Managers" are more likely to perceive their

organisations as the place for their lifetime career. Given the fact that seniority usually goes with greater age, they are assumed to be satisfied in terms of their basic needs. In another section of this study it will be seen that stability of the job is considered by the respondents to be the most important characteristic in any job.

In contrast to the above results, extended family and religious groups did not have significant relationships with the age or total years in formal education. Nevertheless, age and importance of superiors had a significant positive correlation. Such a result is not surprising. The older the "Top Manager" the more likely he agreed with the necessity to respect superiors. This result could be attributed to the desire of those old "Top Managers" to be respected in turn by their subordinates. This can be seen as an attempt to satisfy the need for self esteem. In other words, respondents are already, or are about to be, in that position and they would love to be respected by others.

5.1. The Financial sector.

Table 8.5 shows the results of the correlation statistics between some selected variables and the importance of the five groups for "Top Managers" in the financial sector.

Table 8.5

Correlation between importance of groups to "Top Managers" in the financial sector and some selected variables.

Organisation	.7872							
		**	**					
Extended family	.3250	.2452						
		**	**	***				
Religious group	.2988	.2719	.5374					
		**	**	***	***			
Superiors	.3163	.3056	.4458	.4060				
		*				*		
Age	.1738	.1531	.0816	.0332	.1481			
		**						
Education	-.2467	-.0656	-.0474	-.0204	-.0565	-.2976		
					**			
Years in position	.0089	.000	.0833	-.0217	-.0161	.1983	-.0932	

Span of Control	.0435	.0139	-.0069	.0672	.0347	-.0817	.1342	-.3075
		Prof.	Org.	Ext. fam.	Relig. group	Super.	Age	Educ.
								Year. post.

* Significant at $p < .05$.

** Significant at $p < .01$.

*** Significant at $p < .001$.

The table points out that organisation and profession had the highest correlation among all the variables included in the table. This result is consistent with the results obtained about the entire sample. This also supports the argument that little distinction can be made between the importance of the two groups. Also consistent with the results obtained about the entire sample, the five groups had significant positive correlation with each other.

On the other hand, age had significant positive correlation with profession, which means that the older the "Top Managers" the more likely to identify himself with his profession. Interestingly, education had significant negative correlation with the same group. This reveals that young "Top Managers" do not identify themselves with their professions. In contrast, age and education did not have significant correlation with each of organisation, family, religious groups and superiors. But age maintained significant positive relationship with the importance of superiors. This result is also consistent with the results of the entire sample.

5.2.The Manufacturing Sector.

Table 8.6 shows the results of correlation statistics between the importance of groups for "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector and some selected variables.

Time and again, the highest correlation value obtained was between profession and organisation ($\tau=6720$). This result is in line with the results of correlation for both the entire sample and the financial sector.

The above results provide another prove that "Top Managers", who believe that organisation is important, also give equal importance to profession. That also shows that the importance of the two groups are not different

between the two sectors. In other words, "Top Managers" views in the financial and the manufacturing sectors are not different from each other.

Table 8.6

Correlations between the importance of groups to "Top Managers" in the manufacturing sector and some selected variables.

Organisation	.6720							
Extended family	.1041	.1121						

Religious group	.1474	-.1303	.3915					
	**	*	**					
Superiors	.2810	.2358	.2818	.1694				
					*			
Age	.0193	.1084	.0084	-.1633	.1472			
				*		***		
Education	.0490	.0054	.0027	.2189	-.0635	-.4120		
								*
Years in position	-.0597	-.1524	.0800	-.0201	.0492	.2028	-.2052	
Span of Control	.2014	.3227	.3495	.0017	.1235	.0736	-.0679	.1594
	Prof.	Org.	Ext. fam.	Relig. group	Super.	Age	Educ.	Year. post.

* Significant at $p < .05$.

** Significant at $p < .01$.

*** Significant at $p < .001$.

By contrast, organisation and profession did not have significant correlations with each of extended family and religious groups. Age did not have significant correlation with the importance of the organisation and the profession. This result is not consistent with the results obtained from the financial sector. Education also did not have significant correlation with the importance of the the profession and the organisation. Education had only positive correlation with religious groups. On the other hand, span of control had significant correlation with the importance of the profession and the organisation.

Generally speaking, the above results show that similarities exist between most of the relationships between the variables and importance of groups for "Top Managers" in the financial and the manufacturing sectors. For instance, organisation and profession maintained strong relationship with each other in the two sectors. Age and importance of superiors also maintained strong relationship. This result is consistent with our earlier argument that the older the "Top Manager" the more likely to perceive the importance of respecting superiors. That is, "Top Managers" insist on the importance of superiors because they are themselves in senior positions and they would like to be respected by their subordinates. A need which every manager is likely to be concerned about.

6. Summary and conclusion

People in developing countries, including Arab countries, are described as the product of family and religious group loyalties more than any other socialising agents. This section aimed at exploring whether this generalisation can be applied to the work situation and particularly to "Top Managers" in Jordan. However, this section does not assume that identification with or affiliation of managers to the groups included is mutually exclusive. But the result can provide some insights how the different groups can influence "Top Managers'" behaviour and practices.

The findings obtained from this section showed that "Top Managers" thought that profession and organisation were the most important groups. Such finding is in sharp contrast with the claim that organisational commitment in less developed countries is not as important as in developed countries. However, the results obtained from this study cannot be used as basis to generalise about all levels of employees in Jordan. Employees at lower levels may have different identification with groups than the identification of "Top Managers". Being "Top Manager" may influence views of the holder of such position positively toward his organisation more than low level manager or employee.

The values of the two independent means obtained for the two groups (profession and organisation) suggest that there is little difference between their relative

importance. Furthermore, "Top Managers" in the two sectors ranked the importance of these groups in the same manner. Also the T-test results supported the finding that the difference is not statistically significant.

The mean obtained for the importance of superiors was 3.50 which is the third highest mean after organisation and profession. Such a result supports the argument that superiors are respected in the Jordanian society. However, this finding is not consistent with the claim that superiors are even more important than organisation and profession.

Religious group obtained the lowest mean in terms of its importance to senior managers in Jordan. This reflects the earlier argument by some respondents that some distinction has to be made between the interest of the organisation and personal biases and interest of managers. It was argued also that the respondents' own interest may also force them to behave rationally. Simply because "Top Managers" are responsible for the performance of the entire organisation, they are supposed to give great consideration to shareholders and their interest. Failing to do so may not only embarrass "Top Managers" but cause them to loose their jobs.

However, to behave rationally is easier said than done. As will be seen later in this study, community and relatives will continue to place pressures on them.

Hence, managers are caught between conflicting forces. Consequently the effective manager is probably the one who establishes the best compromise between these forces. Nevertheless, it is difficult to compromise in all situations and managers have to have the 'gut' to decide. The author still believes that because business organisations are profit-oriented the interest of the shareholders are likely to be given greater consideration.

Notes

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Chapter Nine

The Jordanian "Top Manager" And His Environment

1. Introduction

The previous three chapters analysed views of the Jordanian "Top Managers" about leadership, their decision-making approaches, relationships with the groups (including organisations) they belong to, and the importance of these groups. All of the above issues were analysed with some emphasis on the impact of backgrounds of "Top Managers". Hence, those three chapters dealt with rather broader issues. In this chapter "Top Managers'" self perception, their role in the community or society, their views about the environment are addressed. The necessity of considering the environment and its importance for business is recognised by researchers.¹

Therefore, the intention of this chapter is to overview some aspects of the "Top Managers'" self perception and how they perceive the world around them. In other words, what kind of status (job status and status in the society) the Jordanian "Top Manager" thinks that he has. These issues were included because "Top Managers" cannot leave characteristics of their personalities behind them and go to work. These characteristics are also expected to have some influence on the "Top Manager" performance. They may represent constraints or opportunities depending on whether their influence is positive or negative.

Even though there is a common denominator among all the issues tackled in this chapter, it can be simplified by distinguishing between three aspects which will be discussed separately. These are:

- (A) Perceptions of the "Top Manager" about his status.
- (B) Perceptions of the "Top Manager" about his relationship with his environment, which looks at relationships with the extended family, the community and the society in general.
- (C) Perceptions of the "Top Manager" about some selected issues.

2. The "Top Manager" Status

There is no doubt that status has some influence on behaviour and attitudes. Despite the fact that the concept of "class" is relatively new or sometimes strange in Jordan, Jordanians tend to classify themselves and others into certain strata.

This section aims at exploring the mind of the Jordanian "Top Manager". It attempts to investigate how he perceives his status. In order to do so, the respondents were asked three questions. These are:

- (1) About how much general standing in the community does your job have?
- (2) About how much general standing do you have as a person in your extended family (such as cousins, uncles...etc)?
- (3) Compared with your extended family status, how much

general standing do you have?

Replies to the above three questions were evaluated on a five-point scale. The scale ranges from "much above average" to "much below average" for the first two questions. On the other hand, it ranges from "much above the family status" to "much below the family status" for the third question. Each point on the scale was given a value. The higher the status the more the value. Therefore, "very much above" was given the value of 5, whereas "very much below" was given the value of 1. An index of the mean responses was created to come up with some conclusions about this data.

Table 9.1 shows the responses to the first question. It can be seen from the table that the majority of the respondents (about 55%) thought that their status were very much above average. The mean response was 4.456. Such high value indicates that their perceived job status is relatively high. For instance, none of them thought that his status was below average.

Earlier it was mentioned that little distinction can be made between social classes in Jordan. But the author believes that "Top Managers" in Jordan can easily be classified, by reference to their incomes and occupations, as upper-middle class.

Table 9.1

The Jordanian "Top Managers" job status as reported by the respondents

Scales	Frequencies	percent
Very much below average.	—	—
Little below average	—	—
Average	11	9.6
Little above average	40	35.1
very much above average	63	55.3
Total	114	100.0
Mean 4.456		

Table 9.2 presents responses to the second question which deals with the Jordanian "Top Managers' " standing in his extended family. However, individual status is very much reflected by the job status. The table shows that the Jordanian "Top Manager" general standing in the extended family obtained the mean of 4.518. This mean is slightly higher than the mean obtained for job status. This could be attributed to the tendency of Jordanians to be proud of their relatives who are successful or have senior positions in their societies. Hence, the latter are more likely to be evaluated by relatives than by outsiders.

Only one interviewee believed that his job status was below average. The reason for that may be attributed to the fact that this respondent came from a very influential and a well-to-do family. On the other hand, 66 respondents (about 58%) thought that they had a very

high status, whereas 43 respondents (about 38%) said that their status was only little above average.

Table 9.2
The Jordanian "Top Manager" general standing in his extended family

Scales	Frequencies	Percent
Very much below average	1	0.9
Little below average	—	—
Average	4	3.5
Little above average	43	37.7
much above average	66	57.9
Total	114	100.0
Mean 4.518		

The third question required respondents to make a comparison between their own status and their family status. Table 9.3 shows the results of such comparison. The mean obtained was 4.009 which is lower than the previous two mean scores. However, the result generally shows that the "Top Manager" thinks that his own status was higher than his family status.

Table 9.3 also indicates that 33 respondents (about 29%) believed that their status was higher than their belief about their family status. On the other hand, 55 respondents (about 49%) thought that their own status was a little above their belief about family status. Finally, about 20 percent believed that their status was similar to their belief about family status.

Table 9.3

Comparison between social status of the family and "Top Managers'" status.

Scales	frequency	percent
Much below family status	1	.9
Little below family status	1	.9
About the same level	23	20.4
Little above family status	55	48.6
much above family status	33	29.2
Total*	113	100.0
Mean 4.009		

* The response of one respondent is not available.

The author, as a Jordanian himself, is aware of the fact that Jordanians are hesitant to admit that their general standing is higher than that of their families. Regardless of that, on the objective measures of income and positions "Top Managers" are entitled to believe that they have high status. The reader must be reminded that the background information obtained about the respondents, which was discussed in detail in chapter 5, does not reflect the fact that "Top Managers" mainly come from certain strata. Also in the same chapter it has been observed that some "Top Managers" came from parents who were farmers or did not have any paid-job. However, it must be mentioned here that in Jordan (as in many Arab and developing countries) most of those people who identify themselves as farmers are unemployed most of the year, except during the harvest season. This finding is

more appreciated if the reader recalls the fact, stated in chapter 2, that farming is not a stimulating source of income for Jordanians. All these factors urge one to state that "Top Managers", in general, did not originate from the upper class.

The finding implies that top level management positions in the Jordanian organisations are relatively open to people from all classes. However, the concept of social strata is neither well established nor rigid in the Jordanian society. For instance, successful, educated people can move relatively easily from the middle class to the upper middle class if they choose the right workplace. Abu Jaber, writing on the dynamic of change in Jordan, argues that "merit, rather than ascriptive characteristics is becoming important more than anything else as determinant of status".²

As far as the "Top Managers'" views are concerned, they believe that they possess high status in both their jobs and extended families. However, it may be hard to distinguish between the two types of status. Actually the little difference between the mean scores for the first two questions in this section suggests that little difference exists between the two.

However, relying on judgment of "Top Managers" themselves about their status may not reflect an accurate judgment. Other factors provide more evidence about "Top

Managers'" high status. Probably the most important among these are: (1) the fact that Jordanians respect those in power due to cultural values. (2) achievement is gradually becoming an important factor in assessing people in the country. Because our respondents are senior managers of large companies, the probabilities are high that they got there by demonstrating some competence and outstanding capabilities.

Consequently, the above discussion stimulates the conclusion that "Top Managers" families and community are likely to consider them as members of an elite. Such a conclusion will be seen clearly in the following section.

Being an elite is expected to increase enormously the amount of influence that members have. Nevertheless, in a country like Jordan, being in a position to influence and have the power to do things is not without costs. Senior managers as leaders of business organisations in Jordan are put under pressure, from members of their families, community and society in general to offer a wide range of services.

3. The "Top Manager" Relationship with his Environment

It has been mentioned earlier in this study that the Jordanian "Top Manager" is influenced by several groups. At the micro level he was found to be very concerned about his organisation and profession. However, such a

finding does not mean that the environment is disregarded. Like other human beings "Top Managers" cannot live in an ivory tower and isolate themselves from the outside world. On the contrary, for managers to be effective they should be equally effective in communicating with the outside world. Such a skill is desperately needed in a country like Jordan which has a high verbal culture. That is, the interpersonal skill is a very important skill for effective communication with others.

However, these communication problems put extra demands on "Top Managers". They also become a barrier to effectiveness of the entire organisation. This occurs when there is a direct conflict between the interest of the organisation and the interest of the groups who exert pressures. For this reason these pressures on "Top Managers" are investigated.

Respondents were asked about the services that their extended families and community anticipate from them. A separate question was asked to examine whether there are differences between expectations of relatives, and expectations of the community. Furthermore, a question was asked about the pressures from society in general which "Top Managers" believed to be constraints on their effectiveness.

Finally, and in order to investigate whether the "Top

Manager" in Jordan thinks that he can play any role in solving some of the problems that face the business and social environment, the respondents were asked the following questions:

- (1) What kind of help do your community members, apart from your relatives, expect from you?
- (2) What kind of help do your close relatives, such as brothers, sisters, nephews, nieces, brother/s in law..etc expect from you?
- (3) Please indicate some of the social pressures that you face (if any) at your work which you consider as constraints on your effectiveness as a manager.
- (4) As a top level manager what kind of problems do you think that you can help society to solve?

Replies to the above four questions are presented in tables 9.4, 9.5, 9.6, and 9.7. The first table (9.4) shows how many times each one of the expectations of community from "Top Managers" was mentioned.

It can be seen from the table that "Top Managers" are expected to offer varieties of services to the community. However, the highest proportion of help expected is to find jobs for others in their own organisations. Such a result is not unusual. "Top managers" are thought to be in a position to meet these demands.

Interestingly, 29 respondents mentioned that they are expected to offer financial assistance. Such a finding leads one to speculate that "Top Managers" are expected

to be socially responsible. This kind of social responsibility is manifested in financial assistance to poor people.

Table 9.4

Kinds of help expected to be offered to the community members as reported by respondents.

Kind of help	Frequencies of mention	Percentage of responses (N = 155)
Help them to find jobs in other organisations	36	23
Help them to find jobs in your organisation	55	35
Offer them financial assistance.	29	19
Advise them to choose their majors at universities	21	14
Others	14	9
Total	155	100

Table 9.5 points out the results obtained from asking respondents about the different types of help expected from them by relatives. The table shows, again, that help to find jobs in the organisation that "Top Managers" work for is anticipated more often than any other type of help.

Table 8.5 also shows that financial assistance was

mentioned more frequently than it was in the previous question (table 9.4). However, that is not unusual because as part of the Arab culture "Top Managers" are expected to offer some financial assistance, in one way or another, to close relatives who are in need.

Table 9.5

Kinds of help expected to be offered to relatives as reported by the respondents.

Kind of help	Frequencies of mention	percentage of responses (N=191)
Help them to find jobs in other organisations	38	20.0
Help them to find jobs in your organisation	54	28.0
Offer financial assistance	43	22.5
Advise them to choose their majors at universities.	43	22.5
Others.	13	7.0
Total	191	100.0

In addition to the types of help mentioned in the previous two tables (9.4, and 9.5), many other kinds were also mentioned by the respondents. One respondent said humourously: "they want almost everything from me, even to arrange their marriages". Such a statement is some kind of exaggeration to show that relatives and community may ask for almost everything. To show the wide range of help demanded, here are some examples:

- (A) Offer them consultation on investment and business decisions.
- (B) Solve all types of social and some personal problems.
- (C) Moral and financial contribution to charity societies.
- (D) Chairing and maintaining membership in sport and social clubs.

It is quite obvious that the Jordanian "Top Manager" is not merely a business organisation leader. He is sought by others to perform many functions. This makes the "Top Manager" a distinguished person in his community and society, puts more pressures on his time and adds to his responsibilities. A question was asked in order to find out what kind of pressures "Top Managers" face over social problems at work, and how this constraints their effectiveness. Table 9.6 represents the responses.

Table 9.6 shows that personal visits at the office were most frequently mentioned. Fifty three percent of the respondents believed that personal visits were one of the most common pressures they face. The next common pressure as reported by respondents, was related to job satisfaction. This deal mainly with dislike of manual work by workers. Nineteen respondents (22%) thought that manual work is not an attractive work for people in Jordan. Interestingly, restrictions on women were just viewed by about 15 percent to be one of the pressures.³

Table 9.6

Pressures on "Top Managers" as reported by them.

Type of pressure	Frequencies of mention	Percentage of responses (N = 85)
Personal visits to the office*	45	53
Dislike of manual work	19	22
Restrictions on women	13	15
Others	8	10
Total	85	100

* Personal visits to the office: these divide into the following groups: (1) social visits (2) visits related to employment and business problems encountered by family, friends and associates (3) wider social problems, for example advice on personal issues.

There is no doubt that the above mentioned constraints affect "Top Managers'" effectiveness. Such constraints can be classified as follows:

- (1) Consumption of time on the part of "Top Managers" on issues not related to their own organisation.
- (2) The need to exert influence on behalf of those who bring problems.
- (3) The need to be able to give advice and assistance on a range of issues (social, personal and work related).

Although "Top Managers" may have to expect to perform these services as part of their wider role within the family and community, they are not strictly matters which

a "Top Manager" should have to expect to confront in the office -where time and concentration are already sufficiently taken up with the leadership of a large business organisation.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to measure in exact terms the effect on "Top Managers'" effectiveness of these interruptions of a busy day. But clearly such commitments detract from the performance of these people and make their real daily task that much more extensive and onerous. On the other hand, these situations provide "Top Managers" with the opportunity to exert a positive influence on well entrenched attitudes which they encounter among those who consult them. The types of response which they report making to those who sought help at the office include the following:

- (1) Indicating lack of initiative.
- (2) Explaining how inquiries might take advantage of areas where there is a lack of skilled manpower.
- (3) Indicating the importance of loyalty to the organisation and the employer.
- (4) Indicating a vague understanding of the meaning of work.

The question that may be raised here is: can managers do something about these pressures?. Respondents were asked about the role that they could play with regard to problems. Table 9.7 presents a summary of the answers.

Table 9.7

Role of "Top Managers" in the society as reported by them.

Type of role	Frequency of mention	Percentage of responses (N = 267)
Encourage time orientation.	76	28
Encourage loyalty to the organisation.	84	31
Encourage importance of manual work.	29	11
Encourage cooperation & teamwork	71	27
Others	7	3
Total	267	100

It can be seen from the table that "Top Managers" feel that creating loyalty to the organisation is one of the best means by which they can serve their society. It was mentioned by eighty four of the respondents. The next most common service was encouragement of society members to give more value to time. Cooperation and teamwork and respect for manual work followed.

Moreover, respondents felt that they can inspire certain values in the society. The most important were:

- (1) Integrity and honesty.
- (2) Take initiative and accept responsibilities.
- (4) Loyalty to the work.

There is no doubt that not only does society rely on "Top Managers" or require them to do things outside their workplace, but "Top Managers" themselves feel that they are obliged to perform such functions. Such expressed attitudes may be a reflection of the feeling of social responsibility that some "Top Managers" hold toward society. Furthermore, the same feeling may also be a reflection of attempts made by managers themselves to satisfy their own needs and reflects the qualities which they themselves regard as gaining social and family recognition.

4. Perceptions of the "Top Managers" about some selected issues.

This section intends to survey opinions of the respondents about some issues. These issues deal with

- (1) perceptions of "Top Managers" about the most important characteristic that enable any person to be promoted in the Jordanian business environment.
- (2) what characteristic is considered by respondents to be attractive for them in any job.

4.1. How is promotion made in Jordan?

Respondents were given eight different characteristics and one open choice to select the most important characteristic required for a person to enhance his promotion opportunities. This question can be useful in providing some idea about "Top Managers'" views of how

they got into their positions. The nine choices given to respondents were:

(1) Ambition (2) Education (3) Hardwork (4) Intelligence
(5) Personality (6) Luck (7) Knowing the right people (8)
Family position (9) Others(please specify).

Table 9.8 shows the results obtained from responses to this question. The table indicates frequencies and percentages each characteristic was mentioned to be the most important.

Table 9.8
The most important characteristics for promotion in Jordan.

Characteristics	frequencies	percent
Ambition	15	13.2
Education	22	19.3
Hard work	26	22.8
Intelligence	5	4.4
Personality	8	7.0
Luck	—	—
Knowing the right people	22	19.3
Family position	16	14.0
Others(please specify)	—	—
Total	114	100.0

It can be seen from the table that hard work was thought to be the most important characteristic for promotion in Jordan. About 23 per cent (26 respondents) thought so. Each of education and knowing the right people were identified by about 19 percent of the respondents as the

most important. Family position, ambition, and personality were identified by 14%, 13%, and 7% respectively as the most important. On the other hand, intelligence was only pointed out by 4% as being the most important. Interestingly, none of the respondents considered luck to be the most crucial characteristic. This finding contradicts the belief that all people in Islamic countries tend to explain things by uncontrollable or outside factors. In Wright's own words:

"Nearly all Moslems believe in predestination. That is, they believe that the affairs of the world, nations, organisations, individuals and all else have been worked out by the heavens. Nothing can be done to alter fate".⁴

However, knowing the right people was thought by 19 per cent of the respondents to be the most important. This characteristic and education were the second most common characteristics after hard work. Family position followed them in importance. In other words, though family position and knowing the right people are not the most important, they are not the least important either. Hence, one is inclined to conclude that promotion is not always done according to competence of the individual and is a far cry from the ideal situation. This deprives the organisation of the best person in the right position, and also deprives some individuals of promotion and praise by their organisations. In reality organisations tend to promote those who best replicate the ethos of the

organisation. Those now in top positions are likely to look for the same qualities in their successors. Put simply, the person who is promoted may not be the best person, but he is the person who does what the organisation wants him to do.

In spite of the fact that responses to the question represent perceptions of the "Top Managers", which may be influenced by personal biases, they can tell something about organisational practices in Jordan. Such a result is also significant because its source is those "Top Managers" who are themselves involved in making promotion decisions. The reader is reminded of our findings earlier in the decision making chapter, which showed that "Top Managers" are more inclined to interfere in personnel decisions and in decisions that ought to be made by their subordinates. Such an inclination provides clues about the role that "Top Managers" may play in making personnel decisions such as promotion, hiring and firing.

The above results are consistent with another study findings conducted on promotion policies in Jordanian business firms. Al-Faleh found that most workers and middle managers studied in 30 business firms in Jordan, were dissatisfied with the promotion criteria used in their respective organisations. "Favouritism" was ranked the third most important factor, after "seniority" and "competence" in gaining promotion.⁵

Unfortunately, data in this study do not allow us to

compare promotion policies stipulated by organisations and real practice of those organisations. Nevertheless, an earlier study found that promotion policies announced by organisations were not consistent with how promotions took place in reality. The same study also found that seniority was given much more importance than merit as a base for promotion.⁶ That is to say that promotion is not used effectively as a reward to encourage high performing workers. This in turn may lead to frustration of employees, and little confidence is established in the fairness of promotion policies of organisation.

4.2. The Perceived Most Important Characteristic in the Job

What "Top Managers" think to be the most important characteristic in any job is the aim of this section. Some studies have pointed out that workers in the developing countries are normally concerned about extrinsic rather than intrinsic variables in the job.⁷ The responses to this question enable the investigator to assess that assumption and make some comparison with other studies.

Respondents were provided with 5 characteristics and one open choice. They were asked to choose the characteristic which they thought to be the most important. These choices are:

(1) promotion (2) Responsibility (3) Stability (4) Near

home (5) Good working conditions (6) Others (please specify).

Table 9.9 shows that stability of the job was viewed as the most important factor. Fifty one "Top Managers" (about 45%) said that stability of the job was viewed as most important. This result can be explained by the fact that most "Top Managers" interviewed are senior and are likely to prefer to stay in the same job. Identification with the organisation, as noted earlier in this study, supports this finding.

Table 9.9
The most important characteristic in the job.

Characteristics	Frequencies	percent
Promotion	20	17.5
Responsibility	22	19.3
Stability	51	44.8
Near home	1	0.9
Good working conditions	20	17.5
Totals	114	100

The above finding is in line with some previous cross cultural studies. Kanungo and Wright found that managers in western countries, such as Britain, place greater emphasis on intrinsic job factors such as responsibility and autonomy than on external factors.⁸

Responsibility, promotion and good working conditions

followed respectively in popularity. These results may be explained by the fact that respondents are either at the top of the organisation or one 'step' from the top level. In addition, good working conditions such as salary, and good office are assumed to be available and satisfactory. The fact that only one respondent thought that a job near home was important indicates a very significant finding. This result contradicts with Alnimir and Palmer's findings on Saudi bureaucrats. They found that neither high salaries nor prestige were adequate incentives to induce the Saudi bureaucrats to relocate away from their extended families.⁹ This leads one to refute the claim or the widespread assumption that Arabs, in general, prefer not to locate away from home. However, this conclusion should be taken with care because smallness of the country, in terms of the geographical area, might be responsible for the indifference of "Top Managers" at having jobs in places different from their families' places of residence.

5. Summary and Conclusion

This chapter intended to investigate three main issues: perceptions of "Top Managers" in Jordan about their status; their perceptions about the relationship with the environment; finally, their perceptions about some selected issues such as how promotion is made in Jordan and what is the most important characteristic in any job.

The three areas mentioned above were included in this study because it was thought that they have some influence on "Top Managers" practices and behaviour. This in turn provides some insights about the environment of managerial practices in Jordan and helps to identify the constraints put on effectiveness of "Top Managers".

Generally speaking, most of the respondents perceived that their jobs have high status. In addition, they thought that their general standing in the community is also very much above average. They also thought that their status was higher than that of their families. Despite the fact that most Jordanians are proud of their families, "Top Managers" admitted that they are conscious of enjoying some prestige in the society.

Consequently, one can speculate that "Top Managers" are respected and considered an elite. However, being in such a position is not without cost, especially in a society like the Jordanian society. "Top managers" are under pressures from different sources and expected to offer several types of service and help to their communities and relatives. Some of these services are sought by others purely on the grounds that "Top Managers" are capable of performing them. In fact "Top Managers" thought that family position and knowing the right people are important factors for getting things done such as getting promoted.

Our respondents seem to have the feeling that they can do something for their society. This can be seen as an inclination to admit that they have some social responsibility that should be borne by them. For instance, they thought that they can help the community in teaching members to be honest, loyal to their work, jobs and organisations. Therefore, one can notice that "Top Managers" in Jordan are not only business managers but other functions are being performed by them or at least that they claim to be doing so.

Finally, and consistent with the results in the previous chapters, the results have shown that generalisations about developing countries, including Arab countries, cannot be made on the basis of cultural similarities.

Notes

- (1) John A. Reinecke and William F. Schoell, Introduction to Business: A Contemporary View, Fourth Edition, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1983.
- (2) Kamel Abu-Jaber "The Dynamics of change and Development in Jordan", Conference of the Contemporary Mediterranean World, Bellagio, Italy, 1981, p.18.
- (3) Until now women were absent from top level management. Nevertheless, the first Jordanian woman who reached the highest level of an organisation (general manager) in summer 19897 was in an American bank subsidiary in Jordan. Unfortunately, foreign organisations based in Jordan are not included in this study. However, some women can be found at middle and supervisory levels of management. Both levels are also beyond the scope of this study.
- (4) P. Wright, "Organisational Behaviour in Islamic Firms", Management International Review, Vol.21, No.2, 1981, p.89.
- (5) Mahmoud Al-Faleh, "Promotion and Morale: A Case Study of Jordanian Business Firms", Dirasat, Vol.13, No.9, 1986, pp.7-31.
- (6) Ibid.
- (7) Aloy M. Ejiogu, "Participative Management in a Developing Economy: Poison or placebo?", The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science, Vol.19, No.3, 1983, pp.239-247.
- (8) Rabinda N. Kanungo and Richaard W. Wright, "Cross-

Cultural Comparative Study of Managerial Job Attitudes", Journal of International Business Studies, Vol.14, Fall 1983, pp.115-129.

- (9) Saud Alnimir and Monte Palmer, "Bureaucracy and Development in Saudi Arabia: A behavioural analysis", Public Administration and Development, Vol.2, No.2, 1982, pp.93-104.

Chapter Ten

Summary And Conclusion

This is the final chapter of the study. It intends to shed light on the following aspects:

First; to remind the reader of the main objectives of this study, a quick review of the study and its objectives is attempted.

Second; to summarise the findings by which an attempt is made to provide the reader with a profile of the Jordanian "Top Manager", his background characteristics, attitudes to leadership, decision-making style, affiliation with groups, and relationship with the environment in which he operates.

Third; to examine the implications that the findings have on "Top Managers" themselves, organisations, educational institutions, management training and development, researchers and lecturers, and government planners.

Fourth; to offer recommendations for future research.

1. Summary of the Study

The study has set out to investigate the leadership managerial style in the private sector in Jordan. Extensive review of the literature, which was conducted

throughout the course of this study, has indicated that social scientists and management scholars tend to think of the Arab countries as: first, similar in culture and history. Second, as similar in level of economic and social development and third, as likely to reflect the same prevalent "school" of management thinking.

In order to test the validity of the above assumptions and to provide a model of the Jordanian "Top Manager", the study aimed at the following:

- (1) Exploring the Jordanian "Top Managers'" attitudes to leadership. This included their attitudes about capacity of subordinates for leadership and initiative, sharing information and objectives with them, participation, and internal control.
- (2) Finding out the predominant decision-making approaches of "Top Managers" in Jordan.
- (3) Analysing why there is only one or various approaches to decision making in Jordan. This was investigated by using a host of personal, organisational, and socio-economic variables.
- (4) Identifying the group(s) that is/are considered as the most important in influencing the respondents. In addition, analysing the ways in which these groups may influence "Top Managers" behaviour, thinking and style of management.
- (5) Comparing the findings of this study with other findings on managers in Arab and some non-Arab

countries.

- (6) Questioning "Top Managers" about several issues that are related to their relationships with the environment in which they operate. These included relationships with relatives, community, and society in general.
- (7) In the light of the relationship that "Top Managers" have with their environment, the study also aimed at identifying the pressures (if any) put on "Top Managers".
- (8) Investigating some personal and socio-economic characteristics of "Top Managers" in Jordan. These characteristics were thought to be helpful in assessing the wider implications of the findings of the study.

2. Summary of the Findings

(1) The average Jordanian "Top Manager" is 47 years of age with at least one university degree and some previous experience in other organisations. Compared with "Top Managers" in some Arab countries, the Jordanian "Top Manager" had more experience than his counterparts. This can be seen clearly from the average age of the sample (47 years). Given the fact that most respondents had some university education and given the regulations of the educational system in Jordan, one can say that "Top Managers" in Jordan have on the average more than 20 years' working experience. Comparing our respondents with

"Top Managers" in both Arab and some Non-Arab countries, these respondents seem to be more formally educated. Such a finding could explain, at least partially, the tendency of the Jordanian "Top Manager" to hold democratic views about management of subordinates. In fact western observers support our argument.

One participant observer maintains:

"Education plants the social and economic seeds from which reference groups grow and relative changes in the importance of tribal affiliation blossom . It is contestable that this process has progressed in Jordan and has long since passed the point of no return".¹

(2) The typical Jordanian "Top Manager" has been in his position for 8 years and originally comes from an urban area. The relatively low number of years spent in the position may suggest that the phenomenon of large industrial and commercial organisations is new in Jordan. Turning to region of birth for respondents, being born in urban areas does not indicate that most "Top Managers" originate from urban areas. On the contrary, the percentage of those who come from urban areas roughly represents the percentage of urban population in the total national population.

Nevertheless, urbanisation is another factor that modified the lives of Jordanians. As mentioned in chapter 2, smallness of the country, in terms of population, makes the impact of urbanisation inescapable and

influential not only on city dwellers but on villagers as well.

Strange as it may seem, Jordan is probably one of the Arab countries that has little difference between city and village dwellers. However, feeling of identification with the largest city, Amman, (which is also the capital) is very limited indeed. Relatively speaking, schools, and social services are widespread throughout the country. Furthermore, size of the country makes communication between rural and urban areas less arduous and easily obtainable.

(3) Almost half of the Jordanian "Top Managers" are members in professional and other types of association. Our findings lead one to speculate that the Jordanian "Top Managers" are not professional activists or motivated to be so. Such speculation is based on the fact that some professional associations function as qualifying or accreditation associations. Physician, Engineer, and Lawyer associations are examples. Regardless of the functions and strengths of professional associations, it was found that little difference existed between those who maintained or did not maintain membership in professional associations.

(4) The average Jordanian "Top Manager" had been to at least one training programme. Compared with his counterparts in other Arab countries, the Jordanian "Top

Manager" seems to have more training. Nevertheless, training appears to be effective to influence views of the respondents but not their managerial practices, as embodied in their decision making. Therefore, training programmes, if viewed as a means by which behaviour is changed, have deficiencies. This shortcoming may be attributed to contents of programmes, methods of training, and degree of participant motivation (i.e. relationship of success in training to promotion).

(5) The Jordanian "Top Manager" holds relatively democratic attitudes about subordinates. He believes in the capability of subordinates for leadership and initiative. He also believes that subordinates have something to offer to their organisations, and as a result of that they should be involved in goal-setting. The Jordanian "Top Manager" also holds the view that the "carrot and stick" approach is not the best way to motivate people. Finally, and contrary to the foregoing findings the Jordanian "Top Manager" does not believe in sharing information and objectives with subordinates. Probably this can be attributed to the fact that Arabs, in general, are used to a relatively closed society and it is not strange to have "classical management" attitudes to sharing information and objectives.

However, it should be pointed out that personal characteristics of "Top Managers" were found to influence their attitudes. For instance, the younger and more

educated respondents held more democratic views than the older ones. Such other factors as years in the position, number of subordinates (span of control), region of birth for "Top Managers", membership in professional associations were found to have no impact on attitudes of respondents. The only exception was training which had some influence on the respondents attitudes.

(6) Consultation is the predominant style of leadership used by respondents. Joint decision was used occasionally, especially when making decisions related to the entire organisation. It was also found that respondents involved themselves in decisions that ought to be made by their subordinates, and hence, devoted less of their time to purely strategic decisions. Therefore, respondents' time management is not effective enough and something has to be done to show them how delegation can release them from duties that are supposed to be done by subordinates.

Time and again, personal characteristics such as age and education were found to influence the decision making approaches used by respondents. But all other potentially relevant factors were found to have no effect on the decision-making approach. Such a finding is believed to support the view that only personal characteristics influence style of leadership used by the Jordanian "Top Manager". Situational factors, on the contrary, seem to have less importance. Therefore, as far as the results of

this study are concerned, the situational theory of management is not an approach which appears relevant to explaining management practice in Jordan.

Another point worth mentioning is related to the gap that exists between attitudes of respondents and their decision making behaviour. This leads one to conclude that the views of "Top Managers" are not put into practice. Training is believed to offer a solution (although not spontaneous) to adjust this situation.

The foregoing finding is a very significant one which demonstrates a misconception held by a large number of scholars i.e. that leadership attitudes correlate with management practice. This is because many studies of management and leadership styles rely mainly on investigating only attitudes of managers, taking the correlations for granted. Though many studies have documented the difference between attitudes and behaviour, many management scholars are ignoring this fact.²

(7) The Jordanian "Top Manager" is put under several types of social pressures which may limit his ability and put constraints on his time. Living in a Jordanian environment implies that the individual has to observe the different norms and values prevailing in this environment. Being a "Top Manager" makes the situation even more demanding. Relatives, community members, and

society expect "Top Managers" to give consideration to them. This consideration is likely to take such forms as financial assistance, findings jobs in "Top Managers'" organisations and in other organisations.

Nevertheless, while "Top Managers" are aware of the above mentioned pressures, they also appear to be aware of the expectation of society about their role. As educated individuals, having high status in their families and society, our respondents assume the role of agent of social change. It has been observed throughout this study that "'Top Managers" tend to perceive themselves as having some social responsibilities embodied in teaching people the value of time and how to be loyal to their organisations and work. Therefore, our respondents seem to be under conflicting pressures, which in turn impose on them the pressure of finding compromises between the conflicts.

(8) Despite the fact that "Top Managers" showed a substantial amount of consideration to their families, religious groups, and superiors, other groups were also very important. The organisation and profession were found to be given a great amount of importance by our respondents. Regardless of the fact that our respondents are perceived as part of the elite group, they have no choice but to be loyal to their orgainsations and professions. Put simply, because "Top Managers" are responsible for their organisations' performance, mutual

interest obliges them to give more weight to achieving objectives of their organisations. This study has shown how most respondents were strongly affiliated to their organisations and their work. Such a finding urges one to speculate that a special culture of "Top Managers" is emerging in the Jordanian society. But the degree of this " executive culture" and its influence will be judged in the years to come. Nevertheless, these loyalties are not without cost incurred by "Top Managers".

(9) Based on the above findings one can conclude by saying that neither the "cultural" nor the "universal" school of management offer complete explanation of managerial practices. Despite the fact that this study found that some similarities exist between "Top Managers" in Jordan and other Arab countries, substantial differences were also found between them. These differences may be explained by several other factors such as level of development, differences in political, economic and social systems.

3. Implications

In the light of the findings of this study one can pinpoint the implications for some of the parties to whom this study may be of interest.

3.1. Top Managers themselves

Based on the fact that respondents perceive themselves

as an elite, which appears to be accepted by society, a significant role has to be played by "Top Managers". This role is highly sensitive in terms of its impact on society and workers in "Top Managers" organisations. However, "Top Managers" themselves are under pressures from many conflicting parties. Hence, their survival, at least in the short run, depends very much on their tact and diplomacy.

Nevertheless, "Top Managers" role can be very significant indeed. Its significance is based on being top level managers in their organisations. That is to say "Top Managers" as leaders of their organisations can do very much by influencing employees working with them. Such an argument was recognized by earlier studies. Leadership style was found to be one of the most significant factors that influence performance of workers in the private sector in Jordan.³

Since "Top Managers" are in a position to influence others, particularly employees, they are then capable of teaching them many things. Despite the fact that employees may be suspicious of "Top Managers" intentions, a climate of trust and confidence can be very fruitful. Even though there is no simple way to do that, practices of managers can be very influential. If "Top Managers" give opportunities to subordinates to hold some responsibilities a climate conducive to trust and confidence can be created. More use of delegation by "Top

Managers" is an effective means by which employees are trained and their skills are utilized. This will also in turn have benefits for efficiency within the whole organisation.

Consequently, training of "Top Managers" must be given great emphasis. Despite the fact that "Top Managers" are supposed to play the role of trainers, they themselves remain in need of some training. This conclusion is based on our finding about the discrepancy between attitudes and behaviour of the respondents. Programmes that our respondents need should be designed carefully to show "Top Managers" how delegation and group decisions can improve their organisations' and subordinates' performance. The programmes should also address the benefits of devoting "Top Managers'" time to strategic decisions rather than to day-to-day decisions. The respondent may show some resistance to these changes. Hence, managing resistance to change is another challenge that must be dealt with carefully.

Therefore, it is not only "Top managers" who bear all responsibilities of training. Many other parties must be involved if training and change in management practices are required. For instance, the climate prevailing in an organisation may encourage or stifle initiative.⁴

3.2. Organisations

There is no doubt that organisations' policies and

practices are very much influenced by their "Top Managers" views and characteristics. Probably that would be more appreciated if the reader recalls the findings about the relationship between personal characteristics of the respondents and their managerial style.

It would be possible, however, for organisations to establish their own cultures that can also be influential in shaping managerial practices in these organisations.

In an organisation where subordinates are able to reach their superiors easily, and where superiors give subordinates opportunities to communicate, a culture of openness is more likely to be established. The author is aware of the external environment's impact on organisations operating in Jordan, which is not one of openness. But he is of the opinion that something can be done at the micro level. In fact this tendency was spotted in two organisations included in the sample. One interviewee said, while commenting on the possibility of applying participative approach of management in the Jordanian environment:

"I worked in an American subsidiary company in Amman for about eight years. Many decisions were taken after full consultation and sometimes group discussions. Yes participation could work if the right climate is created. Simply I cannot behave with my children the same way I was treated by my deceased father. Could you tell me why participation was effective? The company was American, but

most employees were Jordanians and the company operates in a Jordanian environment. It is the climate prevailing in that company. Training and trust can do a lot to change the situation. The company I am talking about was and still is one of the most successful companies in Jordan, by all financial and personnel criteria".

Consequently, adopting fair recruitment, compensation, promotion and reward policies are probably the best means by which a positive and conducive environment for performance can be created. These policies must be accompanied by better flow of information, and clear descriptions of every individual's responsibilities.

3.3. Training and Educational Institutions

Having discussed the need for effective training programmes for " Top Managers" in Jordan, it should be of great importance to cast some light on the role of training and educational institutions. These institutions can do a lot to influence development of managers.

Though many organisations have their own training departments or units, the question that must be raised here is whether these training units are effective. On the other hand, some organisations rely mainly on programmes provided by some independent institutions like the Institute of Public Administration (IPA); or Jordan Institute of Management (JIM). Unfortunately going over

the syllabus of the programmes offered suggests that most of the issues tackled are general, and a substantial part of the material covered is merely repetition of the concepts addressed by business and management departments in universities and higher education institutions. Had these programmes been effective, the status quo of management practice would have been different. In an earlier study it was found that Jordanian business organisations were not satisfied with university recruits. Their dissatisfaction was attributed to the lack of practical experience provided in the university training of those recruits. This was especially true for local graduates.⁵ Therefore, as part of the degree programme there must be some period of time devoted to job experience in organisations. This may be done during summer vacations or in the final year before graduation.

The foregoing argument leads one to ask the question: where can effective training and development be obtained? Unfortunately, there is no simple answer to this question. But organisations themselves can collaborate to agree upon some common issues to be addressed. This will help to pinpoint the mutual problems as defined by business experience. It could also aid to marshal all the available financial and human resources to work on these problems.

3.4. Management Consultants and Lecturers

The role of management consultants and lecturers is

complementary to that of specialized educational and training institutions. Nevertheless, the task of the first group should not necessarily be continuation or repetition of the task of the second. In other words, if management consultants and lecturers are very much similar to those in business/management departments in higher education institutions, in terms of their philosophies and orientations, then they are not the right trainers for "Top Managers" in Jordan. In fact most management training institutions rely heavily on university lecturers. This implies that the contents of training programmes will be very much the same. It also implies that the methods are similar to the ones used at educational institutions. Furthermore, academicians, especially those who did not have any empirical experience in the industrial world, are more likely to emphasize theoretical rather than practical issues.

In fact some of these organisations, like the Institute of Public Administration, Irbid Branch (even though independent of Yarmouk University in Irbid) maintains a location on the university campus. Trainers in such institutions may feel that they are inferior to university lecturers because they are less qualified. Hence, they are more likely to be influenced by university lecturers' views and methods of training.

One way to deal with this dilemma is through more interaction, mutual trust and higher commitment by

academicians and practitioner managers. Therefore, it is time for academicians to come out of their ivory towers and observe what is going on in real situations. A sole reliance on theories imported from other societies may be inappropriate in the Jordanian environment, and may only lead to insufficient diagnosis of the problems that face organisations in the country. However, willingness and open-mindedness of practitioners are badly needed for these efforts to come to fruition.

Another, more comprehensive, way to deal with this problem is to follow the lead of graduate business schools in the U.S.A. like MIT and Chicago, and in the U.K. like the London Business School and Cranfield Institute. However, the idea of graduate business school in Jordan need not be a copy of what has happened in western countries. Put simply, the environmental and cultural factors must be taken into account and incorporated into the curriculum of this school.

The type of business school needed should be different from departments of business in the Jordanian universities. It needs to be equipped to turn out graduates with the skills needed by business organisations. This school may be based upon the possibility of recruitment from among practitioner managers, loaned by the major firms, leavened by academics and consultants, funded by business to ensure that the syllabus of training is as firms themselves see

necessary to meet their own practical needs.

Furthermore, business can also provide the case materials. Government and private agencies such as the IPA and JIM are also capable of participating to emphasise career-related issues aiming at developing future "Top Managers".

3.5. Government Planners

Because the private sector in Jordan has increasingly been playing a significant role in the economic arena, this study has some important implications for government planners. The government should work side by side with the private sector to promote good managerial practices and policies. This can be done by setting up some training programmes that suit the needs of most organisations in combination with the private sector. The government is able to provide some of these services because it continues to be the largest employer in Jordan. Another point is related to the fact that the private sector is relatively new in the country. Therefore, this sector can gain a lot of benefits from experiences of, and collaboration with the public sector.

Organisations do not live in a vacuum. They need extensively the services offered by the public sector. Some governmental regulations have to be followed if business is to be conducted. Therefore, the public personnel may be in the position to put pressures on the

private sector. The latter may find themselves in no position but to accept these pressures. Therefore, an understanding among private sector managers of the activities and ways of thinking among public sector managers is important. Common training provides a vehicle through which this exchange of understanding might take place, outside the competitive situation which otherwise exists between managers from different sectors.

The public sector is also in the position to influence indirectly the private sector in many other ways. A sound promotion, rewards, recruitment and selection system in this sector helps to establish a better environment. In addition, fairness and equity in dealing with the general public, including the private sector organisations, are means by which the public sector can offer examples to be imitated by the private sector.

A final point which needs some consideration by many parties especially government planners, is the probability of women entering high managerial positions. Even though the findings of this study showed that there were no women in senior managerial positions at the time of conducting the fieldwork, some women have middle management positions. This simply implies that if only some of these women are promoted to senior level positions in the future, a radical change may result in management approaches adopted in some organisations. This conclusion is based on some studies conducted which

showed that females' "style" of management is different from a prevalent style based upon male domination of management positions.⁶ Therefore, it is very significant for both management of these organisations and for manpower planners to be ready for this possibility becoming a reality. If it does it will influence the structure of the employment market in the entire country. Such prediction is more appreciated if the reader recalls from chapter 2 that women's participation in the Jordanian labour force is increasing year by year.

4. Future Research

Based on the foregoing analysis of the implications of this study one can point out the areas in which more research is needed.

(1) It is apparent that generalisation about management style in the Arab and developing countries is difficult. Though this study indicated some similarities between management and its environment in Arab and developing countries (which is similar to some previous studies' findings)⁷, differences, sometimes substantial, also exist. Hence, more research must be conducted on every Arab country if valid generalisations are to be made. This need is emphasised because every Arab country has some unique characteristics. More research is also needed on many developing countries. Such a need is even more critical for developing countries that have common

cultural characteristics: Middle Eastern, Southeastern Asian, and Latin American countries are all cases in point.

(2) A clear distinction must be made between findings of studies conducted on attitudes of managers and their behaviour. To study behaviour of managers, researchers must concentrate on managers' behaviour in the work place rather than attitudes reported to researchers. There is no doubt that investigating attitudes of managers is appropriate only to reveal their attitudes, as this study has shown. However, by studying attitudes it does not necessarily mean that behaviour is also revealed based only on the assumption that correlation between the two is inevitable. Our findings have indicated in several places the variation between attitudes and behaviour of our respondents. As this study shows, the enormous amount of literature available on attitudes of managers should not be taken for granted as indicators of their practice.

The above conclusion stimulates questions as to the wider applicability of the model used by this study. The author believes that the model is an experience worth trying by researchers interested in the issues addressed by the present study. Hence, more research in Jordan and other Arab and non-Arab countries is needed to test the reliability of the finding of this study and to investigate whether the variation between attitudes and behaviour of managers is attributable to universal,

cultural, or sub-cultural phenomena.

(3) Research must be conducted on managers themselves. It would be a grave mistake if conclusions are based merely on general observation and reading the work of social scientists.

(4) More research is needed about whether differences exist between managers in the private sector and those in the public sector. Even though some common characteristics prevail in any environment, the private sector might be expected to have a different environment and be subject to different pressure groups from those in the public sector. Because the private sector is more likely to be motivated by profit, management of the private sector may be more task-oriented than management in the public organisations.

Before this study comes to termination, it must be stressed that it gives some credence to Nicholl's model which, as discussed in chapter 2, put emphasis on the role of the leader (Top Managers in the case of this study) to transform their subordinates by using the "transforming model". However, the difference that seems to exist between our respondents and the leaders that Nicholls means (mainly in western countries) is that the leaders/"Top Managers" in Jordan are in need of others to transform them. That could explain why one of the solutions, suggested earlier in this chapter, to the dilemma of top management in Jordan was a comprehensive

plan to be carried out by several agents to train and develop our respondents before anybody else.

Notes

- (1) Paul Jureidini and R. D. McLaurin, Jordan: The Impact of Social Change on the Role of the Tribes, Washington, D.C: Praeger, 1984, p.34.
- (2) See for example; Lane Kelly, Arthur Whatley and Reginald Worthley, "Assessing the Effects of Culture on Managerial Attitudes". Journal of International Business Studies, Vol.18, No.2, 1987, pp. 17-31; M. K. Badawy, "Managerial Attitudes and Need Orientation of Middle Eastern Executive: An Empirical Cross-Cultural Analysis", Academy of Management Proceeding, Atlanta, August, 1979, pp.293-297.
- (3) Muhsen Makhamreh, "Factors Affecting Corporate Performance in Jordan", Dirasat, Vol.13, No.3, 1986, pp.7-22.
- (4) Tom Burns and G. M. Stalker, The Management of Innovation, London: Tavistock, 1961.
- (5) Mahmoud Al-Faleh, "Recruitment and selection of Managers in Jordanian Private Industry", Dirasat, Vol.14, No.8, 1987, pp.33-60.
- (6) Fiona L. Pitcher, "Training Notes: Sex and Style" BBC.TV.Business Matters, BBC Publications, 1988.
- (7) Farid Muna, The Arab Executive, London:Macmillan, 1980.

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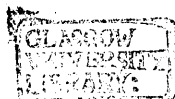
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The Interview Schedule

Section 1

1. Respondent number

--	--	--	--

2. Position

--	--

3. Nature of Business.

☐ Financial
 ☐ Manufacturing

--	--

4. How long have you been in your position ?.....

--	--

5. What was your position when you joined the company?.....

--	--

6. How many people report to you directly?.....

--	--

7. Did you work previously for other organisations?

☐ Yes
 ☐ No

--	--

8. If yes please name the sector.....

--	--

9. School Education

Educational cycle	The last class attended
Elementary	
Preparatory	
Secondary	

--	--

10. If you have attended a university or college please fill this part.

Type of college/univ.	Degree/Dip. B.S.C.M.SC.etc.
Further education
University (under grad.)
Post grad.

--

11. Total number of years in formal education.....

--	--

12. Area of specialty

- ☐ Business/Economics ☐ Engineering
☐ Arts ☐ Law
☐ Science ☐ Others (specify)

13. Training programmes. (during the past ten years).

Name of course	Who ran course	Duration

14. Age.....

15. Place of birth.....Name of the city or village.....

16. What is/was your father occupation?.....

17. What is/was your mother occupation?.....

18. Are you a member of any professional association?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Section 2

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Capacity for leadership						
1. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition.		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Leadership skills can be acquired by most people regardless of their particular inborn traits and abilities.		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sharing Information						
3. A good leader should give detailed and complete instructions to his subordinates, rather than giving them merely general directions and depending upon their initiative to work out the details.		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
4. A superior should give his subordinates only that information needed to do their tasks.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participation					
5. In a work situation if the subordinates cannot influence me then I lose some of my influence on them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Group goal-setting offers advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal-setting.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Internal Control					
7. The use of rewards and punishment is not the best way to get subordinates to do their work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	strongly disagree
8. The superior's authority over his subordinates in an organization is mainly economic.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

☐

Section 3

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
The managerial leader should give consideration to his profession more than any other group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The managerial leader should give consideration to his organisation more than any other group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The managerial leader should give consideration to his extended family more than any other group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The managerial leader should give consideration to his religious group more than any other group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The managerial leader should give consideration to his superiors more than any other group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Much above average	Little above average	Average	Little below average	Much below average
About how much general standing in the community does your job have?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
About how much general standing do you have as a person in your extended family (such as cousins, uncles..)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Much above family	Little above family	About the same	Little below family	Much below family
Compared with your extended family status how much general standing do you have?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

☐☐☐

Here is a list of things that might help a man to move up in the world. Which you think is the most important in Jordan?

- | | | | | |
|---|---|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Ambition | <input type="checkbox"/> Knowing the right people | <input type="checkbox"/> Luck | <input type="checkbox"/> Education | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hard work | <input type="checkbox"/> Family background | <input type="checkbox"/> Character | <input type="checkbox"/> Intelligence | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Others (specify) | | | | |

Here are some of the things that are sometimes thought to be important about a job. Which one would you look first in a job?

- | | | | | |
|--|---|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Good Promotion prospect | <input type="checkbox"/> Responsibility | <input type="checkbox"/> security | <input type="checkbox"/> Near home | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pleasant working conditions | <input type="checkbox"/> others (specify) | | | |

Section 4

1. Own decision without explanation
You make the decision without previous discussion of consultation with subordinates, and no special meeting or memorandum is used to explain the decision.
2. Own decision with explanation
The same as above, but afterwards, you explain the problem and the reasons for your choice in a memo, or in a special meeting.
3. Prior consultation with subordinates
Before the decision is taken, you explain the problem to your subordinates and ask for advice and help. You then make the decision by yourself. Your final choice may, or may not, reflect your subordinates' influence.
4. Joint decision making with subordinates.
You and your subordinates, together analyse the problem and come to a decision. The subordinate(s) usually has as much influence over the final choice as you. Where there are more than two in the discussion, the decision of the majority is accepted more often than not.
5. Delegation of decision to subordinates.
You ask your subordinates to make the decision regarding a particular subject, you may or may not request him to report his decisions to you. You seldom veto his decisions.

[illegible]

Section 5

(A) Could you tell us what kind of help do your community members, apart from your relatives, expect from you?

1.....

2.....

3.....

(B) Could you tell us what kind of help do your close relatives, such as brothers, sisters, nephews, nieces, brother(s) in law..etc. expect from you?

1.....

2.....

3.....

☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐

(C) As a top level manager what kinds of problems do you think that you can help community to solve?

1.....

2.....

3.....

(D) Please indicate some of the social pressures that you face (if any) at your work, which you consider as constraints on your effectiveness as a manager.

1.....

2.....

3.....

