

**Evaluating Management Development and Training:  
The Case of Saudi Arabia**

**A Thesis submitted for the Degree**

**of**

**Doctorate of Philosophy**

**by**

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## **Dedication**

To the greatest love in my life, my father and my mother,  
my wife and my children, with deepest respect and appreciation.

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## **Abstract**

The purpose of this research was to investigate issues in the evaluation of executive training programmes in Saudi Arabian organisations. The researcher investigated the impact of training of the Executive Development Programmes (EDP) offered by the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) upon on-the-job performance of the executives who attended it.

In order to achieve this purpose the data from participants in ten EDPs and the participants' superiors was collected in two surveys. Some sources have claimed that training is ineffective in Saudi Arabia, particularly Executive training, in producing observable change in the workplace. Yet these same sources have made no effort to evaluate, or statistically document, whether the statement is true. In addition, little has been said about the Saudi management context elsewhere regarding the social and organisational environments, and the impact that they have on successfully applying the material and methods learnt in a training course once the attendee is back at the workplace. The present study attempted to do this. Difficulties in developing managers, and training them, have arisen because of Saudi Arabia's accelerated development from a traditional, tribal society towards a modern, industrialised country.

Field research was conducted in Saudi Arabia from December, 1993 to November, 1995. Methods of eliciting data included questionnaires before the training programme, after the programme, and from their supervisors.

The study improves models for understanding the nature of factors influencing management training and development in a context like Saudi Arabia. The researcher

found that most Saudi managers and executives felt that Executive Development training was desirable and needed. The researcher found that actual implementation of their knowledge was low once they returned to their jobs. This of course was because the EDP programme was not very influential due to irrelevant training methods, i.e. case studies, to the Saudi organisational environment; therefore, recommendations are made to improve IPA and its EDP programme.

Precisely, when the theoretical model proposed from the literature review was tested, it was founded that conclusion generally did not tend to support that model. So a second model was suggested. It was found that the Saudi social and cultural environment has a strong impact on management and Saudi organisations, which may be topics worthy of further study.

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# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

## **1.1 Introduction**

The main theme of the study is to investigate issues in the evaluation of executive training programmes in order to understand the impact of training Executive Development Programme (EDP) offered by the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) upon on-the-job performance of the executives who attended it. Initially, the study was designed to take place in the State of Kuwait, where major investment in executive training and development has been made but, unfortunately, the Gulf War prevented the researcher from carrying it out.

Owing to the disruption that resulted from the Gulf crisis, both the researcher, who is a Kuwaiti, and his supervisor believed that it was not possible to conduct the study in Kuwait. Therefore, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was considered to be the alternative choice to carry out this study.

In the Arab culture personal and social contacts seem to be more effective in gaining access to organisations and getting things done than formal contact (Muna, 1980, and Al-Faleh, 1987). So the first step was to establish personal contacts and acquaintance with influential individuals and officials within the IPA in Saudi Arabia, which provides the major executive training and development programmes.

On that account, Dr Mohamed Al-Tawail, the Director General of the IPA is the person involved as patron for this study in Saudi Arabia. He gave the researcher the approval to conduct the study within the IPA's departments and the promise to assist in obtaining the co-operation of other departments.



The purpose of this chapter is to provide a broad overview of the thesis. Thus, the background to the research and the basis for study are presented, covering the research focus and objectives, the limitations of the study, and its importance and contribution. Finally, the structure of this research is outlined.

## **1.2 Background to the Subject**

There has been growing dissatisfaction about management training programmes.

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (1977) reported that:

*“ Billions of dollars have been spent on formal programmes for managers, and the development of such programmes have benefited the major educational innovation of this century. Yet, attempts to relate to change in behaviour on the job or to improved organisational effectiveness have yielded disappointing results. Evaluation studies by the Division of Public Administration and Finance show that experience with conventional training programmes of the general type: even those of higher quality, have limited and uncertain impact on the organisation performance. Evidence derived from the research points to a series of assumptions, usually implicit, the trainers and consultants tend to make. These assumptions are : that the training needs of a heterogeneous group of participants drawn from a diversity of organisations are common enough, that the individual participant will emerge from his experience in a training situation - which is disconnected from the work situation - with a new orientation and capability well enough assimilated to produce some significant change in his behaviour, that what has been learnt in the training situation will be transferred to the work situation and will be carried over into actual work practices; that the individual participants will act as the ‘agents of change’ in their native work situations and that their organisational system will readily respond to their initiative. Some where along this path characterised by a long chain of risky assumptions, the envisioned process of change falters and probably comes to a stop. The fact that an individual manager is embedded in a complex social and technical system is given little*

*consideration. A basic issue here is the question of whether system wide organisational change can be achieved through individual, isolated managers, even though they occupy positions of responsibility in their organisations”*

Another argument against management training is its failure to ease the shortage of managerial talent. According to Hoffman (1983):

*“One of the most persistent cries of alarm raised within the business community is the shortage of managerial talent. A quick scan of Harvard Business Review, AMA’s Management Review, Business Month, Nation’s Business and Dun’s Review will reveal a number of articles on the same theme. The shortage is further evidenced every week by the want ads in major newspapers and financial journals. Yet, think of hundreds of courses being offered on managerial principles, communication, human relations, leadership, managerial styles, time management and stress management attended by hundreds of thousands of trainees over the years. Think of the formal in-house development systems (performance appraisal, management by objectives, career coaching and counselling and assessment centres) which prevail in many organisations. If these systems and courses do the job, why is the shortage of managers still a major concern. Managers assessment of the impact of courses has been equally condemning. In the 1950s, the study by Moorhead Wright of several hundred General Electric managers showed that the successful ones attributed not more than 10 percent of their growth to such programmes. An American Management Association reported a similar finding in the year 1974, and my own unpublished investigation in 1970-1981 reconfirmed this.”*

There is growing consensus among policy makers , politicians and the like of the crucial importance of the efficiency of government machinery as a vehicle to implement, supervise and follow up development. Given its present state and shape, government bureaucracy is widely seen to be incapable of meeting the challenges and



demands put forth by policy makers and by developmental challenges (Al-Tawail, 1985).

The absence of skilful and qualified middle-level manpower has been widely seen to have handicapped the proper development of an adequate and efficient Civil Service in developing countries ( Al Essa, 1981).

As a consequence, the importance of both management and organisation development is now emphasised and hence supported. Training policies and training centres have been initiated and viewed more and more as vehicles for the introduction and activate change in the nation's surge for improved performance.

In the areas of management and administrative training, Saudi policy makers responded to the urgency of the matter by constant administrative development culminating in the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in 1960. The IPA has made a massive and quite unprecedented effort to transform the organisational and managerial environment of Saudi Arabia organisations through management training, These efforts still continue, yet the enthusiasm and optimism of earlier times have been replaced by government disenchantment. Experts, managers, researchers, and supervisors apparently feel that much of the work which has been done has proved to be focused on management training and inappropriate and now, after almost four decades , it is time to re-think the premises upon which of these efforts have been based.



### **1.3 Basis for Study**

An increasing number of management training programmes, both in developed and in developing countries, are being offered, and they are generally perceived to be of considerable value to managers who are responsible for senior positions in the organisational hierarchy. Governments, management and other authorities frequently support these efforts with ample resources and encourage managers to spend time and energy participating in them. However, neither authorities nor the management take the time necessary to validate the results of most training programmes (Steers 1977). The general reaction has been that if a budget is available and if the organisation is positively inclined towards training, it will proceed on the assumption that they will be useful. A great deal of naivety is implied in this approach, based on the logic that would be totally unacceptable in any of the more precise disciplines (Yaeger 1971). Management training cannot be examined or evaluated in a such a superficial manner when one considers the vast outlays of financial and personal resources dedicated to this training. One source that is concerned with this issue, Campbell et al. (1970), asks how long organisations will follow policies characterised by “ spending millions for training, but not one penny for training evaluation”.

The study of management training forms the basis of the specific problem addressed in this study. The necessity of pursuing this kind of study of training stems from the current emphasis found in the management training literature. Moreover, it also stems from the emphasis in most of the developing countries on the management

training activity, which is considered as a straight instrument for economic development.

This study is an evaluation of the effects of the Executive Development Programme (EDP) of the IPA. The effects were measured by assessing the impact of the EDP upon on-the-job performance of the executives who attended it. Evaluation of training programmes usually focuses upon the effects of the programme on the participants and the measurement of learning at the time of completing the programme. In the case of EDP reactions were measured at the end of each run of the programme and learning was measured by a brief questionnaire assignment. No attempts have been made before to measure the influence of the EDP upon on-the-job performance. The focus of this study was therefore on-the-job performance before and after the programme had been completed by participants.

By focusing upon on-the-job performance before and after training, the study served as a feedback from the participants and their organisations to the IPA and its collaborators. It was hoped that this feedback provided information which could be utilised in deciding whether or not to change the EDP and how it should be changed. However, the results of the survey suggested that, using forms of evaluation permitted by Saudi officials, it was extremely hard to arrive at a judgement.

#### **1.4 Problem Focus**

At the outset the main problem initially addressed by this study was : what is the impact of the EDP upon on-the-job performance of the executives who attended it? This

evolved into a focus on the problem of evaluation itself, and the organisational and cultural preconditions for effective training evaluation.

### **1.5 Research Objectives**

The main objectives of this study can be classified four-fold as follow:

1) The impact of EDP on the executives who attended the programmes in having better knowledge of modern management principles and techniques.

2) The impact of EDP on the executives who attended the programmes in having better leadership skills.

3) The impact of EDP on the executives who attended the programmes in having better problem-solving skills.

4) The impact of EDP on the executives who attended the programmes in having more positive attitudes towards their jobs. However, this evolved into a concern with the organisational and cultural factors that affect the application of evaluation methodology and in focusing the issues that were raised for the IPA.

The choice of leadership and problem-solving skills was based on the fact that the mission statement of the EDP is to prepare executives for development as senior executives and top managers. In these positions, leadership and problem-solving skills are crucial performance variables.

### **1.6 Importance and Contribution of the Study**

The study of evaluating management training programmes is an area of both theoretical and practical importance because:



1) The study focused on the evaluation of training as a means of looking at the impact of training on-the-job performance of the participants who attended it.

2) It provided information about the impact of the EDP on the variables specified in the research questions. The IPA did not have any evidence about the impact of this programme.

3) The study sheds light on the very fundamental issue about the preconditions for effective training evaluation. This was not the intended outcome of the study, but it is the most important contribution to knowledge by this study.

4) An important aspect of this study was the impact of the project's 'environment'. It seems appropriate, therefore, to dwell at some length on the political, economic and religious conditions in Saudi Arabia.

5) The growing demand for trained Saudi employees in general and executives in particular, and the costs of training for these employees, are reasons for the researcher to be concerned. Conditions exist within the business world that require more productivity and lower costs.

6) The importance of this study derives from its contribution in investigating and examining research findings and studies from developed countries in developing countries (i.e. Saudi Arabia). Training has been extensively researched in developed countries (e.g. UK and USA). Most these studies have been conducted in Western countries which are characterised by a free economy, more advanced education and professional levels, and a particular set of cultural values. Unlike most previous research, this study was undertaken in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia, like most developing

countries, is still characterised by centralised planning, limited educational levels, and different sets of cultural values from Western values.

7) The potential value of this study is in providing specific useful information to Saudi organisations in identifying the factors which are playing a vital role in the impact of the training programmes and outcomes of these programmes. It is anticipated that Saudi management will find the results of this study to be helpful in designing the training programmes according to the real needs of Saudi organisations to achieve the ultimate goal of improving managers' performance, in turn leading to growth of organisational productivity.

### **1.7 Limitation of the Study**

The study intended to evaluate training programme in Kuwait rather than Saudi Arabia. Unfortunately, the Gulf War obliged the researcher to shift the study to Saudi Arabia.

This research faced various limitations, derived from Saudi culture and the government structure, which did not allow observational methods, restricted interviewing female managers, etc. (these are discussed in Chapter Four and Five).

a) The study was conducted in an environment which views research as a low priority. Informal contacts and personal relations were, therefore, the only means for obtaining support for the study and motivating the study population. This placed limitations on the choice of methodology, design, and data collection.

b) Evaluation of job performance is difficult, especially in Saudi cultural context. This task in any case is difficult in most countries in the world.

c) Limitations in obtaining statistical data and getting access to the government reports related to this study due to the Saudi government structure.

d) Limitation of the area of the study. This study covers the EDP; therefore, generalisations made by this study may be applied to other management training programmes offered by the IPA.

e) The main instrument for data collection was a questionnaire distributed to the participants and their immediate superiors. The questionnaires were hand-distributed and collected. This may have influenced the responses obtained.

f) Questionnaire response problems: some of the participants were not willing to complete and return the questionnaire to the researcher.

## **1.8 Definitions**

### **a) Participant:**

The participants who attended the EDP were executives from public sector organisations with at least five years' management experience involving planning, decision-making, and supervision of subordinates.

### **b) On-the-job Performance:**

Conceptual definitions of on-the-job performance are difficult to find because on-the-job performance is concerned with individual output, whereas ultimate performance is reflected through larger unit output. According to De Vries and others (1981), there are three basic categories of individual performance which represent the measurable domain of job performance. These categories are: personality traits, behaviours and outcomes.



*“Possible examples of each of these three performance content categories for managers are :*

*1. Personality traits e.g.*

*a. Leadership*

*b. Initiative*

*c. Attitude*

*2. Behaviour e.g.*

*a. Organised employee feedback sessions.*

*b. Presented reports clearly and concisely at trade association meetings.*

*c. Responded to customer complaints promptly and thoroughly.*

*3. Outcomes e.g.*

*a. Reduced unit absenteeism by five percent.*

*b. Completed development of a new product line before deadline.*

*c. Increased net sales by seven percent.”*

Although De Vries and others (1981) classified these categories, what the researcher means is that personality is not the same as performance and leadership is not the same as personality traits. On-the-job performance can be defined in terms of personality traits, behaviour and outcome. It is the job holder’s contribution and work place behaviours that enable the organisation to achieve its mission and goals.

c) Attitudes Toward the Job:

Generally, attitudes are defined as feelings or emotions toward a stimulus. They are the product of the society, the culture, the values, upbringing, education, and experience which all taken into account together predispose the behaviour of an individual.



**d) Leadership Skills:**

Leadership can be defined as : Interpersonal skills required to aid a group in accomplishing its goals and/or improving and maintaining working relationships.

**e) Problem-Solving Skills:**

Abilities to identify, document, and justify deviation from the normal, achieve objectives, and select and implement an effective solution to problems.

### **1.9 Organisation of the Study**

The study has been divided into nine chapters. The current chapter is an introduction to the study. The second chapter provides a general background on Saudi Arabia and general information about the Kingdom's population and labour force. This chapter concludes with a description of the political system and leadership of the Kingdom, its planning and development system, and Saudi cultural values.

The third chapter presents a concise review of literature in the field of management development and literature on the relationship between management development, and national cultural factors are presented in Chapter Four.

Management development in Saudi Arabia, management organisation characteristics in Saudi Arabia, the impact of culture and value system on management development, the contribution of the Institute of Public Administration (IPA), are presented in Chapter Five. This chapter also contains the Saudiisation experience.

Chapter Six provides a review of literature in training evaluation, and Chapter Seven describes the research methods and procedures used in this study. This covers

research questions, the choice of study design, research methods, data collection instruments and a brief description of the statistical techniques used to analyse the data.

Chapter Eight focuses on an evaluation of the IPA Executive Development Programmes (EDP). The chapter presents and analyses the data from the sample of participating managers in the two surveys from the points of view of the participants and their superiors.

Finally, Chapter Nine provides discussion and conclusions, as well as presenting the possible implications of the findings.

## **Chapter Two**

### **General Background on The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia**

## 2.1 Introduction

This chapter is meant to introduce brief general background information on the country which is the focus of this study, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The Chapter begins by briefly describing the population of the Kingdom, its growth and distribution, labour force composition, the effect of foreign labour on a population census, the labour force problems. Considerable details are introduced about the political system and leadership, the political power and organisations in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The general features of economic, planning and development are briefly discussed about the five year development plans and their achievement between 1970 and 1995 in economic growth and social stability, developing human resources. The Saudi private sector development is also dealt with.

## 2.2 Population and Labour Force

Al-Farsy (1986) has stated that:

*“The actual size of Saudi Arabia’s population has been the subject of controversy for some years, but in particular since 1974 when the first national census was undertaken ..... In the 1974 nation-wide population census, it was reported that a population of 7,012 million people, including foreigners, was living in Saudi Arabia. Estimates of the population size differ markedly but all agree on one important feature: all estimate a population growth-rate of about 3 percent per year. This growth-rate is probably about right for the rate of natural growth of the Saudi population. When foreigners are included, however the growth-rate for the most recent decade has probably been closer to the 4-4.5 percent range”.*



The figures above were reported by Al-Farsy who states again:

*“The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia encompasses about four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula. It had a population of just over seven million according to the census of 1974, a figure estimated to have risen by one million, including the immigrant workforce, by 1978. The Kingdom’s area is just over a million square miles, one-third the size of the United States of America. Saudi Arabia has a population density of six persons per square mile, a figure roughly comparable to the population density of the United States in 1790”.*

According to the last population census (1992), however, the estimated population figure reached 16,929,294, distributed as Table 2.1 shows:

**Table 2.1 Population Census 1992**

Nationality	Male	Female	Total	(%)
Saudi	6,211,213	6,093,622	12,304,835	72.7
Non-Saudi	3,255,328	1,369,131	4,624,459	27.3
Total	9,466,541	7,462,753	16,929,294	100.0

Source: *Public Statistics Department, Ministry of Finance and National Economy, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1992.*

However, it is interesting to note that:

*“Saudi Arabia has undergone a remarkable demographic transformation in the past sixty years. The headiest years of economic expansion and industrialisation from the early 1970s to the mid-1980s drew people into the cities. Take Riyadh. The average annual increase in the population has never slipped below 9% since 1968. In 1968 Riyadh’s total inhabitants numbered 300,00. Today the population is 2.3 million. The*

*new arrivals have mostly been young, with 86% of them aged under 35".* (Financial Times, September 8, 1992)

It is noticed that the annual rate of growth has varied. From 9.3 million in 1981/82, the population has grown to 12.8 million by 1991 (see Table 2.2 and 2.3). Jeddah and Riyadh together have a population of 3 million. This leaves the country with a relatively small population in other cities, towns, villages and tribal areas.

For the intensive development Saudi Arabia has undergone, it has required much more labour than could be provided by national manpower. The reported foreign labour force increased from 1.54 million in 1979 to 2.66 million in 1985 and to 3.2 million in 1991 (Tables 2.5 and 2.6), but this is only part of the picture. There are 500,000 foreign workers employed as domestics, such as house-maids. The estimated total labour force was about 5.6 million in 1991. (3.7 million foreigners plus 1.9 million Saudis).

The effect of this labour force on a population census is even greater because many foreign employees here brought their families with them when they accepted work contracts in the Kingdom. The Saudi national population is currently 7 million, and the foreign population is 5.8 million, in a total population of 12.8 million.

The annual population growth rate has varied. From two per cent (2%) in 1960, it increased to two and nine-tenths per cent (2.9%) in 1974, and to four and a half per cent (4.5%) p.a. in 1980 to 1984. The high of four and a half per cent (4.5%) annual growth rate reflects the high foreign inflows. Since 1984 the economy has slowed as oil prices and revenue have dropped, and the annual growth rate has decreased. Since 1984 it has averaged three and eight-tenths per cent (3.8%). It dropped, however, to one and

four-tenths per cent (1.4%) during 1990-1991 because of the Gulf crisis (Table 2.2 and 2.3).

There are some other factors contributing to the large increase in foreign labour.

1) A large part of the population is young (Table 2.4). Sixty-four per cent (64%) is under 25 years old (about 2.5 million in schools). Therefore a large part of the population that will enter the workforce is still attending schools, universities and vocational institutes.

2) Because of Saudi Arabian culture and traditions, many Saudis prefer administrative jobs to technical or manual jobs. This preference has recently changed since hundreds of graduates cannot find administrative jobs, and have to study or re-train, at vocational and technical institutes in order to occupy technical, professional and skilled jobs, replacing some of the foreign labour.

### **2.2.1 The Labour Force**

Since 1973 Saudi Arabia has undergone an intensive, accelerated development. The population in 1973 stood at around 7 million. The rush towards development required foreign labour at all levels, professional, technical, skilled and unskilled. The educational institutes in Saudi Arabia could not graduate enough Saudi youth to meet the market needs for qualified manpower. The intensive development required much more labour than the local market could supply. The foreign workforce, therefore, increased rapidly to 3.7 million workers (from more than 65 different nationalities) while the Saudi workforce was less than 2 million (Table 2.5 and 2.6).



After the Gulf crisis and resulting slow-down of economic activities coupled with the completion of much of the industrial infrastructure, a more rational level of development activities, and an increase of Saudi graduates, the foreign workforce annual growth rate has started to decrease.

Although the development of universities, technical colleges, and vocational institutes has resulted in an increase in the number of graduates, the Saudi workforce in the private sector is still only about fifteen per cent (15%) of the total. (The private sector's total workforce is about 4 million.)

Unemployed Saudis claim that the private sector does not encourage Saudiisation (replacing foreign held positions with Saudis). As a result they try to join the government sector, even though there is no room for them. Ninety per cent (90%) of the government sector positions (1.1 million) are occupied by Saudi nationals, (Table 2.6).

**Table 2.2 Annual Population Growth 1981 - 1990**

Year	1981/ 1982*	1982/1 983*	1983/ 1984*	1984/ 1985**	1985/ 1986**	1986/ 1987**	1987/ 1988**	1988/ 1989**	1989/ 1990**	Annual Growth Rate (%)
Population	9.3	9.7	10.1	10.6	10.9	11.2	11.6	12.1	12.6	3.8

Source: *Saudi Arabia Market Conditions, Business International. 1984, p4.*

\*\* Annual Growth Rate 3.8 Source: Government Statistics Year Book 1986.

**Table 2.3 Annual Population Growth 1991**

Year	1990/91	Annual Growth Rate (%)
Population	12.8	1.4

Annual growth rate decreased due to the Gulf crisis in August 1990.

**Table 2.4 Distribution of Population Sex/Age, 1975 - 1985 (Saudi and non-Saudi)**

sex/age	Year			1985		
	1975	1975	1975	1985	1985	1985
1	100,306	95,843	196,149	145,593	138,076	283,669
1-4	496,348	501,537	997,885	719,322	721,807	1,441,129
5-9	593,323	584,579	1,177,902	859,785	841,483	1,701,268
10 - 14	461,185	425,387	886,572	668,484	612,505	1,280,989
15 - 19	376,055	319,370	695,425	674,385	546,290	1,220,675
20 - 24	299,067	222,541	521,608	475,386	352,853	828,239
25 - 29	244,658	210,068	454,726	354,598	306,797	661,395
30 - 34	210,235	186,107	396,342	304,616	267,687	572,303
35 - 39	194,320	161,888	356,208	281,691	233,087	514,778
40 - 44	166,191	144,421	310,612	260,644	207,759	468,403
45 - 49	126,585	90,591	217,176	210,117	121,847	331,964
50 - 54	118,443	100,439	218,882	190,076	135,135	325,211
55 - 59	69,215	43,655	112,870	170,502	129,470	299,972
60 - 64	100,306	74,837	175,143	175,934	120,699	296,633
65 +	143,981	120,789	264,770	205,763	169,148	374,911
Not Reported	1,110	328	1,438	1,715	502	2,217
Total	3,701,328	3,282,380	6,983,708	5,698,611	4,905,145	10,603,756

Sources: *Manpower Development Needs and the Educational and Training System in Saudi Arabia. The Institute of Public Administration. 1987, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, p. 85.*

Notes: *The male population is higher than the female because of the foreign workers many of whom are single, or their families are not living with them in the Kingdom.*



### **2.2.2 The Labour Force Problem**

The private sector has benefited from intensive development, and is provided with many incentives to aid in the development of the economy. The vast majority of work by the private sector has been government contracts for construction and services. Middle East News Paper reported that private sector factories, shops, and firms increased about three hundred per cent (300%) in the 10 year period from 1970 to 1980. The Saudi government has assisted and provided support for the private sector. The process for obtaining foreign labour, for example, was simplified and stream lined. Foreign labour, especially from the Far East, is considered inexpensive since the salary is one-third (1/3) of that paid to Saudis. The majority of these labourers are skilled or semi-skilled and are considered better qualified than their Saudi counterparts. Even if Saudi labour were better, the local market could not provide a sufficient quantity of qualified workers.

There are many considerations on both sides of the argument as to why there are not more Saudis in the private sector work force. The private sector claims that they could not recruit Saudis for the following reasons:

- 1) Saudi graduates do not meet work requirements, and do not have the experience. Also educational and vocational institutions do not 'look deeply' into the needs of the market and job requirements. (Okaz Newspaper 1989).

- 2) The private sector used to make contracts with the government. The cost of those contracts was based on many factors, and manpower cost was one of the major factors. The private sector used to get cheaper manpower from the Far East, since the

cost of Saudi labour was higher, and was higher still if re-training, familiarisation, and lack of experience was included in cost estimates. If the private sector tries to include

**Table 2.5 Labour Growth Rates 1967/68 and 1984/85**

Nationality	1967/68	1979/80	1984/85	Increased	Annual Growth**
Saudi+	0,632.4	1,491.2	1,786.0	294.8	3.7
Non -Saudi	0,384.7	1,534.8	2,660.0*	1,125.2	11.7
Total	1,017.1	3,026.0	4,446.0	1,420.0	9.0

\* 300,000 foreign Workers, employed as domestics, i.e. Housemaids, to be added.

\*\* For the period 1979 to 1985

+ (Includes Saudis in military jobs)

Source: *Fourth Development Plan, 1985-1990, and Statistics Year Book 1967-1968 and 1990/91.*

**Table 2.6 Labour Growth Rate 1984/85 and 1990/1991**

Nationality	1984/85	1990/91	Annual Growth Rate
Saudi+	1,786.0	1,890.943	0.7
Non-Saudi	2,666.0	3,220.608	3.2
Total	4,446.0	5,111.551	2.1

\* 500,000 Foreign workers employed as domestics, i.e. Housemaids, to be added.  
Total = 5,611,551

+ Includes Saudis, 200,000 in military jobs.

such costs in their estimates, then the government will not award them contracts. The government expects contracts to cost about the same as when cheaper foreign labour was included. (Okaz Newspaper 1989).

3) The salaries, especially for Far East and some Middle East employees in the private sector are less than Saudi salaries. The reason for this lower salary is either that the foreign labour cannot find attractive jobs in their home countries, or that they do not mind a Spartan lifestyle for a two-year contract. In this way they can save money to take back home to invest.

4) The private sector claims that a typical Saudi graduate's knowledge, qualifications, and experience are poor. They feel they cannot use them to replace foreigners because it will reduce productivity. (Hashim, 1988).

5) Another claim is that Saudi graduates are not punctual and tend to be unreliable (Hashim, 1989).

6) Saudi graduates look for management jobs, leadership positions and administrative work. They do not like field and technical jobs, and they do not want to receive instruction or directions from a foreign supervisor (Hashim, 1988).

7) Saudi graduates do not like to work in cities or villages outside those where they were born and raised and where their families reside (Hashim, 1988).

8) Saudi labour looks for high salaries, thinking that the private sector should pay salaries equal to those paid by the government. However, salaries in the private sector should not be compared with the government because productivity, competition, performance and experience are more critical factors in the salary structure of the private sector. (Ba-Qaar, 1987).



9) Many private companies have found it necessary to re-train the Saudi graduate, specifically those who graduated from vocational schools. They have found that their knowledge was basic and bore little relation to the real work environment. (Ba-Qaar, 1987).

Hashim (1988) argued that the opposite view that the private sector is irresponsible and does not encourage Saudiisation are:

1) Development of Saudi Arabia is not only the government's responsibility, but is the responsibility of the private sector as well. But the private sector has participated so far in the development only as a business that makes a lot of profit and has not fully shared responsibility for social development. The private sector will not engage in business activity unless it provides a high percentage of profit. The private sector should participate in training or re-training the Saudi youth and graduates, rather than leaving this function completely to the government and then claiming that the government educational institutes are not supplying good graduates.

2) The private sector knows that sharing responsibility means giving up some of the high levels of profit. Recruiting Saudis, for instance, means increasing personnel costs, but does not consider that Saudi manpower development would be a human resource investment for both the private and government sectors.

3) Even if the private sector is right about Saudi graduates lacking experience, knowledge and qualifications, the private sector can develop a committee or a centre that discusses and resolves those issues with the government institutes.

4) Graduates are no longer looking for jobs located in the same areas where they were born. There is much evidence to show that they now work in cities and villages

other than in their home Region.

5) The claim that foreign labour is cheaper may be true if one calculates only the salaries the private sector is paying. Foreign labour also benefits from government subsidies on food and medicines, and many other services that in most cases are free, such as education and health care. If these indirect costs that the government's handling are added in, it would no longer be true that the foreign labour is cheaper than Saudi labour.

Of course the main objective of the private sector is to make a profit, but the profit should not be made through hiring cheaper labour alone, or by increasing working hours to a level that the Saudi will avoid, for instance, 54 hours per week. Nor should the profit be made by avoiding training personnel or by asking them to do multiple tasks and jobs they were not hired to do. The profit can be made by attaining high performance, high productivity and good quality, and by reducing waste and operational costs (Alkholly, 1989).

Only a small percentage of Saudi females that are capable or working actually join the Saudi workforce. Most estimates show that about eleven per cent (11%) of capable Saudi females are in the workforce. This female group is eight and seven-tenths per cent (8.7%) of the Saudi national labour force, and only three and two-tenths per cent (3.2%) of the total workforce. There are about 1 million female college, university and high school graduates who can work, but only 176,000 are working.

Most of these work at educational institutes, hospitals, and social work departments. There are more than 200,000 jobs occupied by foreign female workers, for example, nurses, paramedics, lab technicians, teachers and administrators.



In addition, there are about 200,000 clerical and administrative jobs occupied by foreign male workers that could be replaced by Saudi females. The most important factor here is Saudi culture. Saudi culture allows females to work in jobs that do not involve free association with men. If the job requires working with men, then some restrictions must be made, especially in administrative jobs such as that of secretary. Other problems areas: home responsibilities and duties, the necessity of additional leave days to take care of children, and the unwillingness to work in some jobs for a very low salary. For instance, a Far East nurse's monthly salary at a private or a government hospital is about US \$350, plus accommodation. The monthly salary for a Saudi nurse for the same job at a government hospital is about US \$800. Private hospitals in the kingdom, which have about 20,000 nursing jobs, refuse to pay higher than US \$350-400. So far, no resolution has been found for this problem of female unemployment.

Furthermore, Al-Ansari (1987) criticised the Saudi Government's Saudiisation plans:

*“Based on the published Development plans for the kingdom, it was concluded that the strategy of Saudiisation was not clearly defined at the formal level. At best it appeared to refer superficially to a policy of simply replacing foreign workers, particularly those in managerial positions, with trained and qualified Saudi nationals. However, we argued that taking into account the Islamic principles outlined elsewhere in the Development Plans, the strategy of Saudiisation was, implicitly, a good deal more complex than merely a replacement policy. In particular, we drew attention to the ways in which criteria of managerial theory usually applied uncritically within the context of Western business organisation might need to be redefined to make them compatible with the Islamic principles fundamental to Saudi development. Thus, we concluded, that Saudiisation could not be conceived merely as a strategy to obtain quantitative results (i.e. Replacements) but also had to be considered as having qualitative objectives, that is*



*the creation of organisational procedures and structures compatible with Islamic teachings. This dimension was seen to be of particular importance in relation to the most recent Development Plan which seeks to apply Saudiisation to the private sector of the economy, for it is here that Western-oriented business and organisational practices are likely to be most deeply ingrained and most difficult to control. Replacement alone might lead to an increased showing of Saudi personnel but might do little to bring about patterns of business practice compatible with the wider aspirations of Saudi Society!”*

Between 1991-2000 there will be more than 575,000 new jobs in the Saudi Arabia. Most of those jobs will be for technical and skilled labour. For instance, there will be 107,000 jobs at the Al-Jubail Industrial Complex, 90,000 jobs at the Uanbu Industrial Complex, and 80,000 jobs at the Al-Yamamah Projects.

Therefore, Saudiisation may be a problem for the next two decades, causing more unemployment among national graduates and putting pressure on the government to find jobs for nationals.

### **2.3 Saudiisation (Placing Saudi Nationals in Jobs Occupied by Foreign Labour)**

Before the 1970's Saudi Arabia was basically a village and tribal society with limited colleges and two universities in four semi-modern cities (Jeddah, Riyadh, Makkah, and Dhahran). The major source of national income was based on crude oil export, and some craft and agricultural trade. The population was less than 6.5 million in 1968.

However, since 1973 Saudi Arabia has undergone an intensive, accelerated development. The population in 1973 reached 7 million. The rush towards development required foreign labour at all levels, professional, technical, skilled and unskilled. The educational institutions in Saudi Arabia could not graduate and train enough young

Saudis to meet the market needs for qualified manpower. The foreign workforce, therefore, increased from 384,000 in 1968, to 3.221 million in 1991, and today stands at 4.7 million. (Source, Development Plan of Saudi Arabia 1970 – 1995, Ministry of Planning)

The term 'Saudiisation' came into being with the publication of the Kingdom's Third Development Plan (1980-1985). This plan, theoretically, symbolises the replacement of expatriate labour with similarly skilled, trained and highly educated Saudi nationals. But practically, it remains a distant goal for all but a few government agencies, public corporations, or private businesses. It is not an easily obtained objective, but political and economic pressures continue to make it a high national priority.

The question of Saudiisation of the Civil Service is one of the important interests of the Saudi government. Again, in theory, Saudiisation is an important national goal, but in practice many difficulties arise. Saudi Arabia stands out among countries recruiting expatriates, because of the size and nature of its economic and social development plans, compared to many other countries. The development budget figure already supports this fact. Saudiisation in the private sector has been the result of a long-term, systematic strategy for the recruitment, retention and advancement of Saudi nationals into the managerial structure of the company.

According to the government's reports Saudiisation has been seen as a counter-measure to the unpopular importation of foreign labour, so necessary to the development of the Kingdom's infra-structure and yet so potentially harmful to the delicate fabric of both the Kingdom's culture and national security.



Harbison and Mayers (1986) argued that:

*“Localisation efforts to replace foreigners by nationals, should begin in the most sensitive and policy-making posts of the government, followed by the replacement of expatriates in occupations requiring ‘extensive specialised education’ in occupations requiring high technical and professional competence.”*

Considering that in the past government employment seemed to offer the greatest long-term stability and the government was ‘in the drivers seat’ of every major industrial venture, a new emphasis on the rôle of the private sector suggests a major shift in incentives for private sector employment. But for all this, the government will continue to play a major rôle in the overall Saudiisation effort. This gives impetus to new development strategies being initiated, and new economic sectors being targeted for development. The policy of the government toward computerisation of its own operations could have a major impact on the number of personnel released to the private sector, and its policy toward the employment of women within government ministries and agencies would also impact on overall Saudiisation efforts.

Saudi new entrants to the labour market have shown a marked preference for employment in the government sector, which paid higher wages at middle level position and below than the private sector. The government sector also provided greater job security and better working conditions, in terms of working hours, employment regulations and promotion prospects.

The recruitment practices of Saudi private sector employers have added to the constraints on higher Saudi employment in the private sector. These employers have naturally tended towards the recruitment of foreign workers, whose qualifications, training, operating flexibility and wage demands have more closely matched their own



requirements. Furthermore, the training costs of upgrading new Saudi graduates in such a competitive labour market are perceived as too high.

New strategies to widen the Kingdom's industrial base and augment human services, will also impact on the nation's total Saudiisation drive, given the manpower needs inherent in the development of these new resources and citizen services. As stated in the Third Development Plan:

*“During the past two decades, the direct government civilian employment has more than trebled. As of now, the government is not only the single largest employer in the Kingdom, but it also absorbs the vast majority of trained new labour force entrants each year. Therefore, the Civil Service Bureau plays an important rôle in the Kingdom's overall manpower utilisation and labour force deployment process.”*

In this context, Al-Hafiz (1982) has suggested that: ‘The Kingdom pool all available training resources to develop Saudi manpower for the jobs foreigners are now doing.’

Al-Hafiz goes on to suggest that most of this training should be accomplished within the Kingdom, between the existing training agents. Saudi Arabian Oil Company (ARAMCO), operates the world's largest industrial training programme. Citibank, the American partner of the Saudi American Bank, operates the largest international training programme in banking. Saudia, the National Airline, reportedly has Saudiised more than 60 percent of its in-Kingdom staff through extensive training operations. Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) also are heavily involved in training operations.

But, can we say or decide, that training forms the only avenue to Saudiisation? We think that in time organisational structure can play an important part as well.

The emphasis placed in the Saudi Forth Development Plan, on the development of the private sector, together with the renewed emphasis on Saudiisation first stressed in the Third Development Plan, will place considerable pressure on both foreign and national companies to develop Saudi Nationals for positions of responsibility of getting a plan or a project operational.

Few companies in the Kingdom have developed successful Corporate strategies on the Saudiisation issue, such as ARAMCO's half century of experience in Saudi manpower development, and Saudi Arabian Airlines of its management development programme. More recently, the experiences of Citibank of New York and its successor, the Saudi American Bank, provide an important insight into the problems inherent in the conversion of Saudiisation policies into practice.

The Saudiisation efforts of ARAMCO, Citibank and other corporations in Saudi Arabia provide significant insights into the proper requirements for a successful Saudiisation programme. It is necessary, therefore, that those corporations which intend to remain in business in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, begin immediately to outline their Saudiisation programme. Therefore, while not having an impact on every sector, the continued pressure for Saudiisation continues and is a potent force in the country.

The experience of the corporations mentioned above, would suggest the following components of a good Saudiisation programme:

1. The development of a highly visible intention to 'stay the course' and participate in the long term development of the Kingdom.

2. The development of a highly structured, well defined, job-specific statement of corporate Saudiisation goals and objectives sanctioned by a Corporate Board of Trustees and supported by all line managers.
3. The development of an equally well-defined strategy for implementation of companies manpower development goals and objectives.
4. The development of aggressive staff recruiting programmes both in-Kingdom and abroad.
5. A collaborative assault with other corporations on ministerial reluctance to release Saudi University graduates from obligatory government employment in order to permit the private sector to hire, train and promote Saudi Nationals.
6. A willingness to initiate more innovative approaches to training, promotion procedures, and the distribution of responsibility, especially at upper management levels.

A further issue in Saudiisation is that of women in the Civil Service. According to the present records of the Civil Service Bureau, women are employed in special fields such as: Health Services, Child-Care Services, Analytical Services, Statistics and programming, administrative assistance, Girl's and Women's educational services. Now, women are employed in different ministries such as Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Social Affairs, Ministry of Interior, in addition to the universities and the Civil Service Bureau.

The Civil Service Bureau is now making extensive research efforts to identify more opportunities for employing women in the Civil service beyond the traditional positions, taking into account the established policies and values regarding the



employment of women. Its main objective is to widen the avenues for employment of women who represent an important resource of the National labour force. However, in a culture where the tradition for women has been in the home and subservient to the male, it will need a considerable shift in emphasis for true equality to occur.

### **2.3.1 Factors Influencing Saudiisation**

The jobs created for Saudis in the public sector are more the result of filling vacant positions than through the implementation of an effective scheduled Saudiisation programme. Considerable scope still exists, however, for replacing non-Saudis. It is estimated according to the Fifth Development Plan (1990-1995) that about 261,000 public sector jobs are currently filled by non-Saudis, most of which could be occupied by suitably qualified Saudis in various locations throughout the Kingdom.

The failure to implement replacement programmes in the government sector can be attributed to three factors:

1. inadequate numbers of Saudi graduates in scientific, technological and technical fields in general, and in various medical specialisation's in particular,
2. the demand for more general academic graduates in the civil service has already been met sufficiently, particularly in the major cities,
3. the difficulty for female graduates in taking up job opportunities in locations far from their families and homes and the consequent failure to replace non-Saudi female workers with Saudis, particularly with respect to female teachers.

In this respect the success of the Saudiisation process cannot be left to market forces alone, either in the public or private sectors. Therefore, according to the Sixth

Development Plan (1995-2000) a twofold policy approach for the replacement of non-Saudis by Saudis will be adopted, combining both incentives and mandatory measures, as follows:

- a) Financial and other support measures provided by the government to private sector establishments will be linked to commitments for the training of Saudis and the achievement of Saudiisation targets.
- b) The concerned government agencies will implement and follow up the decisions of the Manpower Council regarding the size of the non-Saudi labour force and the positions which should be restricted to Saudi citizens. In addition, annual minimum targets for the employment of Saudis and the ceilings for the number of non-Saudis will be set for private firms of various sizes.
- c) The recruitment of foreign labour will be restricted to skilled and semi-skilled workers, thus reducing the demand for non-productive workers in community and personal services.
- d) A national information campaign will be adopted aimed at encouraging job seekers to work in the private sector and identifying new areas of employment for women in conformity with the Islamic Sharia.
- e) Women will be encouraged to invest in and practice their professions in private clinics, translation offices or any other industrial or service project whose feasibility is proven.
- f) The Civil Service Bureau (CSB) will continue to implement decisions and policies concerning Saudiisation in the government sector, and follow-up Saudiisation plans which will be implemented annually by each government ministry and agency.

Particular emphasis will be placed on vital government utilities, on increasing job opportunities for women, and on finding appropriate solutions to the problems of employment and Saudiisation outside the cities, together with the necessary transfer of vacant positions in the government sector.

## **2.4 The Political System and Leadership**

Shaker (1972) noted that although political leadership has shown signs of meeting the challenge of social and economic change, the authoritarian political leadership has remained resistant to any attempted change. It may be however that its legitimacy will be challenged on the social and the economic fronts.

We have argued that this pattern of leadership has its basis in the country's traditional cultural values, if one looks back to its roots in the country's tribal culture. Differences in the region's bureaucratic orientation did not alter the fact that all regions were accustomed to the idea of central authority (Huyette, 1985) regardless of its form and this made it easier for the king to maintain centralised and patrimonial leadership in an era where the call for a more democratic way of life is reaching its peak. The point here is that the massive changes that the government has been through over the past twenty-five years, especially in the area of education, will put pressure upon some of these cultural values. Ultimately, it seems likely that a change in the political leadership style will have to take place as a response to this change in perceptions and values.

The political situation in Saudi Arabia is highly stable compared with most developing countries. It is a stability which has prevailed since the statehood of the country in 1932.



Such as climate is very desirable for long-term planning towards development but the question of whether it is entirely conducive to organisational efficiency is more debatable.

#### **2.4.1 The Political Power and Organisations**

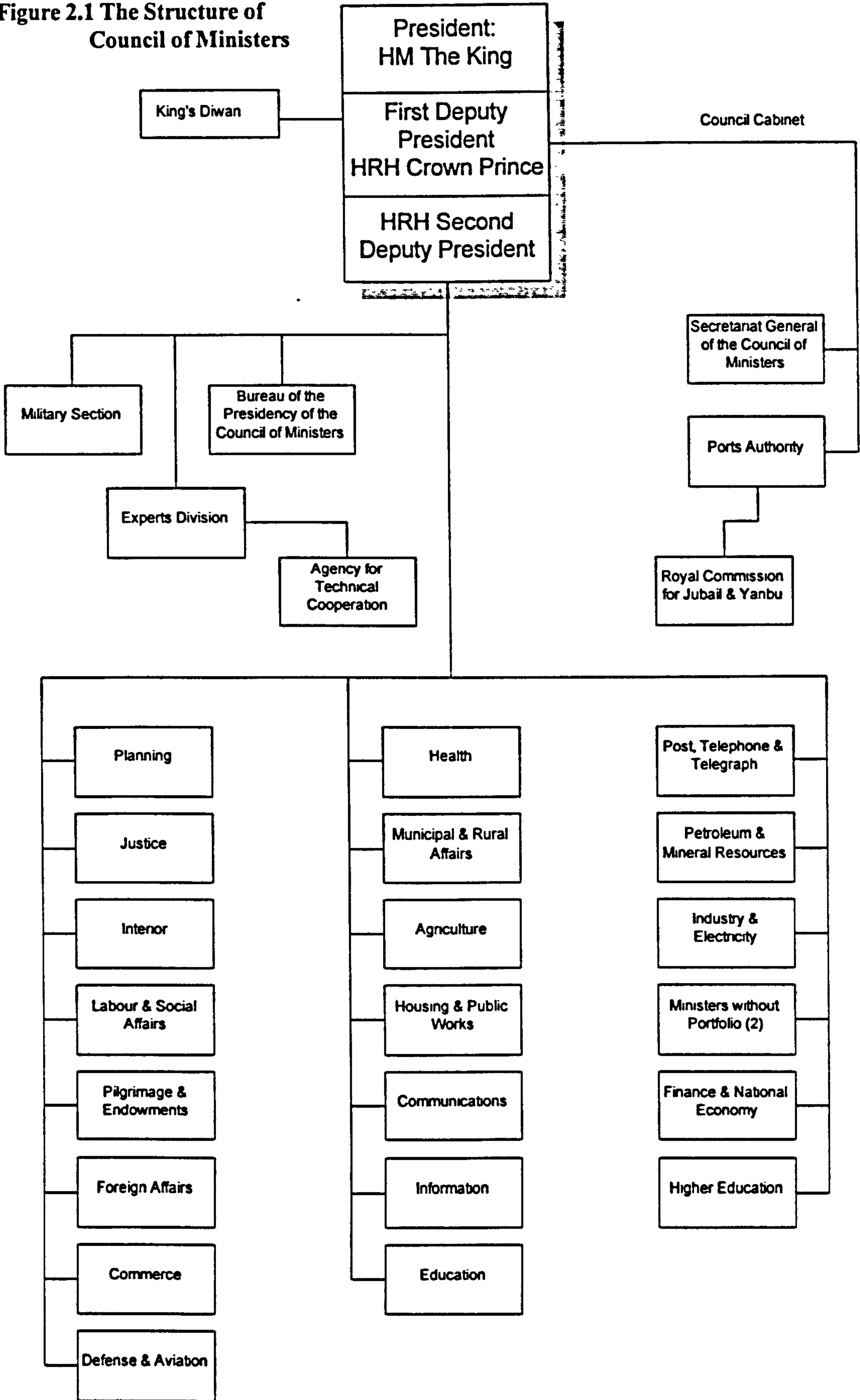
The Kingdom is ruled by the Royal Family (Al-Saud). At the present time, the King is the head of the Government as Prime Minister, the First Deputy Prime Minister is the Crown Prince and the Second Deputy Prime Minister is the Defence Minister. Other members of the Council of Minister are the Ministers for the Interior, Finance and National Economy, Foreign Affairs, Petroleum and Mineral Water Resources, Justice, Industry and Electricity, Planning, Agriculture and Water, Transport, Communications, Commerce, Higher Education, Education, Information, Health, Labour and Social Affairs, Pilgrimage and Waqfes, Public Works and Housing and Municipal and Rural Affairs (See Figure 2.1). Ministers are responsible directly to the King.

The political power in the Kingdom is distributed in the following way:

First the King and the Royal family together. The king is the elder son of former King Abdulaziz Hayiat Al-Ifta, and is the second political authority and the most influential source of power in Saudi Arabia.

Hayiat Al-Ifta is concerned with law and government decisions that may conflict with the Islamic values and teachings. It is the authority that approves or disapproves governmental laws and decisions as they interface with Islam's teachings. In addition, judges are recommended by the Hayiat Al-Ifta. The Hayiat completely reply on religious teachings and instructions in all their activities.

**Figure 2.1 The Structure of Council of Ministers**



The Ministerial cabinet is the third source of authority. It decides policies and discusses and approves plans as needed, such as regulations for government expenditure and foreign affairs. Legal, formal laws (for instance, rules for charging criminals) must be approved by the Hayiat Al-Ifta. The executive power of the ministries is the fourth source of power. Ministers are responsible for recommending plans and putting the Kingdom's plans and development into action and carrying out its missions. Ministers can also recommend several policies and rules. If those policies are only administrative, then they may issue them and approve them for applications without sending them to the ministerial cabinet for approval but in some cases the approval of the Civil Bureau is required, for example, the employees' promotion policy.

In addition, a new royal decision, issued early in 1992, approved the development of Majlis Al-Shouraa, the advisory council. This council was established in 1943 and was supposed to be second in political power and influence in Saudi Arabia; however, it has had no role since 1962, and its coming role may not be influential. The members of this council are, or will be, selected and appointed by the King or his deputy, based on their tribal or family's influence, and not their knowledge, experience, and qualifications. The Advisory Council in the first two centuries of Islam, 570-770 A.D., was the most powerful unit in Muslim life. Governors and senior members of government were selected or recommended by the Council, and "Fatuwa" (formal legal opinion) was given through it.

The political and governmental system in Saudi Arabia is centralised. There are no political parties or national elections or unions in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia has enjoyed political stability since 1932. Because of its political stability and available



government revenue for development, the Kingdom is recognised as a good place for investment and business.

## **2.5 Planning and Development in Saudi Arabia**

The political economic power of the kingdom of Saudi Arabia derives from its vast petroleum deposits, since it is ranked as the third largest oil producer in the world, and one of the largest power crude oil reserve areas.

In addition, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is still in the leading position in the world oil industry - in fact, specialists and economic experts forecast a real growth of the Kingdom's economy of around 6 per cent in future years given the relative stability of oil prices. However this strength emerged only in the mid Seventies after the oil embargo and the increase in the oil prices.

In 1938 the country started to export oil in commercial quantities. However the quantities discovered were modest and the growth of public bureaucracy and activities in the absence of clear financial planning meant that the economic situation remained unsatisfactory.

The first formally organised budget was in 1954 and demonstrated the weakness of planning, in that one third of the budget went on defence and a large proportion was devoted to luxury projects (Niblock, 1982). The problem of actual expenditure outstripping available funds persisted until the late fifties. The country then resorted to the International Monetary Fund to review the financial situation.

In order to evaluate the achieved targets and what might be achieved, Saudi Arabia has adopted a new system of period plans.

The country's first five-year plan was drawn up in 1970, the second one in 1975, the third plan in 1980, the fourth plan in 1985, the fifth plan in 1990, and the sixth development plan 1995 -2000.

### **2.5.1 Economic Growth and Social Stability**

In its development plans the Kingdom has always pursued the macroeconomic objectives of economic growth, full employment, stable prices and avoidance of sharp fluctuations in economic activity. As international experience has shown, however the simultaneous achievement of all these objectives particularly the attainment of full employment with price stability is not easy. Nonetheless the Kingdom can be justly proud of its achievement in these areas:

1) Over the first five development plans between 1970 and 1995 the real average annual growth in non-oil GDP has been 6 per cent.

2) Average annual inflation between 1970 and 1995 (measured by the private consumption deflator) amounted to 5.3 per cent and to less than 1 per cent during the last ten years which is significantly lower than international levels.

3) Total employment of Saudis has risen about 1.2 million in 1970 to almost 2.4 million in 1995 (Sixth Development Plan Report).

Rapid economic growth and modernisation have led to social instability in many countries particularly when the benefits of development have been unevenly distributed and traditional values have been abandoned. The Kingdom has been keen to avoid such a diverse impact. However the provision of opportunities for all members of Saudi Society to participate in the development process has been a permanent goal of the

Kingdom's development plans.

While the statistical measurement of diversification achievements is difficult, the kingdom has recorded some notable success in diversifying the economic base and reducing dependence on crude oil.

1) Non-oil GDP increased more than fourfold between 1970 and 1995 measured in constant 1990 prices.

2) The non-oil sectors contribution to GDP rose from 53 per cent in 1970 to about 67 per cent by the end of the fifth plan 1995.

3) The contribution of non-oil revenues to total government revenues increased from 16 per cent in 1970 to 22 per cent in 1995.

4) As a share of the Kingdom's total exports, non-oil exports rose from 8 per cent in 1970 to about 21 percent in 1995.

5) Value added by manufacturing industry grew at an average annual rate of 7.4 per cent between 1970 and 1995 in constant 1990 prices.

6) Driven mainly by the huge growth in petrochemical exports of the past ten years non-oil merchandise exports have arisen from almost nothing in 1970 to more than SR 15 billion in 1995.

7) Agricultural output rose six fold between the beginning of the first plan and the end of the fifth plan and in Kingdom has moved significantly towards achieving self-sufficiency in food supply (Sixth Development Plan Report).



## **2.5.2 Developing Human Resources**

The development plans have placed great importance on human resources development through continuous advances in primary, intermediate, secondary and higher education as well as in technical education and vocational training. The result has been a great increase in the productive employment of Saudi citizens and a steady upgrading of the skill levels and occupational achievements of the Saudi labour force. The following indicators point to the quality and scale of achievement in developing the Kingdom's human resources:

1) The total number of schools at all levels rose from 3,283 in 1970 to about 22,000 in 1995, while enrolment in all educational institutions increased from around 600,000 in 1970 to about 3.3 million in 1995 an average growth rate of 7.1 per cent.

2) Seven universities and fourteen girls colleges have been established while the total number of students at these higher education institutions has increased from 8,000 in 1970 to about 170,000 in 1995, an average annual growth rate of 13 per cent.

3) Enrolment in vocational training centres rose from 578 in 1970 to over 10,000 in 1995 an average annual growth rate of 12.6 per cent, while enrolment at technical schools and institutions increased from 848 in 1970 to over 28,000 in 1995 or at an average annual rate of around 16 per cent (Sixth Development Plan Report).

## **2.5.3 Saudi Private Sector Development**

By the beginning of the fourth plan a suitable climate had emerged for greater integration between the government and the private sector. Most of the infrastructure projects have been completed and the priorities for development have shifted towards

structural change and economic diversification. Through a wide range of financial and regulatory measures the government encouraged the private sector to engage in joint ventures with firms and to invest in new-generating capacities using the latest available capital intensive technology mainly in the agriculture and manufacturing industries. As a result, the private sector became less dependent than in earlier plans on government expenditure. The growing maturity of the private sector and its resilience in reaction to declining oil revenues and government expenditure began to show in the fourth plan years and was reaffirmed in the fifth plan also, as the number of private sector companies continued to rise along with the volume of private capital investment and the range of private manufacturing activity.

The growing strength of the private sector and its important role in effecting structural change in the Kingdom's economy are evident in the following indicators:

1) Private investment rose from SR1 billion in 1970 to about SR 46 billion in the last year of the fifth plan.

2) The private sector's contribution to GDP rose from 21 per cent in 1975 to 45 per cent in the last year of the fifth plan while its contribution to non-oil GDP reached about 72 per cent in 1995.

3) Private sector employment rose by 4.7 million between 1970 and 1995.

4) The number of operating (Saudi/foreign) joint ventures reached 352 in 1994 with a total capital invested amounting to SR 81.5 billion.

5) The stock market has grown rapidly in recent years as the number of shares traded rose from less than 15 million in 1989 to more than 60 million in 1994 while the value of transactions over this period increased from almost SR 760 million to over SR 17 billion (Sixth Development Plan Report).

## 2.6 Saudi Cultural Values

The cultural values of Saudi Arabia according to Malaika (1993) are based on three major sources: the religion of Islam, the social values which include the tribal and village values and the family values and ties. Islam is the religion of the Saudi people and also the source of political legitimacy or the judicial system and the moral code for Saudi society. On the one hand it is the formal religion of the Kingdom and its principles are the supreme authority. On the other hand it is the social and cultural institution whose system of social conduct and spiritual forces penetrate every aspect of Muslim life. Al-Awaji (1971) pointed this out clearly

*“For Saudi Arabians it is not only the importance of Islam as a major source of social values and norms that complete the constitutionalisation of Islamic doctrines and teaching but also its effects as the source of all legal and political acts that perpetuates and enforces such as institutionalisation”*

Prior to 1932 Saudi Arabia was predominantly a tribal society. There were some rural villages (Taif, Hail, Jizan Buraidah) and few towns (Makkah, Medina). Only two Urban centres (Jeddah, Makkah) could be classified as cities and they were small.

The basic social and political units to which many Saudi Arabians looked for centuries for the preservation of order and the resolution of conflict were tribal groups.



Tribal groups values are based on the concept that an individual has the identity of the group to which he belongs. In most cases this is his/her wider family in which the senior members take charge of almost everything. Owing to the traditional harshness of nomadic life these values are fiercely defended against any perceived intrusion. However, these values of senior members looking after the other members of a family also influence the ways in which a management role is perceived. This could be a contributing factor in the excessive centralisation to which Malaika (1993) refers.

Maliaka also refers to this style as not supporting employees' independence but expecting loyalty which is considered to be more important than the quality of their work. Also the use of personal ties is a faster and more efficient way of getting things done on a personal as well as professional level. The village is also important in the social structure because it is a transitional stage between tribalism and urbanisation (Al-Kharaji and Al-Aily, 1984).

Historically, Bedouin "nomads" settle first in villages through which they acquired their first experiences in a settled society. Village kinship relations are important because in many villages, though not all, an important segment of its population may consider themselves related through a common male ancestor (Al-Kharaji and Al-Aily, 1984).

Consequently the social position of the individual village is determined by this belonging to a particular extended family and by its position within a large kingroup or in the village as a whole. As in a tribe, the village chief, "Amir", is the leader and the spokesman of his villagers (Al-Kharaji and Al-Aily, 1984). The family values system as a source of a cultural values is the centre of all activities in Saudi Arabia. But this

fact has been changing slowly over the last few years (since 1974 in particular). It remains the dominant characteristic of the Saudi family. Whether in tribes, villages, or cities the family remains the primary source of identification (Al-Karaji, 1984).

Identification with a certain family influences one's economic and political status. Among the nomads the family is largely a self-sustaining economic unit. In the cities such as Jeddah the family is usually centred around a business enterprise that includes the father, sons, brothers, uncles and other relatives (Shaker, 1972).

The primacy of the Arab family has evolved out of three factors: the Arab tradition, the Islamic teachings and the economic and political factors.

The Arab traditions are the main source of a family's social legitimacy. The social structure of the Saudi family, where descendants are traced through the paternal line is organised around related males.

The second source is Islam, which asserts the priority of the family and the relatives. In Saudi Arabia, Islam is the legal form that is applied to almost all aspects of life. The third source is the economic and political factors. Saudi Arabia has been going through a very intensive development.

Tremendous change has happened to the family structure and its interrelationships. Because of the nature of the Arab world of handicrafts, simple trade agricultural and pastoral life the whole family continues to be relied on as an economic organisational unit and a social unit. Shaker (1972) declared that:

*“The development of an industrialised economy in some parts or areas in Saudi Arabia has not yet provided a major viable substitute for the family role.”*

As the issues of both the political leadership and Saudi culture are very important in understanding the context of management development and the attitudes of the managers in the issues of evaluation, their details will be discussed in Chapter Five.

## **2.7 Summary**

This chapter has endeavoured to establish a meaningful brief description of the general features of the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The country population according to the last census reached 17 million.

The annual population growth rate has varied, from 2 per cent in 1960 to 2.9 per cent in 1974, and to 4.5 per cent in 1980 to 1984 and to 1.4 per cent during 1991. The labour force in Saudi Arabia, therefore is 34 per cent Saudi and 66 per cent foreigner. Of the 5.6 million labour force 1.1 million Saudis are in the government sector and 800,000 in the private sector. The private sector has 4.5 million employees but only 15 per cent of them are Saudis. The Saudi government wants to increase the Saudi labour force in the private sector.

However, there are many obstacles to achieving this objective. For instance, many Saudis lack experience, or training qualifications and do not like to work in the private sector, either because of the low salaries or the working conditions compared with those of the government sector. The Kingdom is ruled by the royal family (Al-Saud). The King (and the royal family) is the highest political power in Saudi Arabia. Next in power is the religious authority Hayiat Al-Ifta, followed by the ministerial cabinet.



The executive power of ministers is the fourth source of political power. The political and governmental system in Saudi Arabia is heavily centralised, there are no national election or political parties or unions.

Planning and development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia based on five year development plan the first national plan was drawn up in 1970 and the last one in 1995 and will extend up to the year 2000.

There are three major sources of values in Saudi Arabia, the religion of Islam, the social values which include the tribal and village values, and the family values and ties. In addition to Islam, the family values are considered the second most influential force on individuals, followed by societal values. The family is the basic social unit in Saudi Arabia. The individuals' loyalty and devotion is to the interests of his family, kin and intimate groups.

It will be clear from the above that Saudi Arabia has been undergoing great changes in its economy. It is, therefore, self-evident that proper management of the economy is essential. How can this management expertise be obtained? The next chapter attempts to answer this question in detail.

## **Chapter Three**

**Management Development Purposes,**

**Concepts and Institutions**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Management development is an important and expensive activity in the development of the public or private sector. Much has been written on this topic, as it is equally important for Eastern, Western, developed and developing countries of the world. Most of the literature is about general management development, but little has been written on the contextual aspects affecting management development where management style of culture and business marketing is always changing day by day.

This chapter will overview the activities that both are and should be involved in public and private sector organisations in developed and developing countries. It addresses the questions: what is effective management, what is the role of the manager in managing the organisation, and how and why is it important to train and develop executives?

Both developed and developing countries and their public and private sectors have recognised these changes in business as well as in governments. With this level of change there is consensus all over the world that managers and executives require ongoing training and education, beyond degree level, to help them to make effective decisions with new demands placed on them by the public and private sectors in which they work.

### **3.2 Management and the Role of Managers in the Organisations.**

If we start with the term “management” there is a fairly straightforward distinction to make between management as a class of people and management as an activity.



activity.

Skertchley (1968) explains that:

*“management is concerned with problem-solving, decision-making processes through which enterprises or businesses are controlled, and their objectives attained, and that, management development is concerned with raising managerial ability in order to improve the effectiveness of management actions.”*

While the leading authorities are in broad agreement regarding the functions of the manager, their definitions of management vary widely. Brech (1967), for example, states that it is:

*“a social process entailing responsibility for effective (or efficient) planning and regulation of the operations of an enterprise, such responsibility involving (a) the installation and maintenance of proper procedures to ensure adherence to plans, and (b) the guidance, integration and supervision of the personnel comprising the enterprise and carrying out its operations.”*

By comparison, Drucker's (1955) definition of management as “a multipurpose organ that manages a business and manages managers and manages workers and work” is intrinsically different in that it concentrates on what has to be done rather than how it has to be done.

Conceding the value of such definitions, Stewart (1963) carried out research for something simpler as a prelude to her discussion of the manager's job in practice. In her opinion the manager's job can be divided into (a) deciding what to do and (b) getting it done, and thus her definition is “deciding what shall be done and then getting other people to do it”. While one could accuse Stewart of gross over-simplification, the straightforwardness of this approach is attractive, especially to busy executives who

often view more ponderous definitions with suspicion.

The simplicity of Stewart's approach is in contrast with that of Paterson (1966), who defines management as "the ordering and co-ordinating of functions and of the men fulfilling these functions in order to achieve a given purpose". In seeking a definition of management, Paterson stresses managerial functions such as planning, co-ordinating and controlling, and warns against the tendency to assume the decisions concerned with what he calls "the tools of management", such as accounting, engineering and selling, which are part of the basic management process. He accepts that many managers do require specialist knowledge in these areas of work in order to be able to carry out their duties, but suggests that, in considering the nature of management, one should concentrate on the common elements in managers' jobs which show that managers are people who manage other people and so get things done.

Stewart (1993), on the other hand, points out that the analysis of functions has limited usefulness because of its generality. She argues that:

*"these limits of management functions ignore the diversity of management: that the job of a top manager bears little resemblance to that of a junior manager, or that being a coke-ovens manager in a steel mill is hardly comparable with being an advertising manager to a popular shoe manufacturer."*

In essence, she is illustrating that the analysis of the functions of a manager concentrates on the similarities in managers' jobs, whereas much more can be learned about managerial jobs by concentrating on the difference between them.

'Management' as a class can be regarded as the people who carry the title of manager. By convention, the title of manager is given to people who are one or more



levels above the supervision of operatives in the organisational hierarchy. However, managers are to be found in all types of organisations, for example, commerce, education and industry.

The role of a manager in the organisation is to get the job done through subordinates. Some managers treat their subordinates in a responsible way that leads to superior performance in the public or private organisation. Other managers who really need to develop and use managerial skills, intentionally or unintentionally treat their subordinates in a way that leads to lower performance than they are capable of achieving. The way managers deal with their juniors is subtly influenced by what they (managers) expect from them. If the manager's expectations are high, his/her dealings must be high and productivity would be likely to be excellent. If the expectations of a manager are low, productivity is likely to be poor. Therefore it is management and managerial skills that develop the managers' expectations and behaviour which influence the organisation, productivity and profitability of the business.

Further exploration of what managers do or should do leads us to one of the well-known acronyms for the task of a manager as POSDCORB. These letters stand for the activities of Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Co-ordinating, Reporting and Budgeting. These ideas seem to have their origin in the personal experiences and contributions of Fayol (1950) and Gulick (1937). They have been enormously influential to the extent that whenever practising managers are asked what is it that managers do, they start talking about planning, organising and so on.

Stewart (1963) provides a clear insight into this in her book. She explains that management theorists have been analysing the nature of the manager's job since the



beginning of this century in order to generalise on its functions. Allowing for differences in terminology, there is a broad agreement that the manager has four main functions. Planning is seen as his first function - that is, first identifying useful objectives then determining tasks and resources to achieve objectives and being concerned with the development of policy through the forecasting of future events, the analysis of problems and the making of decisions. Secondly, the manager is concerned with organising, in the sense of determining and arranging for work to be done by groups or individuals. Motivation is the third function by which the manager "inspires his staff to contribute to the purpose of the organisation, to be loyal to its aims, and to pull their weight in achieving them." Fourthly, the manager has a controlling function, ensuring that objectives have been attained and that performance has matched the planning.

Drucker adds a fifth function of the manager's job, namely the development of people, which he regards as being of paramount importance when he states "the function which distinguishes the manager above all others is his education alone. The one contribution he is uniquely expected to make, is to give others vision and ability to perform." This is a particularly interesting addition in the context of this study, since it highlights the fact that all managers, and not only those responsible for management development in an organisation, have a part to play in developing managers' subordinates.

What are the differences between managers' jobs? Stewart (1963) suggests that the three main influencing factors are: the function of the job, the level of the job and the situation of the firm. As far as the function of the job is concerned, this is a factor which becomes increasingly important as management becomes more specialised. The

organisation chart of any medium or large sized organisation clearly displays this specialisation with titles such as personnel manager, accounts manager, operation research manager and many others. Although there are similarities in the activities of these specialists in that they all manage men and so get things done (Paterson, 1966), there are also basic differences in terms of the knowledge and skills they require and the problems they have to solve.

The levels of the job also create significant differences. Generally speaking, the more senior the job, the more the incumbent manager will be engaged in policy-making, and the greater the responsibility he will bear. In many cases this responsibility involves the direction and supervision of managers at more junior levels in the organisation.

The manager's job is also affected by the situation of the firm. The size of the firm, for example, will determine the amount and degree of managerial specialisation with which the manager has to deal and the level of contact with non-managerial employees. The nature of the firm's product will also influence the type of manager required in terms of his qualifications and experience, particularly at first line and middle management level, e.g. the skills required for firms' product telecommunication, oil, motor cars is different from skills required for medical service firms'.

Stewart (1963) has also challenged the often heard statement "a good manager can manage anything", arguing that this belief is rarely put into practice in industry, especially in view of the amount of technical or specialised knowledge required in many management posts. She concedes that, nearer the top of the managerial hierarchy, the need for technical expertise is often exceeded by the demand for administrative skills such as decision-making and leadership. She argues, however, that:



*“even at top management level, the kind of people who have to be managed and the type of problem that has to be resolved can be so diverse that they require different abilities, and therefore, different people.”*

Stewart's conclusion is that differences between managers' jobs are so great that specific descriptions must be prepared before the effective training of managers can be carried out. A point central to any study of management development is that it highlights the fact that management cannot be treated as a large amorphous mass. Rather it is a grouping of men fulfilling similar roles in terms of the four functions of planning, organising, directing and controlling, but engaged in jobs which, in many cases, are fundamentally different. When we think of managers in the context of management development, therefore, we must think in terms of individuals and the specific duties and responsibilities assigned to them.

Various definitions have been offered for management development. Morris (1971), for example, defines management development as “the systematic improvement of managerial effectiveness within the organisational effectiveness”. Ashton and Taylor (1974) put their definition in the context of organisational goals: “a conscious and systematic decision-action process to control the development of managerial resources in the organisation .... for the achievement of organisational goals and strategies.” House (1967) defines management development in a way to cover the current, as well as the future, perspectives of this process. He stated that it is “any attempt to improve current or future managerial performance by imparting information, conditioning attitudes, or increasing skills.”

These definitions may serve as examples of what is generally understood as



management development. The important features, which emerge from these and other definitions, are:

1) This function relates to the entire body of management in an organisation, not just the individual manager or particular groups or levels of managers.

2) Management development is concerned not just with training or education, but with the broader concept of development which implies improvement.

3) This improvement should manifest itself in the extent to which organisational goals and objectives are achieved.

Such features reflect a need to take a broad view of this function to relate it to its organisational context and to its effects on an organisation and its performance.

Barnard (1938) in this regard identified in his classic book, *The Function of the Executive*, three main functions of the executive:

*“(a) The executive must maintain the organisation with common purposes. He must also do this by first defining organisation roles, then by hiring the personnel to fill these roles, and finally by helping to develop an information communication system good enough to spread the word so that formal orders need be issued relatively rarely. (b) The executive must secure essential services from individuals by maintaining morale through incentives, restraints, control, supervision, training and education. (c) The executive must formulate the purposes and objectives of the organisation and disseminate these down to the organisation’s lowest level to enable the organisation to work as an organic whole.”*

Drucker (1955) also identified another set of major roles of the executive:

*“The task of thinking through the mission of the business itself - what it is and what it should be - which leads to setting objectives, strategies and plans. Setting standards or providing the vision and values in key areas. Building and maintaining the human organisation and having concern for human resources, both for the present and*

*for the future. Maintaining major relationships which only the people at the top of a business hierarchy can foster, for example, with customers, with major suppliers, with bankers and the financial community. Such relationships can be maintained only by one who represents the entire organisation, speaks for it, understands it and commits it. The 'ceremonial functions' which include participation in civic events and representation of the organisation to the community in which it operates. Serving as a standby organisation able to take over in times of crisis or when things go badly wrong. This should include the most experienced, wisest and prominent people within an organisation who can step in at such time."*

More specifically , Mintzberg (1973), in his article, "The Nature of Managerial Work", described the 10 roles of the executive/manager: figurehead, leader, liaison, monitor, disseminator, spokesman, entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator. These roles are based on structured observations that were part of a study Mintzberg conducted. They are different from management functions such as "POSDCORB".

Mintzberg presented his findings, using a format of "folklore versus fact":

**Folklore 1:** The executive is a reflective, systematic planner. **Fact:** This study has shown that the executive works at an unrelenting pace, that his activities are characterised by brevity, variety and discontinuity, and that he is strongly oriented to action and dislikes reflective activities.

**Folklore 2:** The effective executive has no regular duties to perform. **Fact:** In addition to handling exceptions, managerial work involves performing a number of regular duties, including ritual and ceremony, negotiating and processing soft information that links the organisation with its environment.



**Folklore 3:** The executive needs aggregated information, which a formal management system best provides. **Fact:** Executives strongly favour the verbal media - the telephone or meetings.

**Folklore 4:** Management is, or at least is quickly becoming, a science and a profession. **Fact:** An executive's programme to schedule time, process information, make decisions and so on remains locked deep inside his brain.

Sherwood (1981) in an article on the nature of executive work stated:

*"He (the executive) is no executive if he is engaged in the routine and in regularised processing activities. He becomes an executive as he deals with the unique, as he seeks to understand what is happening and what is needed."*

Like Sherwood, but more broadly, a series of studies by Porter and Ghiselli (cited by Wicket & McFarland, 1967) suggests that marked differences exist between executives in different functions and at different levels. In their studies they compared persons in the middle management with those in top management. According to their findings, the top management person is one who paints with a broad brush, adopting a comprehensive decision-making point of view and describing himself as capable, resourceful, enterprising and sharp-witted. However, they pointed out that the middle management man appears to be more of a data-gatherer, an evidence-seeker, a man who supplies upper management with data on which to make their broad, general kinds of decisions. He (the middle manager) tends to see himself as practical, discreet, forward-looking, deliberate and steady.

Herbet Kaufman (1981) reported in his book, *The Administrative Behaviour of Federal Bureau Chiefs*, that the major activities common to all executives regardless of



other differences are as follows: deciding things, receiving and reviewing intelligence about the state of their own organisations and of the external environments, representing their bureaus to the external environment, and motivating their work force. According to Kaufman, the lines between the categories are not sharply defined; rather, the classes overlap, and a single act may involve several of these. Kaufman constructed a diagram showing the allocation of the executive's time to various activities (Fig 3-1).

As the figure indicates, Kaufman found that a large percentage of the executive's time is spent on receiving and reviewing information. This finding is supported by other writers, such as Sherwood:

*“One thing we look for in a leader is that he be a learner. If you take seriously the idea that the executive today is responsible for what happens more than how it happens, then we know that he must be tuned into a vast array of things happening around him. Furthermore, those things are continuously changing. It follows, then, that the learning process becomes very important in the executive function. While he has increasing demands on his time in all aspects of his work, the executive also has a rapidly growing amount of data, from a broader and broader spectrum, that he must process before he can make sound decisions.”*

Glenn (1985) discussed the differences between an executive and a manager (Fig.3-2). The executive, according to Glenn, learns that he is a principal shaper of organisational reality. Glenn perceived the executive as both influencing and being influenced by the broad world around, both in and outside the work organisation.

As a result of his study, Glenn found that, congruent with the broader perspective, are the following qualities that executives see in themselves: an ability to see relationships that were not apparent before; a propensity for seeing things in the global and long-term

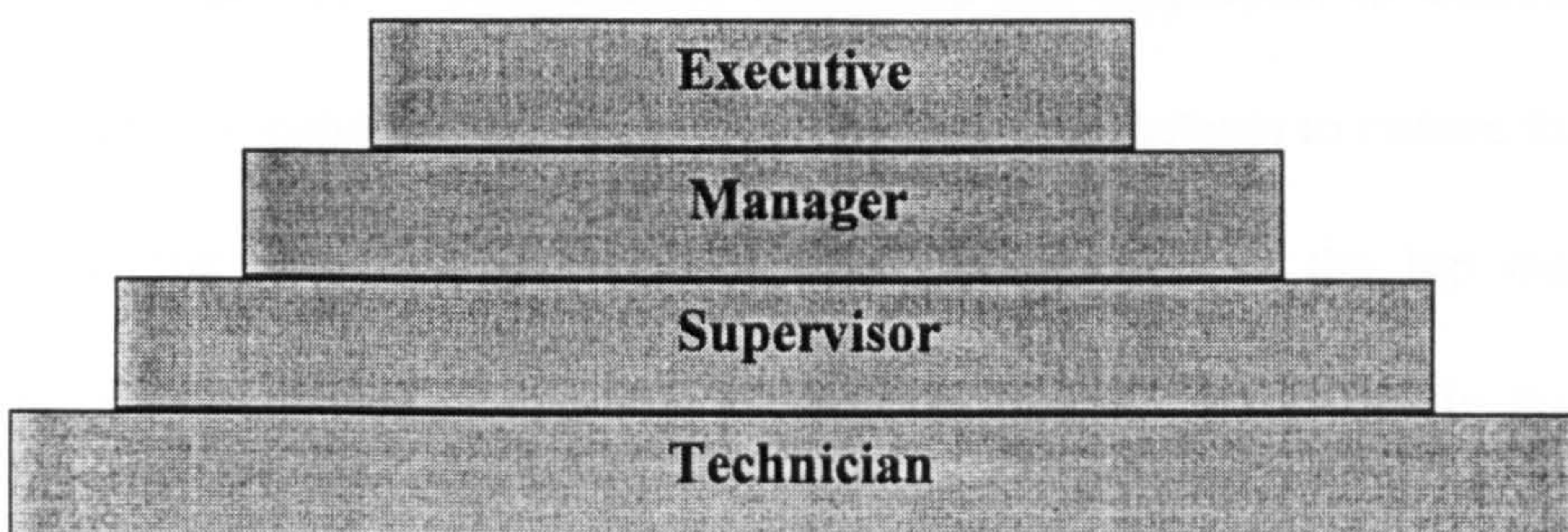


**Figure 3.1 Allocation of the Executive's Time**

<u>External Relations</u> <b>25% - 30%</b>	<u>Motivating Work Force</u> <b>10% - 20%</b>
<p>Receiving and reviewing information for all purposes, including preparation, including preparation for decision-making, external relations and motivating the work force, steps to avoid embarrassment and efforts to appraise performance.</p> <p><b>55% - 60%</b></p>	

Source: Kaufman, H. (1981) *The Administrative Behaviour of Federal Bureau Chiefs*, Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution.

**Figure 3.2 Hierarchy of a Large Work Organisation as Perceived by an Executive**



Source: Glenn, T. (1985). *Executive development: The vital shift*. *Training and Development Journal*.



perspective; an inclination to view the world as a hierarchy; an openness to new ways of thinking about the world; a proclivity for the ambiguous, the undefined, the unclear, the uncountable; a tendency to rely on his or her own judgement; a desire to exploit his or her own potential; a desire to cope with big issues; a desire to live and work passionately.

### **3.3 The Need for Management Development**

Social, cultural, political and technological trends are accelerating. For example the world population in 1975 was 4 billion; by the year 2000, the projection is 6.35 billion, an increase of about 60% of which 90% will occur in the developing countries. This projection amounts to 100 million births every year. Moreover, authors vary in their view of the make-up of this population, with a dramatic growth in ageing, particularly in developed nations. This will mean that 24 percent in the United States, 30 percent in Japan and 36 percent in West Germany will reach retirement age by the year 2000. These figures mean a dramatic change in the management process and in the make-up of the managerial group will be needed.

Studying the role of the manager reveals very clearly that he is a valuable company resource. Maintenance engineers are employed to ensure that plant and machinery are capable of maximum utilisation, accountants to ensure that the best use is made of the firm's financial resources. However, it is the top managers who are employed to ensure that the organisation as a whole is moving in the right direction. Management development is needed to ensure that the company's managerial resources are fully developed.



Arguments in favour of management development also arise in the context of organisational change. All institutions undergo change and re-organisation in response to changes in their external environment; such changes affect all grades of employees, including managers. One example of change which affects managers is the development of computerised systems. Although computerisation creates its own breed of specialists, other managers must be trained to appreciate and use the applications of the computer. Another example arises when there is a change in the top management structure of an organisation. The introduction of a new chief executive, for instance, frequently results in a different managerial style being applied and revised standards of performance being expected. Again this type of situation can require members of the management team to adapt to a new set of circumstances.

Generally speaking, people have an inherent resistance to change, and managers are no exception. Those who resist change because they either cannot or will not adapt to changing circumstances must be replaced if the organisation is to continue operating effectively. However, many of the difficulties caused by organisational change, such as rapidly growing problem of executive obsolescence, could be avoided if management development programmes prepared incumbents for impending change, helping them to cope with it, and created real commitment to it. Management development thus is an essential tool of organisational change.

Consideration of the problem of executive obsolescence, which tends to be more acute in the case of older managers, draws attention to another important facet of the need for management development. It is a common fallacy that a programme of management development is beneficial only to younger managers who have the potential

to develop further and be promoted to more senior positions. Certainly this is an important aspect of management development, but there is also a very real need to develop the manager, young or old, who is unlikely to achieve further promotion. He must be given the assistance he needs to ensure that he keeps on top of the job, is fully up to date with current managerial practice and is given the stimulus to put maximum effort into performance.

Managers are required to acquire a range of management skills for which they may not have been equipped earlier. Skill in financial management which cuts across all aspects of an organisation, skill in organisation building and management, insights into economic and technological forecasting, competence in managing the environment of the organisation which influences most of the major decisions must all be part of the manager's make-up in addition to specific proficiencies such as manufacturing, buying and selling. Management seldom considers to what extent their managers will be capable of operating in the changing conditions of the future when technologies may be more advanced, when size and diversification of the organisation will grow, when social and political conditions may change, and when today's managers may find themselves as obsolete as yesterday's machines.

In developing countries, management development must be taken a step further. Although its concern is to develop a man's knowledge and skills as a manager and planning for management succession, it is also its concern to ensure the growth and development of the economy as a whole, besides ensuring the successful continuity and growth of an enterprise. Because, as de Bettignies (1975) states:



*“management development is not a choice, it is a ‘must’, a requirement of the economic systems, as a process imposed on enterprises in both developed and developing countries, as a result of organisational growth, changing technology, changing conditions (politically and socially), and changing environment in its broadest sense.”*

It is interesting at this point to relate the above conclusion about “managerial” and “manager” to what are called “Executives” and “Executive Development” (ED).

The executive development programme (EDP) is in concept a relatively new branch of education and training. Just after the World War II, it developed into a major growth industry. It constitutes a wide variety of learning experiences with the common purpose of, for example, helping managers grow in competitive talent throughout their careers. These EDPs are often full-time one- or two-week courses, with some rather longer, e.g. Harvard Business School’s Advanced Management Programme and executive MBA programmes offered by universities world-wide, e.g. Strathclyde Graduate Business School.

Executives and managers retain job responsibilities and attend courses while sometimes receiving academic certificates, diplomas or degrees on the job. Business strategy is one of the common EDP topics. International experience and training have increased greatly in importance. As a result more organisations seek to provide their executives with at least one overseas tour to their “sister” companies.

### **3.4 The Nature of Management Development**

McGregor (1960) gives an interesting and enlightening view of the nature of management development. He believes that, traditionally, management development



programmes tended to consist of attempts to identify and develop in individuals the personal qualities of leadership, which are often closely identified with the qualities of a manager. He reflects on this approach and illustrates his own ideas on the subject by stating a number of generalisations which, he claims, are supported by research:-

1) It is unlikely that there is any one pattern of qualities and personality traits which is common to all leaders.

2) The characteristics in the leader required for success are dependent on the circumstances in which leadership takes place.

3) Within limits, weakness in one direction may be compensated for by strength in another.

4) The skills of leadership can be learned or acquired and are not entirely innate, natural characteristics.

McGregor concludes that since these generalisations included so many variables, management development programmes, which attempt to produce managers to a preconceived pattern, are pointless. Instead, he argues, the only methodology for successful management development is to create an environment in which potential managers may develop naturally and not to a stereotyped pattern.

He illustrates his approach metaphorically in the following way. While conceding that traditional approaches to management development do meet with some success, he suggests that companies try to “manufacture” managers and that the individual frequently gets “lost in the machinery”. As an alternative, he relates his view to agriculture, suggesting that management development should be concerned with growing talent rather than manufacturing it. He lays great emphasis on the conditions

required for growth, such as the climate, the fertility of the soil and the methods of cultivation, referring, of course, to the background and underlying conditions in the company and the training methods used.

As far as management development in the public sector is concerned, this has been an issue and an agenda as far back as the ancient Chinese and Roman empires. Their governments were engaged in developing and training leaders for public service. But only since World War II has the concept of management development developed as a subject of a voluminous literature. Charles Brown (1973) identified that:

*“There are several reasons for this tremendous surge of interest. Perhaps the immediate reason is that the psychological testing methods considered so successful in selecting military leaders during World War II have since come into general use. More important, the post-war growth of industry and government as well as increasing technological complexity, has demanded not only more managers but also more sophisticated management”.*

There is a shortage of qualified managers in both developed and developing countries. It is not that government and industry have increased in complexity and technology, but that good and trained managers and leaders have always been in high demand and short supply in the world.

The importance of the background conditions in the company is also stressed by Desatnick (1970), who defines management development as “an individual process involving the interaction of a man, his job, his manager and the total work environment. Individual development then results in the acquisition of new knowledge, skills and attitudes in a planned, orderly manner to improve present job performance, while accelerating preparation for advancement into more responsible positions.” He suggests



that it is the responsibility of the organisation to provide the opportunity for this interaction of man, job, manager and environment to enable “each individual to develop to the full extent of his potential consistent with his needs, interests, abilities and willingness to exert himself to realise this potential.”

Desatnick points out that management development is all too often perceived as a series of fragmented parts including recruitment programmes, performance assessments and training courses. He maintains that this gives a misleading impression of the true nature of management development which he believes to be concerned more with the co-ordination of these activities with each other and in line with the business objectives of the organisation. When the objectives have been determined, the individual strengths, weaknesses and interests of the organisations’ managers can be related to these and, from this comparison, the constituent parts of the management development programme can be used as “tools” to achieve effective management development.

Desatnick’s concern is that the management development programme is sometimes viewed in fragmented parts rather than as a co-ordinated whole. This is interesting because this problem had to be dealt with in planning, researching and writing this study. It is necessary, therefore, to stress that the various component parts of the management development programme must be closely inter-linked and must relate to the business objectives of the organisation if a really effective scheme is to be achieved.



### **3.5 Objectives of Management Development**

Based on the above, Jarman (1973) identifies five main objectives for management development:-

- 1) To improve the performance of managers currently in post.
- 2) To provide adequate cover in the event of unexpected change such as deaths, transfers, resignations or unanticipated new developments.
- 3) To raise the general level of management thinking in all branches and at all levels in the organisation.
- 4) To provide a supply of managerial talent which will meet the anticipated needs of the future development of the organisation in terms of commercial change, growth and increased technological and managerial expertise.
- 5) To extend the frontiers of knowledge in the understanding of the managerial function.

These five objectives cover the topic adequately and their study provides a helpful insight into the management development process. The first objective involves the use of assessment or appraisal techniques to review managers' present levels of performance and the use of a variety of training techniques to improve performance if possible. On the other hand, the history of management training and development in developing countries demonstrates clearly that developing and encouraging management development is a substantial feature of national economic and cultural life. Essentially, the fact is that growth is accomplished by people. It cannot emerge simply through the wishes of a government any more than it can spring from a simple increase in capital

investment. It is also the result of development of directed individual effort and enthusiasm and the most positive utilisation of human resources.

In general, management development usually is a method to enhance the managers' knowledge, skills, and behaviour. Management training programmes cover areas where managers need to improve according to their level(s) and responsibilities. For instance, managers have three basic areas to improve, a) technical knowledge, which includes operations, controlling, etc., b) interpersonal skills, i.e. staffing, motivating, leadership, c) Conceptual skills which includes strategic planning, developing organisational values, structure and systems, and of course developing business plans. The more senior the manager is, the more conceptual skills he needs. However, the amount or levels of skills and training to be provided to management will be based on their work/business nature and their training needs. The following Figure (3.3) gives a brief outline of the objectives of management development and management training.

**Figure 3.3 Management Development (Objectives and Expected Results)**

Technical and Operational Skills	Interpersonal and Behavioural Skills	Conceptual Skills
Safety, quality control, cost reduction, marketing, accounting, etc..	Supervision, leadership, staffing, motivation, teamwork, etc..	Strategic planning, business development, organisational systems, strategies, improving market shares, etc..

This cannot be completed, however, without taking into consideration the society or environment where the organisation is located or where the manager works. In other words, providing managers with the necessary skills and knowledge and



developing their behaviour is not the only fundamental issue for developing management. In Western and developed countries skills and knowledge related to the environment are included in the interpersonal and conceptual skill categories. However, the other part of this is to develop management to deal efficiently and effectively with their environment. In a broad context, it helps deal with global business, and in a narrower context it helps deal with local business. The researcher, here, means that we have to develop a view that looks into the three skill categories besides looking at the environment, the situations, the challenges of the business world, societal expectations and its effects. Thus, because of the previous parts depth and importance to management development, the researcher will discuss this fourth category later, in Chapter Four.

Effective management development, therefore, must be a major component of national development. Certainly planning for any form of industrial or other types of development would be of little consequence without aligned plans for the development of managers.

Training, and indeed the whole process of managers' development, is a vital factor in bringing about new realities to the developing countries. For these countries the need for a rapid development of managers is fundamental to successful development. Developing countries, therefore, must ensure that both present and future managers are well equipped with knowledge, conceptual and human abilities, and the philosophy of accomplishment, which will enable them to create and maintain their place in a rapidly changing world. This is nowhere more so than in Saudi Arabia, with the massive rise in their fortunes brought about by oil, as discussed in Chapter Two. However, some lessons can be learnt by failure of management development programmes to bring about



any change in performance on the job, as shown in Sudan's Young Executives Programme (Mohamed, 1984).

In considering some of the issues which are important in management training and development in developed countries, and how these are related to the problem of management training and development in general, we refer to some of the published thoughts. Rose (1970), for example, reviewed the pre-war management education records of Britain and compared its progress with that of the USA. He noted that "Businessmen in Britain generally appeared to be hostile to the suggestion that education, except in specific technical fields, could successfully develop or strengthen management skills." In America, however, education for management was well established prior to 1945, with thousands of young graduates pouring from schools of business administration and commerce.

The second objective, concerned with filling managerial vacancies arising from death, transfer and resignation, highlights two further aspects of management development. Firstly, an effective method of dealing with these unexpected vacancies is through succession planning, which involves systematic forecasting and planning of future requirements. Such planning, which should be subject to regular revision in the light of changing circumstances, relies to a considerable extent on the availability of accurate personnel records.

Jarman's third objective reminds us that management development must be concerned with people at all levels and in all functions. It should not deal exclusively with an elitist few who are recognised as having outstanding potential or with younger managers who are at the start of their careers. Management development should be a

company-wide activity embracing the whole of the management team.

The fourth objective echoes Desatnick's assertion, that management development must be closely linked with the business objectives of the organisation, because it is only through interpretation of company objectives that the "anticipated needs of the future development of the organisation in terms of commercial change, growth and increased technological and managerial expertise" can be assessed (Jarman, 1973). This also has a bearing on another important aspect of management development, namely effective recruitment, since the supply of managerial talent required to meet the organisation's needs will depend to a large extent on the ability of those responsible for recruitment to attract personnel of suitable calibre.

Jarman concludes his list of objectives on a more philosophical note. It is not unreasonable to observe that "to extend the frontiers of knowledge in the understanding of managerial function" is more likely to be the view of the academic than the average managing director. Nevertheless, there is still a great need for research and development in the field of management education and training, and the success of this depends heavily on co-operation between industry and the academic world.

It is interesting again to note that many writers distinguish between the two concepts "management development" and "executive development". In this respect, for example, Barnard (1983) states: "We do not develop the general executive well by specific efforts, and we know very little about how to do it. The higher the position in the line of authority, the more general abilities are required." The general ability that Barnard referred to is what differentiates executive development from other types of training.



Sherwood (1979), referring to what Barnard called “general ability”, argued that:

*“in considering issues of executive development .... it must be understood that advancement toward the hierarchical top of an organisation makes ever more problematic the specific competence that will make a difference in a particular role. Nor can we assume there is any steady state. In the ambiguous world of the top manager or executive, the surroundings are in constant flux. What needs to be done in one situation involving a particular set of relationships may require quite different competence from those appropriate to another.”*

Explaining the ambiguous world of the executive and how executive development differs from other training, Sherwood wrote:

*“In all executive development, there is a temporal dimension that necessitates a different view of this function than of other training. Most training deals with givens. Either it seeks to socialise people into accustomed ways of carrying on the organisation’s business or it undertakes to induce change in direction’s that have already been identified and are desired. In the case of the executive, however, neither purpose applies. He is no executive if he is engaged in the routine and regularised processing activities. He becomes an executive as he deals with the unique, as he seeks to understand what is happening and what is needed. His development, then, is not rooted in the past nor even in the present. It must be directed toward the future and the unknown. And it is not a matter of filling his head with more data about events and institutions but rather one of building the attitudes and skills that will permit him to deal with ambiguity and uncertainty.”*

Jones (1959), a former chairman of the U.S. Civil Service Commission, suggested three developmental stages in an executive’s education, arguing that each managerial level needs a different training programme.

Murphy and Pak (1979) defined executive development as a process of providing the individual involved with opportunities to (a) identify his/her developmental needs,



(b) set learning goals, (c) satisfy those developmental needs and goals, and (d) continue to realise his/her potential in light of the needs of the organisation.

This definition by Murphy and Pak is a response to the nature of executive work and the ambiguity involved with it which demands individual growth and development to deal with a changing environment. According to Sherwood (1975), executive development is essentially self-development in which the individual involved must assume major responsibility for his/her own development.

Sherwood noted that as executives move up the hierarchy:

*“their duties and responsibilities change; their tasks range far beyond the discipline they learned in college and practised in early days. Oversight of large complex organisations and playing a role in the maintenance of a vital and enduring social and political system demands more than substantive discipline training.”*

According to Murphy and Pak (1979), a successful executive development programme requires the confluence of five factors:

- a) the development of an executive resources planning system for the organisation,
- b) a development programme that is responsive to the needs of the organisation,
- c) a development programme compatible with the needs of the individuals in the organisation,
- d) a clear definition of the nature and objectives of the development programme,
- e) consistent, strong support from top management.

The authors cautioned that, in our environment in which executive development is regarded by key government officials as some kind of “boondoggle”, paid vacation or

waste of time, it is highly unlikely that meaningful executive development programmes can emerge.

Writing about the educational framework at the Federal Executive Institute (FEI), Quigly and Stupak (1975) point out that it nurtured creative tensions by institutional design, clientele selection and educational philosophy. According to these authors, the FEI educational strategy was not one of simply providing information, facts or standard operating procedures. Rather, it provided the federal executive super-grades with a total learning experience.

For providing mentoring to executives, Wolf and Sherwood (1981) identified four kinds of coaching support:

*“(1) Executive role development, in which coaching can help managers and executives experiencing role transition understand the dimensions of the executive role and identify an executive role definition that fits their skills, and at the same time matches the reality of the role context.*

*(2) Executive skill building/self management. Here the coach can impart the skill of self-observation in which the executives pay increased attention to the way they manage interactions and activities during the day.*

*(3) Problem-solving. In this type of coaching the coach supports the executive in talking through problems, pointing out possible blind spots and considering approaches to the new job.*

*(4) Career counselling, or career coaching which attends to the long-term development needs of the executive. The coach can aid individuals to understand their careers, the forces that have shaped them and alternative directions.”*



To provide these kinds of support, Wolf and Sherwood described three methods of coaching:

*“(1) Individual assessment meetings, which involve a mutual review of current pressures, problems and issues facing the executive. This method includes empathetic listening, feedback and mutual problem-solving around issues confronting the executive.*

*(2) Direct observation and feedback, or ‘shadowing’ the executive during a normal working day. Through direct observation and subsequent feedback, a coach can identify how the executive’s time is being spent. The coach and the executive can use the data to compare the kind of role the executive thinks is desired and that which is actually being enacted.*

*(3) Survey feedback with work groups, in which the coach interviews the key subordinates of the executive in order to gain data about behaviours that help or hinder in making a maximum contribution to the organisation. These findings are first discussed with the executive and then later considered in a problem-solving session with subordinates.”*

In advocating the coaching method Yeager (1982) cautioned that it is unrealistic to expect an executive to recognise many of his own needs and skills. He states:

*“The human ego is designed a great deal like the human eye .... An eye cannot see itself seeing. Neither can an ego. It is equally naive to expect to add to a person’s experiences during a few classroom hours .... In this context, it is more useful to think of reorganising the executive’s experience than trying to tell him how he ought to do things.”*

Henderson (1985) conducted a questionnaire survey to investigate the mentoring process. Based on responses from a random sample of senior executives, the study revealed a strong aversion of both mentors and protégés toward an organisational programme that imposed mentor/protégé relationships. According to Henderson, the



response supported the idea of an organisational philosophy which strongly encourages and expects executive mentoring to occur. Henderson concluded that such a climate permits a sort of free market development of harmonious mentor/protégé relationships by providing flexibility of timing, interest and mutual dependability.

It is obvious that the senior executives and managers today do more than strategic planning. They undertake strategic management, which is continuous attention in guiding the activities of the organisation towards achievement of strategic goals. The same executives who plan also implement. Therefore they need both skills and knowledge managerial functions, which their executive development programme offered.

But these executive development approaches also suffer several limitations that make linkages with corporate strategies difficult. William Nelsson (1984) identifies them:

1. These approaches are typically generic - that is all managers are treated as if they have the same problems. This approach is usually most effective for building basic managerial skills.

2. Most management development programmes are designed and implemented by practitioners who have had little experience with the actual operating problems of a specific company. This makes it difficult to build realism into the training.

3. Management development is often treated as something that other people “do” to managers and therefore the executive of the organisation seldom feels ownership of the process.

4. Many executive development programmes are conducted by an outside

contractor entirely away from the firm's environment. When they return to the company, executives typically find that their associates have difficulty relating to the new methods and techniques they are using which they learned from the programme. This makes transfer of learning back to the job extremely difficult, if not impossible.

5. Traditional executive development efforts focus an extraordinary amount of time on executive succession planning. Large databases of existing and potential executive talent are discussed and the development effort is directed at "holes" in a manager's education and experience. This activity deserves some attention, because the time spent on executive succession planning after prejudices the time spent on building executive development skills.

These limitations should be kept in mind while developing executive development programmes for the organisation. If the organisation is not in a position to design and conduct the training programme, then it must select the appropriate programme and agency that is suitable for the executives of that specific organisation and its business sector.

So far, our approach has been based on introducing the notion of management and executive development. To redress the balance and to place the following chapters in context, it is necessary to consider aspects of relationships between training and education in the development process.

### **3.6 Management Development in Practice**

The discussion of the need for, and the nature and objective of, management development indicates at least in a broad sense that management development is a long-

term process which requires extensive planning and is a resource-consuming activity.

Mullins and Aldrich (1988) argue that:

*“A prerequisite for management development is effective manpower planning coupled with procedures for recruitment and selection. A system of performance review will help identify individuals strengths and potential for promotion”*

They further add that the process requires a combination of on-the-job as well as off-the-job training programmes. This section focuses on the practice of management development in organisations. Various activities are related to management development practices in the literature. However the discussion here is confined to the planning, execution and evaluation of management development as an organisation function. In this research management development is defined as all the processes that are carried out by an organisation to ensure a sufficient supply of managerial talent in terms of quality and quantity to meet the requirements of its mission effectively in the present as well as in the future.

Regardless of these activities are conducted either within or outside the organisation, practices can be dealt with under three main headings: management development policy and planning, management training methods, and evaluation of training and development activities.

### **3.6.1 Management Development: Policy and Planning**

The integrated approach to management development discussed earlier stresses the need for the developmental efforts to be based on a clear policy. Furthermore Margerison (1991) believes that management development requires careful planning, deals with the issue of what managing is about and covers everything from recruitment



and selection to career progression.

Mumford (1989) argues that organisations should have some sort of policy concerning management development that reflects their understanding and dedication to the process. However, not all policies necessarily have to be written. Some organisations have established practices and procedures that are informally adhered to by their members. Nonetheless, he suggests a detailed policy which defines the responsibility of the organisation in regard to the development of its members, its belief in the value of management development to both the organisation and the individuals working within it, the provision of basic requirements and essential programmes, and the expectations of the results of the development schemes.

Margerson (1991) sees management development policy as ranging from having people understand how promotion decisions are reached, through what educational and development opportunities exist, to all the issues that usually affect people's development in their job.

Another significant aspect of establishing a management development policy is setting clear articulated and published objectives. An example of a broad objective suggested by Mumford (1989) is:

*“To ensure that executives are developed or recruited and trained in sufficient numbers to sufficient standards to meet the auspices and general management requirements of the group in the short and the long term”.*

Such an objective as a starting point in the management development practice implies a range of basic requirements. It requires a job description which determines a job level and its requirements in terms of knowledge and skills and an appraisal system

which forms, especially over a period of time, an important foundation for management development in its assessment of managerial potential to judge how far the manager might be promotable in the future. It is important here to differentiate between performance appraisal and potential assessment. The former is concerned with the actual achievement, whereas the latter is not related to how the achievement was reached (Vineall, 1991). He argues for “a development list” that should be founded on the results of the previous steps where jobs are divided into three or four levels and an estimated promotability time is set for each individual to reach the next upper level. His proposed system also serves as a training assessment method and helps the policy’s formulation in several ways.

- 1) It focuses and sharpens judgement about potential and serves as a screening shield against any premature potential judgement.

- 2) It provides the raw material for basic planning comparisons of profitable resources and identifies any likely future needs.

- 3) It highlights the training and development needs. Challenging and testing opportunities, which are often in short supply, can then be directed to those on the list.

- 4) The system provides a useful language in which different parts of a large organisation can communicate about the sort of people they want for a certain job (Vineall, 1991).

Before any management development system is initiated, a review, either at a unit or an organisational level, is essential to reflect on the performance appraisal and potential information and to set priorities and plans which guide and assist in any need for recruitment and selection, future training courses etc. This review should cover

several areas such as:

1) organisational planning in terms of production and business plans and any organisational changes such as expansion (e.g. opening new units, acquisition) or contraction (e.g. closing units, selling a branch of business),

2) a review of the senior managers' inventory (e.g. their personal details, performance appraisal, potential),

3) a similar review of those who have been included in the "development lists",

4) a succession planning to meet any vacancies which may arise from a planned or sudden change, and

5) an overall picture of the organisation where a prediction of the future management requirements could be determine from the various review stages.

Individual career planning should be considered as an element in any management development programme. It is essential in determining the individuals' training requirements. Some writers think that the policy should be communicated to all managerial levels. A manager should be made aware of what is available to him in terms of training opportunities as well as future career prospects (e.g. Vineall, 1991; Hibch, 1990; Bennison and Casson, 1984).

To conclude this section one can say that, at the policy and planning stage of the management development, many elements should be explored: organisational planning, job descriptions, managerial resource inventory and succession planning, managerial performance appraisal and potential assessment, development lists, and career planning of present and future managers.



### 3.6.2 Management Development and Organisation Climate

Chabotar and Lad (1974), report:

*“ The eventual success of a training programme depends upon the trainees’ ability to apply their new knowledge, skills, and attitudes to their everyday work experience. Unfortunately, trainees sometimes must later confront indifference or even hostility from fellow employees who did not participate in training. If their agency’s normal operating procedures or personnel are opposed to what trainees learned during training, then the programme’s benefits are likely to be short-term. These ‘intervening’ variables are potential impediments to, or supports for, reaching the goals of training programmes.”*

Assessment of the agency’s organisational climate was therefore, essential before measuring the impact of training programmes upon on-the-job performance of the executives who attend it.

Organisational climate is normally thought of as being what the kind of experiences participants within the organisation have on that organisation. And this very importantly and fundamentally includes how they are deal with their organisations. For example, if the organisation sends participants for training, does it take an account of that by changing their position in the organisation after the training programme; is the organisation willing to send the participants to other training programmes; does the training participants received appear to conflict with what the organisation requires from the participants; and does the organisation allow and support the participants in applying knowledge and skills gained from training?

### 3.6.3 Management Training and Development Methods

The bulk of the literature on the subject covers the techniques and mechanisms used in management development. For instance Huczynski (1983) lists more than 400 methods of management development and training. This vast quantity has misled many observers to see these training methods as synonymous with management development (Storey, 1989).

There is a large number of ways in which learning activities for managers can be divided, some of which are:

on-the-job	v	off-the-job
in-company	v	external
functional (production, finance)	v	general (covering all functions)
concerned with concepts	v	concerned with skills or attitudes or theory
aimed at immediate needs	v	aimed at longer-term needs
of short duration	v	of long duration

Management development activities can be grouped into many categories, as described in the literature (e.g. Mullins, 1988; Keys and Wolfe, 1988; Storey, 1989 and 1990). However, to serve the purpose of this study management training activities are grouped into two main categories, on-the-job and off-the-job (see Table 3.1)

### a) On-the-job Management Training

On-the-job training activities received increased attention in the early nineteen seventies after having focused on production and technical jobs. The activities which are appropriate for managerial levels are as follows.

**Table 3.1 Classification of Management Development and Training Activities**

TRAINING ACTIVITIES	GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS
<p>1 On-the-job</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- coaching and counselling</li> <li>- mentoring, understudy plans</li> <li>- secondment and attachment</li> <li>- job rotation</li> <li>- action learning</li> </ul>	<p>- learning company or job-related skills through doing and observing</p>
<p>2 Off-the-job</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- external</li> <li>- internal</li> </ul>	<p>usually in the class room</p> <p>- learning through participation in learning events in which a variety of training methods are used, whether outside or within the firm</p>

1) Coaching and counselling activities refer to the roles that are undertaken by line managers to develop their subordinates. Coaching is the directed activities of an



experienced manager in developing skills of a less experienced manager by used theoretical and practical knowledge of management. Counselling is a part of coaching activities by discussing mistakes and difficulties with the less experienced managers, and helping them to deal with these difficulties by allowing them to talk about the difficulties. Together the boss and the subordinate manager set developmental tasks and review progress. Thus, the manager and his superior act in a student-tutor relationship while the supervisor is expected to improve the performance of the trainee by discussion, exhortation, encouragement and facilitating understanding (e.g. Verlander, 1986; Novarro, 1986; Mumford, 1987 and 1989). Coaching can provide a useful option where training requirements cannot be met by formal courses. Yet, it is very difficult to measure results. There is a tendency for coaching to be organised by the training department which, although not directly involved in the programme, provides support by selling new ideas for implementation, training the coaches, and helping to monitor progress. Coaching is often followed by counselling, undertaken by a third party specialist and by interviews between boss and subordinate in which, sometimes the help of an external consultant is provided (Novarro, 1986).

Disadvantages of coaching are seen by Mumford (1987 and 1989) to be that supervisors/coaches are encouraged to adopt a non-directive reflective style which is intended to help the manager being coached learn more from his own efforts. This style may come into conflict with the supervisor's everyday style which requires being decisive and getting sub-ordinates to operate in the way he wants them to operate where the later style is directive.

Mumford (1989) believes that many bosses would enjoy giving expert information to junior inexperienced managers, but would find difficulty in pointing out to them their imperfections and weaknesses. Therefore, as he suggests, instead of trying to force all managers into a coaching role, only those whose preferred managerial style is appropriate for an effective coaching relationship with learners should be helped and encouraged.

**2) Mentoring** are similar to coaching, as they consist of appointing a young manager as a protégé. In this scheme, each senior manager, in addition to his regular duties takes a long-term interest in developing a junior manager to prepare him/her for future advancement (e.g. Clutterbuck, 1987; Willbur, 1987; London, 1986; Tack, 1986). This plan has a number of advantages and disadvantages. Its main advantage is that learning takes place in the atmosphere and position in which the manager will be expected to perform (Clutterbuck, 1987). Its main disadvantages are that it discourages others potential promotees and that some superiors might be threatened by potential replacements and keep their knowledge to themselves.

**3) Secondment and attachments (apprenticeships)** both provide opportunities for managers to undertake given tasks outside their actually held jobs. The first technique can help the secondee to learn some aspects and methods of doing work closely related to their own in physically remote environment. The second requires the trainee to accompany a more experienced executive and occasionally take his/her actual roles to learn by doing these roles (Peel, 1992).

**4) Job rotation**, which is also used as an alternative to promotion, provides managers with first-hand experience of their firm's various activities and may



incidentally acquaint them with sectors better suited to their particular abilities. Many organisations have planned rotation programmes according to which managers are moved on a co-ordinated organisation-wide basis. In other organisations where rotation is unplanned, it is regarded as a sign of progress, since staying on one job for too long may impede success in a manager's career.

Margerison (1991) found that keeping a person in a job too long is one of the worst mistakes that can be committed in management development. It is vital that managers develop experience in many functions, early in their career, if they are to move up to senior positions. Senior people must be able to understand the total context of the business and this is best achieved by direct involvement in various functions. One of the results of Margerison's study was the suggestion that, for any person moving into senior levels, three or four years would be an optimum time for any one job.

According to Sayles and Strauss (1981), firms use rotation to develop generalists and to help indoctrinate employees with common perspectives so that they are more homogeneous in their viewpoints and understand one another better. Multinational firms in particular view inter-country rotation as a means for diffusing technological and administrative skills through the organisation. However, given increasing resistance on the part of managers (and their families) to being moved, rotation among communities is declining as a form of management development where it causes disruption to families.

Rotation has both advantages and disadvantages. Some managers find it challenging and exciting, others find it frustrating for themselves and their families. Some departments benefit from new ideas and fresh points of view brought in by an outsider, others suffer in morale and efficiency at the hands of an outside manager



unfamiliar with the special technical and human problems of the situation.

**5) Action learning** is a technique, which applies the principle of “learning by doing”. It was first conceptualised and implemented by Revans (1971 and 1982). He argues that managers above all are men and women of action, and that it is by taking action that they all develop further the necessary skills for their jobs. The method he suggested, and which is central to action-learning, is to organise exchanges so that a manager experienced in one organisation is placed in another to solve a particular set of problems. The trainee works on the other firm’s problems for a given period, having many sessions of discussions and debates with other managers similarly coming from other organisations and facing problems to solve. As the trainee steps towards a solution, he learns in terms of discovering what he needs to know instead of what someone else feels is necessary for him to know.

One of the problems associated with action learning is the reluctance of people already in the job to accept a stranger in their midst, a stranger who is there to advance his own development at, as they might believe, their expense. Furthermore the problem of confidentiality of operations may prevent a firm from participating in action-learning (Torrington and Chapman, 1987).

Revans has effectively dealt with this problem by often using firms of the same ownership, or firms which had no competing interests. Early examples of action-learning were those developed by Revans, notably the Belgium Inter-University project and the Hospital Internal Communication Project (Wieland and Leight, 1971). There have also been some well-publicised programmes, such as General Electric Company (Mansell, 1975), Casey and Preace (1979), as well as a number of books and articles on

action learning (Boddy, 1981; Pedlar, 1986; Mumford, 1987, Kable, 1989) The essence of Revan's "action-learning" notion lies in the principle that management learning does not come simply from books but from doing a job and solving its problems.

As it can be seen from the previous discussion, management training activities vary to a great extent, which enables any organisation to select what is most suitable for its managers, structure, situation and environment in terms of learning. Organisations, as well as trainees, should pay a considerable amount of attention to the potential advantages or disadvantages of these activities in different situations. This holds true also when it comes to selecting the particular training method to be adopted from the extensive range.

#### **b) Off-the-job management training**

Activities which are executed off the job constitute another set of management training and development activities which mainly comprises attendance at various types of management education and training events where participants are emancipated from their work duties. This form of management development can be classified as external and internal or in-house, depending on the agent who assumes the responsibility.

**1) External programmes** are offered to participants from several organisations outside the company by educational establishments, research institutions, commercial agencies, consultancy organisations, professional or course-running organisations.

**2) Internal programmes** are arranged by the company itself for its own employees. Some programmes, whether internal or external can be residential, i.e. offered in hotels, universities or training centres which also provide accommodation.



These programmes offer many advantages because participants get better acquainted and useful exchange of information can take place.

There is a debate going on currently as to which type of training can bring better results. Advantages and disadvantages of each method are reviewed by Graham (1983).

Internal training is supported by those who believe that in-house programmes have the advantage of being designed with reference to specifically diagnosed training needs, and that these programmes can result in more active planning and the implementation of organisational change. Since well-planned internal training can be designed around particular organisational and individual requirements, it is not surprising that almost all experts in organisational development and consultancy are in favour of it.

Internal management training tends to direct itself towards forms of learning that are specific to the organisation. One of its main advantages is that it provides a process by which managers are socialised to display the particular managerial and behavioural styles which fit the needs of their organisations.

External training is mostly supported by educators, universities and management teachers. It is generally acknowledged that the break from daily pressures gives managers an opportunity to re-evaluate both themselves and their performance on the job. There is cross-fertilisation of ideas due to participants coming from different organisations and industries.

External training is not confined to a short course. There is a small but increasing proportion of managers who take leave or are sponsored by their firms to attend a full-time course in management leading to a qualification such as the degree of



M.B.A., which is offered in an increasing place, in the UK (Handy, 1988). However, the role of education is more orientated towards longer-term development of the individuals and is more concerned with the general rather than the specific. Thus transfer of information from the classroom to the job is not the dominant element in general management education. Furthermore, some critics have questioned curriculum content relevancy of the MBA programmes (Van Doren et al., 1986). Mumford (1989) argues that MBA programmes emphasise knowledge, rationality and analytical skills, while “what is needed is a fundamental shift towards reality and effectiveness”.

#### **3.6.4 Evaluation of Results**

Management training is a multi-faceted process which involves many people to carry it out and requires a vast amount of money to be invested. Hence, the potential value and benefit of such a costly endeavour must be proven to the organisation. Therefore, training evaluation is receiving much attention and many different approaches are proposed by various authors (Easterby-Smith, 1994). Nonetheless, this area remains problematic in many respects.

Many researchers believe that it is extremely difficult to evaluate management training owing to a lack of agreement on criteria, the diversity of approaches and complexity of the training process (e.g. Mumford, 1989; Easterby-Smith, 1994). For instance, Mumford (1989:155) stresses the reasons why evaluation is rarely conducted.

These include:

- 1) the absence of clear objectives and standards of achievement for the course,
- 2) lack of interest by line managers, who have not forced trainers to provide clear

statements of benefits achieved,

3) a lack of interest among trainers and educators, who are characteristically more interested in delivering the course than in reviewing the results,

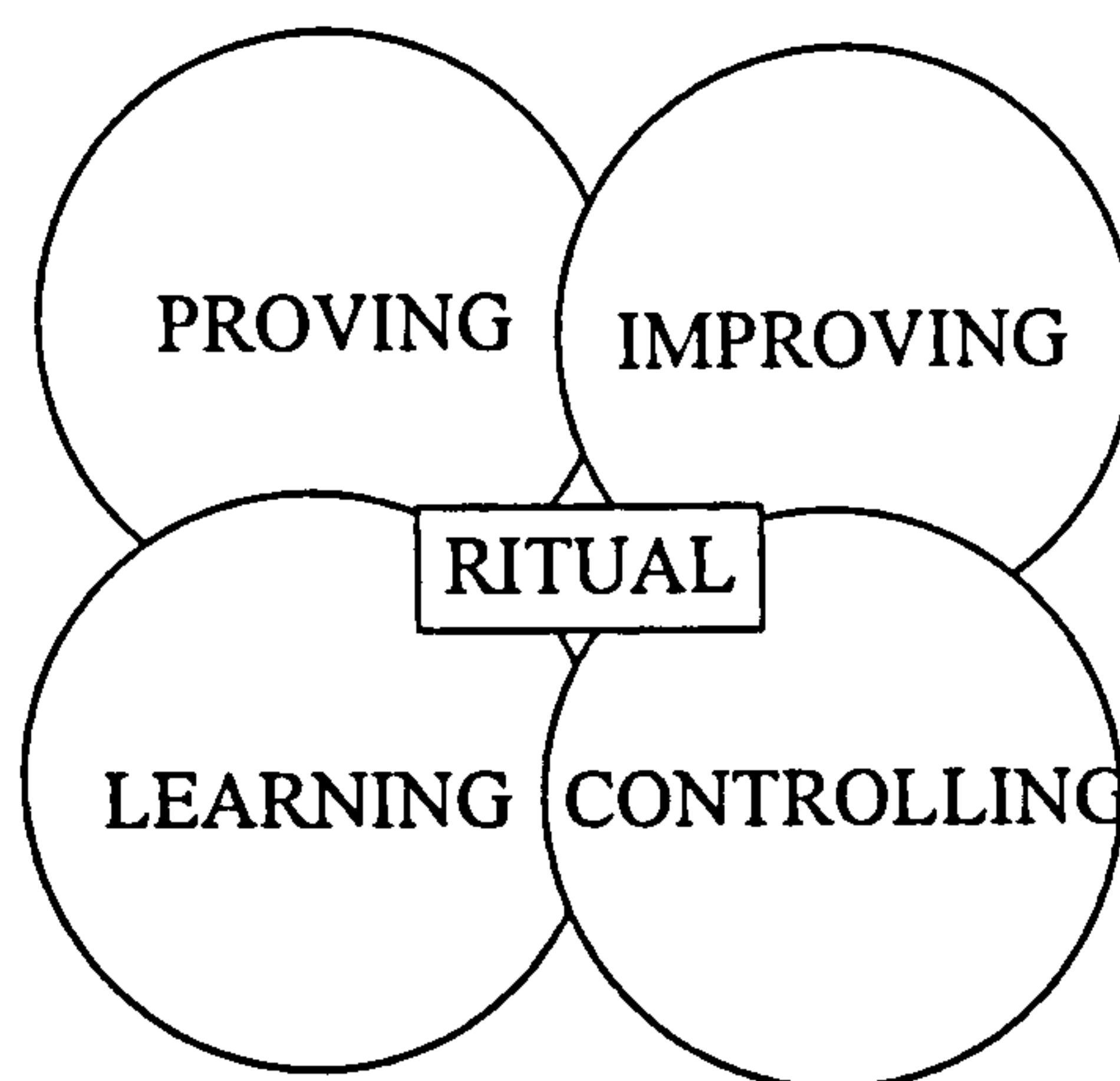
4) the actual difficulty in constructing relevant analytical processes (i.e. evaluation techniques).

Four general purposes of evaluation have been suggested by Easterby-Smith (1994). The first is "*proving*", which emphasises the values and benefits gained from training and developmental activities. The aim is to judge the way an activity is executed and to justify the cost incurred. The second purpose is "*improving*", which stresses future improvement of current programmes. The third is "*learning*", which implies that evaluation should be considered part of a learning experience, since it cannot be easily separated from it. The last aim of the evaluation process is "*controlling*", which refers to the use of evaluation data to ensure that individual trainers as well as training departments are performing to the standards and meeting their targets. These four main aims are illustrated in Figure 3.4.

The four purposes are very broad and cannot be accomplished by a single evaluation process. Therefore organisations have to decide first on the objectives of any assessment effort and to plan evaluation activities accordingly. In other words they have to determine the focus or foci of the evaluation process: whether it will be concerned with context, administration, inputs or outputs. The choice made by the concerned party will drive the data collection media and methods (Easterby-Smith, 1994).

Bramley (1991) argues that, once an objective or a group of objectives are decided, the next phase is to select a suitable approach. He classifies approaches for

**Figure 3.4 Four General Purpose of Evaluation**



Source: *Easterby-Smith (1994), p.15*

training evaluation into five sets according to the purposes to be served. The first group is goal-based evaluation that views training activities as cyclic, where needs are identified and objectives are set. Then the evaluation is directed at measuring the degree to which the objectives are attained. The second set is system evaluation that is concerned to answer questions such as: “What is the targeted population? Is it effective? Is it worth the cost involved?” The third group is goal-free evaluation, which emphasises opinions rather than measuring outcomes. The fourth set is responsive evaluation which attempts to assess the responses of all parties involved: the main client, the organisers, a sample of trainees and their superiors. The last group is sometimes labelled quasi-legal evaluation, which involves a tribunal that includes representatives of organisers, users and accountants to whom evidence of the value of a training experience is submitted for consideration.



### **3.7 The Relationship of Management Development and Management Training**

The realisation by an organisation of the need for managers' development will form the basis of recommendations in respect of their future development. The recommendations, in order to be carried out, call for development action. It is here that training comes forth as a tool of development action on the one hand and its practical manifestation of development on the other. Management training can be looked upon as a method of management development which is what the development action is expected to result in.

Management and executive development is a process which can be achieved not only from university education but also from the trainee's own experiences of public or private organisations. It takes place primarily on the job as mentioned above and in addition to on-going managerial responsibilities.

Manpower and executive training plays a crucial role in that development process because it makes experience more meaningful in practice. As Moulton and Fickel (1993) say:

*“The process of learning and development have been in place since the origins of humankind, and they continue to be central to the survival of institutions. During these final years of the twentieth century change, is increasing at an accelerated pace. That pace of change imposes new imperatives for corporations and executives world-wide to address the increasingly important issues of ensuring the competence of the critical executive resource.”*

The authors further explain the components of executive development by saying that “experience is the best teacher; but that is true only if you truly learn from it, and not only from your own experience, but especially from the experience of others. The

executive classroom can provide the opportunity for both kinds of experiential learning". Both these kinds of experiential learning, experience in the organisation and knowledge learned at training institutions, play a critical role in management development.

While a management development scheme causes the training process to start (through the device of appraisal, which helps in the identification of the needs of individuals) and sustains it through a continuous need-identification process, it also depends for the realisation of its objectives upon the existing training system. In the former respect, the scheme can be seen to activate and infuse a purpose-orientation into the training system by making it need-based. If one views the situation from the latter angle, training, as a development agent, may be regarded as the sustainer and accelerator of the process of management development.

Therefore, not only may training be rendered less meaningful for want of the inputs supplied by the management development scheme, but the reverse is equally true: the lack of an adequate training programme for an organisation may work as a brake on effective management development. It can, therefore, be argued that since such a complementary relationship exists between management development and management training (as an agent of development), then one must support the other to prevent its collapse and must in turn receive a corresponding measure of support from the other for its own sustenance.

In order to explore this relationship, it would seem necessary to introduce the element of time into this discussion. At any point in time, the form it assumes is determined by, and represents, a mutual interaction between a number of forces at work. In terms of a recommended action at a given point of time, there is a corporate decision



where the superiors, managers and training and development experts are involved. It is a series of these development recommendations that determines the pattern of training over the total span of a manager's career or a part thereof.

Depending on the period of time to which a set of recommendations pertains, different considerations weigh in decision-making. For example, when the next job is considered, it is necessary to view an individual's present know-how and attitudes against those which his promotion to the higher job would make it necessary for him to possess. A review of the individual's potential, as well as that of other considerations relevant to promotion, becomes necessary. When development beyond the next job, i.e. over the next few years, is considered, a viable plan of development must, in addition, provide for the updating of the existing skills and knowledge. For the development of new technology, methods and techniques is likely to render them obsolete or inadequate. A consideration of the relatively distant future also invites reference to manpower planning, succession planning, and the organisation's own awareness in terms of identifying new needs and making provisions to meet them. A fresh organisational analysis may also become necessary.

Whatever the considerations that may cause a plan of development to emerge, and whatever the time period over which it extends, it is ultimately through the instrumentality of training that it is translated into meaningful action.

The salient concern of the above discussion has been to show that a particular development decision activates a number of constituents of the management development process at the same time; that particular constituents will be activated is a function of the time to which a decision relates; that other elements of the process are



subservient to the cause of training, which, as indicated earlier, is at once an instrument and a practical manifestation of the development action; and above all, that a comprehensive training system is critical to the success of the overall aims of management development. In fact, it is through managerial and training programmes that development ultimately reaches fruition.

The boundaries between education and training are not at all clear. Some full-time educational courses give vocational training, while many staff in industry pursue further educational studies at the behest of their organisations. Traditionally, education is considered to be the general development of the individual, while training is the preparation for specific employment. This distinction can no longer be maintained, for many of the academic courses of study are being more and more aimed at the employment students will take up on completion, and many organisations concern themselves with the general development of staff and increasing their knowledge. It is perhaps the case that education and training should be continuing right through a person's life, and a boundary is only discernible before and after employment.

However, education and training show some differences. It might be helpful to go through them in simple terms, because management development involves both of them. Training is an activity through which we can expect an increase of knowledge, skills and abilities of individuals who undergo this activity to be fit to accomplish their jobs effectively. Education means an increase in general knowledge and understanding of the environment. It also refers to developing the individual morally and mentally, so that he acquires greater understanding of, and adaptability to, his environment (Jucius, 1973).

Most of the concepts of management training and education refer primarily to college and university educational programmes. No doubt, the university degree is the basic requirement for managers. But also management is a practical and learning-by-action training, and development is a joint responsibility of universities and corporate human resource staff, and executive training packages. As Roger Young, the Director-General of the Institute of Management (IM) said, "Managers receive more training than they did five years ago, but it is not enough to meet the business needs. Every organisation should have a formal training policy concerning the needs of all staff, not just managers. But managers also need to take greater ownership of their own training" (Warr, 1993).

According to an Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) report in 1991, Britain's managers receive an average 8 days training per year which is only 15 minutes for each working day (ESRC, 1991). Moreover, one-third of UK organisations still provides few formal training programmes for their managers. More than 2,000 managers were surveyed. They spent on average five working days a year plus three days of their own time on training programmes. Managers in 83% of the organisations believed that they required training every year. 32% responded that their organisations have more training programmes for managers, but that older managers are receiving less training than their younger colleagues.

The Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) Survey in 1991 stated: "Many managers have little opportunity to undertake training. One third said that their organisations did not have a formal management training policy; one in eight received no training at all, and half admitted they had too little or far too little training. The



survey also revealed a need for not just more, but better, training. While 60 percent of managers rated their most recent training activity as very helpful or a very great help for their current job, 40% showed it as of little, very little, or only some, help.

According to the above recent data, British managers are not getting enough training and career development programmes from their organisation as well as for their own career. But what about the developing countries, which are very different from developed countries like Britain?

There is a need to develop a framework of training programmes for executives and managers every year. This life-time learning helps them to become a more effective manager if they receive continuous training to meet the rapidly changing management environment.

Graham Mole et al (1993) identified the need for executive development in an increasingly global, deregulated and competitiveness commercial environment. This has produced a rash of organisational responses. The solution to the problem of bureaucracy is the delaying of organisational structures, the move to accountable business units, and a focus on quality and customer responsiveness. Such responses have one striking feature in common: they all place an enormous burden on the skills of management. This is the reason for the surge of interest in uncovering, identifying and developing the competencies of management, for it is on these that corporate success depends. Changes in organisational structures all lead in one direction - to "liberate" managers and thus enable them to deploy fully their innate creativity and skills. The development of these skills thus becomes crucial; hence the dramatic increase in management training.

In current literature, the terms "education" and "training" are often used



indiscriminately, and as, Tannehill (1970) has pointed out, this causes much confusion, for training and education differ in four main areas (Kenney et al., 1979):

- 1) the degree to which their objectives can be specified in behavioural terms,
- 2) the time normally needed to achieve these objectives,
- 3) their methods of learning,
- 4) the learning material involved.

Whatever the significance of these differences is, it should not obscure the fact that education and training are both concerned with the development of human potential or talent. They are, as Taylor (1966) stated, complementary aspects of the same process, and it is difficult to imagine any training which does not have some educational effect and vice versa; in short, some of the other exists in each.

Education and training increase the individual's knowledge, skills and abilities. At the same time they change some aspects of personality. More specifically, certain types of training, when applied to developing managers, take the individual out of his organisational role and put him through a process that may change his attitudes (Witaker, 1965), and cause him to be a manipulative rather than a flexible resource within the organisation (Cooper, 1976). However, education in general helps in changing the individual's attitudes, i.e. norms and understanding, while training helps to change the individual behaviour, i.e. in respect of organisational regulations, work values, and safety matters.

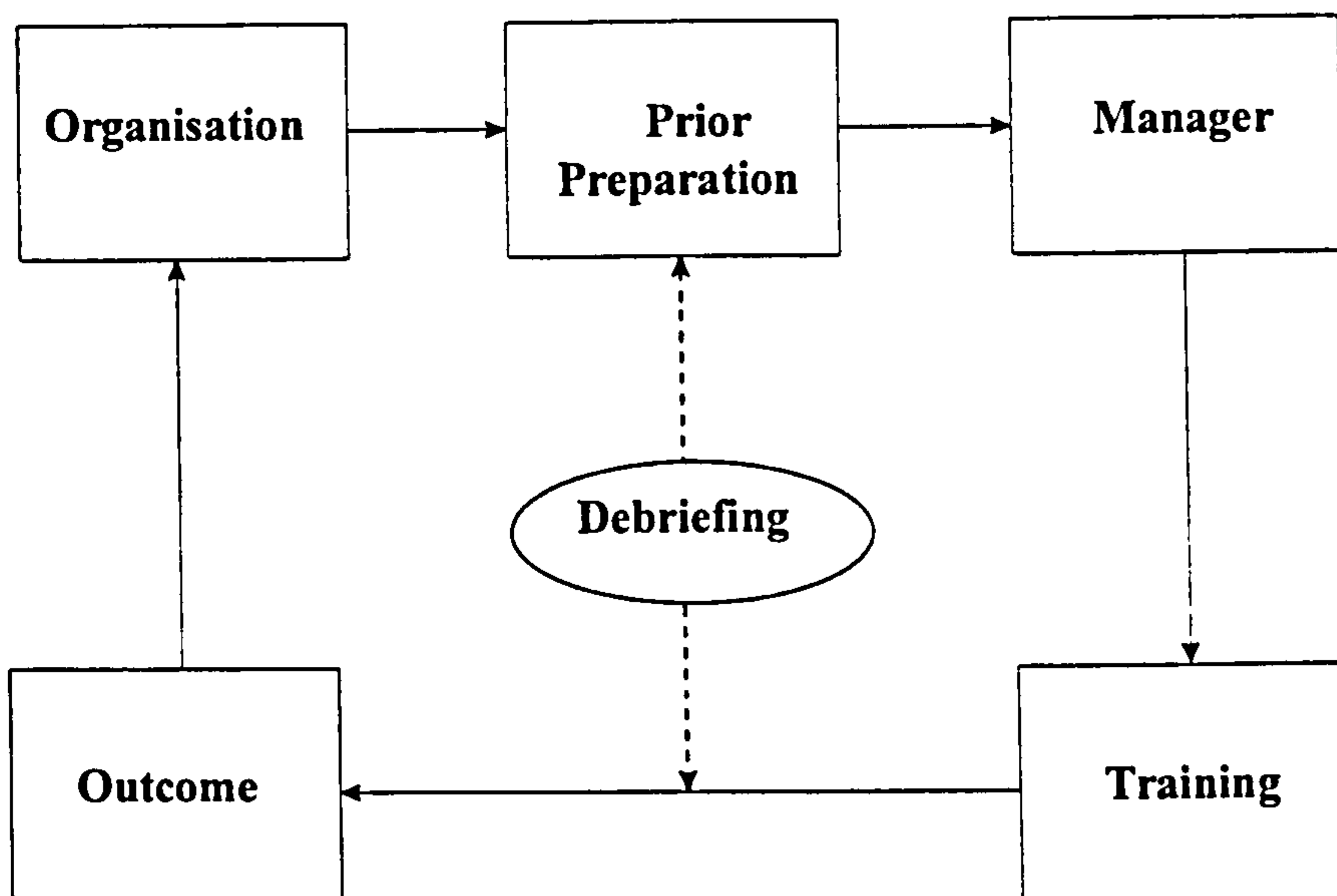
In summary, both management education (training) and development are a planned, systematic and continuing process of learning and growth designed to induce behavioural change in individuals. This is achieved by encouraging or cultivating their

mental abilities and inherent qualities through the acquisition and use of new knowledge, and insights and skills as they are needed for, and apply to, more effective performance of the work of management. Issues in developing countries have been alluded to in this section. However, as this thesis is focused on a developing country, a more systematic investigation of management development in developing countries is called for.

The main objective of this study is to evaluate the outcome of the EDPs undertaken by executives from top management (i.e. General Manager, Deputy General Manager and other Co-General Manager). The researcher investigated in detail the factors which could play vital role in affecting the outcome of the training programmes, such as the nature of the managers who participated in the training programmes, the organisations they work for, managerial experiences, prior preparation for the training programmes. The researcher produced Model (I), which is derived from the literature review. Model (I) in fact explains the main theme of this study, which is concentrated in the following aspects: what the management is; what the managers actually do inside organisations; executive development; the need for and the nature and the objective of management development; the relationship of management development and management training; and what outcomes might be expected from management training programmes.

Given the established literature on management training and the impact of it, the Hypothetical Study Model (I) (Figure 3.5) suggests that the quality and the relevance of the training with other factors e.g. organisation and organisational climate, which the individual come from, were also important. It is the question of whether the individual given prior preparation for training, and if he brief and debrief by his supervisor.

**Figure 3.5 The Hypothetical Study Model (I)**



So there are a range of factors influencing the impact of training and job performance in the outcomes.

There is an agreement that organisation and organisational climate and the support of the superior are key variables that may influence the training outcomes. Also, there is evidence from the literature reviewed that in the absence of prior preparation, management training will always be at a disadvantage and will never be sure of continued support from management. In that respect the quality of training is important, but it is not only the important issue that will influence the outcome of training programmes.



### **3.8 Summary**

The major purposes of this chapter were to introduce the concept of management training and development and to explain attempts at improving managerial performance through management training programmes.

This chapter also reviewed literature on the nature of management and executive development.

The chapter also covers essential aspects of management development practices as they relate to the objective of this study, the planning of this activity, the methods used and finally the evaluation of management training and developmental activities.

In summary, efficient and effective management is an essential vehicle for organisational progress in both the public and private sectors. This calls for management development. As managers and executives are the decision makers in those organisations, they are the leaders and they are responsible for organisational success. They need to enhance their knowledge and skills, keep up-to-date, and change their behaviour according to environmental and situational needs. Therefore, the main objective of this research is to review the managerial development programmes, their efficiency and effectiveness in the Arab world in general, and in Saudi Arabia in particular. However, management training and development programmes in this context cannot be reviewed separately without deep analysis of the societal and cultural impact on management behaviour.

## **Chapter Four**

### **Management Training and Development in Developing Countries: Cultural Issues**

## **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the increasing involvement of developing countries in the field of management training and development as an urgent need for their economics and the societal and cultural effects on management development. This was needed because the availability of high-level managerial manpower is the key to successful implementation of a nation's development programmes. The researcher separates Chapter Four from Chapter Three even though both of them discuss management development because: (1) The management practices in the Arab world are highly influenced by societal values and culture. (2) Management development in the Arab world requires a different model, or specifically tailored programmes, that takes into consideration societal impacts such as family ties, relationships, loyalty to tribe, etc.

In fact, the relationship between culture and management practices has been approached on a basic assumption that management practices are "culture-bound". Therefore, comparative management and cross-cultural management research methodologies have been adopted since the 1950s, mainly in the USA, to discover any forms of interplay between culture and management.

There are other arguments that the broad environmental and culture (e.g. social, educational and legal-administrative) factors have significant influence on management practices in general on and management development in particular.

The Arab management practices are susceptible, at least to some degree, to socio-cultural influences which are derived from two main active components, the nationalistic "Arabic" culture and Islamic value systems. Management development, as



a planned and deliberate function, was seen as a solely the government' responsibility during the 1960s and 1970s. More recently, however, a growing interest among businesses and some professional agencies can be identified.

This chapter will attempt to give a brief overview of management training and development in developing countries, and of the most prominent cross-cultural studies of management which in one way or another clarify the influence of cultural and environmental factors on management development. Then, the major cultural elements in the Arabian world are explored as they relate to management practices. Moreover, management development experiences in the Arab countries are highlighted.

The above discussion asserts the role of culture in shaping managerial and organisational development choice. It could help or hinder, facilitate or falsify, any adoption of any approach depending in its consistency with the heritage of a given societal construction. In other words, if the adopted management development scheme is at odds with the cultural realities it frequently fails to bring about the desired results (Hofstede, 1987).

## **4.2 The Concept of Culture**

Culture has been conceived linguistically to connote two distinct meanings. Firstly, in a narrow sense culture means "civilisation" as an outcome of the mind's refinement. On a broader sense, however, the term "culture" as used by anthropologists means the shared set or sets of values and attitudes that shape, to some degree, the behaviour of people in a certain society (see Weinshall, 1977; Tayeb, 1988; Hofstede, 1987; Evans, 1975; Child and Kieser, 1977) among many others.

Similarly Hofstede (1991: 5) used the analogy of the computer system to explain the meaning of culture and defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another”.

It should be noted here that these common features of community members are learned through their life within what one could call the “hardware” of culture. This refers to the societal environment in which individuals grow up, attain their life experiences and assimilate their social interactions.

The boundaries of culture are very abstract, and it is hard to define how to locate an individual within one culture. The difficulty stems from the fact that any one person might belong to a number of different cultures at the same time (Hofstede, 1991). He argues that the following are examples of cultural levels:

- 1) A national level according to one’s country.
- 2) A regional and/or, ethnic and/or religious, and/or linguistic affiliation level.
- 3) A gender level, according to whether a person was born as a girl or a boy.
- 4) A generation level, which separates grandparents from parents, from children.
- 5) Social class level, associated with educational opportunities and with a person’s occupation or profession, and
- 6) Organisational or corporate level, according to the way employees have been socialised by their work organisation (p. 10).

The scope of cultures is seen to include groups and institutions with which the organisation in focus has exchanged relationships (Pennings, 1975). In other words, the country’s stage of development, where a study is conducted, should be elucidated and

the related economic, legal-administrative and educational factors should be illuminated because it has been suggested that they have a degree of influence on management practices (e.g. Negandi, 1983, 1985; Nath, 1988). Recently, Bugra (1990) has pointed out that socio-cultural and political factors are also crucial for an adequate analysis of the influence of culture on management.

Therefore, economic, political, educational and legal-administrative elements are considered in this study because they are believed to be, explicitly or implicitly, influential in shaping management practices. According to the existing literature, planning, policy making and controls are affected by economic and political conditions. Training and development budgets confront serious problem during economic difficulties (Harrison, 1989). Political unrest creates an unfavourable atmosphere for formulating specific policies for managerial development. Survival of the business takes priority over developmental policy-making.

Educational levels of managers assist in widening their creativity and imagination to deal with even complicated environments. Also, availability of educational institutions that provide managers with more specialised knowledge of management and supply them with the essential managerial skills in the form of managerial training. In general, managerial receptivity to change seems to correspond to managers' level of education.

The legal system usually decides the form of relationship between organisations and their employees. Specifically, in developing countries, and Saudi Arabia is an example, employment laws are enacted to regulate many personnel processes, and the training and development of nationals are imposed by laws. In a situation where



expatriates are required, their contract conditions are subject to governmental approval. The legal system is, therefore, considered as a main element within the environment.

From the above discussion, culture appears to play a significant role in human behaviour and perceptions. But culture is not characteristic of individuals, it encompasses a number of shared national, regional and ethical conditions among many (e.g. religion, customs and traditions, education, etc.) which distinguish a member of one group from another in terms of behaviour.

In fact, many other factors have contributed, in one way or another, to the huge interest in cross-cultural study of management and no single research could cover all of these variables, but some examples may help.

Firstly, the emergence of international and multinational organisations with trade and operations across national borders have raised many questions, such as whether or not domestic and foreign operations should be managed in the same way. This point of view has called on international managers to gain a good grasp of local cultures (Payson and Rosen, 1991).

Secondly, the success of Japan in the past few decades, has encouraged many researchers to try to uncover the secret behind the Japanese prosperity and to assess whether Japan's distinctive culture accounts for this success (Tayeb, 1988; Pascale and Athos, 1982).

Thirdly, the recent development in communication and transportation, i.e. the means and ways which brought the world to be considered as a "global village", has dictated that any business person needs to understand the logic behind different business practices in different cultures.

Fourth, the end of the Cold War between the East and the West blocks and the democratisation and openness of formerly Communist societies have opened new opportunities and new cultural challenges to managers on both sides and require them to have a reasonable knowledge of the new situations.

Fifth, the failure of many management development programmes has been blamed on misunderstanding or ignoring local realities (Kelly, 1987). In fact, a vital impediment to the transferability of management concepts to different nations, regardless of the development stage of their economies, is the failure to take into account local economic, social, culture and historical conditions (Hofstede, 1983a and 1983b).

The basic emphasis in cross-cultural management research is to evaluate the impact that cultures have on individual behaviour in the workplace which stems from their value systems (Alder, 1983). That is, people of various backgrounds have different perceptions of their roles within their organisations and, in turn, these perceptions shape their behaviour (Hortum and Muller, 1989).

For example, in the United States, education is perceived to be significant in all aspects of life. Thus, 85% of their top managers hold a university degree; management is considered to be a quasi-profession. A quarter of postgraduates are seeking an MBA degree. Many large corporations created their own “corporate college”, e.g. Hamburger University, Motorola University, etc., and university training programmes are extensively attended by executives.

For the Japanese, both education and on-the-job training “apprenticeship” correspond to their traditions of lifetime employment commitment, especially in large firms, and seniority is a major promotion criterion.

The French culture has two main characteristics, “rationalism and legalism”, that have some bearing on their approach to management development. Legally, French corporations are required to spend 1.2% of their payroll on training, to have development plans for their work force, and to produce annual reports on their training activities. Therefore, specialist managers are noticeable in France, although some recent changes towards general knowledge of managers are gathering momentum.

In Germany, functional training “apprenticeship” precede specialised long education, mostly in pure or applied science, because humanities are not viewed to be relevant to management. This long process resulted in the dominance of specialist managers and in most well-educated Germans entering employment only at an average of 27 years. The story of the president of Mercedes-Benz who retired on May 1993 is an example of the German management development traditions. “Mr Mercedes”, as they call him within the company, joined the firm in 1943 as a mechanic and climbed his way up to the organisation’s summit, reaching the presidency in 1989 (Al-Watan daily, 1993).

The British have different traditions and have a culture of their own. Traditionally, management has been seen as a low status function related to service jobs rather than an active role at the top of the organisation. Furthermore, it was viewed more as a practical art than as applied science. As a result of such attitudes, management development was merely left to experience to distinguish between



effective and ineffective managers. In the British tradition “character, initiative, energy and imagination” factors outweighed educational qualifications in gaining promotion to managerial positions. Nonetheless, a gradual change is taking place in Britain towards management’s role and quality in recent years. A mixture of the Japanese, the American and the French patterns of management development has been adopted by many British businesses (e.g. early recruitment with a mixture of training and experience the Japanese way, elite recruitment with little or no training provision as in the French approach, and the American method with formal education and training for managers and would-be managers) (Handy et al, 1988).

Evans (1990: 46) summarises the patterns of some management development experience in different cultures in the following statements:

*“Strategies for developing managers vary widely between different cultures and countries. In Germany, functional specialisation is the norm, while generalism dominates in the UK, and north America. Japanese companies typically believe that it takes four years to do a job well, whilst western high-fliers are expected to hold 10 jobs before they are 40.”*

In the developing countries the need is even greater for management development since the success of their economies depend on the effectiveness of their management (Margerison, 1991). He further argues that the real test for management development is to cope with local cultural problems and to deliver the right types of managers who would be able to transform the living standards of their communities.

### **4.3 Management Training and Development in Developing Countries**

During the last thirty years the history of management training and development in developing countries was marked by initially slow but recently accelerated growth of a vast number of institutions and programmes. This included governmental and private management training units of consultancy firms, university-based departments and institutes, faculties and business schools, in-company training departments, and a number of other organisations and establishments engaged, full- or part-time, in management development and training, and in the promotion of new management concepts and methods. (Siffin, 1978). This growth of the number of institutions and programmes brought about proliferation of concepts, approaches and methods of training.

In the last twenty years, management training and development have made a considerable step forward in the developing countries. Increasing awareness of the management gap caused governments in a number of developing countries to establish central institutions for the training of nationals for managerial jobs.

In addition to this, some universities, colleges, and a number of institutes of public administration have also entered the field of management development. In-company programmes were started by some multi-national corporations operating in developing countries, and in certain cases by nationally-owned enterprises (Kubar, 1974). Technical co-operation has contributed to this, in that most national centres for management training and development in developing countries have been assisted, in their initial phases of operation, by the United Nations Development Programmes

(UNDP), and the Management Development Programme of International Labour Office (ILO).

The challenge of training and developing managers for public sector responsibilities confronts most nations, including those that are economically the most advanced. As governments increasingly assume responsibility for an ever-broadening array of functions that were formerly either performed by the private sector or not performed at all, fundamental problems of adequate management and accountability arise.

Problems of management are especially acute in many of the developing countries that are confronted, on the one hand, with inadequate institutional structures, large and unwieldy civil services, poorly developed educational institutions, and all too frequently unstable political arrangements, and on the other hand with ever-expanding national control of their economic and social systems. Indeed, practically every serious study agrees with the conclusion that the complex of problems confronting nations in an increasingly interdependent world will place increasing pressures on the developing countries, and on those individuals and institutions concerned with policy-making, management, and administration. Throughout the developing countries, the existing models for education and training that fall under the broad rubric of management are Western in their origin.

Since World War II, under the input of liberal thought in developing countries, the threat of revolutionary movements and the impatient demands of aspiring groups in developing countries, have all precipitated a massive and quite unprecedented effort by international agencies, individual countries, and a great many academic institutions and



individuals to transform the political, economic and social environment of less developed countries.

Although the limelight in developing this effort has fallen mainly upon central planning strategies for economic growth, much effort and attention have been devoted to developing administrative capability (Stone, 1974), without which it was realised that all other efforts would fail. To accomplish this, in the mid-1970s there were many institutions and schools of public administration operating in both developed and developing countries, and some thousands of academic and professional training offices devoted their efforts to providing these administrative capabilities.

The increasing political and economic importance of most of the developing countries carries with it renewed interest in their development capabilities and problems. This occurs because internal economic, political and social conditions are directly relevant to the issue of stability and peace in these countries. Questions as to the degree to which governments in developing countries are able to modernise and transfer their economies on an acceptable social basis and within a relatively short period of time become permanent.

One of the vehicles through which governments in developing countries implement their national development plans are public organisations, as we saw in the previous chapter. Saudi Arabia is amongst these countries. In the post-independence era, public organisations in developing countries have grown substantially in numbers, variety, and complexity of scale of operations, encompassing infrastructure, industrial, agricultural and commercial sectors (Awaloedin, 1969). However, the functioning of these public organisations has been plagued by serious management, organisational and

environmental problems. Major reforms are necessary so that whatever the motivations and circumstances of their establishment may have been, their improved performance may contribute to the nation's development. One of the reforms suggested here is the development of managers, to make them effective as people, as managers, as members of their organisations, and citizens of their countries (Awaloedin, 1969), because one of the critical development factors has been, and continues to be, the shortage of able and appropriately trained and educated management manpower resources.

The success of advances in agriculture, education, industry or administration, depends on the emergence of skilled administrators, competent managers, trained technicians and a skilled work-force. A considerable amount of effort and resources, both financial and human, have been expended over the past few years to develop, improve and enhance the management capabilities of manpower at all levels in developing countries (World Bank, 1980).

National, international and regional organisations, acting individually or in concert, have addressed this most important and fundamental task, i.e. the preparation of effective management resources to implement the economic and social evolution of developing countries. For example, a relatively extensive number of institutions have been created throughout the Arab world. Virtually all Arab countries have established Institutions of Public Administration, often with the assistance of the United Nations and other international agencies (Roy, 1978).

The success of management education and training efforts in developing countries has not always been readily apparent. There is frequent debate on their value and direct or indirect relationship to the increasing pace of development. There are



academics and practitioners alike who contend that management training leads to no substantial improvement in management performance. This is also supported by rigorous evaluation carried out by Mohamed (1984) on a Young Executives Programme in Sudan. Those who might in principle agree with this observation, point out that fault does not necessarily lie with the concept of training or education *per se*, but with the methods, materials, and training approaches incorporated therein (Engelbert, 1964; Fletcher, 1963).

Training organisations, training programmes, degree-offering universities and management programmes have been developed, and they are turning out sizeable numbers of graduates. Roy (1978) argues that the most fruitful discussion is one that deals with their product and the degree to which one might conclude that there have been improvements in the management manpower situations in the developing countries.

The urgent need for managers as perceived by outsiders, is not completely felt by many leaders of the developing countries themselves. The leaders are occupied with complex problems of social and economic betterment, and sometimes also with critical problems of political stability. The people and leaders of the developing countries would like to improve the standard of living and develop a system of social security along with a strong military establishment, all together in a very short time. It can be understood, then, why the role of the machinery and of managers to fulfil aspirations is often not taken into consideration.

In some developing countries, including Saudi Arabia, after more than thirty years of development and through hard lessons of experience, leaders have begun to take the initiative or at least to support management development and overall administrative



reform programmes. Roy (1978) stated that most government leaders in the Arab world regard management as their most pressing problem, whether one is referring to formulation of development plans, plan implementation, and industrial and/or agricultural development. The problem, however, is that of devising and launching a massive management programme. The main purpose of management training and development is, of course, to produce knowledgeable and skilled managers who are creative, full of initiative, and able to bring their organisations to a higher level of prestige and productivity, while at the same time improving the job satisfaction of employees.

In developing countries it is not enough to have managers who are only knowledgeable in modern techniques of business management: they must also be capable of implementing these techniques under currently adverse conditions. Therefore managers should have leadership talent, sensitivity toward the social, political and economic environment, and an understanding of the substantive area of their organisations.

For historical and political reasons, and for reasons of availability, in many of the developing countries, managerial personnel for the newly established government organisations have been funded from the civil service sectors. This has been both a help and a hindrance. Some countries, India for example, as Bharabdwaj (1975) states, become aware of the limitation of such a strategy for staffing managerial positions in public sector organisations, and have been taking corrective steps by trying to install the professional manager in place of the careerist public administrator.

The depth of concern of many developing countries with respect to their management difficulties demonstrates rather decisively that public administration is an important aspect, and that the various national organisations required to perform increasingly complex and comprehensive tasks must be improved. As one would expect, the practice of public administration falls short of that observable in the more developed countries. Leaders in developing countries, and particularly in the Arab world (Roy, 1978), are aware of these shortcomings around them, and this usually takes the form of broad sweeping programmes of administrative reforms involving education and training by institutes, universities and other resources, attaching high priority to administrative improvement to bring about change.

Hoyle (1974) and Roy (1978) have referred to some main problems concerning training and development efforts in developing countries, a summary of which includes the following:

- 1) There seems to be insufficient conscious concern about priorities among training and education activities, in that they have not been adequately related to manpower and human resources planning.

- 2) Training and degree curricula are often traditional and rigid, with little evidence of effort to innovate and adapt courses to local conditions and circumstances.

- 3) The institutions' basic reliance is on courses, with little effort directed toward continuing education or relationships between work experience and training efforts.

- 4) At any level, except that of specific routinised skills, there are understandable doubts as to the value of experiences gained by trainees. Evaluation is rare, and there have been only limited efforts in this direction.

5) Training tools, which consist of training materials and methodology, are many and varied. But the crucial point is to make a good choice depending on the identified needs. Methods must be practice-oriented, and must be selected with the trainees in mind.

6) There is less evidence of research and consultation than of training and little effort to integrate such activities with training. This has a definite impact on the relevance of teaching materials, since it is from such activities that practical cases and observations might be drawn.

The range of government activities carried out in developing countries suggests the need for complex and diverse managerial inputs. Management training must be fashioned to meet such requirements, with the recognition of functions that are unique to a particular sector and those are common to all sectors.

Having established this perspective, we must accept the fact that it is the large organisations which dominate our lives in government and industry, and it is these organisations which are influencing contemporary developments in education and training, for their needs have become predominant if not overwhelming. To make a career, the future senior members of these organisations must be well equipped intellectually and they must be sensitive to developments in national and international affairs. Moreover, participation in such organisations requires development and understanding in the environmental aspects in order for the senior manager to be able to:

- 1) see his role in his organisation in relation to its main objectives and its total environment,

- 2) understand the implications of his organisation, of government policies, and of



the changing domestic and international situations,

3) evaluate his own experience and attitudes against those of people in similar situations,

4) appreciate the particular responsibilities and problems of top management.

In the light of the above discussion the current realities of management training and development in developing countries call for a brief review. Published literature on the subject is meagre, as there have been few attempts at systematic documentation. Although a start towards management development has been made in most developing countries, in some progress is inadequate and uneven. The effort has been disproportionately greater in the politically sensitive regions of south west Asia.

Generally speaking, the pattern of management development in most of the developing countries, according to Bharadwaj (1975), is as follows :

1) The government of a country becomes aware of the managerial manpower requirements for development, and initiates institutions and programmes in management training and development.

2) Advice and aid are sought from international agencies and management institutions abroad.

3) Practising and potential teachers are sent abroad for training. Managers are also sent abroad for training until local institutions develop.

4) Institutions for management development and training are set up locally, either within the framework of the existing universities or as autonomous organisations wholly or partly sponsored by the government.

5) As industrialisation progresses, other professional agencies, such as management associations, productivity councils, begin to emerge and help design and conduct training programmes.

6) Industrial organisations become interested in training and developing their personnel, whatever their level in the hierarchy.

7) Management consultation and research activity emerges and becomes linked with management training and education. Professional literature, including books and journals, begins to appear and gather momentum.

After management training and development come of age in a developing country like Saudi Arabia, doubts and questions begin. Problems of evaluating the activity attract attention. Issues are raised in terms of relevance, utility, coverage, content, methodology and techniques. A thorough review will take place. Modifications to the systems of management development and national culture and the Saudi situation are outlined in the following section.

#### **4.4 Perspectives on the Management Situation in the Arab World**

In light of previous conceptualisation of culture as the software of the mind and given the fact that the present so-called “Arab world” consists of more than 21 politically independent states, it seems appropriate for an outsider to dispute whether there is in fact something called “Arab culture”. Yet, it has been acknowledged that the Arabs are more homogeneous in their perception of life than Europeans are (Nydell, 1987). She further argues that:

*“All Arabs share the same basic beliefs and values which cross national or social class boundaries. Social attitudes have remained relatively constant because*

*Arab Society is conservative and demands conformity from its members. Their beliefs are influenced by Islam even if they are non-Muslim and the family structure is essentially the same and they have high regard for tradition."*

The above quotation emphasises that the roots of the common features among Arab countries stemmed from two main forces, Islam and Arab traditions. Thus, it is of prime significance to become familiar with such a complex culture through a clear understanding of its main elements, i.e. Islam and Arab tradition.

Religions, in general, are considered to be specific systems of belief, worship, conduct, etc., often involving a code of ethics and a philosophy. However, Islam is also a social order and a way of life which aims at producing a unique personality and a distinct culture for the society (e.g. Esposito, 1991; Ahmed, 1987; Maududi, 1980, Haneef, 1979; Toynbee, 1961; Kroeber, 1952).

Islam is basically founded on confessing to the Oneness of God, "Allah", and his divisible sovereignty of the Universe. Other prime beliefs in the Islamic faith are the beliefs in the Angels, in the Revealed Scriptures, in the Prophets of Allah starting from Adam, in the Day of Judgement, and in the Divine Decree. In addition to these tenets there are the five ritual and spiritual acts of worshipping, the "pillars of Islam" (i.e. Declaration of Faith, the Five Prayers, Fasting during the month of Ramadan, Almsgiving, and Pilgrimage to Makka).

A closer look for each of these elements of Islam could elucidate its impact on Muslim life. For instance, the acknowledgement of God Oneness, Power and Control over the Universe should lead to the belief that God controls all events and, therefore, Muslims must count on him. However, it has led instead to "fatalism". Praying five



times should teach Muslims to be decent in their relationships, to be organised in their daily lives and to fulfil their duties promptly. The philosophy behind fasting goes beyond its known mission in other faiths as a means of appeasing God's wrath to self-discipline as well as cultivating kindness and sympathy with the poor. Finally, pilgrimage symbolises purity and equality of all people before God, regardless of their colour, race or social status.

Characterised by an uncompromising belief, Islam has had a significant impact on the structure of the moral, cultural, political and economical system of the world in a relatively short period of time (Esposito, 1991). In the words of Toynbee (1961: 461):

*“Buddhism did not make political impact on the world on a grand scale until about two hundred years, and the Christianity not until about three hundred years, after the founder's day. Islam made a comparable impact during the founder's own life-time and its political fortunes were made by the founder himself.”*

Furthermore, Kroeber (1952: 381) in his book, “The Nature of Culture”, in a response to an earlier writing of Toynbee argued that:

*“It (Islam) manifests unusual cohesiveness and uniformity in spite of its vast spread and it possesses not only a “universal” idea system of church to speak to Toynbee, but also a universal language and writing in Arabic. Yet Islam lacks some of the most significant features of other great civilisations.”*

The “Shariah”, the divine law of Islam, governs Muslims' relationships at all levels, from interpersonal to international. According to Hitti (1970), this law is comprehensive, accurate and suits all men at all times in all places. This law covers in minute detail all the aspects of life of the citizens of the Islamic State regardless of their faith. Weekes (1978) described the inclusive nature of Islam, that it has comprehensive

laws that cover almost all human activities, whether it is personal or interpersonal. It regulates the state's affairs and relationships with its citizens as well as with another political entity.

This law is derived from four main sources (i.e. Quran, Sunnah, Quiyas and Ijma). Quran is the book of God that was revealed to the Prophet Mohammed. Sunnah is the sayings and practices of the Prophet. Quiyas is the analogical reasoning by religious scholars to confront new situations in the Muslim societies. Ijma refers to the consensus of the jurists.

Furthermore, historically families, clans and tribes had played a protective role in Arab society, which gives it the present importance in the social structure. Furthermore, Islam has proclaimed family as the basis of the entire socio-cultural system and a self-sustaining mechanism to ensure social, ideological and cultural stability over the span of society on the one hand and, in time, past, present and future, on the other (Ahmad, 1987).

The family as a social institution is undoubtedly the most fundamental and the most important feature of Arab society (Patai, 1973). Arab societies are built around the extended family system and loyalty and obligations to it supersede loyalty to friends and the demands of the job (Nydell, 1987).

Relatives are expected to help one another by all means, including financial assistance, if required, or getting a job or promotion through social relationships. Therefore, family support is indispensable and is considered to be the ultimate refuge of its members. Responsibility for other members of the family is with the older sons of that family. Respecting one's elders is a remarkable value in Arab culture, and their



word should not be challenged.

Arab management, therefore, has been viewed to be influenced almost at all levels by its environment. Hence many have argued against the transference of the Western concepts and models of management into Arab culture. For example, Kassem (1989: 17, 18) contests that:

*“Unlike many corporate managers in the West, Gulf Arabs are traders by tradition. They typically rely on market instincts, not on hard data. This “trading mentality” is focused on the short term. A streak of fatalism may also creep into this mind set. Moreover, Gulf Arabs tend to be traditionalists at heart. They idealise the past and distrust the future. They prefer the tried and true to the untried.”*

On the same way Al-Faleh (1987) affirms the cultural weight on Arab managerial thinking and behaviour. A survey of the literature on Arab management, although not abundant, indicates some distinctive features in all the aspects of management, especially in the following domains.

Islam, as a broad moral frame of reference, the Arab social relations system, as well as the economical and political realities in the Arab countries are believed to have some effects on management practices. Here are some examples.

Long-range planning orientations of the Arabs managers are culturally and environmentally-bound. Thus they do not apply “Western” criteria in formulating their organisational strategies. Hofstede (1980) indicated that Arabs are high on uncertainty avoidance, i.e. this is feeling threatened by uncertainty, desire to minimise ambiguity, providing life time employment, rejection of a deviant ideas or behaviour and belief in absolute truth. Kassem (1989) concluded from a study carried out in the Arabian Gulf region that the preponderance of reactive planning styles in the surveyed organisations



is due to both environmental as well as cultural forces, namely, the high dependence of the region's economies on a fluctuating international oil market, and secrecy about information at the environmental level. On the cultural side, he perceived that the typical trading traditions (e.g. dependence on intuition, not hard data, and short-term focus), reliance on expatriate technical expertise, and, to some degree, the involvement of "fatalism" (i.e. only God knows the future).

Ali (1989) found that the dominant decision style among Arabian managers in the Gulf region was a consultative one, in accordance with previous researchers findings (e.g. Muna, 1980, Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983, Al-Faleh, 1987). Al-Faleh (1987) observes that the consultation process is done on a person-to-person basis and through an informal and unstructured manager, and that decision-making is avoided, if possible, and could be negotiable at a later time.

However, Ali (1989) maintains that the participative style is emerging and becoming valued in the Gulf region, especially by those who work within foreign companies.

All the above researchers have related the consultative style to cultural elements, specifically the Islamic and tribal values and beliefs which are rooted in that part of the world.

The evident authoritarian management style in some Arab countries also has been reported by some researchers to be derived from the environmental context (e.g. Al-Faleh, 1987; Ali, 1989). These researchers, among others, have affirmed that Arab managers favour a traditional approach to management, which is, to a large extent, a natural outcome of the prevalent social value system.

As far as Arabs' work value and commitment are concerned, the limited number of researches which applied comparative methods have confirmed the roles of social values and general environment in shaping both the work values and commitment of the individual. According to Badr, Gray and Kedia (1982), Muna (1980), Al-Faleh (1987), Al-Meer (1989), Attwajri (1989) Aboznaid (1990), and Malaika (1993), the cultural impact on Arabs' work values and commitment is manifest and perceptible.

Muna (1980) concluded that Arab executives are more person-orientated than work-orientated and that they are susceptible to various pressures from families, friends, relatives, and the wider community. These pressures influence managers' thinking, their decisions and the behaviour and practices.

Al-Meer (1989) applied a comparative approach in examining the patterns of organisational commitment of Westerners, Asians and Saudis working in Saudi Arabia. His findings indicated that the political, economical, legal-administrative factors at the original country level and the religious, cultural and personal qualifications and background at the individual level are fundamental determinants of the commitment norms of the workers at all levels. Specifically, the Asians were found to be more committed to their jobs than both the Saudi and Westerners were. Three explanations were given by the researcher for this conclusion. The first is that the Saudis enjoy a legal advantage that gives them employment priority over expatriates; the social relations support and enhance their chances; and the massive training and educational opportunities which recently were made available to them by the government and its agencies, assisted by the huge national income and the vast private business chances opened for them, have negatively related to their organisational commitments. The



second is that Asians mostly come from relatively poor countries where jobs are very scarce and, if they found, the financial incentives are miserable. Most of them are Muslims who believe that being in Saudi Arabia is a good chance to visit the holy shrines of Islam. Finally, Westerners are well-qualified people who were attracted by abundant financial incentives. They see no obstacle in their way to find another job elsewhere.

Malaika (1993) investigated management characteristics and the differences between Saudi and Western managers in their styles and management practices and also the underlying causes of ineffective management and ineffective organisational context and systems in Saudi Arabia. He found that most Saudi managers lack effective skills and relevant knowledge. They were autocratic, exhibiting an authoritarian style, for their personal interests, yet demonstrating “people concern” for keeping subordinates happy. By contrast Western managers were high short-term task-orientation, with low people-concern, but were strongly influenced by the Saudi Arabian environment.

On the contrary, Abozaid (1990) found that Arab managers on the West Bank viewed faithfulness and commitment to work to be the traits of successful managers.

In light of the previous discussion of Arab management characteristics, one might argue that many variations exist between Western and Arab practices of, and approaches to, management that could be related to social differences. Yet the need for management development, at least in a general sense, is of world-wide urgency.

This notwithstanding, in the Arab world, including Saudi Arabia, the needs are immense and more acute owing to the fact that Arab countries are developing countries with special needs. In these developing economies, management development activities



are conceived as a vital part in the overall development process. Murrell (1984), for instance, pointed out that training and development are essential to the developing countries to accomplish the following goals:

- 1) Human development (managerial, technical and educational).
- 2) Local management of transfers of technology.
- 3) Building a self-sufficient managerial infrastructure.
- 4) Increasing planning skills.
- 5) Appropriate industrialisation, using local manpower.
- 6) Any development where new skills, attitudes, or increased knowledge is important.

The majority of the literature available on Arab experiences with management development has echoed the above argument with special emphasis on the public administration reform and development (e.g. Abushakha, 1987; Muna, 1987; Al-Faleh, 1987; Al-Tayeb, 1989; Al-Hamoud, 1989; Saaduldin, 1989; Malaika, 1993). Nonetheless, these attempts do not yield satisfactory results. "They were short of achieving their aims and contained a lot of mishaps that controlled the administrative performance... and also delayed the planned socio-economic development" (Abushakha, 1987). The reasons behind this failure were blamed on some environmental and cultural factors at the national, the organisational and the individual levels.

The main hindrances to management development can be associated with local environmental and cultural realities. These constraints can be located at three levels according to the writings of some specialists (e.g. Ahmad, 1987; Al-Qubaisi, 1984; Al-Faleh, 1987; Shiaban, 1987; Muna, 1987; Salim, 1989; Malaika, 1993).

At the national level, in spite of the fact that a well-trained work force has been considered to be a crucial element in and a prerequisite for the overall developmental course of actions, a comprehensive perspective on management development is lacking. Some think of it as training undertakings, whilst others view it as managerial systems and work procedures that could be borrowed from more advanced nations. This attitude is seen to be a natural result in a society going through fast transition where material and economic developments outrun the social and cultural evolution (Ahmad, 1987).

In response to the general characteristics of Arab management and the mission attached to management development in relation to the overall development of the economies of Arab countries, many arguments have been made calling for management development ideas, techniques and approaches to be integrated with, and to reflect, Arab cultural values and beliefs if any progress could be achieved (e.g. Muna, 1980 and 1987; Al-Qubaisi, 1984; Al-Faleh, 1987).

Muna (1980) has spotted areas of dissimilarity in management styles and practices that are culture-specific and has questioned the applicability of some Western managerial measures to the Arab context. The first is inappropriateness of joint-decision-making in Arab management because it could be viewed as a sign of weakness on the part of the manager by his employees. Arab managers prefer consultative decision-making style over participation, and team-work seems not to be easily endorsed by Arab managers and workers alike. The second is the Arab's sensitivity to criticism and to open challenge to higher authority. These constitute major constraints to conflict-resolving and problem-solving methods that require frank and open-confrontation (e.g. T-groups and the Managerial Grid). The third is the involvement of



personal connections and social ties (e.g. nepotism) in personnel selection and promotion. The fourth is the favour of person-orientation over task-orientation within Arab organisations and society which would undermine the application of the impersonal and formal systems which are advocated in the Western cultures. The fifth is due to the developing nature of the Arab countries, where accurate data and information are in short supply, skilful human resources are lacking and governmental regulations are widespread. Some known quantitative management systems (e.g. operational research) would be beyond the bounds of the local infrastructure. Therefore, Arab managers often rely on instinctive knowledge and relationships to achieve results.

In accordance with the above diagnosis, Muna proposes a “five managerial skills” model for the development of future Arab executives. The first group is conceptual skills or a “radar scanning” of the environmental, in Muna’s words. This group of skills is very similar to Katz’s (1955) understanding of the conceptual skills. However the emphasis here is on good insight, a “helicopter view” of the societal environment. The second set embraces delegation skills, which according to Muna (1980: 119) seem essential for Arab managers because they would:

- 1) Save managers’ time.
- 2) Train and develop employees
- 3) Utilise employees existing skills and resources
- 4) Motivate employees.

The third is related to conflict management where the need is for training that can help in changing Arab managers’ attitudes and their subordinates’ expectations towards opposition. The fourth is concerned with time management skills because Arab



managers' working time is severely constrained by social relations and values (e.g. hospitality and deference). An awareness of this problem must be developed and skills to cope with it must be sought. The fifth deals with changed management skills that include abilities to handle change in all its phases through understanding it, introducing it to subordinates and explaining its positive consequences to avoid resistance.

Another example of management development proposals for the Arab world is the "National Strategy Approach" suggested by Al-Faleh (1987). Taking into account the distinctiveness of the culture and the stage of development of the local economies, he argues against the *laissez-faire* approach and contests that governments and their educational and training institutions are the only bodies capable of masterminding administrative and managerial development owing to the inability of a narrow private sector to provide the desired programmes. Further, he calls for a national strategy for management development that intends to raise awareness of individuals, organisations and government officials of the significance of management development and is based on a real understanding of the national circumstances. He argues for establishing a school of management that cares for the needs of the Arab nation by co-ordination and co-operation among the people and institutions concerned in all Arab countries.

The main conclusion of this argument is that Arab culture is distinct and that what has worked in other cultures (i.e. Western and Japanese) does not necessarily transfer to Arab circumstances.

Having discussed management development and issues of management training and development in developing countries in the first part of this chapter, the cultural issues in the second part. Thus the first step toward conducting the research is to provide

the answer required for management training and development in developing countries is the perception of the external factors influencing the training and the organisation which can benefit from the training. These are the societal factors. Such factors influence, in one way or another, the internal factors that the key factor at the micro level. From the previous discussion of Model (I) and the literature review, there are essential factors which can play a vital role of the outcome of the model, namely environmental factors.

These factors are classified as social, cultural, political, and government systems. It is clear that the Arabian culture influences the management style, and, consequently, management development in this society, the role of some social institutions such as the family, friendship and the intermediation, managerial and organisation values and commitment.

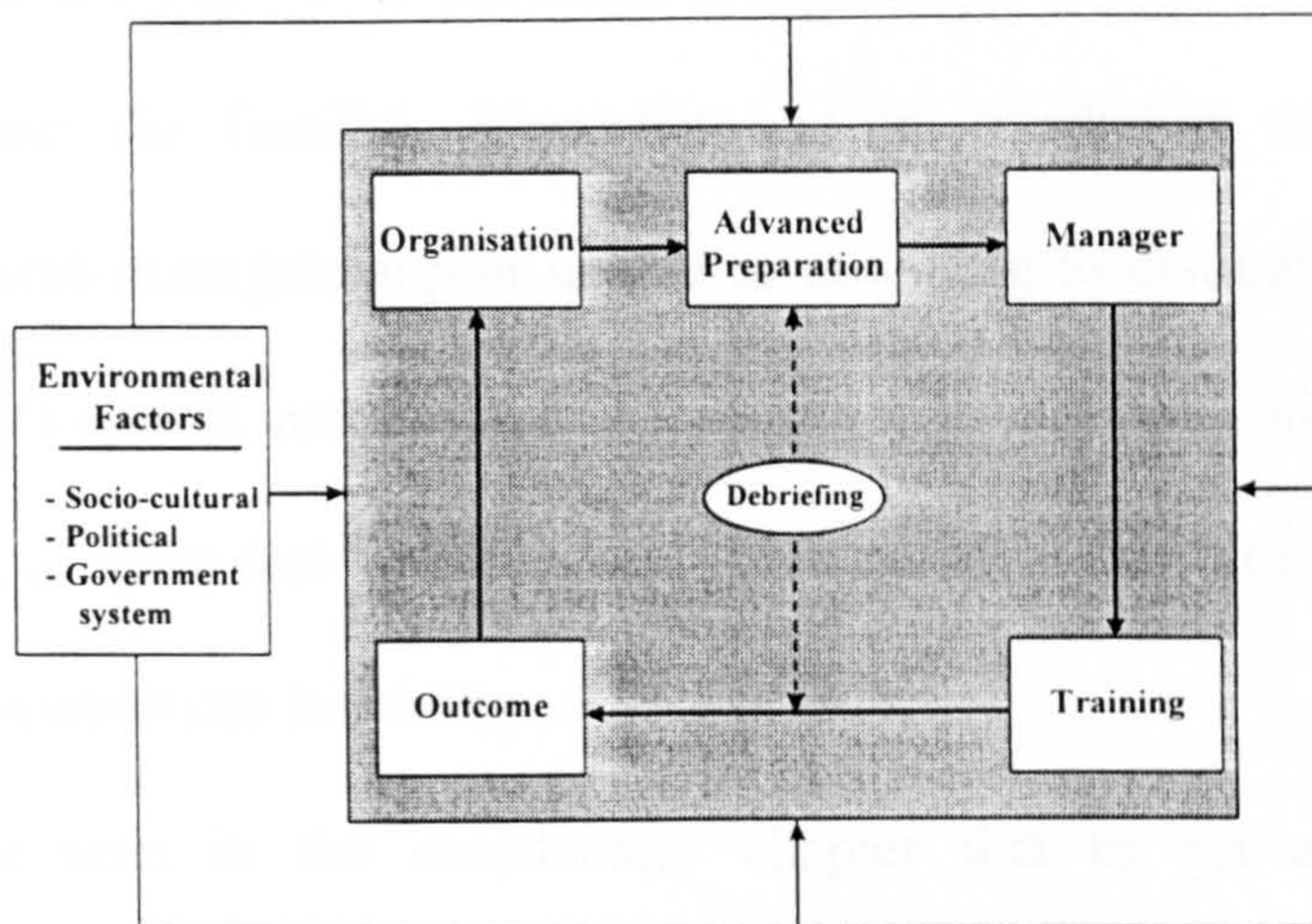
Model (II) shows the factors which influence the Hypothetical Study Model (I).

The Hypothetical Study Model (I) actually proposes that at management development is a system which consists in the manager undergoing training. And this leads to a change or improvement in the behaviour which is the outcome of the training programme which impacts in the organisation positively and leads to further training and development in the future.

The key difference of Model (II) from Model (I) is that the environmental factors, e.g. socio-cultural, political and government system impact on the system at all points.



**Figure 4.1 Hypothetical Study Model (II)**



#### **4.5 Summary**

The study of management in different cultures has become very popular in recent years. The main reason behind this interest is the belief that management practices as well as organisational behaviour are subject to their surroundings i.e. environment.

A main element within the environment is the social value system that prevails in certain cultures. Social culture is defined as the software of human mind (Hofstede, 1991) which directs his or her behaviour. Intimate social relations are found to be characteristic of Arab culture in particular and the developing countries in general. The roots of this culture relate to two principal elements, i.e. Islam as a religion and a way of life, and the centuries-old Arab traditions.

Many recent studies show that this close social relations system affects management and organisational activities.



In relation to management development, despite its urgency to the overall development effort, many of its processes are thwarted by some components of the prevailing culture: the familial, friendship and intermediation social phenomena. Consequently, Arab managers appear unable or unwilling to distinguish between their roles as managers and as members of the society. In addition, other environmental factors seem to influence their practices and behaviours, i.e. lack of information as well as political and economical instability.

We have seen in the introductory chapter that to get access into Saudi organisations, the researcher needed to establish personal and social contacts. So it is the same culture which required “relationship” to gain an access, that required to respect relationship in management and organisational activities. That was, the way to gain an access was the way that access became limited. Although there are numerous evaluation efforts in the West (i.e. USA and UK) assuming people will be entirely open and critical, evaluation is more problematic in Saudi culture because the kind of inherent values and beliefs.

It is very important to understand this, not only in terms of the content of management training and development but also in terms of posing problems for evaluation.

Having established the special circumstances affecting the management process in Saudi Arabia, the logical follow-up is to describe how management has developed within the parameters consequent on the particular Saudi environment.

The following chapter, therefore, will present in depth more information about management and organisational context in Saudi Arabia, and will describe the social

and cultural impact. In addition, it will explore human resource development efforts in Saudi Arabia, including management development.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Management Development in Saudi Arabia Characteristics and Current Situation**



## **5.1 Introduction**

Management development is considered by the Saudi government to be the cornerstone for the establishment of an administrative machinery capable of fulfilling economic and social development. The government has announced a policy of such development in every five-year development plan and, in some cases, has designed some specific strategies. Development efforts have been influenced by many factors, such as management and organisational characteristics, the political and government system, the impact of the cultural value system, the social value system, and expenditures on education and training activities.

This chapter describes the characteristics of management and organisations in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the impact of the culture and value system on Saudi management, the general features of the human resource development efforts, and the challenge of replacing a qualified Saudis in jobs which are filled by non-Saudis (Saudiisation).

## **5.2 Management and Organisation Characteristics in Saudi Arabia**

Having surveyed and interviewed of 271 senior officials who represented nine percent (9%) of the total senior officials and covered 19 central (headquarters) organisations which represented sixty three percent (63%) of the Saudi central organisations at that time, Al-Awaji (1971) found that senior officials and top management in public sector generally did not possess a high level of formal education. Yet their level was usually adequate to handle the simple assignments demanded of them at that time. Most of these officials were either relatives of the Royal family or

from well-known families or tribes.

The ages of senior officials according to Al-Awaji study were between 32 and 59 years, depending on their organisational level. Many of them were young employees with the average age of 35 years. This was due to the fast expansion of government organisations between 1961 and 1971 and to the shortage of Saudi labour.

Al-Awaji's findings indicate that the top management in the public sector were influenced by their perceptions of how the society expected them to behave in their relationship with their families, relatives and intimate groups. This influence affected the definition of their roles, management practices, formal rules, informal relations, and job satisfaction.

Al-Awaji classified the impact of the cultural environment on government organisations as follows:

**a) Overlap**

Divisions within Saudi government organisations overlapped in their personal and financial policies. Administrative regulations also overlapped, though there was some development.

**b) Centralisation**

Administrative activities developed in government organisations have led to organisations which became complex, and sizeable and had centralised structures after 1950. Furthermore Al-Awaji found that the problems caused by centralisation were compounded by lack of delegation of authority.

### **c) Lack of Qualified Personnel**

The lack of qualified, trained personnel at all levels was, and still is, a problem in Saudi Arabia. Only a few employees in government organisation are professionally qualified, and this has caused frequent recruiting of other nationalities. To combat this problem the Saudi government established the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in 1961 to improve its personnel at all levels. The IPA was intended to meet the training needs of the 1970s. Overall the training provided was not sufficient, particularly for lower-level employees.

### **d) Overstaffing**

The public sector even today is considered the preferred employment by Saudi nationals, which leads to overstaffing.

### **e) Lack of Organisation Manuals**

Clear definitions of the duties of employees in the government sector originally were not available. Later in 1970 the IPA, together with the Civil Service Bureau (CSB) developed organisational manuals for a few organisations, but they were not updated, nor did they cover most duties and functions.

This problem caused inconsistency among job titles and in the nature of responsibilities. Al-Awaji also found that the impact of the cultural environment on government employees' behaviour:



#### **f) The “Immateriality” of Time**

Over-staffing and a low value placed on time created an environment where many government employees did not work hard and were not punctual. They exhibited high absenteeism and wasted time mainly in personal relationships and personal activities during working hours. There was no adequate motivation to induce employees to modify their ineffective utilisation of time. There was also insufficient supervision within the organisation.

#### **g) The “Personality Factor” and Administrative Behaviour**

The senior family member’s personality, that is the father’s, is the single most influential factor in developing an individual’s behaviour and personality in Saudi Arabia. So the behaviour of an organisation’s members revolves around the personality of their superiors; they behave in a normative way.

#### **h) Formalism**

Government employees in Saudi Arabia are very formal in applying laws, regulations and standards, but only when this coincides with their personal interests.

#### **i) Social Relations**

Social relations were, and still are, deeply reflected in the behaviour of government employees. Objective considerations were, and still are, of secondary importance in determining the selection of employees and in assuring the necessary co-operation within the organisation.

## **j) Nepotism and Favouritism**

Nepotism and personal favouritism are considered by officials as a social duty and they feel they should serve the interests of their relatives; these are the most important factors in employee selection. Favouritism and personal influence (*wasta*) were, and remain, a normative and dynamic force in the daily activities of government officials.

Malaika (1987) found that favouritism and personal connections (*wasta*) play a strong role in Saudi society and business; nepotism has remained a strong characteristic. Furthermore, Saudi managers consider hospitality --and this means welcoming any visitor to their office at any time-- a very important practice. This policy could be an effective management tool if conducted according to a timetable, particularly in dealing with subordinates. Yet it is unrestricted and wastes considerable amounts of time. Lengthy social interaction also occurs at meetings, both with people from the organisation as well as with guests. These activities, that are expected by Saudi managers and are considered part of good manners, are viewed as positive and beneficial and so remain a strong characteristic of Saudi management. Malaika noted ten years ago that Saudi managers in the public sector put loyalty above performance. A relationship between a supervisor and subordinates based on loyalty, however, creates difficulties. It decreases the independence of the subordinates and increases pressure on the manager. It makes employees too loyal to make any decision without the approval of the superior. Employees also become over-dependent on their supervisors' directions and they take no action or make no criticism, fearing it might upset their supervisors.

In relation to management characteristics in Saudi government sector, Muna (1980) also notes that Saudi employers are expected (by their superiors) to be loyal, and adherence to the practice is rewarded with favours. Saudi managers dislike confrontation, and even minor disagreement may be considered impolite and a challenge, even though a critical evaluation might actually resolve some problems. Malaika (1987) added in this respect that most decisions are made in isolation, away from subordinates, because of the dislike of confrontation. However, feedback must be presented when requested, but given very gently lest it could be considered as trying to make the superior “lose face”.

The Saudi management style has a personal orientation. The Saudi executive likes of the personal approach and the development of very strong personal relations with his employees. Personal connections and ties are important for him to get things done (Malaika). Delegation in Saudi government organisations is infrequent. This is mainly because of Saudi traditions, collectivism, loyalty, fear of delegation itself, and poorly qualified personnel (Abduluahab, 1979; Malaika, 1987).

Owing to centralisation, and specifically because senior officials like to control their activities and dislike delegating authority, the ‘top-man syndrome’ i.e. concentration of power in one person, remains a strong characteristic of Saudi management.

Abduluahab (1979) in his study summarised decision-making in Saudi government organisations as the following types:

- 1) Daily decisions tend to be based on the top manager’s own judgement: 75% of them sought some involvement of senior managers. However once the decision is



made, it becomes final.

2) In tactical decisions Saudi managers (74%) tend to consult their colleagues but independently make the final decision.

3) Strategic decisions are based on consultations, but the final decision is in the hands of top officials (76%). Finally, Abduluahab noted that most managers make decisions based on their own experience and by learning through errors rather than using a scientific and analytical methodology. They use decision-making and problem-solving techniques and undergo training in them.

Asfor (1985) contributed to the discussion on the characteristics of government organisation, context and the impact of society. The findings of his study were:

1) Most governmental organisations' policies and regulations are absolute and ineffective.

2) Some government organisations lack development of their procedures, work processes and control systems.

3) Centralisation is very great in some government organisations. Delegation is not applicable, especially for agencies or branches in different regions, and this delays work at all levels.

4) Coordination among government organisations is poor, particularly among those which depend on one another's activities.

5) Overlapping among different government organisations is another obstacle. This is due to the rapid expansion between 1972 and 1986.

6) The under-employment problem is well known in Saudi government organisations due to the recruitment of unqualified personnel and to over-recruitment.

7) There is an imbalance of workforce distribution among departments and organisations, so that an organisation that needs 5000 employees gets 4000, while one that needs 4000 gets 5000.

8) There is low productivity and poor performance owing to lack of qualified people, lack of training and development, and lack of appropriate education.

9) There is a waste of many qualified people and specific capabilities owing to the demotivation that is caused by putting employees in the wrong positions.

10) Many government employees are busy with private work for their relatives or for their personal interests. So they give their work tasks only second priority or insufficient attention and time.

11) Bribery, exploitation of personal connections (*wasta*) and favouritism have considerable negative effects on performance and productivity in government organisations.

12) Most senior officials cannot get further promotion and have reached their highest possible salary level. This demotivates them and causes dissatisfaction which in turn affects performance.

13) Over the years some government agencies have tried to separate from their central organisation and establish a separate administration with financial support. Those that have succeeded have caused duplication of work, overlapping functions, and over-staffing.

14) There is a general lack of qualified Saudi labour.

15) Financial incentives are considered very important and many organisations compete with one another. This has caused experienced employees to transfer from one

agency to another, affecting the performance of those organisations that have lost qualified personnel.

16) There is an excess of needless committees and meetings. This impacts negatively on management's time and priorities.

17) There is a marked lack of effective filing systems. There is also too much paperwork.

18) Some support departments try to take charge and control higher-level ones. This creates conflict, over staffing, and misdirected work.

19) Almost all Saudi, and many Arab, employees in Saudi organisations lack both punctuality and good attendance. In addition, there is a waste of work time in personal and unproductive activities.

Furthermore, Malaika (1987) indicates that:

1) There is an excess of social gatherings, social activities at work, and over-hospitable social relations with visitors or friends from other organisations.

2) Formalisation is very low and is followed only in crisis and conflict situations and for achieving personal interests. In addition, personal interaction and informal contacts are unnecessarily high.

3) There is a general lack of organisational manuals, and those existing are usually not updated.

4) Government organisations lack good planning, especially strategic planning. This is because of a lack of qualified management.

5) The educational and training systems are inconsistent with market requirements and work needs. Graduates are remote from the practical nature and



reality of the work environment.

6) The expansion of government organisations between 1972 and 1986 required a huge recruitment from overseas and the Middle East. This has resulted in a multi-national work environment with employees from different cultural backgrounds. It has also caused some cross-cultural conflict and ineffective communication among employees.

Malaika concluded that the time-utilisation problem in Saudi business is due to cultural, social, organisational and personal factors. Without developing and changing the social systems of Saudi Arabia, no major improvement in the direction of modernisation is likely to occur. In addition, organisational policies must be developed, and personnel and management must be trained, with an emphasis on the value of time and the importance of performance and productivity. This development and change must cover all institutions, education, families, and manpower and government policies.

### **5.3 Culture and Value System Impact on Saudi Management**

We have seen in Chapter Two that Islamic religion, social structure and culture, traditions, and political and social systems have their effects on the whole of Saudi society. It is a value system that influences the Saudi conception of work and the country's management philosophy. These values and philosophy have their impact on management, regardless of how management is trained and educated.

The description of some of these effects will help to explain and understand the nature of this study's empirical results presented in later chapters.

### **5.3.1 The Political and Government System Impact on Saudi Management**

As mentioned before, the political system and the government organisation in Saudi Arabia are extremely centralised. Such centralisation delays the agency's activities and creates a large amount of routine work at the centre. This also has an impact on the officials' time because it leads to the 'top-man syndrome' where clients believe that the top man is the only one that can get their requests handled quickly (Al-Awaji, 1971). The other form of centralisation is authority which is concentrated at the central agency itself. Al-Awaji described this by saying "everything has to be submitted to the man at the top, including extraneous work. The consequences are devastating. First, top officials spend their time discussing or signing papers of insignificant value to their official responsibility. They have little time left for major issues and long-term development. Second, they also spend a great deal of time receiving people who follow up their concern to the official's desk regardless of the importance of the issues involved."

Thus centralisation causes wasted time, puts pressure on officials' time and help to create 'the top-man syndrome'. Owing to centralisation, and because senior officials like to control the decisions in the organisations, the loyalty between the subordinates and their superiors becomes very strong and this stands in the way of this study as one of main obstacles because of the misunderstanding of the true nature of loyalty.

### **5.3.2 The Social Value System Impact on Saudi Management**

As we described in Chapter Two (the nature of social values in the Saudi society), social values also have effects on the Saudi management attitudes and

behaviour. Tribal, village, and family value systems in Saudi Arabia have a great impact on individuals. Individualism is not supported and senior family leaders take charge of almost everything. This is a value to which the Saudi managers and their employees were exposed during their formative years. The senior family role attitude has its influence on individual managers. Muna (1982) described that by stating, “the management concept is practised in terms of the father role. An example is that senior managers consider themselves as fathers of their departments and their employees’ responsibilities are defined in such terms”.

Furthermore, Arab executives live in societies where family and friendship remain important and prevalent factors even in the functioning of formal institutions and groups.

Saudi managers not only affect their work and employees with their attitudes but they are also affected by the pressure their society puts on them. This pressure, coming from the society, comprises expectations of management, such as following the social values, norms, and customs, and therefore management is regarded as both a target and an agent of social influence and change.

Social values also have their effects on the Saudi manager’s interpersonal. This leads managers to consider the loyalty of employees as more important than their performance. The use of rituals and customs in conducting business is essential and the use of personal ties and connections is a faster and more effective way to get things done (Muna, 1982). Generally the social value system has its impact on management and a manager’s interpersonal style. Later in the discussion of the research findings, this impact will of course be described and presented in more detail.



## **5.4 Human Resource Development Efforts in Saudi Arabia**

The development of human resources is the foundation for realising the objectives and aspirations of the development process. This is attributed to the fact that education and training raise the quality and productivity of the work force as well as contributing to the cultural and personal development of the individual.

Based on the fact that investment in human capital is the corner-stone for future economic growth and social prosperity, the Saudi government has accorded its utmost care and attention to the development of the education sector. This is reflected in the expenditures on education through the state budgets, as more than SR153 billion (US \$41 billion) has been allocated for education over the Fifth Development Plan period, about 18% of the whole budget. The formation of a skilled labour force raises productivity levels and thereby makes an important contribution to economic development. This recognition is reflected in the tremendous efforts to expand the Kingdom's training system both quantitatively and qualitatively to meet the challenges of economic development and technological change.

Vocational and technical education and training in the Kingdom is provided by a number of public and private sector agencies and institutions. The General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT) and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) are the largest training agencies in the Kingdom. The IPA provides mainly pre-service training programmes for civil service employees and some training programmes for the private sector in addition to research and consulting services to improve public administration practices. General occupational preparation is provided by GOTEVT through its technical education and vocational training

programmes, which range in duration from short-term (up to 18 months) at the vocational training centres to three years at the secondary level and two years at the post-secondary level. It is noteworthy that the Riyadh Technology College grants bachelor degrees in applied engineering through programmes directed towards secondary stage graduates and other programmes directed towards secondary graduates.

GOTEVT is also responsible for the technical training of manpower to fill some positions through short-term courses and for upgrading skills through short-term pre-service and in-service training programmes. In addition, a number of government ministries and agencies operate in-house training institutes or centres to meet their own specialised training needs. The universities provided specialised training courses for professionals upon requests from government agencies or private sector establishments. Some other agencies also have specialised training institutions. For example, the Ministry of Health runs 41 secondary health institutes for boys and girls, enrolments at which exceeded 7,000 during the Fifth Plan period, while four intermediate colleges offering a range of programmes, such as management and psychotherapy, have been created. The Ministry of Post, Telegraph and Telephones (MOPTT) operates three postal institutes, three training centres and two intermediate telecommunications colleges. The Postal Institutes offer one-year and three-year training programmes. The Presidency of Civil Aviation runs two colleges and one training centre. Saudi Arabian Airlines (SAUDI) has five training centres, while the Saudi Ports Authority has two training centres. The Human Resources Development Institute at Jubail organises intensive 18-month training programmes. Enrolments in these programmes have reached 1,000 trainees. The Saudi Arabian Oil Company (ARAMCO) operates 15



training centres and organises training courses for 9,000 staff members each year. Jubail Industrial College accommodates 1,200 trainees, while Yanbu Industrial College accommodates 1,000 trainees (Ministry of Planning, 1995).

The banking sector has its own training centres, such as the Banking Training Institute (B.T.I), which is run by Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA) and offers short and long-term training courses with the participation of around 4,000 employees.

With respect to the training available for women, the General Presidency for Girls' Education administers technical education and vocational training for females. The training centres have been upgraded to institutes and new programmes have been provided according to the needs of Saudi women and in conjunction with the Sharia. Enrolments in these courses increased from 1,532 in 1990 to 1,625 in 1994. Furthermore, more than 4,000 female trainees attended IPA training courses in 1994.

The Ministry of Health runs 20 institutes for female and work is underway to transform these institutes into intermediate health colleges.

Some private sector companies offer specialised training programmes for women, particularly in fields related to business and computers. Some large business establishments operate and maintain training centres to train their own employees.

The training system has expanded significantly over the last twenty-five years, in terms of both quantity and quality, thanks to government efforts in this area since the First Development Plan (1970-1975) and its incentives for trainees, such as allowances and free housing according to the Ministry of Planning figures. Some of the major achievements made over this period were:



1) The number of enrolments at all technical education stages, and short pre-service and in-service training programmes, increased from about 6,000 to over 120,000 (i.e. twenty-fold), while the number of graduates reached around 80,000. The number of students enrolled at schools, and institutes of technical education supervised by GOTEVT rose from 4,640 in 1990 to more than 28,000 in 1995, while the number of graduates reached 8,623 in the same year.

2) The number of students enrolled at the vocational training centres rose from 378 trainees in 1970 to 11,543 in 1995, while the number of graduates reached 7,684 in 1995.

3) The number of graduates from IPA training programmes rose fifteen-fold in the past 25 years, reaching 9,850 in 1994.

In the Fifth Plan period, enrolments in the technical colleges run by GOTEVT increased at an average annual rate of 19 percent, while average annual enrolment growth in secondary industrial, commercial and agricultural programmes was four percent, 10 percent and 18 percent respectively. Enrolments at IPA programmes also grew at an average annual rate of six percent during this period. This period also saw the expansion of the training sector's infrastructure and the participation of the private sector in training activities under specific programmes. The higher commercial education programmes have been incorporated in the programmes of the technical colleges, and eight new technical secondary institutes have been opened during the Fifth Plan period.

## 5.5 The Institute of Public Administration (IPA)

The expansion of the modern state's role and the increasing complexity of the modern organisation have placed a heavy demand on administrators to deal effectively with the changing environment and accomplish their assigned tasks efficiently. As we discussed in Chapter Three, acceptance of systematic training has been realised in the world-wide following World War II. In that period, the world witnessed fundamental changes in all aspects of life. A new management technology has emerged to meet demands created by these changes. New Management Technology (NMT) is defined by United Nations (U.N) as being:

*“Professionalised in the sense that, in theoretical and in practical work, management in both the public and private sector has become a separate profession. NMT is multidimensional in nature. The public administrators in particular have to deal with the complexity of social systems”* (United Nations, 1966).

Training is considered the crucial factor in the process of development of public personnel in Saudi Arabia. It is conceived as an ongoing process, aiming at improving administrative potentialities and capabilities of the employees throughout their careers.

For these reasons, and others, administrative training is extremely important to developing countries like Saudi Arabia. Abdul Rahman Al-Shakawy (1983) clarifies these reasons as follows:

1) Educational facilities are limited in many fields, especially, in certain specialised fields needed by government.

2) The inadequacy of the traditional method of on-the-job learning, in view of the urgency of national development.

3) The changing nature of civil service in developing countries required the need for administrative training.

Taking all these reasons into consideration a large number of national institutes of public administration were created in developing countries during the early sixties. There were, for example, by the early 1970s over 150 such institutes in Africa alone engaged in massive administrative training and management education.

These institutes were established to provide in-service training at lower-management and middle-management levels. But, recently, some national IPAs extended their functions to pre-service training and executive development of senior administrators.

In the case of oil producing states as developing countries, the new challenges of social and economic development have led many of these countries to increasing dependence on expatriates. Therefore, the establishing of institutes in public administration is very necessary to supply these countries with trained nationals.

The government of Saudi Arabia, in recognition of its requirements for development programmes to prepare and develop the competent human resources needed to up-grade the performance level and efficiency of government agencies working in the various development fields, established the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) by Royal Decree No.93 in 1961 as an autonomous corporate body with a headquarters in Riyadh. The IPA branch in Dammam started its work on 1973, the Jeddah branch started its work on 1974 and the third branch, for women was established in Riyadh on 1983.



### **5.5.1 The IPA Cader and Its Technical Development**

The IPA employs different officials of various educational levels (Ph.D., M.Sc., B.Sc.) and specialisations such as management, economics and engineering. Special attention is devoted to improving and developing their background enabling them to follow new theoretical and practical dimensions in the field of management. Different methods have been adopted in this regard, such as self-development programmes carried out by each of IPA's departments. Also, a number of its employees have been sent abroad to obtain degrees in different topics (e.g. statistics, computer sciences, psychology, public administration, etc.)

The administrative organisation of the institute is based on twelve different departments besides three other branches (Figure 5.1).

In order to achieve its objectives the IPA provide the following activities:

#### **1) Training**

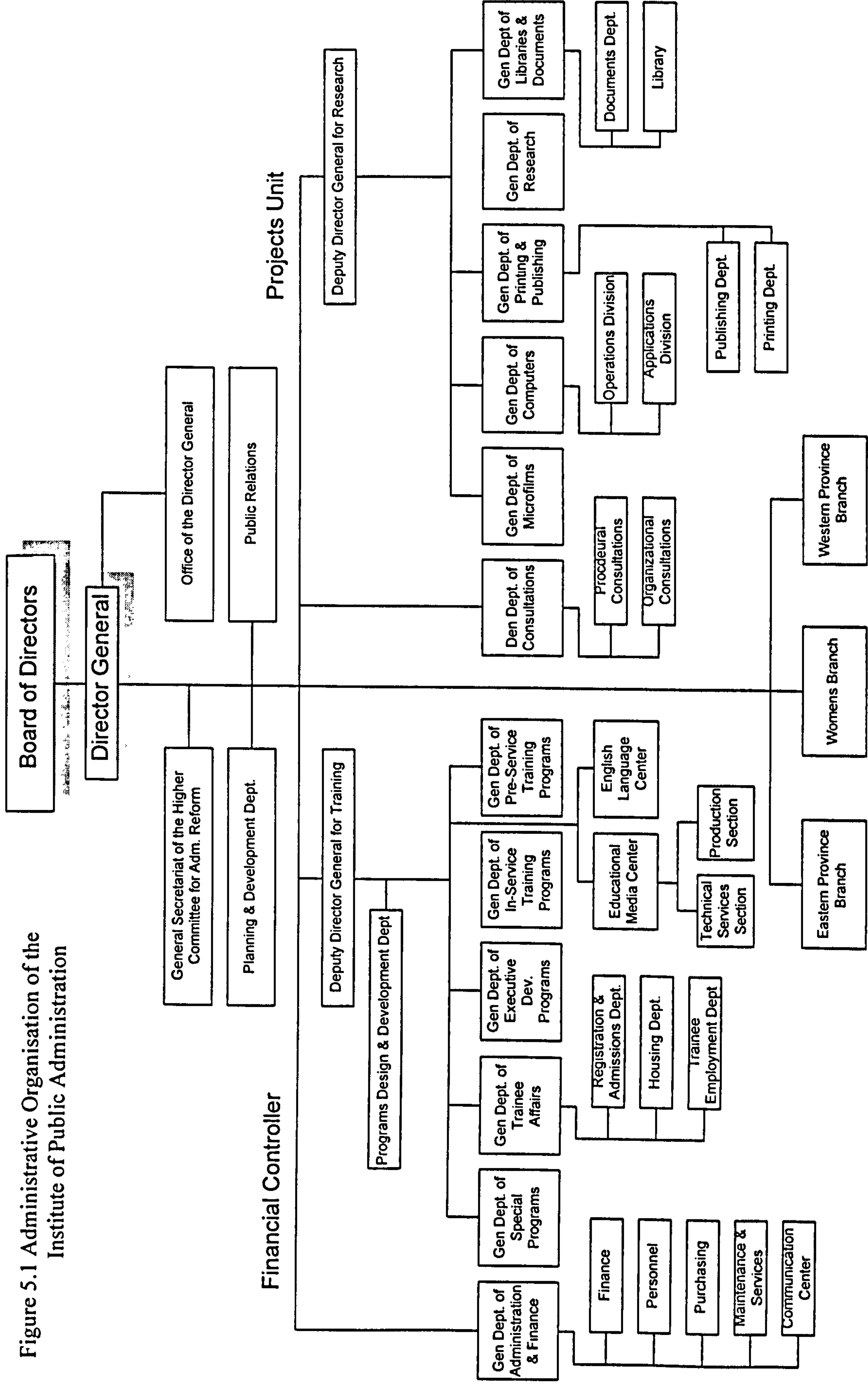
The IPA offered training programmes for different managerial levels and carried them out through various departments, each one concerned with a special type of programmes

##### **a) Executive Development Programme (EDP)**

Although the IPA is responsible for a variety of training and research activities, the most distinctly desired function since its establishment has been training programmes designed for junior and senior managers. The programme, which is known as the Executive Development Programme. initially started as a one-week programme covering some general topics, as well as management theories and techniques

(Chabriran, 1975). The traditional content of the training programmes included the following: the process of management, the importance of the control technique of the manager, time management, problem-solving, decision-making, leadership skills, communication skills development, meetings' administration, motivation, planning, human relations. Owing to the nature of information and knowledge aimed at, as well as the working environment of the Kingdom's key officials, the Department of Executive

Figure 5.1 Administrative Organisation of the Institute of Public Administration





Development Programmes has adopted practical seminars and workshops as a training method.

#### b) Pre-service Programmes

These programmes are oriented towards the preparation of qualified Saudi personnel in the different fields of administration. The Institute, through its departments of programmes, conducts pre-service training programmes aimed at university graduates and holders of the secondary school certificates to provide them with specialised practical training so as to meet the requirements for manpower in the private and governmental sectors.

#### c) In-service Training Programmes

These programmes aim at promoting the competence and efficiency of civil servants working in the various administrative agencies, thereby providing them with new skills to enhance their job performance to the maximum extent possible. These programmes encompass most public administration specialisations as well as other related disciplines.

#### d) Special Programmes

The need for these programmes has emanated from special training needs of some governmental agencies requirements not already covered by the Institute's general training programmes. The Department of Special Programmes considers and studies them and eventually implements special programmes to meet such needs.

#### e) English Language Programmes

The English Language Programmes are provided for pre-service programme trainees whose studies require a specific level of English proficiency. The duration of

these programmes varies according to their respective requirements, ranging from one training semester to a full training year.

#### **f) Training Technology Centre**

The Training Technology Centre offers technical support for the training process. The Centre uses the most up-to-date equipment to promote the training process efficiently.

#### **g) Programme Design and Development**

The Department of Programme Design and Development examines and reviews training programmes being implemented during the current training year.

#### **h) Programme Evaluation**

The Department of Programme Evaluation is entrusted with the task of evaluating the programmes and practical seminars and workshops offered by the Institute. This is done in order to identify and determine the suitability of these programmes to the trainees' needs. It subsequently utilises the results of such evaluations to further improve the training programmes and achieve optimum effectiveness.

### **2) Consultation Services**

#### **a) General Secretariat of the Higher Committee For Administrative Reform**

Upon receipt of requests from government agencies, the General Secretariat of the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform conducts studies, provides information, prepares reports and makes recommendations. These are submitted to the Preparatory Administrative sub-committee for Administrative Reform, for further study

and appraisal, prior to their presentation to the full Higher Committee for Administrative Reform which delineates the courses of action to be taken.

#### **b) Consultations**

The core of the Institute's policy, in terms of offering consultations as one of its main activities, is to let government agencies take the initiative in asking for consultative services. These services include organisational restructuring, improving and developing existing work routines, and simplifying the work procedures of various activities.

#### **3) Research**

Research aims at the enrichment of administrative thought through the publication of books, research, translations and articles that contribute to the realisation of the fifth phase of the Five- Year Development Plan. This research deals with local administrative problems, thereby contributing to administrative development.

#### **4) Printing and Publishing**

This department prints and publishes the Institute's publications. It also participates in all book exhibitions organised within the Kingdom to promote the distribution of the Institute's publications to the public.

#### **5) The Library**

The library provides the readers with information resources in the various fields pertaining to the Institute's interests and activities. The library is entrusted with the



collection and organisation of governmental documents, and the supply of information and documentary services to users.

#### **6) The Computer Centre**

This Centre has assumed the responsibility of developing, improving and maintaining applications systems which meet the Institute's needs. Among its various functions are:

- a) Systems analysis and design;
- b) Programmemeing, documenting and implementing applications;
- c) Maintaining these systems.

#### **7) The General Department of Planning and Development**

The General Department of Planning and Development is entrusted with the preparation of the Institute's annual and five-year plans. It aims, through short-range and long-range planning, to maintain and further improve the Institute's level of efficiency in conducting its various activities. It also publishes annual reports in Arabic and English to document these activities and to shed some light on the Institute's attainments. Further, the department is responsible for improving and simplifying work procedures at the Institute's various departments so as to help them to perform their tasks efficiently and shoulder their responsibilities effectively. Furthermore, the department is in charge of developing the Institute's human resources through on-the-job endeavours to improve the institute's manpower training, and is responsible for granting scholarships in undergraduate and graduate studies.

### **5.5.2 Training Need Assessment**

Assessment of training needs for the purpose of programme design was practically non-existent prior to 1970. Training programmes were designed under the assumption that they addressed real needs, which was supported by the number of turnouts once a course was announced to the general public. However arguable the point may be, there was no other way for the newly-established Institution to embark upon training needs assessment prior to actual course design.

Systematic assessment in early 1970 would have meant that: (a) IPA was well-equipped with personnel qualified to conduct such a massive survey; (b) such a survey would have taken place in the context of an appropriate job description, performance standards and performance appraisals geared towards performance improvement; and (c) conducting such an exercise required a massive public relation efforts, high degree of co-ordination between government units on the one hand while employees needed to feel unthreatened by the existence of such an exercise. IPA was in a state of early establishment whose mission, doctrine, organisational structure as well as legal terms of reference were yet to take shape. Therefore, the choice was made, to start training functions under the assumption that there would be a true need anyway.

In a sense, that course of action was considered to be a pioneering exercise to gain know-how and as a way to establish links with representatives of a clientele system who could transmit the message back into their organisation. Hence the whole government bureaucracy would become sensitised in a positive manner to the issue of training and to the way needs could be best diagnosed and assessed.

A preliminary exercise was conducted upon completion of the first year in action as an indicator of needs in the government agencies at large. Government agencies were requested to state what form of training they preferred more IPA to do. Such a process was not yet consistent. Not every government unit was asked and not all who were asked cared to respond. The process by which a training prospectus was designed was a result of what IPA could do rather than what it was needed to do. Training units in IPA were requested, towards the end of the training year, to design their training courses for the following year. Such an exercise was not the best possible way but the organisational constraints from within in the form of shortages in every respect and restraints from without displayed by the not yet settled legal identity of IPA were taking precedence over other professional considerations.

With the provision of the legal framework, certain legal issues were resolved but only to give rise to another set of issues. There were grey areas that were not yet sorted out. Examples of those grey areas were the question of who was in charge -IPA or other central civil service organisations- when it came to policy formulation, implementation and supervision in the areas of training and organisational development. Organisational rivalries have had some counter-productive impacts where so much energy was consumed in search of of identity and domain.

In any event, training needs assessment has remained subjective and it was very much left to the discretion of individual government units to decide upon the way they saw fit. All that IPA had to do was announce a programme through the Civil Service Bureau (C.S.B.) to government units, inviting them to advance their nominees at a certain date. Understandably, government units not faced with the question of their



training needs in the first place found it more convenient just to select a candidate either by a rule of thumb or through some sort of affirmative action.

### **5.5.3 IPA Expectations and Obstacles**

1) Having had its legal identity established by the Royal Degree in 1960, IPA still envisaged grey areas that need to be clarified in terms of jurisdiction for example. IPA considers itself as the sole provider for administrative training in the Government domain and hence advocates either channelling all such training to IPA as a final destination or processing it through it. Much energy is consumed in this quest. The fact that the government apparatus employs some million people with further prospects of growth would cast doubt on the idea that training needs can be met by a single change agent no matter how resourceful it may turn out to be, let alone the fact that training is cyclical in nature and accumulative in prospects: while there is a starting point there is no end. Therefore, the task is conceivably beyond the institutional capabilities of a single training unit.

2) While there are nearly forty vocational training centres and other centres are available on commercial basis, there is no reason for IPA to stick to providing typing and language classes to the magnitude reflected in the statistics shown by the figures. These trainees can be accommodated by other agencies who have the facilities and the readiness to do so. On the other hand, IPA can either maintain the supervision if it so chooses, give it up altogether or follow the option of establishing a separate clerical training institution if it has the capacity.

3) Training is conducted at the expense of other activities and at times to the detriment of research and consultation. Such under-emphasis is well-founded from the institutions' viewpoint. It helps develop support; it is easily noticed, and it provides quantifiable figures for management to justify resource allocation, and it is easier to conduct. But the consequences are grave, and policies of this sort may seem convenient and persuasive on the short-run but soon are short lived when opportunities are missed.

## **5.6 Summary**

Saudi Arabia has undergone rapid development since 1970. The main objective has been to transform the country from a society that was basically tribal into an industrial/modern country. Such objectives required a strong shifting in culture, education, management, and national policies and strategies. This rapid development required a huge increase in manpower at all levels. Therefore, the foreign labour segment of the population increased from 384,000 in 1968 to 4.6 million in 1995. Moreover, Saudiisation (placing Saudi Nationals in the jobs filled by foreign labour) has become a national policy. Saudi Arabia also has developed several educational institutions to qualify and develop Saudi youth, among which is IPA, and to train and develop Saudi managers and administrators. Saudi management therefore has to deal effectively and efficiently with many issues and to deal with many obstacles. Among these issues and obstacles are:

- a) handling national policies, i.e. Saudiisation,
- b) improving performance and productivity,
- c) developing organisations and business,

d) transferring technology,

e) assist in the social transition into an industrial, modern society.

These responsibilities and tasks have demanded an intensive development for Saudi managers and executives. This development is mainly provided through the IPA. Thus management training and development in Saudi Arabia not only needs to cover the four categories mentioned in Chapters Three and Four but needs thorough evaluation. Training evaluation, specifically management training, is the main theme of this dissertation. The following chapter (Six) will highlight the literature in this area.



## **Chapter Six**

### **Training Evaluation : Literature Review**

## **6.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to review and analyse the literature on evaluation of training programmes so as to determine: (1) what evaluation is, how it should be approached, and what methods have been used in conducting evaluations; (2) why evaluation of training is important; how it is approached, and what designs are used; (3) what results have been produced by actual evaluation of training programmes.

Therefore, this chapter has been divided into three parts. The first discusses definitions, approaches, and forms of evaluation. The second examines the need for evaluation of training programmes and the utility of training research designs in evaluation of training programmes. The third part reviews empirical evaluations of a number of management programmes.

## **6.2 Evaluation, Definition, Approaches**

For the purpose of this study, training is equated with education. This is based on the fact that, like education, training is concerned with providing knowledge, skills and values needed to meet society's development goals. When searching for definitions of evaluation, the focus was based on educational evaluation rather than evaluation in general.

Earlier definitions of evaluation saw evaluation as a measurement of individual differences among students in the form of standardised and norm-referenced tests. Equating evaluation with grading continued until Tyler (1932) drew attention to the fact that:

*“Curricula needed to be organised around certain objectives. Objectives were critical because they were the basis for planning, because they provided the explicit guide to teachers, and because they served as a criteria for selection of materials, outlining of content, development of instructional procedures and the preparation of tests and examinations”* (cited in Guba and Lincoln, 1981).

Because of the importance of objectives, Tyler (1950) in his monograph, “Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction”, defined evaluation as determining the extent to which educational objectives are being achieved. Since educational objectives are to produce certain desirable changes in behaviour patterns of students, evaluation is the process of determining the degree to which these changes in behaviour are taking place.

Cronbach (1963) called for a shift from the focus of evaluation on achievement of objectives to decisions about changes to be made if evaluation were to be of maximum utility to course developers and programme planners. The response to Cronbach’s call was the emergence of different evaluation models, e.g., goal-free evaluation model, countenance decision evaluation model (CIPP), etc. These models will be considered as to how they fit into different definitions of evaluation.

Many definitions of evaluation exist in the literature. Each definition reflects a certain theoretical perspective of a given author and, in most cases, his or her value judgement. Examples of these definitions are discussed below.

Scriven (1967) defined evaluation as the assessment of merit. The goal of evaluation is always to make judgement of merit. The evaluator is responsible for making judgements because evaluation is concerned not only with whether goals are achieved but also -and most important- with whether goals are worth achieving.



According to Scriven, evaluation should be goal-free, that is, an assessment of the effect of a programme irrespective of its stated goals. The concern is with effects rather than goals and decisions. The rationale for a goal-free evaluation implies that the evaluator will not be able to discover important unanticipated effects if he is concerned only with effects that pertain to the stated goals.

The shortcomings of the goal-free evaluation model were best described by Guba and Lincoln (1981):

*“It has failed to come to grips with the question of what effects to look at or even how to identify them. A metaphor frequently used by Scriven - that of the hunter ‘setting snares’ where his experience told him that animals would come - was clearly inadequate to provide guidance. Nor was the situation helped by reference to needs assessment, for the question of what needs to assess was unanswered. The model certainly placed a premium on evaluation competence; an incompetent hunter will scarcely know how to set snares. And despite Scriven’s earlier insistence that evaluators should assume the burden of making judgements, the goal-free model did not take up the question of how judgmental standards are to be derived. Finally Scriven undoubtedly overstated his case in an attempt to gain attention to it. Indeed, Scriven’s own admission that goal-free evaluation is best used as an auxiliary, parallel activity (to goal-based evaluation) is evidence for this.”*

Stake (1967, cited in Worthen and Sanders, 1973) distinguished between formal (objective) and informal (subjective) evaluation. He argued subjective evaluations must be abandoned if rational judgements are to be made. He divided formal evaluation into description and judgement and suggested two data matrices in which the evaluator may list the information necessary to judge a programme rationally. Stake defined judgement as:

*“Assigning a weight, an importance, to each set of standards. Rational judgement in educational evaluation is a decision as to how much to pay attention to the standards of each reference group (point of view) in deciding whether or not to take some administrative action. Relative comparison is accomplished in a similar fashion except that the standards are taken from other programmes.... From relative judgement of a programme, as well as from absolute judgement, we can obtain an overall or composite rating of merit (perhaps with certain qualifying statements), a rating to be used in making an educational decision.”*

Both Scriven and Stake failed to see evaluation as a political phenomenon. “It had become more and more evident that evaluation was a political phenomenon, but hardly anyone knew very much about the politics of evaluation. what the evaluator could do to guard against political influences or, on the other hand, to use them to his own best advantage.” Guba and Lincoln (1981), Sroufe (1977). House (1978) and Paulston (1980) have defined evaluation (among other things) as a political activity.

Sroufe (1977) stated the following reasons for addressing evaluation as a political phenomenon:

(a) The redefinition of the term ‘politics’ to include, in addition to government, the distribution of stakes within a society or group. Also, the redefinition of the term ‘evaluation’ as the determination of the worth, merit and policy implications, not only as a research activity.

(b) Evaluation essentially is providing information for decision-making as a political resource.

(c) Education itself is a political system and, at the same time, a sub-system of a “super system”. Hence, it has a need for resources and authority from the super system.

This is political in nature.

He then pointed out what has put educational evaluation in the political setting is:

(a) the emergence of offensive and defensive evaluations as a reaction to the political realities,

(b) the values of the evaluator and the extent to which they will influence his or her work,

(c) the effort and attempts of the administrators to control evaluators.

(d) the evaluation agency’s responsibility for clients and the fear of displeasing clients.

Stroufe (1977) concluded that the paradigm of politics of evaluation will become pervasive in education and there will be a pressing need on evaluators to find methods and approaches which reflect understanding of the politics of evaluation. He suggested modification of the methodological approaches available and called for:

(a) creation of evaluation designs in accordance with more comprehensive understanding of the stakes involved for various levels of a programme,

(b) an adversary model to minimise the influence of the evaluator’s values.

(c) reporting of findings to suit the evaluation as politics.

On the basis of the assumption that policies reflect a particular ideology, House (1978) categorised evaluators into two groups. The first is the Systems Analysts who are concerned with programme goals capable of being stated and measured in cost-benefit



terms. The major emphasis of this group is on efficiency. Because of this emphasis, House relates System Analysts to Scientific Management, which emphasises efficiency as a means of getting better results through division of labour, measurement, standardisation, and task definitions. The second group is the Political Rationalists who are concerned with the effects and impacts of a programme.

House considered both groups to be rationalists as they both assume evaluation leads to objective measures of programme effectiveness. In other words, the Systems Analyst emphasised the efficiency of the throughput while the political rationalist emphasised the effects and impact of the output.

The problem of the Systems Analyst is the necessity to use a measurement instrument which limits the scope of the evaluator and his flexibility when it will not be possible to change the instrument even if the need arises.

The problem of the Political Rationalist is that performance is not considered as much as the impact and output measured against the objectives of the programme.

Paulston (1980) saw evaluation as congruent with the dominant class advantage. Based on his definition of educational reforms as attempts to introduce major alterations of content or structure in the national education system, and his definition of evaluation as the assessment of policy change efforts in the educational, political, social and economical sectors, he argued that decision makers, planners, and evaluators should be aware of the entire range of ideological and methodological perspectives on evaluation if they are to make justified choices. This being the case, and because of lack of explanation of why and how changes in educational systems take place, he saw a need to identify and classify values and to develop comparative dialectical evaluation models

and approaches. Paulston viewed ideology of the dominant class as the most influential factor in providing definition of social problems and change strategies. Evaluation was therefore to be viewed from a conflict perspective as a social critique. The conflict definition stresses the role of politics and power play in the evaluation process. The focus is not upon what the results are but rather on what biases are inherent in the models and instruments used, who stands to benefit from the evaluation, and at what cost to others, i.e., on meta- evaluation.

Other definitions of evaluation emphasise the contribution of evaluation to decision-making. Examples of these definitions are Sufflebeam (1971), and Rossi and Freeman (1982).

Sufflebeam divided the available approaches to evaluation as follows:

- (a) Evaluation is identical to measurement.
- (b) Evaluation is identical to professional judgement.
- (c) Evaluation is identical to experimental design.

According to Sufflebeam, these approaches have serious limitations.

*“The measurement approach provides rigour and efficiency in evaluation, but it is too narrow and inflexible to meet the wide range of information requirements in evaluation... the professional judgement approach focuses on all potentially relevant variables, but lacks technical adequacy in measuring these variables and in arriving at defensible judgements... Experimental design is shown to provide the greatest amount of rigour but it is the most expensive approach and the most highly restricted in terms of the questions it can address.”*

Because of these limitations, Sufflebeam (1971, cited in Guba and Lincoln 1981) saw the need for, “a new and better conceptualisation of evaluation” to overcome the

weaknesses of the available approaches. He therefore defined evaluation as the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives. Delineating involves face-to-face encounters with the decision makers, obtaining information is the collection and processing of information, while providing it is presenting the collected information to decision makers in a way which will enhance the rationality of their decision-making.

Based on this definition, Stufflebeam developed the CIPP evaluation model to provide information for decision-making and accountability. He developed four types of evaluation to correspond to the four types of decisions he identified. Decisions types and their corresponding evaluation types are described in Figure 6.1. The CIPP evaluation model will be described in more detail in another section as it is applied to the evaluation of training programmes.

**Figure 6.1 Stufflebeam's Types of Decision and Their Corresponding Types of Evaluation**

Types of Decisions	Types of Evaluation
Planning decisions to determine objectives.	Context.
Structuring decisions to design procedures.	Input.
Implementing decisions to utilise, control, and refine procedures.	Process.
Recycling decisions to judge and react to attainments.	Product.



On the basis of the assumption that evaluation is tied to the scientific paradigm of inquiry, Rossi and Freeman (1982) defined evaluation as a decision-making process. They distinguished between three major classes of evaluation, each serving a different purpose and seeking answers to different sets of questions. These classes and their corresponding questions are described in Figure 6.2

What can be concluded from the various definitions of evaluation, is the evaluation is an information gathering and decision-making process. This implies the use of evaluation for administrative decision-making, measurement and programme improvement, and future development of programme personnel. Evaluation is,

therefore, the instrument which aids funders, managers, clients, and scholars in a discipline to determine the worth of a programme.

There are two forms which can be used to determine the worth of a programme:

(a) Summative Evaluation, which is carried out after the programme has been functioning for a while and is usually a measurement of what the programme accomplished.

(b) Formative Evaluation, which is provides management and programme personnel with the information that will help determine any deviation from the planned course of programme and sets guidelines to correct them as well as to improve the programme.

**Figure 6.2 Major Classes of Evaluation**

CLASS	QUESTIONS
<p>1. Programme conceptualisation and design.</p>	<p>What is the extent and distribution of the target problem and or population? Is the programme designed in conformity with intended goals? Is there a coherent rationale underlying it? Have chances of successful delivery been maximised? What are projected or existing costs and is their relation to benefit and efficiency?</p>
<p>2. Monitoring and accountability to programme implementation.</p>	<p>Is the programme reaching the specified target population or target area? Are the intervention efforts being conducted as specified in the programme design?</p>
<p>3. Assessment of programme effectiveness, that is, impact and efficiency</p>	<p>Is the programme effective in achieving its intended goals? Can results of the programme be explained by some alternative process that does not include the programme? Is the programme having some effects that were not intended? What are the costs to deliver services and benefit to programme participants? Is the programme an efficient use of resources compared with alternative uses of resources?</p>

House (1980) described different evaluation approaches in his Taxonomy of Major Evaluation Approaches (Figure 6.3).

“The major elements in understating the models - approaches - are their ethics, epistemology and their political ramifications.” House (1978). These elements are very important not only for understanding but also for choosing the approach. It is therefore vital to consider the following questions before choosing an evaluation approach and to determine the extent to which they will affect the evaluation of design, methodological orientation, and the data collection technique to be employed. These questions are:

(a) Is the approach applicable?

(b) What problems are likely to stem from its implementation and what is their impact on the results of evaluation?

(c) Does the approach represent a value orientation, that is, an ideology and what policy implications are expected from this ideology?

(d) Would the ideology be in conflict with the values of those who will respond to the evaluation or those of the dominant class?

(e) What level of evaluation is the approach most concerned with institutional or individual.

Evaluation is not only limited to providing information for decision-making. It may go beyond this to the investigation of relationships among variables thus permitting the drawing of conclusions about the relationship between variables. An example of this is the evaluation of educational innovation programmes.



Figure 6.3

A Taxonomy of Major Evaluation Approaches

Model	Major Audiences or reference Groups	Assumes Consensus	Methodology	Outcome	Typical Questions
Systems Analysts	Economists Managers	Goals, Known case and effect, Quantified variables	PPBS. Linear programming, planned variation. cost-benefit analysis	Efficiency	Are the expected effects achieved? can the effects be achieved more economically? What are the most efficient programmes?
Behavioural Objectives	Managers, Psychologists	Pre-specified objectives, Quantified outcome variables	Behavioural objectives achievement tests	Productivity, Accountability	Is the programme achieving the objectives? Is the programme producing?
Decision-making	Decision makers especially administrators	General goal criteria	Surveys, questionnaires, interviews, natural variation	Effectiveness, Quality control	Is the programme effective? What parts are effective?
Goal - free	Consumers	Consequences criteria	Bias control, logical analysis, modus operandi	Consumer choice, social utility.	What are all the effects?
Art Criticism	Connoisseurs Consumers	Critics Standards	Critical Review	Improved standards, heightened awareness	Would a critic approve this programme? Is the audience's appreciation increased?
Professional	Professionals Public	Criteria, Panel procedures	Review by panel, self study	Professional acceptance	How would professionals rate this programme?
Quasi - legal	Jury	Procedures and judges	Quasi - legal procedures.	Resolution	What are the arguments for and against the programme?
Case Study	Clients practitioners	Negotiations, activities	Case studies, interviews, observations	Understanding diversity	What does the programmes look like to different people

Source: House, E.R (1980)

### **6.3 Evaluation of Training Programmes**

This section focuses upon the importance of training, the need for evaluation of training programmes, approaches to evaluation of training programmes and the utility of research designs in evaluating training programmes.

According to Miller (1979), training is an appropriate activity when there is actual deficiency or a potential deficiency in the job performance of human beings. This can occur when new jobs are being created and when jobs are being performed in deficient ways. The function of training, therefore, is to prepare employees for:

(a) improvement in their present jobs by correcting deficiencies in present performance,

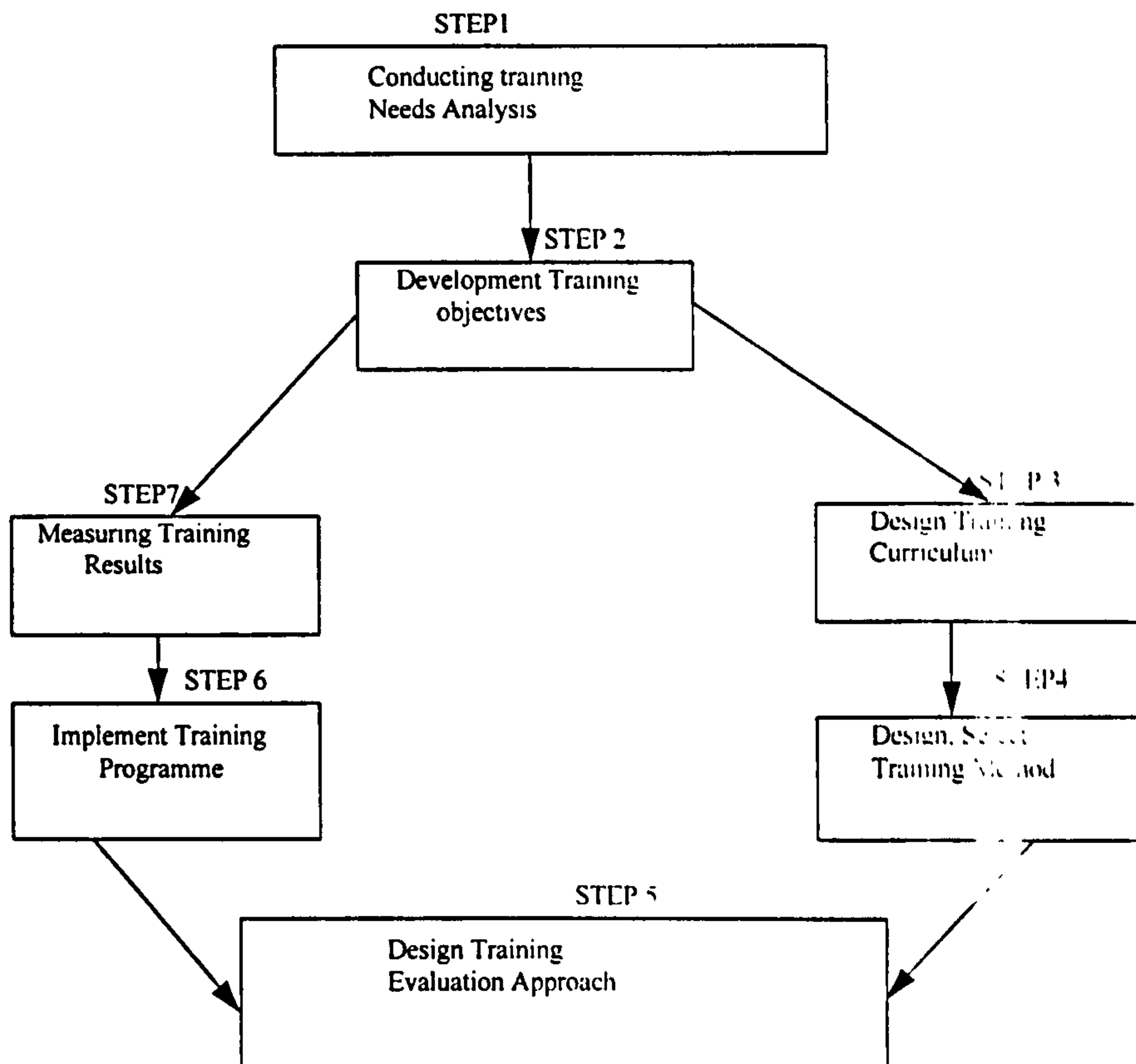
(b) promotion by developing employees to meet future operational needs and providing them with opportunities to develop their latent talent and abilities.

(c) coping with change, because an important factor in achieving success, whether as an individual or an organisation, is the ability to recognise and respond to change.

The intended results of training are improved performance in terms of high output with less time, on part of the individual, and more profit and or better services in terms of quantity and quality regarding the organisation. In other words, the expected results of any training activity are the efficient and effective individual and organisation. Training is, therefore, a clear investment. Expenditure on training can only be justified if the results can be expressed in improved performance. Once training is seen as an investment, it makes sense to measure the return from training. Measuring effectiveness is an integral part of training activity and evaluation of training is a major

component of training, as illustrated in Parker's (1976) Training Design and Evaluation Model, Figure 6.4

**Figure 6.4**  
**Training Design and Evaluation**



Source: Parker, T.C. (1976)

The importance of evaluation of training programmes is due primarily to the importance of training objectives and thus to the fact that it provides information for the improvement of the programme. Here the concern of the evaluation is the achievement of goals.



Newstrom (1978) conducted a critical study of Kirkpatrick's model and found the most commonly used criteria are reactions and learning because they tend to be easier to use and are less costly. He supported this by quoting Catalenello and Kirkpatrick's (1968) findings that 77 percent of the national sample of training directors used "reactions" as a criterion for evaluation and only 46 percent used "results". According to Catalenello and Kirkpatrick, the emphasis on measurement of reactions was so strong that the important and difficult steps in the evaluation process are being done less, with many of the efforts being superficial and subjective. This led Bunker and Cohen (1978) to argue that the practice of the evaluation of training programmes has not kept pace with the prescription. Evaluation research is conspicuous by its absence. When it is present, it is remiss in applying appropriate controls to draw reasonably valid conclusions. At the time when the proliferation of organisational training programmes would seem to call for a greater role for evaluation, quite the opposite seems to be occurring. Organisations appear more reluctant than ever to undertake meaningful assessments of training outcomes. Bunker and Cohen (1978) attributed the organisation's inactivity in the evaluation effort to:

(a) the contention, by the organisation, that evaluation is not necessary because the training is developed by organisation itself;

(b) the cost usually being cited as the prime reason for not investigating training impact;

(c) the belief that better evaluations are not possible to do. This rationalisation emphasises the apparent insurmountability of training outcome measurement problems,

which is often heard from organisations which have made a surface commitment to evaluation;

(d) training personnel being hesitant to undertake evaluation efforts which might appear to invalidate the department's own development activities;

(e) the human element in training not being recognised and treated as an asset. Training is viewed as an expensive undertaking. Every effort is made to avoid non-essential programme-spending such as evaluation cost.

It is pertinent to mention that the organisation's inactivity in evaluation efforts neither undermines nor rules out the need to conduct evaluations. Without systematic evaluation, there will be no information to decide whether to expand, modify or discard a programme. Evaluation is a must if development and growth are to be achieved.

Having established the importance of, and the need for, evaluation of training programmes, it is appropriate to discuss approaches to evaluation.

According to Stufflebeam's system analytic view of evaluation, any type of programmematic activity can be analysed in four stages. These are:

(a) the context which is the environment or the problem setting in which the programme is developed,

(b) the input which consists of the resources, plans and people who are imposed to the programme,

(c) the process which includes the actual activities of the programme,

(d) the product which is the outcome, effect or impact of the programme on its environment.

In a programme of training, these four stages might be specified as follows:

(a) Context evaluation, to answer the question, “Is there a need for this sort of training?”

(b) Input evaluation, to answer the questions. “Is this type of training feasible? Are the various conditions for programme success present? Have we done a good job of planning, designing, funding, staffing, and recruiting?”

(c) Process evaluation, to answer the questions, “Did the programme process as planned? What did actually happen during training and during installation?”

(d) Product evaluation, to answer the questions, “What was the end result? Which of the anticipated or hoped -for outcomes were actually achieved?” (Havelock, 1973).

The choice of a stage will depend upon the purpose of evaluation, the situation and the information needed. Evaluation of training should ideally meet the following rules (Havelock, 1973).

(a) It should be designed and reported as relevant feedback to some specified individuals and/or groups;

(b) It should be cost-beneficial.

(c) It should allow for comparative judgement leading to rational choices.

(d) It should be relevant to the rationale, intended outcomes and success criteria of the programme.

(e) It should represent meaningful input to research, development, and utilisation.



Like any other inquiry activity, the evaluation of training programmes must utilise research designs to provide answers for the questions under investigation. The focus has been primarily upon experimental and quasi-experimental designs. Anderson (1975) reported that:

*“Campbell and Stanley state unequivocally that they are committed to the experiment; as the only means for settling disputes regarding educational practice, as the only way of establishing a cumulative tradition in which improvements can be introduced without the danger of a faddish discard of old wisdom in favour of inferior novelties.”*

Taylor, Gibson and Morris (1978) argued that:

*“Summative evaluations should whenever possible employ experimental designs when examining programmes that are to be judged by their results.”*

They recommend the use of a comparison or control group because:

*“In evaluations where only the experimental group is measured, interpretation of the results is difficult and often unconvincing. Without any comparison, it is hard to know how good the results are, whether the results would have been as good with some other programme, and even whether the programme had any effects on the results at all.”*

Phillips (1983) identified six designs for evaluating training programmes. Four of these designs have the characteristics of the experimental design, for example the use of control group, pre-/post-test, random assignment of participants to groups, and attention to control threats to validity.

Despite the strong feelings toward experimental designs, some authors have called for the consideration of alternatives to experimentation. Suppes (1972) pointed

out that sciences such as astronomy did not engage in experimentation in any serious way and still achieved remarkable results.

A major argument against the utility of experimental designs in evaluation of training programmes was that the real-life settings in which programmes are conducted are not usually amenable to experimental control. According to Clark (1979):

*“It is tempting to say that, all things being equal, the experimental design is preferable. The difficulty is that in administrative settings, things are rarely ‘equal’ in the sense that rigorous experimental evaluation rarely corresponds neatly with the context and timing of policy needs. Nor can anyone argue that the situation is to approximate the experimental design as nearly as possible. The selection of methods and measures tends to be more situation dependent depending on the question to be addressed and the schedule of decisions to be influenced.”*

Brethower and Rummler (1979) argued:

*“Most of the training evaluation today is classified as action research. That is, research occurs in a real situation with all the constraints imposed by the organisation going about getting its work done.”*

Accordingly, they rated the control group design low in terms of its applicability for evaluating training programmes because of high cost, difficulty in control group, and the ethical and economical problems of withholding training from certain groups.

When one must determine which design to use, several factors will influence the decision, particularly the nature of the programme and the working environment in which it is conducted. “The more complex the design, the more costly the evaluation effort. Yet the results are more valid. The availability of control groups and the ease of randomisation are other factors that enter into the decision” (Phillips, 1983).

What can be concluded from the above discussion is:

(a) Training is seen as the means of equipping employees to perform competently in their present or future jobs so as to increase the efficiency of organisations and individuals' job satisfaction. As a result, training is growing rapidly with several millions of dollars spent on training programmes for managers and supervisors. The common expectation is that the development of individual through training will have paramount influence on the growth and development of their organisation.

(b) Evaluation of training programmes is important and useful because:

*"First, it requires a programme developer and trainers to plan and think clearly about what they want to achieve and how they can do it. Second, it provides information to sponsors and policy planners on whether or not such programmes should be continued, repeated, terminated or modified. Thirdly, if it is so designed that the trainer can receive feedback during training, it can allow for in process improvement. Finally it can give the trainee feedback and reinforcement on his behaviour"* (Lavelock, 1973).

(c) Despite the importance of evaluation of training programmes, the literature is not reflective of this fact: there are more articles on models for evaluation or methods for collecting data in contrast to published case examples of applied evaluations (Groves, 1981)

(d) There are four stages of evaluation: context, input, process, and product. The choice of a stage is determined by the purpose of the evaluation and the information needed.

(e) There are numerous evaluation designs. The choice is determined by the social setting under study, the problems stated, the research questions under



investigation, and the ability of the design to produce results which can be generalised to other groups and settings. When choosing a design, two or more designs can be combined to form an alternative design.

### **6.3.1 Evaluation of Results**

Management training is a multi-faceted process which involves many people to carry it out and requires a vast amount of money to be invested. Hence the potential value and benefit of such a costly endeavour must be proven to the organisation. Therefore training evaluation is receiving much attention, and many different approaches are proposed by various authors (Easterby-Smith, 1994). Nonetheless, this area remains problematic in many respects.

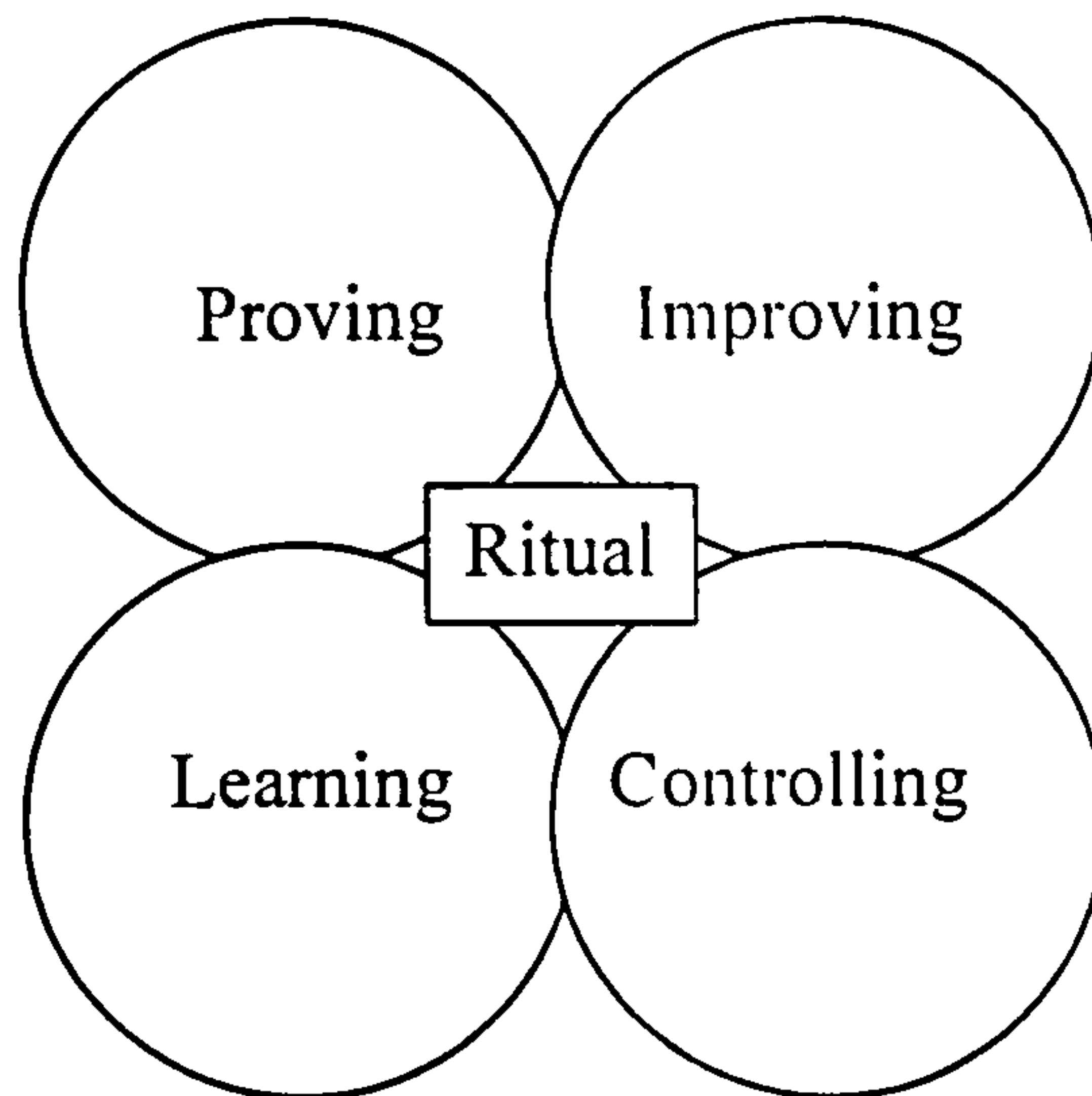
Many researchers believe that it is extremely difficult to evaluate management training owing to lack of agreement on criteria, the diversity of approaches and complexity of the training process (e.g. Mumford, 1989; Easterby-Smith, 1994). For instance, Mumford (1989:155) stresses the reasons why evaluation is rarely conducted.

These include:

- 1) The absence of clear objectives and standards of achievement for the course;
- 2) Lack of interest by line managers, who have not forced trainers to provide clear statements of benefits achieved;
- 3) A lack of interest among trainers and educators, who are characteristically more interested in delivering the course than in reviewing the results.
- 4) The actual difficulty in constructing relevant analytical processes (i.e. evaluation techniques).

The evaluation process, however, is believed to cater for many queries. Four general purposes of evaluation have been suggested by Easterby-Smith (1994). The first is 'proving', which emphasises the values and benefits gained from training and developmental activities. The aim is to judge the way an activity is executed and to justify the cost incurred. The second purpose is 'improving', which stresses future improvement of current programmes. The third is 'learning', which implies that evaluation should be considered part of a learning experience, since it can not be easily separated from it. The last aim of the evaluation process is 'controlling', which refers to the use of evaluation data to ensure that individual trainers as well as training departments are performing to the standards and meeting their targets. These four main aims are illustrated in Figure 6.5.

**Figure 6.5 Four General Purposes of Evaluation**



Source: Easterby-Smith (1994), p15

The four purposes are very broad and thus cannot be accomplished by a single evaluation process. Therefore organisations have to decide first on the objectives of any assessment efforts and to plan evaluation activities accordingly. In other words, they have to determine the focus or foci of the evaluation process whether it will be concerned with context, administration, inputs or outputs. Given the choice made by the concerned party, data collection media and methods are designed (Easterby-Smith, 1994).

Bramely (1991) argues that, once an objective or a group of objectives are decided, the next phase is to select a suitable approach. He classifies approaches for



training evaluation into five sets according to the purposes to be served. The first group is goal-based evaluation that views training activities as cyclic where needs are identified and objectives are set, following which the evaluation is directed at measuring the degree to which the objectives are attained. The second set is system evaluation, which is concerned with answering questions such as what is the targeted population, is it effective, and is it worth the cost involved? The third group is goal-free evaluation, which emphasises opinions rather than measuring outcomes. The fourth set is responsive evaluation, which attempt to assess the responses of all parties involved, the main client, the organisers, a sample of trainees and their superiors. The last group is labelled “quasi-legal evaluation”, which involves a tribunal that includes representatives of organisers, users and accountants to submit evidence on the value of a training experience.

#### **6.4 The Empirical Basis of Evaluation**

The purpose of this section is to provide support for the choice of the problem under study. The conclusions and findings of the studies reviewed delineate what has been done, what it overlooked, and what is to be done. Furthermore, it provides an insight into methods for conducting the study. The review was conducted within the framework of the problem stated and the research questions to be investigated. The focus was on the studies measuring the impact of training on attitudes, leadership skills, problem-solving skills, and on-the-job performance.

The review was limited by the fact the published literature is not completely representative of current evaluations of management training programmes. Many of the

studies appearing in training and management journals are not backed by empirical evidence. The review was further limited by the lack of literature from the environment and culture where the EDP is conducted. In Saudi Arabia this limitation is even more severe. There is no published evaluation of the EDP. Furthermore, the EDP's evaluations are limited to those given during the course, if any, and does not give any indication of desired results on the performance of the attendees after their return to the job. In addition, previous evaluation results of training programmes of the IPA are not accessible to the researcher to review because of secrecy.

#### **6.4.1 Evaluation of Changes in Attitudes**

A key assumption of training is that, although it is not always made explicit in the description of training programmes, changing attitudes is a function of training. Attitudes give direction to leadership and problem-solving skills. Improved performance can only occur after attitudes have been modified.. Nevertheless, the number of studies using attitude change as a criterion in the evaluation of training are relatively small. Possibly this was due to the difficulty in finding suitable control groups.

Schein (1972) evaluated an eight-month programme for college graduates to assess the impact of the programme on learning experience of those who attended it in terms of changes in attitudes, interests and personality characteristics. She also wanted to determine if predictors of these changes could be found. Using an internal criterion of learning, Schein employed a set of instruments (The Study of Values, Strong Vocational Interest Blank [SVIB] , Guilford Zimmerman Temperament Survey [GZTS] , Leadership Opinion Questionnaire [LOQ], and the I-E Scale) to measure attitudes

toward management. She then used a different set of instruments (Adaptability Tests, Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Miller Analogies Test, California Test of Personality, Edwards Personal Preference Schedule [EPPS], Gordon Personal Inventory, and the Profile Biographical Inventory) to measure changes which occur. Because of significant differences between pre- and post-test scores, Schein identified significant changes in attitudes in terms of leadership style, attitude toward business, need for sociability and ascendance, and diversity of interests. She also discovered predictors of these changes could be identified because 26 of the 32 changes could be related to one or more of the predicted variables.

She then suggested:

*“Further research is now needed to determine if the changes are associated with job success. The second phase of the research project would relate interests, attitudes, and personality changes to external criteria such as supervisory rating, salary increases and promotions.”*

A study which attempted to relate attitude change to performance on the job was Holder's (1972) attempt to measure changes in on-the-job attitudes and behaviour after attending management development programme for supervisors. Six months after the programme, confidential rating scales were sent to supervisors who participated in the programme, as well as supervisors' branch managers, to evaluate changes in participants' attitudes and behaviours. “The results would produce an indication of actual participants' feelings about changes in his behaviour as well as the branch managers' perception of changes in the supervisors' behaviour” (Holder, 1972). Holder found much of the learning from the programme was applied on the job and that



improvements in on-the-job behaviour and attitudes were significant, as noticed by the participants and their superiors. He also indicated that other variables may have affected the transfer of knowledge and, therefore, the change in behaviour and attitudes. Such variables include an instructor's ability, the ability of participants to understand theory, and encouragement by superiors for the participants to apply new knowledge.

Although this study did not use an experimental design, its findings have more value than Schein's. This advantage results from Holder's use of observation of participants' attitudes and behaviour by the superiors in contrast to Schein's use of written attitude tests alone. Another study using attitude change as a criterion for evaluation was Canter's (1951) evaluation of a human relations training programme. Canter measured the influence of the programme on the behaviour of the trainees in accordance with the objectives of the programme. In Canter's study, the General Facts and Principles, How Supervise?, General Reasoning, Social Judgement Tests for Supervisors, Supervisory Questionnaire, and Test Ability to Estimate Group Opinion (TAEGO) were administered to the first and the second training groups. The two groups were similar in respect to age, years of education, and sex. Slight differences existed in years of service with the company, which Canter considered to be statistically insignificant. He found that the first training group obtained higher scores on all six tests compared to the second group and therefore concluded the first objective of the programme was adequately met. Since the purpose of the programme was to produce changes in attitudes, the findings could lead to the conclusion the programme was a success.

All of the studies reviewed to this point produced favourable results in support of the assumption that attitude change does occur in many training programmes. Lefkowitz's (1972) study, on the other hand, produced different results. He evaluated a three-day supervisory training programme for police sergeants to measure the trainees' attitudinal reactions to the programme and the degree of learning which took place. Six weeks before the beginning of the programme, a series of attitudinal questionnaires were administered to the entire police force of medium-size city in the Midwest of the USA. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), Dogmatism Scale, and the Anti-Negro Scale were re-administered to the trainees on the final day of the programme.

The sergeants to receive training were divided into three groups. Lefkowitz used the third group as a control group by administering the questionnaire to them before beginning the programme. The post-tests were administered six to eight weeks after the pre-test. The training was for six, eight and eleven weeks after the pre-test. Using analysis of variance, Lefkowitz found no changes in attitudes of sergeants. He attributed the programme's failure in producing changes in attitudes to the short time of training and the trainees' uncertainty about applying new knowledge to their jobs.

The conclusion of these studies is that attitude changes did occur following some training programmes but not with others. The impact of attitude change in regard to on-the-job performance is yet to be investigated, as there is a scarcity of studies relating attitude change to performance on-the-job (Schein, 1971).

## 6.4.2 Evaluation of Leadership Skill Development

For the purpose of this study, leadership is defined as the functions which aid a group in accomplishing its goals and/or improving and maintaining working relationships. Thus leadership skills are interpersonal skills that help an individual perform the above mentioned functions. This was based on Drilinger and Rice's (1983) definition of leadership training as teaching managers to use appropriate interpersonal skills in dealing with employees and others, and the fact that many of the leadership training programmes are designed to provide for the improvement in leadership skills through human relations training. Accordingly, the question of the effectiveness of human relations training in improving leadership skills has been addressed frequently in the literature of evaluation of training programmes. An example of this is Fleishman's (1953) evaluation of a two-week human relations programme for foremen in the International Harvester Company. The programme was to change the attitudes and behaviour of supervisors to make them more conscious of human relations. The Supervisory Behaviour Description and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire were administered before the programme, immediately after the programme, and after return to the job, to measure consideration and initiating structure. Reduction in initiating structure and an increase in consideration were taken as indications of change in the desired direction. Fleishman found opinion changes in the desired direction immediately after training. However, the gains disappeared after a short period back on the job. Subordinates of the trainees also reported no improvements in actual behaviour as they saw it. One could infer from these findings that the programme did not produce improvement in leadership skills which were measurable in terms of attitudinal and



behaviour changes. While the findings may be valid, there was an element of weakness in the study because Fleishman did not use an experimental design.

Mayo and Dubois (1963) used an experimental design to evaluate the Naval Air Training Command Leadership School for Chief Petty Officers. The purpose of the study was to assess the effectiveness of the School in improving leadership performance on the job. The School offered a five-week leadership programme which emphasised the human relations aspects of leadership. The residual gain criterion was used to measure the effectiveness of the programme. The performance of each graduate of the programme was evaluated by the officer supervising each graduate's work before attending the programme as well as two months after a graduate returned to the job. The supervisors used a 15-point scale with two reference points to collect information about the leadership performance of the training groups.

The results of the study provided evidence for the effectiveness of the programme in improving leadership performance on-the-job. They concluded, however, the improvement was so significant it could be attributed entirely to the procedure or the bias of the evaluator.

The studies reviewed to this point are of human relations programmes emphasising human relations and sensitivity training. Leister, Borden, and Fiedler (1977) evaluated a self-paced leadership programme known as the "Leader Match" in which trainees were asked to diagnose and match their leadership style to the situation which focused basically on the task performance. The study was to measure improvement in leadership performance after the programme. The subjects of the study were Officers and Chief Petty Officers from eight naval air squadrons. Half of the

subjects were randomly assigned to the first training group while the other half was assigned to the second group. The Performance Evaluation Scale was used to assess the two leadership dimensions, a four-item performance factor and a personal performance factor. The mean performance changes of the first training and the second group were then compared. The gain scores showed that substantial improvement in performance occurred when leaders received training with "Leader Match." Even though this was an evaluation of the effectiveness of the method of training, it is quite relevant for improving leadership skills since one could infer that using the appropriate training method will enhance the improvement of leadership skills.

Other studies used changes in leadership styles or improvement in leadership skills as a criterion for evaluating training programmes which were not, in essence, leadership training programmes. Groves (1981) used this approach to evaluate the Preliminary Education Programme, which is designed to equip participants with sufficient and necessary skills to enable them to gain admission to a Master's degree programme in public administration, to complete this programme in good academic standing, and also to provide the programme participants with sufficient training in specialised areas of public administration that could be directly applied upon the participants' return to Nigeria.

Using the quasi-experimental time series design, Groves found that:

*"In examining behavioural and attitudinal changes in participants during the first year, the behavioural changes outnumbered attitudinal changes. Behavioural changes were primarily composed of improvements in individual skills in interpersonal communication. The interview results in Pittsburgh revealed that the majority of the programme participants had authoritarian based management styles before coming to*

*Pittsburgh, The anticipated direction of change following their graduate training was either from a strict authoritarian style to a more benevolent authoritarian style or from an authoritarian to a more consultative style” (Groves. 1981).*

In summary, using the appropriate training method under the appropriate training conditions, leadership skills can be improved through training, particularly human relations training and training designed to develop interpersonal skills.



### **6.4.3 Evaluation of Problem-Solving Skills**

Few studies measure improvements in problem-solving skills as a criterion for assessing the effectiveness of a training programme. The studies which do this are basically evaluations of training programmes in problem-solving and decision-making.

One such study was Mahoney, Jerdee, and Korman's (1966) evaluation of a management development programme using the case study approach to improve problem-solving and decision-making skills of managers. The focus of the study was upon the level of achievement of objectives upon completing of training activities. Two questions were asked: to what extent does the programme achieve its stated objectives, and does the involvement of the participating manager's superior contribute to the achievement of the programme objectives?

Many studies use achievement of objectives as the basis for measuring the effectiveness of training. Examples of such studies are Canter (1951) and Mahoney, Jerdee, and Korman (1966).

Measuring the extent to which objectives of training have been achieved is the traditional outcome evaluation approach. Warr (1970) recognises three levels of outcome evaluation. These are:

- a) Immediate outcomes, which are the changes in the trainee's skill and knowledge measured by testing at the end of the training.
- b) Intermediate outcomes, which are the changes in the trainee's job behaviour when he/she applies newly learned skills and knowledge to his/her work.
- c) Ultimate outcomes, which causes changes in the functioning of the organisation such as an increasing productivity or changing methods and techniques.

According to Warr (Kenney and Donnelly, 1972), “training can only be considered successful if the job behaviour as opposed to ‘end of course behaviour’ is as specified in the training objectives.”

Using a before-and-after experimental design, a set of criterion measures of achievement were developed and administered to the training groups.

Changes in criterion scores of the first training group were compared with the changes in scores of the second group to assess the overall value of the programme. The findings of the study indicated the programme was partially successful in achieving its objectives. This was based on significant improvement in the participants’ ability to apply an analytical approach to problem-solving as well as changes in attitudes towards self-development. Improvements in knowledge of management principles were not significant. The study did not measure the impact upon on-the-job performance. Measuring the impact upon on-the-job performance and the question of the effectiveness of the case study approach as a training method were recommended by Mahoney, Jerdee, and Korman as topics for future research. Their findings, however, do not provide strong evidence for improvement in problem-solving skills. The success of the programme in achieving its objectives does not imply that the trainee will be able to make effective use of the skills acquired on-the-job.

Moffie, Calhoun and O’Brien (1964) evaluated a programme on problem-solving and decision-making given to three levels of management in a paper mill in the south eastern part of the USA. The programme was to increase the participants’ speed and accuracy of problem-solving and decision-making. The participants’ reactions at the end of the programme were favourable, as they rated the programme worthwhile and

applicable to their work. They also indicated they would recommend it to potential participants. Using the Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal to measure learning and analysis of observational data collected during the practical work periods of the programme, Moffie, Calhoun and O'Brien found no significant improvements in the problem-solving and decision-making skills in the training groups.

What may be concluded from reviewing these two studies is that evaluation of training programmes concerned with problem-solving skills has produced mixed results. There is therefore considerable doubt whether training can produce improvement in problem-solving skills.

#### **6.4.4 Evaluation of On-The-Job Performance**

There is also a dearth of information concerning on-the-job performance after training. This is attributed to the difficulty of developing valid measures of job performance and to reliance on other criteria for evaluating training programmes. The difficulty of measuring on-the-job performance after training stems from the fact that other variables intervene with training. It is therefore difficult to determine if training is the cause of the observed change. These variables are defined by House (1968) as: the objectives, policies and practices established by top management and with which the trainee must work; the immediate superior's right to reward, punish and encourage application of learning; and the expectations of peers and subordinates of the trainees. These variables will also help to determine the trainee's attitudes toward what is learned and his ability to transform new knowledge and skills into performance.



Bakken and Banstein (1982) suggest two ways for dealing with the difficulty of measuring on-the-job performance after training. These are:

- a) The use of a second training group as similar as possible to the primary training group, as a control.
- b) The use of time series analysis, where observations are made on regular intervals and after training.

Mayo and DuBois (1963), in their study mentioned earlier, also measured on-the-job performance and concluded that training was effective in improving participants' performance.

Despite the fact that both studies produced favourable results indicating that training was effective in improving on-the-job performance, there remains some doubt regarding the impact of training upon on-the-job performance.

The literature reviewed provides some additional knowledge concerning the evaluation of management training programmes. It indicated the following:

- a) Changes in attitudes can be achieved through training.
- b) Training can produce improved leadership skills.
- c) There is no consistent evidence of the effect of training upon improving problem-solving skills.
- d) Only few studies examined the effects of training upon on-the-job performance. There is no consistent evidence of the impact of training upon on-the-job performance.

As has been reported earlier in Chapter Three, there are a number of good theoretical and management training and development arguments to be further

investigated. But the core argument is: if anyone invests in this way, it will payoff in the person's work performance within the organisation. But nobody has yet worked out convenient and satisfactory measures because the kind of access needed for that kind of study is quite different from the kind of access needed for questionnaire-based studies. This a particular issue within the kind of culture the researcher experienced within Saudi Arabia, because of the relatively bureaucratic and secretive culture and the conservative attitude of both organisations as well as of individuals in Saudi Arabia (as has been reported in Chapter Two and Chapter Five).

So it is more difficult to persuade people that they should simply open their doors for a researcher to study observationally, especially if the researcher is an "outsider".

Thus all these realities have contributed to the difficulties encountered by the researcher during the undertaking of this study and especially at the field-work stage.

In general, however, obtaining data or information in any sort of social research depends to a great extent on the co-operation of the main sources (i.e. organisations or individuals) in approving the research mission and in providing accurate, adequate and reliable information. Also this determines to the choice of research methodology in Chapter Seven.

## **6.5 Summary**

Evaluation of management development and training programmes is an important part of any training activity. It goes beyond the assessment of outcomes and effects to the systematic inquiry of contents, plans and operation of training. It helps

collect information to decide what is done, how it is done, what is needed, and what is to be done. In other words, evaluation of training is an inquiry activity to determine to what degree training produces appropriate knowledge, and to what degree the knowledge is transferred into the job. The answer to these points is provided by measurement of the trainees' reactions, knowledge learned, on-the-job behaviour changes, and organisational performance. Which of these to choose is determined by rigour, relevance and economy. Rigour refers to the reliability, validity and precision of measurement. Relevance connotes a link to organisational goals. Economy analyses the trade-off between costs and benefits (Zenger, 1982).

Different approaches to evaluating training programmes exist. The choice of an approach depends upon the applicability of the approach and the level at which the evaluation is to be conducted (i.e. individual or institutional level).

Experimental and quasi-experimental designs as well as non-experimental designs are utilised in the evaluation of training programmes. The choice of design is influenced by the environment in which the programme is conducted and the purpose of the evaluation.

Empirical evaluations of management training programmes do not provide evidence of the impact of training upon on-the-job performance.

This chapter has emphasised the importance of evaluation of training in any attempt to assess the success of trainees' careers. As the literature shows, there are many suggestions for carrying out this assessment. Almost all the literature the researcher was able to review in this chapter has derived from the Western context particularly the USA. To some extent it builds in assumptions about people's willingness to co-operate



with evaluation. Clearly, it is not possible to transfer those assumptions to other cultural contexts, where people may, for identifiable reasons, be more unwilling to co-operate openly and honestly with evaluation than they are in other contexts.

However, in Saudi Arabia, there is very limited evaluation of training programmes, and there are no published evaluation results. Whether the training programme was beneficial or not is generally not measured. Neither it is possible to measure or analyse the training programmes objectives, methods, etc. against the expected change or implementations on the job.

The following chapter explains and justifies the research methodology adopted by the present research.

# **Chapter Seven**

## **Research Methodology**

## **7.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a description of how this study was carried out. It deals with: (a) the research question, (b) research design, (c) research methods, (d) the strategy adopted for this study, (e) problems, (f) instruments for data collection, (g) the sample and (h) statistical techniques for the data analysis.

This study is focused upon the transfer of knowledge gained from the EDP to the job in terms of its impact upon on-the-job performance.

The literature reviewed in Chapter Six did not provide evidence of the impact of training upon on-the-job performance. This may be attributed to research as follows:

a) Evaluations of training programmes are evaluations of unique programmes conducted in unique settings. It is not always possible to generalise the finding of these evaluations to other training programmes because programmes do not produce the same results.

b) There are different performance variables. Performance can be measured at the individual and/or organisational levels. Even though the two levels are interrelated, improvement in one does not necessarily follow improvement in the other. Also, one variable may be influenced by many variables, whereas some variables may have little or no relationship to other variables. It is, therefore, difficult for training to have the same effect on all performance variables. The effect of training is dependent upon the content, methodology and the objectives of the training programme as well as upon the organisational context to which the trainee returns.



c) There is a lack of published training evaluation results in Saudi Arabia, and especially a lack of training evaluation results in terms of on-the-job performance.

The basic assumptions about the effects of training upon on-the-job performance are yet to be fully investigated. Sufficient evidence has not been produced to support or reject the assumption that on-the-job performance can be affected by training. It is necessary to establish the relationship between training and on-the-job performance, and to identify and to define the components of job performance which will be measured.

On-the-job performance is generally defined as the job holder's contributions and work place behaviour in relation to objectives which enable the organisation to reach its mission and goals. The components of on-the-job performance can be identified as knowledge and skills required to do the job and attitudes toward the job.

This study investigated the impact of the EDP upon the participants' knowledge of modern management principles and techniques, their attitudes toward their jobs, and their leadership and problem-solving skills. The key assumptions of the EDP were as follows.

a) Knowledge of principles and techniques required to do a job can be increased by training.

b) A worker's attitude toward a job can be changed by training.

c) Skills required to do a job can be improved by training.

The impact upon performance was measured at the individual level on-the-job by use of Pre- and Post-tests, and by the collection of supportive data from the participants' immediate superiors after the training. The immediate superior is the one who has concrete data regarding the participants' performance before and after the

programme because he evaluates the performance of the participant and should be able to observe any changes which may occur.

## **7.2 Research Questions**

A review of the relevant literature, in Chapter Four, indicates that there has been few researches conducted and little attention devoted to management development research in the Arabian Gulf region. Hence this study aims to examine and explore the prevailing patterns of management development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and to identify the influence of some variables on the process of management development. The focus of this research is on the EDP offered by IPA for managers in government sector in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. So the main issue for this study was whether participation in the EDP had a positive significant effect on executives' job performance. Performance in this case consisted of applications of modern management principles and techniques, attitude toward the job, leadership skills, and problem-solving skills.

With these objectives in mind, answers to following questions are sought in this research.

- 1) What is the impact of Saudi cultural context on the training?
- 2) What factors might explain the variation between Saudi Arabia and what one identifies elsewhere?
- 3) To what extent are outcomes of training influenced by the same sorts of factors in Saudi Arabia as appear to influence outcomes in other cultural contexts?
- 4) Are there differences in these impacts and why?

5) What, if any, are the broader issues for Saudi Arabia about the evaluation of training and development?

### **7.3 Research Design**

Research design is the programme that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information regarding a special phenomenon. In accordance with this, it is necessary to deal with the key design differences briefly to understand the reason behind the choice and practicalities of the design of this study.

The major types of research design are:

#### **1) Experimental design**

In this classic research design two comparable groups are assigned to an experiment and their members must be selected and allocated randomly. Despite the fact that this type of research design has internal validity as its major strength, its weakness lies with its external validity, i.e. the generalisability of its outcomes (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992).

#### **2) Quasi-experimental design**

The quasi-experimental design is similar to the experimental design apart from the fact that researchers draw their samples through less restrictive procedures and from a real world setting. Nonetheless, the advantage and disadvantage are reversed when the two are compared.

#### **3) Non-experimental design**

Non-experimental design is employed in this study according the following:



a) It is an exploratory study which seeks to generalise its findings to a large population (executives who attended the EDP).

b) This study requires a natural setting. This means that independent variables, (e.g. age, nationality, job position, job grade, sex, etc.) and external environment (e.g. cultural context) are not manipulated by the researcher. In the other words, there is no control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred.

c) Non-experimental studies are more realistic, because they are closer to real life. Proper measurement of the job performance, and job satisfaction for executives who attended the EDP require a realistic setting and it would be difficult to conduct a laboratory experiment.

d) This study intends to identify executives' attitudes toward their work after attending the EDP by examining the effect of a wide array of variables such as the cultural context.

#### **7.4 Research Methods**

Research methods are a system of work used by researchers for purpose of data collection. Among the major methods used in data collection in organisations one can list: the observations, the personal interview, the questionnaire, and the telephone survey. These methods can be subsumed under the concept of survey research (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1981: 179).

Questionnaires are probably the most frequently used data gathering device in social science studies. But questionnaires have their limitations: the method gives no opportunity to probe (answers have to be accepted as final) and no control over who fills

out the questionnaire. However, this technique has many advantages. For example, it is an inexpensive method of collecting data, can reduce bias errors, assures anonymity in the event of sensitive issues, and can cover a wider geographic area with minimal cost. After prolonged deliberation and analysis, the questionnaire has been selected as a tool of data collecting for this research.

The present study used “before-” and “after-” training questionnaires and compares that with after training responses gathered from another group. Owing to inability of the researcher to find a control group in equivalent circumstances and conditions, the study approached another alternative: participants’ superiors given after-training questionnaires only in order to secure the necessary data to carry out the research. This “after” only questionnaire to superiors was made necessary by limitation of access, but it sought superiors’ views on the impact of training on job performance.

Participants were asked to express their views twice, before and after training. Superiors were asked to assess their views after the participants completed the training.

In considering the appropriate type of questionnaire to be administered to the participant managers, and having in mind the need to examine and evaluate management activity, it was realised that an alternative methodology (“before” and “after” questionnaires) has gained impetus (Campbell et al. 1970). Many researchers have used this method to evaluate and examine training programmes, and to understand their effects on participants.

## 7.5 The Strategy Adopted for This Study

The purpose of this section is mainly to explain the strategy selected for this study as well as the tools employed in collecting the data required.

According to Hakim (1987), the choice of a methodology must be linked to the subjects under examination and to the objectives being pursued, within the practical constraints of location, time and cost.

Consequently several factors should be taken into consideration when deciding on the appropriateness of a research methodology. Firstly, the objective of the research and the questions it intends to answer must be born in mind (Robson, 1993). Secondly, the subjects under investigation may restrict the methodological options and their suitability (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991). Thirdly, the political orientation and conflicting interests at the target organisational level may constrain accessibility to some information and thus affect the choices available to researchers. This is what has been referred to as “the politics of research” by many writers (e.g. Devereux and Hoddinott, 1992; Bryman, 1992). Fourthly, what is more important in this research is the constraints that are imposed by the overall environment. For instance, Devereux and Hoddinott (1992) believe that fieldwork in the developing world should be conducted with extra care owing to the fact that many contextual elements may be involved and restrict the access to data. They further argue that “*contextual and methodological* considerations should be considered jointly, not as two distinct categories in which the first obstructs the pursuit of the second”.

Taking into account these variables, the quantitative study seems to be the best option to meet both the requirements and the particularities of this study.



There is a large body of earlier work on management development (other than the Gulf region) to which this study relates; therefore, the study is not exploratory in concept (though it is in context). This study is quantitative because there is a large amount of earlier research, which has already developed the concepts, and therefore the field is beyond the exploratory stage. However, the context of this research is new. The choice of this approach, i.e. the quantitative study, and data gathering tool, i.e. the questionnaires, are closely tied the purpose of this research, which aims to examine the impact of IPA training programmes, taking the EDP as an example.

## **7.6 Problems**

Several problems were encountered during the survey phase of the study. First, some organisations declined to participate in the survey after their personnel managers had read the questionnaires and discussed them with the researcher. The reason usually given was that it was against the policy of the organisation to respond to questionnaires or to participate in such research.

Second, in some cases, a large period of time passed before the representative sent the completed questionnaires. For example, some of the completed questionnaires were received by the researcher within one week; others were received after four months. Visits were done, but the questionnaires were still not ready and several contacts were required before the researcher was able to receive the completed questionnaires by mail.

Third, any research strategy is entirely dependent on access to the situation intended for study. As a student at the University of Strathclyde, I gained initial access

to the IPA programme through my supervisor. He wrote to the Director General of the IPA asking permission for an evaluation of the programme. Also stated was my name, nationality (Kuwaiti) and when I would like access to the programme, along with the reasons for this. When I arrived in Saudi Arabia, the Director-General of the EDP in the IPA wrote to all trainees and supervisors, asking them to give their full co-operation in my studies.

Following agreement for an evaluation of the programme I travelled to Saudi Arabia to undertake the research. Many authors (Oppenheim, 1992; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1992) discuss access as not being a once-only event. They agree that access may have to be negotiated at a number of different levels in any organisation.

During the time of data collection I encountered several practical difficulties, for example, flying to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and spending sufficient time in tracking the courses conducted by IPA for the specified levels of management. The second practical problem was to trace programme graduates who had by then returned to their work settings or had changed their title, or unit or had left government service altogether; therefore access to them would be limited.

However, by far the greatest threat to the study was the lack of access both to the sites in which the participants worked following the course and to the course itself. This meant that any initial aspirations of observation had to be abandoned. Reasons for this lack of access were not given. However, it is entirely possible that the previously mentioned cultural constraints, combined with those responsible not knowing me, were sufficient to deny access for observational purposes. The fact that very direct access was denied throws into doubt the open-door policy alluded to by the government.

Fourth, the whole approach that I intended to adopt was based on the sort of access I had in Kuwait. But because of the Gulf crisis, the researcher was obliged to shift the onus of the study to Saudi Arabia. As I outlined in the introductory chapter, the shifting of the research to Saudi Arabia had range of implications, many of which are to do with the aspects of Saudi culture the researcher has documented in Chapter Four.

As illustrated in Figure 7.1 below, and because of the Saudi culture and the government structure, it is not possible to undertake the observational studies, or full documentary studies, staff appraisal data, or gain participation in the training programmes as an observer, interviews and access to female participants; therefore, by definition, triangulation was not available. As a result, the only source of data accessible in Saudi Arabia was questionnaires (whereas full access would have been gained in Kuwait).



**Figure 7.1 Comparison of the Accessibility to Sources of Data in  
Saudi Arabia and Kuwait:**

Sources of Data	Kuwait	Saudi Arabia
Observational studies	Possible	(Not possible)
Full documentary studies	Possible	(Not possible)
Questionnaires	Possible	Possible
Interviews with participants	Possible	Very limited
Staff appraisal data	Possible	(Not possible)
Participation in the training programmes	Possible	(Not possible)
Access to female participants	Possible	(Not possible)

### **7.7 Instruments for Data Collection**

As mentioned previously, two questionnaires were designed to collect the vital data to analyse the main issues. One questionnaire was designed for the participants, while the second was designed for their immediate superiors. A five-point scale format (semantic differential) was used in each of the questionnaires.

The areas to be covered in the questionnaires (indicated in Appendix B) include:

a) rating of the value of the EDP in developing planning and control skills, knowledge in the functional areas, effective managerial attitude, and integrative capacity;

b) knowledge of modern management principles and techniques as reflected by the ability to: set objectives, develop plans, set priorities on work, budget, use time

effectively, interview job candidates, select people for jobs, develop work standards, conduct appraisal discussions, develop individual development plans, produce better quality of work, increase quantity of work, and evaluate and follow up policies, decisions and plans;

c) attitude toward the job as reflected by: satisfaction with the job, interest in doing the work, cooperation with peers and subordinates, feeling toward the management of the organisation, satisfaction with working conditions, attendance, keeping expected hours of work, interest in the organisation and its future, belonging to the organisation, and commitment to the organisation;

d) leadership skills, illustrated by the ability to: assign work to people, delegate, understand people with different backgrounds, inform superiors, inform subordinates, conduct formal briefings, lead meetings, relate negative information, determine what training people should have, conduct on-the-job training, recommend rewards, recommend discipline, counsel people with discipline problems, and introduce changes;

e) problem-solving skills, which include the ability to recognise and analyse problems, identify solutions to the problems, decide which solution is the best, and make decisions in emergencies;

f) general topics which cover changes in position and responsibilities, attending training after the EDP, conflict between what was learnt on the EDP and the objectives, policies and practices of the organisation, application of learning to the job, improvement in on-the-job performance, topics in the EDP that had the most impact upon improving on-the-job performance, other factors which might have improved on-the-job performance.

The statements in the questionnaire were extracted from various measurement tests implemented or suggested for use in evaluation of training programmes and/or measuring on-the-job performance. The sources consulted in this study include Kirkpatrick (1975), Pfeiffer and Heslin (1976), Miller (1977), Brown (1979), Shakway (1983) and Philipps (1983). The questionnaire was developed in English, since the study and data analysis have been done in this language. However, before administering it, it had to be translated into Arabic. One way of double-checking the translation was to have a third-party retranslate the questionnaire back to English. The questionnaire was translated twice, first by the department of English language at the College of Business Studies in Kuwait from English to Arabic and then again from Arabic to English by the researcher. Then the English copies were compared to eliminate ambiguities and contradictions. The Arabic version was pre-tested by using Arabic-speaking students studying in Glasgow, Scotland.

The questionnaire was translated into Arabic by the researcher and three Arabic advisers at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training in Kuwait. Then it was taken to another translator to be translated into English. This English translation was compared with the original English.

Drafts of the questionnaire were distributed among various academic and research associates. Accordingly, the format of some items was changed completely or modified. In particular, some questions were added and some questions or items were adjusted because of the difficulty in understanding by the respondents because of the language in the translation from English to Arabic.



## **7.8 The Achieved Sample**

The population of this study was made up of two parts: first, the executives who attended the EDP from the public organisations in the Saudi government with at least five years' experience in planning, decision-making and supervision; second, the executives' immediate supervisors.

The questionnaires were distributed to a sample of 52 participants who attended four training programmes at the IPA on the 12 and 27 December 1993, 2 January and 7 February 1994, two weeks before and two months after the training programme. 40 completed questionnaires were received.

The same number of questionnaires was sent to the respondents' supervisors after the training programme.

In the same way, in the second survey the questionnaires were distributed to a sample of 155 participants who attended six training programmes at the IPA from 10 September to 25 November 1995. Only 123 proved to be valid; 32 of them were incomplete. The same number of questionnaires was sent to their immediate superiors, of which 92 completed responses were received. Because the first sample was less than satisfactory, a second sample was obtained, which was considered satisfactory.

## **7.9 Statistical Techniques**

To analyse the data in this study, various statistical techniques (univariate and multivariate) were used.

As mentioned earlier, the statistical tools employed were meant to serve primarily the exploratory nature of the research. Hence simplest form of statistical

application was performed. The SPSS statistical package was used for the organisation and analysis of the data. Basic descriptive statistics and graphics were presented to serve the purpose of this study, computing percentages, means, informative tables, diagrams, bar charts and the like.

Once the data had been gathered and categorised, a frequency distribution of all items was presented as shown in the next chapter, and correlation matrices were computed for all variables in each category.

Correlation coefficients were computed between each dependent and the independent variables to show to what extent the values in one variable are related to the other variables. Means and standard deviations of the subset of each of the performance variables were also calculated.

## **7.10 Summary**

The study is a field study which analyses data drawn from subjects who attended the EDP to evaluate the outcome of their training and the impact of the cultural context on the development of these programmes.

To measure the impact of training upon on-the-job performance, it is necessary to establish the relationship between training and on-the-job performance and to identify and define the components of job performance which are measured at the individual level.

Having described how the research for this thesis was planned and executed, the next step has to analyse the data gained and apply the findings to the specific

programme in question. Thus, Chapter Eight provides a detailed evaluation of the IPA's attempts to develop senior executives.



## **Chapter Eight**

### **An Evaluation of the IPA's Executive Development Programmes (EDP)**

## 8.1 Introduction

This chapter is designed to present data analysis for the sample, which represents participant managers from two surveys: one from the point of view of the participants themselves and the second from the participants' superiors. The superiors' opinions help support the study's findings to determine the extent to which on-the-job performance was affected by the Executive Development Programmes (EDP) in the IPA and how the four performance variables (i.e., knowledge of modern management principles and techniques, leadership skills, problem-solving and attitude towards the job), were affected by EDP. Analysing these variables will lead to the identification of a weighting scale for future EDP applications.

The following discussion provides a comprehensive and detailed analysis regarding the participants and the EDP training programmes. It covers the main three categories which encompass technical and operational skills, inter-personal skills, and conceptual skills, the results for which are discussed and analysed under the following main headings:

- 1) Presentation of sample characteristics;
- 2) Organisational climate;
- 3) Performance variables;
- 4) The extent to which the objectives of the EDP course (the outcome) were achieved.

Statistical analysis was conducted to determine the degree to which on-the-job performance was affected by the EDP and the responses from the participants in both

surveys were compared with those of their immediate superiors. The following statistical measures were employed:

(a) Pearson correlation coefficient to determine the degree of agreement of the participants responses with the responses of their immediate superiors.

(b) Means and standard deviations of the subsets of each of the four performance variables

(c) Descriptive analysis using frequencies and percentages.

A minimum significant level of  $p \leq 0.05$  was selected. According to Chabotar and Lad (1974): “the .05 level of significance is the minimum basis for the decision that training had indeed produced a difference”.

The choice of this measure was based on the data gathered. There are three types of variables and the level of statistical measurement depend on these variables:

1. Nominal variables: which cannot be ranked from greater to lesser, such as gender, nationality, religion etc. With these types of variables, the researcher cannot calculate a mean or median. These variables are also called “categories variables”.

2. Interval variables: these variables can be ranked and are of equal size, such as educational level, years of working experience, etc.

3. Ordinal variables: these variables have a category that can be ranked, such as the scale of satisfaction level, job performance, etc. For example, job satisfaction is an ordinal because the researcher can rank from “very dissatisfied” to “very satisfied”. This ranks in an order on the dimension of satisfaction.



## **8.2 The First Survey**

The number of participants who actually attended four training programmes in this survey were fifty-two senior managers, who came from different government organisations in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Forty participants (77% of the sample total number) agreed to complete and return the questionnaire.

### **8.2.1 The Sample Characteristics**

These subjects came from five different government organisations. These organisations include: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Electricity and Industry, Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Municipalities and Ministry of Health. Statistical detail of the sample characteristics is provided in Appendix A.

The nationality of all in the sample was Saudi Arabian. In relation to the issue of Saudiisation, this is an interesting proportion. It is not surprising to find that all the study sample are of Saudi nationality because, as mentioned in Chapter Four, the cultural context plays a vital role in selecting managers to be in the top level of management.

Those people rely upon family and friendship ties for getting things done such as getting job or promotion or developing their knowledge and skills by attending training programmes, etc. However, in Saudi Arabia employment laws are enacted to regulate many personnel processes, and the training and development of native employees are imposed by law (for details, see Chapter Four and Chapter Five).

The trainees' educational qualifications were diverse; whereas 10% of them were high school graduates, 35% were college graduates and 55% held a higher degree.

The diversity in participants' educational qualifications posed some problems familiar to all researchers. The example in how to present a lecture content on a level compatible with individual requirements, and how to select problems for discussion which would be meaningful to every participants, etc.

The job positions or titles of the sample respondents are a valid indicator of trainees' actual function in their respective Ministries. It also helps further to clarify the sample's functional stance within the level of management, particularly in relation to determining what does a trainee really do in the real world, which was addressed in the literature review. Thirteen respondents (32.5% of the sample ) were General Managers; 8 (20%) of the sample) were Deputy General Managers while 19 (47.5% of the sample) were Co- General Managers (e.g. Head of Department, Head of Section).

The jobs within the Ministries are graded, giving further indication of their level of seniority. The grading depends on the size of the Ministries and the number of subordinates they have, and are, therefore, not necessarily consistent with their job title. The grades of the sample: 37.5% were in grade eleven; 27.5% were in grade twelve; 35% were in grade thirteen.

The ages of the respondents varied considerably. This can also make for difficulties for any training programme owing to life experience, apart from other factors. Respondents ranged in age from 30 to 58 years with an average of 46 years. 37.5% of them were between 30 and 40 years old, 55% were between 41 and 50 years old and 7.5% were over 50 years old.

This classification is based upon the expectation of life and the ability to work among the Saudi people. The distribution of Saudis according to the ability to work is as

follows: under working age is less than 18 years old, working age ranges from 18 to 60 years old and over working age is over 60 years old.

The sample of this study is generally predominated by male subjects which consist 70% of the sample, while female subjects account for 30%. This is due to the restriction of Saudi culture toward women and their role and the society. Women are struggling to take their role in Saudi society, and this has become more pronounced in recent years, such as requests for the right to be equal to men in some aspects of their way of life and to fill the gap in various needs of the country.

The number of years at their present position shows that 35% of the sample were under five years in their present positions, 37.5% of them had been in their positions for between 5 and 10 years, 5% ( 2 trainees) had been on their positions between 11 and 15 years while 22.5% were over 15 years in their present positions.

The number of years the respondents had been in government service shows that 5% of the sample had 10 years service in the government. 57.5% of the sample had worked between 10 and 20 years in the government, 27.5% had 21 to 30 years of service in the government while the last 10% had enjoyed more than 30 years service in the Saudi Civil Service context. 80% of the sample achieved their present grade by promotion, whereas 10% of them achieved it by gaining higher degrees. The last 10% achieved their present level by direct appointment and transfer from another department.

It is clear from these percentages that 80% of the sample was promoted to their new post, while 10% of them got it by gaining high qualification, and the other 10% was appointed or transferred from other jobs. As mentioned in Chapter Four, education is perceived to be significant in all aspects of life, the researcher discussed in detail in



various cultures such as US, Japanese, French, German and British, how education, on-the-job training and seniority are playing vital role in promotion criteria. Strategies for developing managers are different according to culture and country. In Arab culture in general and in Saudi in particular, the family and friendship ties play a major role in getting the job or getting promoted to that job, as already discussed in Chapter Four and Five.

The amount of managerial experience of the sample showed that 20% had under 5 years of managerial experience, 47.5% of them had between 5 and 10 years of experience, 10% had between 11 and 15 years of experience and 22.5 had over 15 years of experience in managerial work.

The participants had undertaken a number of previous training programmes; most of the participants had taken at least one training programme before attending the programme under investigation. About 95% of the subjects had previous exposure to management training. They averaged between two and three programmes prior to this attendance. Some of the participants had received their training programmes abroad, for example in Egypt, in the United States, or in the United Kingdom.

The responses received from the questionnaire suggests its validity as no questions were misunderstood.

### **8.2.2 Organisational Climate**

Organisational climate in this survey is assessed in terms of:

**a) Change in position after EDP**

Thirty seven of the respondents from the participants (92.5%) cited no change in their positions after they returned to work from the EDP. Three (7.5%) of those were given more responsibilities within the same position.

**b) Attending training after the EDP**

Fourteen of the EDP participants (35%) attended another training programme sometime after the EDP. Only one of the respondents attributed improvements in his job performance to the training programme he attended after the EDP, while all others attributed improvements in their job performance to the EDP. None of the participants' superiors attributed improvements in the job performance to the training programme.

**c) Conflict between objectives, policies and practices of the organisation and what was learned in the EDP.**

Two of the respondents from EDP participants (5%) found conflict between what they learned in the EDP and the objectives, policies and practices of their organisations. The conflict was described as lack of adequate motivation of employees, lack of objectives of the organisation, and inflexibility of the top managers of the organisation. Only one of the respondents from the participants' superiors (2.5%) said he found conflict between the objectives, policies, and practices of the organisation and what was learned in the EDP. He did not specify or describe the conflict he found.

**d) Application of knowledge gained from EDP**

Twenty seven (67.5%) of the respondents from the participants tried to apply what they learned from the EDP to their jobs. Twenty four (60%) of the respondents from the superiors said the participants tried to apply what they learned from the EDP.

The success in applying the knowledge gained from the EDP is attributed to the relevance to the materials used in the EDP, the practical orientation of the EDP, the permissive conditions in the organisations, the support and encouragement of the immediate superior, and the co-operation of peers and subordinates.

Thirteen (32.5%) of the respondents from the participants said they failed to apply the knowledge gained from the EDP to their jobs. Sixteen (40%) of the responses from the superiors said the participants failed to apply the knowledge gained.

The participants attributed their failure to apply the knowledge gained from the EDP to the unpermissive conditions in their organisations, lack of interest and support from immediate superiors, irrelevance of the materials used in the EDP and the theoretical orientation of the EDP. 67.5% of the respondents from the EDP participants and 60% of the respondents from the superiors said that the participants' on-the-job performance was improved as a result of attendance of the EDP. The mean score of improvement is 3.8 from a maximum of 5 points for the participants and 3.6 for the superiors. The difference in the means of the participants and their superiors is small. This was expected to be the case since the test of reliability produced no significant difference between the responses of the participants and the responses of their immediate superiors.

To this point organisational climate has been assessed. The results provide sufficient evidence to support the conclusion that all factors which might intervene with on-the-job performance were considered, and that two-third of the participants report permissive conditions to apply what they learned from the EDP and their jobs.



It is based, however, on very short-term results where the participants come back from the training programme, willing and motivated to implement what they have learned, and thinking that the knowledge they learned is sufficient to start a change.

Nevertheless, about two thirds of the participants and their superiors indicated that they have a good and supportive organisational climate. We will find later, in the next section, that correlations among knowledge, leadership skills, behaviour towards work, etc. were very weak with the participants. This result really shows that those participants who regarded their organisational climate as supportive either did not have a clear understanding of the climate or they were avoiding criticising their organisations.

### **8.2.3 Performance Variables**

This section provides sound answers to the research questions which were already mentioned in Chapter Seven. The answers to the research questions are reported under headings corresponding to the variables specified in the research questions. These headings include knowledge of modern management principles and techniques, leadership skills, problem-solving skills, attitude toward the job. The basis for the answers to the research questions is the analysis of data from the participants' responses. A correlation coefficient is computed to measure the reliability of the participants' responses (77% of the sample) compared to the responses of their immediate superiors (77% of the sample).

#### **a) Knowledge of Modern Management Principles and Techniques.**

Increased knowledge is an objective of most management programmes. Most courses claim to increase knowledge about management principles, management

techniques, managerial problems. An increase in knowledge is usually measured by tests and other checking devices at the end of the training. However, there is also a need for measuring application of knowledge on-the-job and assessing its impact against performance. A trainee who shows a substantial increase in knowledge at the end of the training should be followed up to see if he/she is applying the knowledge gained on-the-job.

This study deals with application of knowledge gained from participation at the EDP in on-the-job situations. The research question was, did executives who attend the EDP have better knowledge of modern management principles and techniques after attending the EDP. To answer this question, executives who attended the EDP and their superiors were asked to rate on a scale of 1 to 5, the participants' ability to set policies, set objectives, use time effectively, interview job candidates, select people for jobs, develop work standards, develop plans, develop individual development plans, set priority on work, and their ability to evaluate and follow up plans, decisions and policies.

To determine the impact of the EDP upon knowledge of modern management principles and techniques, a correlation coefficient was used to determine the reliability of the participants' responses compared to the responses of their immediate supervisors. However, although the majority of the participants increased their knowledge of modern management and techniques upon completing their EDP, it does not necessarily mean that they can apply every thing they learned, or that all those principles can really be effective at their working environments, etc.. The results in Table 8.1 shows the correlation coefficient,  $r = 0.21$ , and it is not significant statistically.

## b) Leadership Skills

The study measures the impact of EDP upon leadership skills of the executives who attend the EDP. “Do they have better leadership skills after they attended the EDP?” To this question, executives who attended the EDP and their supervisors were asked to rate the participants’ ability to assign work to people, delegate, motivate, understand people with different backgrounds, inform superiors and subordinates, conduct formal briefings, lead meetings, relate negative information, determine what training people should have, conduct on-the-job training., recommend rewards, recommend discipline, counsel people with discipline problems, and introduce changes.

To determine the impact of the EDP leadership skills, a correlation coefficient was used to determine the reliability of the participants’ responses compared to the responses of their immediate superiors. Table 8.1 shows the correlation coefficient,  $r = 0.21$ , and it is not significant statistically.

## c) Problem- Solving Skills

Effective problem-solving generally requires statement of the problem situation as it exists and what it should be, identification of alternative solutions, and a decision as to which alternative is best.

This study deals with the impact of the EDP upon problem-solving skills of the executives who attended the EDP. The research question was, “Did the executives who attend the EDP have better problem-solving skills after they attend the EDP?” To answer this question, executives who attend the EDP and their superiors were asked to rate the participants’ ability to recognise and analyse problems, identify solutions to the problems, decide which solution is the best, and make decisions in emergencies.



To determine the impact of the EDP upon problem-solving skills a correlation coefficient was used to determine the reliability of the participants' responses compared to the responses of their immediate superiors. Table 8.1 shows the correlation coefficient,  $r = 0.13$ , and it is not significant statistically.

#### d) Attitude toward the Job

Attitudes are important elements of the manager's performance because they give direction to leadership and problem-solving skills. Improved performance can occur only after attitudes have been modified.

The study measures the attitude of the executives who attend the EDP toward their job. The research question was, "Did executives who attend the EDP have a more positive attitude toward their job after attended the EDP?" Attitudes are measured in terms of satisfaction with the job, interest in doing the work, co-operation with peers and subordinates, feelings toward management of the organisation, satisfaction with working conditions, attendance, keeping hours of work, interest in the organisation and its future, belonging to the organisation, and commitment to the organisation.

As mentioned above the performance variables in this study were based on four sub-variables which are, the knowledge of modern management and techniques, leadership skills, problem-solving skills, and attitudes toward the job. The analysis presented in Table 8.1 shows a weak correlation between the responses of the participants and responses of their immediate superiors. The correlation is moderate for attitude towards the job ( $r = 0.39$ ), but it is not significant statistically, and it is weak on other variables. This indicates that the responses of the participants are not reliable

**Table 8.1**  
**Correlation coefficient test between the responses of the participants and their immediate superiors for the performance variables**

Variable	Correlation*
Knowledge of modern management techniques	0.2127
Leadership skills	0.2295
Problem-solving skills	0.1354
Attitude toward the job	0.3951

\* *All are not significant.*

*N = 40 participants and 40 superiors*

indicators of the impact of the EDP upon on-the -job performance of the executives who attended it.

#### **8.2.4 Objectives of EDP (The Outcome)**

Clear training objectives are an essential starting point for any training programme. The importance of objectives stems from the fact they provide the basis for measurement of training effectiveness and follow-up. There is no point in a trainer setting an objective unless he/she does a follow up to see whether the objective has been achieved. As mentioned in Chapter Six and also in most literature, evaluation of training programmes emphasises the importance of the objectives in determining the worth of training programmes.

This study is concerned with “*intermediate outcomes*” in Warr’s (1970) terms, i.e., the achievement of the EDP objectives as reflected in the four performance variables specified in the research questions.

A major problem with objectives of training is they are not clearly stated. Loosely defined objectives which are not linked to precise measures or behavioural

outcomes are very common. When these shortcomings exist, objectives could not be used for measuring training effectiveness.

The objectives of the EDP were stated in the IPA brochure as:

To help the participants:

- 1) Develop their planning and control skills.
- 2) Develop more effective managerial attitudes.
- 3) Develop skills and knowledge in functional areas.
- 4) Develop their integrative capacity for the purpose of better results.

Like the objectives of most training programmes, the statements were characterised by uncertainty and vagueness. The lack of specific measures and behavioural outcomes made it difficult to use objective as a set of standards or criteria for evaluating the EDP. In view of this, the participants and their superiors were asked to rate the value of the EDP in developing planning and control skills, effective managerial attitudes, knowledge in the functional areas, and integrative capacity. The participants and their superiors were not asked to rate the objectives of the EDP nor whether they had been achieved or not, this is a shortcoming of the study.

For the participants, the value of the EDP was highest in developing planning and control skills, mean = 3.9 and standard deviation = .92. Knowledge in functional areas was second, mean = 3.8 and standard deviation = 1.17. Effective managerial attitudes, mean = 3.6, S.D. = 1.36, and integrative capacity, mean = 3.4, and standard deviation 1.55, were the least.

For the participants' superiors, the value of the EDP was highest in developing effective managerial attitudes, mean = 3.8 and standard deviation = 1.21. Planning and



control skills were second, mean = 3.9 and standard deviation = .92. Integrative capacity was third, mean = 3.5 and standard deviation = 1.38. Knowledge in functional areas, mean = 3.3 and standard deviation = 1.48, was the last. Moreover, we must consider that the superiors were expecting that the EDP would provide their subordinates who went to the EDP with more effective managerial attitudes. This, perhaps, was the most important objective of sending them to the programme. Table 8.2 provides the mean of score of the value of the EDP in developing the stated aspects.

**Table 8.2**  
**Means and S.D. of the EDP in developing the stated aspects**  
**as rated by the participants and their superiors**

Aspect	Participants		Superiors	
	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$	S.D.
Planning and control skills	3.9	0.92	3.7	1.31
Effective managerial attitudes	3.6	1.36	3.8	1.21
Knowledge in functional areas	3.8	1.17	3.5	1.48
Integrative capacity	3.4	1.55	3.5	1.38

*N = 40 participants and 40 superiors*

### 8.2.5 The Relationship Between the Study Variables

The relationship between the dependent and independent variables of this study is computed by using Pearson correlation coefficient, which indicates the strength of the relationship between all the study variables in this survey. Such a technique is necessary in order to find answers to research questions which are: (1) what is the impact of Saudi cultural context on the training, (2) what factors might explain the variation between Saudi Arabia and what one identifies elsewhere, (3) to what extent are outcomes of training influenced by the same sorts of factors in Saudi Arabia as appear to influence outcomes in other cultural contexts, (4) are there differences in these

impacts and why, (5) what, if any, are the broader issues for Saudi Arabia about the evaluation of training and development?

Table 8.3 Matrix of inter-correlation among the study's variables

Variables*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Qualification											
2 Job position	0.01										
3 Job grade	-0.25	0.18									
4 Age group	0.10	-0.17	0.19								
5 Gender	-0.46 <sup>b</sup>	0.02	0.28	-0.13							
6 Years in present position	-0.08	-0.19	-0.14	0.03	-0.18						
7 Government service duration	0.34	-0.00	0.13	0.42 <sup>a</sup>	-0.16	0.19					
8 Managerial experience	-0.23	-0.22	0.12	0.35 <sup>a</sup>	0.08	0.32 <sup>a</sup>	0.44 <sup>b</sup>				
9 Organisational climate	0.17	0.02	0.09	0.12	-0.15	0.06	0.07	-0.02			
10 Performance	-0.06	0.12	0.21	0.06	0.16	-0.25	0.16	0.05	0.18		
11 Advanced preparation	0.23	0.19	-0.02	-0.21	0.03	-0.13	-0.21	-0.05	-0.30	0.16	
12 Objectives of the E.P.D. (The Outcome)	-0.08	0.22	0.31	0.02	-0.01	0.21	0.19	0.06	0.14	0.19	-0.15

\* Variables 1 - 11 are independent; variable 12 is dependent.

<sup>a</sup>  $p \leq 0.01$

<sup>b</sup>  $p \leq 0.001$



Research questions will be examined to find the impact of EDP in IPA in on-the-job performance of the participants who attended it. Table 8.3 shows the inter-correlation coefficients among the sub-scale items' scores for eleven of the study's variables. However, with only few exceptions, the magnitudes of these correlations fall within what could be called the small to moderate range.

In the light of the above, it may be concluded positively that these variables are largely independent of one another: the influence of various independent variables on the effectiveness of the training programme is relatively independent of all others and that none is particularly important.

The only correlations that are significant, according to the findings in Table 8.3, are those between age, and government service duration ( $r = .42, p = .01$ ) and managerial experience ( $r = .35, p = .01$ ) and between managerial experience and years in the present position ( $r = .32, p = .01$ ) and government service duration ( $r = .44, p = .001$ ). This indicates that the common element between them is the time of duration and the experience. There is also a negative correlation between gender and qualifications ( $r = -.46, p = .001$ ), which indicates that women tend to have lower qualifications than men. This is attributed to the cultural aspects which the researcher explained in detail in Chapter Four and the impact of culture and social value system in Saudi management discussed in Chapter Five. Women in Saudi Arabia get less opportunity to obtain higher qualification and higher job positions.

### **8.2.6 Discussion and Primary Conclusions**

The findings indicate that there is a little variation in the outcome, and the analysis does not permit an actual test of the relationship among the variables related to the impact of EDP in IPA training programmes or the relative importance of these variables. What can be concluded from these findings is that one-third of the participants reporting unfavourable organisational climates reflected by the lack of support from immediate superiors and lack of co-operation from the peers and subordinates. However, this failure covers the implementation or the application of knowledge they gained from the EDP to their jobs. This could very well be supported by the responses to question 8 of the participants' questionnaire and question 11 of the superiors' questionnaire.

The literature review in Chapter Three suggested a model of the interrelations between variables, but none of these expected relationships were found in this survey. There is no variation between participants who reported negative organisational climate, prior preparation and performance and those who reported positively in terms of the outcome. So it appears that whether the participants are supported by the organisation or not, the outcome remains positive.

From that, none of the factors suggested by Model (I) which was developed in this study, such as organisational climate, job satisfaction, job performance appraisal and the training policy, appears to have an influence on the outcome in the Saudi context, despite evidence of their importance elsewhere.

The improvement (average: 3.8 of 5) in on-the-job performance by the EDP participants and their superiors could be supported by the findings of Moon and Hariton

(1958), and Mayo and Dubois's (1963). They concluded that training is effective in improving participants' job performance.

However, the argument against these studies is that job performance after training programmes is not measured against specific standards. Neither is it measured on medium or long-term results. It is based upon participants' self reported improvement in performance and observations by the participants' immediate superiors. According to Pittman from Peterson (1979),

*“ Job performance change always requires self criticism, attention to the details of each performance, and, in general self management on the part of the trainee. The boss's or trainer's proper function is to equip the trainee to change his or her own performance by providing suitable tools and procedures and then monitoring the use of them.”*

Catalenello and Kirkpatrick (1968), in their study to determine and analyse techniques used by business, industry and government in evaluation of their training programmes, reported that, when measuring on-the-job behaviour after training, interviews with the trainees' immediate superiors were the most common approach. Kirkpatrick (1969) used this approach to evaluate changes in on-the-job behaviour that resulted from attendance at a training programme for the supervisors and foremen. He found positive changes in behaviour, significant positive results in terms of quality and quality of production, employee attitude and morale, and positive results in the reduction of employee absenteeism, tardiness and turnover.

Canter (1951) and Harrison (1966) concluded training is effective in improving knowledge as measured by tests. Mayo and DuBois (1963) found no significant



correlation between scores in knowledge and supervisors' evaluation of performance on-the-job. This has led to considerable doubt whether management training programmes designed to increase knowledge can have any lasting influence upon on-the-job performance.

Based upon this, one could infer, at the end of the training, that the EDP has been successful in increasing participants' knowledge of modern management principles and techniques if there was a significant improvement.

Leadership refers to the purpose of the manager which is to provide results through people. This will require decisions, delegation, motivation, and other interpersonal skills required to aid a group in accomplishing its goals and/or improving and maintaining working relationships. Fleishman (1953), Biggs and Huneryager (1966), Leister, Borden and Fielder (1972) concluded that leadership skills can be developed through training, particularly human relations training and training designed to develop interpersonal skills.

Mahoney, Jerdee, and Korman (1966) concluded that the programme they evaluated was successful in improving participants' problem-solving skills. Moffie, Colhoun, and O'Brien (1964), on the other hand, reported no significant improvement in problem-solving skills after training. These mixed results led to the conclusion that there is considerable doubt that training can develop problem-solving skills. In view of this,

*“ The man whose attitudes has changed during training from uncooperative to co-operative with respect to his co-workers, needs to be checked outback on the job after he has had a chance to get back in the work situation and escape the original 'glow' of the training. Lertda and Cross from Kirkpatrick, (1975). ”*

According to Canter and Miner (1960), attitudes can be changed through training. Fleishman (1953) and Lefkowitz (1972) found no change in on-the-job performance connected with changed attitudes resulting from attendance at a training programme. Thus, it can be concluded the literature does not provide sufficient evidence for- or against the impact of training upon attitude toward the job.

The conclusions that could be drawn from the first survey are: firstly, the questionnaire had been validated in a number of ways leading to the conclusion that this might be an atypical or unusual group and that, if it were re-run with a larger sample, then it could be anticipated that more variation would occur and the statistics would be more reliable. There was, however, no reason to amend the questionnaire in the light of its use with this sample.

Secondly, although one third of the participants failed to implement the knowledge they learned, mainly because of the organisational climate, the other two thirds (tried to) gave an impressive picture of their organisational climate. But when it came to measuring their real benefit from the knowledge they learned, leadership skills, problem-solving skills, their attitude toward the job, and the improvement after the EDP, the correlations were weak. This indicates that there is another category the EDP programme should deal with, which is the skills to handle and deal with the climate (the environment) effectively, which was brought up earlier by the researcher in Chapter Four and represented by Model (II).

Thirdly, the failure to get the expected results suggests that if the researcher had increased access with more observational and qualitative elements, this would have

improved the quality of the data. A questionnaire in this type of culture may not elicit a true report of experiences. The researcher did seek to have more access at this point, but it was refused.

### **8.3 The Second Survey**

The second survey presents a slightly more rounded approach to data collection and analysis than was possible with the first survey, although this in no sense was the full study, owing to the lack of observational data which would have given an even more rounded feel for the verbal and written responses received.

The total number of the population (executives who attended the EDP) in this survey was 155 participants, and the sample achieved was 123 participants (79%). This indicates that the sample was accepted by representative of the population from which it was drawn. This permitted the statistical procedures to describe and analyse the data for the sample and to relate it to the population from which it came. The researcher bore in mind that the sampling process should not only yield estimations of the population means, percentages and totals, but also obtain measurements on the sub-classes of the population.

The sample is representative of the Saudi senior managers and their superiors who work in the government sector, and participated in training programmes over the period of September 10th. until November 25th. 1995. This amounted to six training programmes.

During the field work the researcher obtained 155 responses from the trainees of which 123 proved to be valid (32 of them were incomplete). The response rate was



nearly 79%. From their supervisors, a lower rate was recorded: only 92 complete responses were received (59% response rate). Statistical detail of sample characteristics is provided in Appendix A.

Table 8.4 shows the proportionate responses in relation to the number of applicants in the six programme groups.

**Table 8.4**

**Number of Questionnaires Sent in Programmes Groups and Number of Responses**

Programme group	Number of questionnaires	Responses	
		N	%
IPA(1)	23	17	74
IPA(2)	24	18	75
IPA(3)	29	23	79
IPA(4)	29	25	86
IPA(5)	24	19	79
IPA(6)	26	21	81
Total	155	123	79

The conclusions from the first survey indicated that the larger sample may allow exploration of a potentially greater of variance in responses. This would allow the researcher to find an answer to the research questions and examine the research variables more thoroughly. Since access was limited for interviews, it did not allow qualitative information to be gained. Access for observational purposes, was also refused.

The results are analysed and discussed under the following main headings:

- 1) Demographic data,
- 2) Organisational climate,

**Table 8.5 Type of organisation in which the trainees worked**

Government unit		N	%
1	Ministry of Defence	5	4
2	Ministry of Justice	7	5.7
3	Ministry of Health	13	10.6
4	Ministry of Finance	5	4
5	Ministry of Fiancee and Economy	7	5.7
6	Ministry of Municipalities	12	9.8
7	Ministry of Interior	7	5.7
8	Ministry of Education	16	13
9	Ministry of Communication	11	9
10	Ministry of Social and Labour	12	9.8
11	Civil Service Council	9	7.3
12	Ministry of Alhaje & Alawkaf & Islamic affairs	5	4
13	Ministry of High Education	14	11.4
Total		123	100

3) Performance variables,

4) The achieved objectives of the EDP course (the outcome).

Again statistical analysis was conducted to determine the degree to which on-the-job performance was affected by attending the EDP, to compare the responses from the participants in this study with those of their immediate superiors. A correlation coefficient was computed to determine the reliability of the participants responses compared to the responses of their immediate superiors. A significant level of  $p \leq 0.5$  was selected.

### **8.3.1 The Demographic Data**

Trainees came from 13 government organisations, as shown in the Table 8.5 below. The table shows together three government units account for one third of the sample: the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health and Ministry of Higher Education accounts for 43 participants, 33% of the total sample. See Appendix A for the demographic data.

#### **a) Trainees Nationality**

The nationality of the sample was 100 % from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. This is an interesting finding in itself, as the same figure was also recorded for the first survey. The researcher mentioned previously the reason for the 100% of this sample as Saudi nationality.

#### **b) Educational Qualifications**

It was found that 70% of the trainees were college graduates, 25% held higher degrees, while only 5% were high school graduates. The diversity in participants educational qualifications again posed some problems familiar to all educators.

#### **c) Job position and grade**

According to the job grade in Saudi government structure starting from grade 1 to grade 15. This is classified as grade 10 to grade 15 being top level managers in the government.

The survey showed 18% of the sample (22 participants) were general managers, 32% (39 participants) of them were deputy general managers, 30 % (37 participants) were heads of department, and 20 % (25 participants) were heads of sections. 20% of the trainees(25 participants) were in grade ten, 23% (28 participants) were in grade



eleven, 25% (31 participants) were in grade twelve, 19% (23 participants) in grade thirteen, and 13% of the sample (16 participants) were in grade fourteen.

d) Age group of the sample

The subjects' age ranged in the age from 26 to 58 years, with an average of 42 years. 18% were under 30 years old, 49.3% were between 30 and 40 years, while 23% were between 41 and 50 years old, and just 10% were between over 50 years old. This indicates that the sample of this study was dominated by younger age groups.

e) Gender of the sample

The sample was predominantly male, (91% of the respondents), with a minority, (9%) female. However, this is in contrast to the overall proportion of women in high positions and this can be seen as an encouraging sign that tells of the growing number of female civil servants and their active participation in training activities. However, the small number of women in this sample can still be attributed to the cultural discouragement of female employment in Saudi government in spite of the fact that women can play a vital role as a driving force in building the country's economy. Recently, a public call was made for liberal reforms by providing more jobs for women (Yamani, 1997).

f) Years in present position

The number of years in present positions are seen as an indicator of experience, stability and an element of additional merit in so far as better chances for training to prove relevance particularly when it is to be complemented and followed up to due to an accumulation factor. The majority of the respondents possess the relatively shorter length of service in their job in the same position. The data showed that 46.3% of the sample

had been in their positions for less than five years, whereas, at the other end the spectrum, only 11.4% had been at their current positions more than fifteen years. 32.5% of the sample had had between five to ten years in their present position, 9.8% between eleven and fifteen years in their present position. It appears that the total 78.8% of the sample had been in their present position not more than ten years, while the total of 21.2%, for over ten years.

#### g) Years in government service

Tenure in government service and time spent in the present job are of particular importance in relation to training impact and actual performance. This is because training is systematically tied with job requirements and with actual performance standards as well as with individual needs against job demand. It was found that a little more than one quarter (26%) of the sample had been in government service for a relatively short period of less than ten years, while another 31.7% of the sample had had ten to twenty years of government service, 35% of the sample between twenty one and thirty years in government service, and 7.3% of the sample were those who had joined more than thirty years of government service.

#### h) Acquiring present grade

The majority of the sample surveyed (76%) acquired their present grade by promotion whereas 13% of the sample achieved it by gaining a higher educational degree and 11% of the sample achieved their present grade by transferring from another department.

As discussed in Chapter Four and Five, the family and friendship ties, and loyalty play a major role in getting a job or getting promoted to that job in Arab management in general and in Saudi Arabia in particular.

#### **i) Years of managerial experience**

The number of years of managerial experience entails experience in a position involving planning, decision-making and supervision of subordinates. 12.2% of the sample had less than five years of managerial experience, 29.3% of the sample had between five and ten years' such experience, 19.5% had between eleven and fifteen years' experience, and 39% of the sample had more than fifteen years' managerial experience.

### **8.3.2 Organisational Climate**

The organisational climate variable in this study is based on four aspects (sub-variables) of organisational climate: 1) change in executive positions after the EDP, 2) attending training after the EDP, 3) conflict between objectives, policies and practices of the organisation and what was learned in the EDP, and 4) the application of knowledge gained from the EDP.

The sub-variables of the organisational climate have been measured as follows:

#### **a) Change in position after EDP**

One hundred and three participants (83.8%) stated that they stayed in the same position after the EDP. Nineteen of them (15.4%) were given more responsibilities within the same position. One participant (0.8%) was promoted to a higher position.



**b) Attending training after the EDP**

Nineteen of the participants (15.4%) attended another training programme sometime after the EDP while the others did not.

**c) Conflict between objectives, policies and practices of the organisation and what was learned in the EDP.** Twenty-two participants (17.8% of the total sample) found conflicts between what they learned in the EDP and the objectives, policies and practices of their organisations. The conflict in this case was described as communication being unclear, little delegation, and lack of clear objectives in their organisations. Thirteen of the participants' superiors (14% of the total sample) said that they found conflict between the objectives, policies and practices of the organisation and what their subordinates had learned in the EDP. The conflict was explained as due to the irrelevance of materials used in IPA to the organisation situation and the theoretical orientation of the EDP courses. Irrelevancy of the training materials was mentioned by an average of 16% of the participants and 18% of their superiors.

**d) Application of knowledge gained from the EDP**

Eighty (65%) said they tried to apply what they had learned from the EDP to their jobs and organisations. Sixty three superiors (68%) said the participants tried to apply what they had learned from the EDP. However, it was found that the obstacles in applying the knowledge gained from the EDP were concerned conditions which discouraged the applications of learning organisations.

The findings further suggested that criticising organisational climate was strongly avoided by two thirds of the participants in the first survey and by 71% in the second survey owing to the new method in distributing the questionnaires. These are a

strong indication of a lack of supportive organisational climate, a second obstacle, in addition to conflicting organisational objectives and policies. These obstacles impact adversely on applying the knowledge and skills learned during the EDP at work, together with the first, strongest obstacle, irrelevant training materials given in the EDP (Table 8.6)

### **8.3.3 Performance Variables**

In this study performance improvement was assessed by examining four variables: 1) knowledge of modern management principles and techniques, 2) leadership skills, 3) problem-solving skills, and 4) attitude toward the job.

To measure the reliability of the participants' responses compared to the responses of their immediate superiors a correlation coefficient between them was computed.

#### **a) Knowledge modern management principles and techniques.**

Participants who attended the EDP and their superiors were asked to rate on a scale of one to five the participants' ability to set policies, set objectives, use time effectively, interview job candidates, select people for jobs, develop work standards, develop work plans, develop individual development plans, set priority for work, and their ability to evaluate and follow up plans, decision and policies. Correlation results indicate that these aspects of knowledge, are very weak in relation towards needs. Table 8.6 shows the correlation coefficient,  $r = 0.18$ , which is not statistically significant.

#### b) Leadership skills

Both participants and their superiors were asked to rate the participants' leadership skills in ability to assign work to people, delegate, motivate, understand people with different background, inform superiors and subordinates, conduct formal briefing, lead meetings, relate negative information, determine what training people should have, conduct on-the-job training, recommend rewards, recommend discipline, counsel people with discipline problems, and introduce changes.

A correlation coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the responses of participants and their superiors. Table 8.6 shows the correlation coefficient,  $r = 0.2$ , which again is not statistically significant.

#### c) Problem-solving skills

The improvement in problem-solving skills requires to recognise and analyse the problems, identification of alternative solutions and decide which alternative is best. Responses were examined in the same way as above by using the correlation coefficient. Table 8.6 shows the correlation coefficient,  $r = 0.24$ , which is not statistically significant.

#### d) Attitude toward the job

Attitude toward the job is the final performance variable in the study. Attitudes are measured in terms of satisfaction with the job, interest in doing the work, co-operation with peers and subordinates, feeling towards management of the organisation, satisfaction with work conditions, attendance, keeping hours of work, interest in the organisation and its future, belonging to the organisation and commitment to the organisation. To determine the impact of EDP on participants' attitudes toward the job,



a correlation coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the responses of the participants and their superiors. Table 8.6 shows the correlation coefficient,  $r = 0.27$ , which is not statistically significant.

The relationship between the responses of the participants who participated in the EDP and the responses of their superiors was studied to determine the reliability of the participants' answers to the research questionnaires. In conclusion, it can be seen from Table 8.6 that the correlation between the responses of the participants and those of their superiors for the overall performance variable was weak and not statistically significant. The same results were obtained from both samples.

**Table 8.6**  
**Correlation Coefficients Between the Responses of the Participants and Their Immediate Superiors for the Performance Variables**

Variable	Correlation*
Knowledge of modern management techniques	0.1809
Leadership skills	0.2081
Problem-solving skills	0.2493
Attitude toward the job	0.2704

*\* All are not significant*

*N = 123 participants and 92 superiors*

#### **8.3.4 Objectives of the EDP (The outcome)**

Measuring the extent to which the objectives of the training was achieved was the outcome variable in this study. The achievement of the EDP objective is reflected by improvement in the four performance variables specified in the research questions. The participants and their superiors were asked to rate the value of the EDP in developing, planning and control skills, effective managerial attitudes, knowledge in the functional areas, and integrative capacity. As discussed previously in the Section 8.2.4, the

participants and their superiors were not asked to rate the objectives of the EDP, nor whether they had achieved them or not, but rather their effect upon on-the-job implementation.

The data analysis shown in Table 8.7 suggests that, for the participants, the value of the EDP was greatest in developing knowledge in functional areas. For the participants' superiors, the value of the EDP was greatest in developing effective managerial attitudes.

The conclusion is that the EDP may have been effective in developing in functional areas, planning and control skills, effective managerial attitude and integrative capacity.

**Table 8.7**  
**Means and S.D. Values of the EDP in Developing the Stated Aspects**  
**as Rated by the Participants and Their Superiors**

Aspect	Participants		Superiors	
	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$	S.D.
Planning and control skills	4.0	0.79	3.9	1.18
Effective managerial attitudes	3.9	1.27	4.1	0.83
Knowledge in functional areas	4.2	0.77	4.0	0.81
Integrative capacity	3.7	1.38	3.5	1.34

*N = 123 participants and 92 superiors*

### 8.3.5 The Relationship Between the Variables

Correlation coefficients were utilised to determine if a relationship existed between the variables studied.

From Table 8.8, it can be seen that the relationship between gender and qualification is negative and statistically significant at the 0.001 level. Pearson correlation coefficient for the two variables is,  $r = -0.37$  ( $p = 0.001$ ). This result can be

attributed to the cultural aspects already explained in Chapter Four. The matrix shows also a positive correlation of 0.41 ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) between age group and government service duration. This result indicates the normal relationship between the two variables.

There is also a positive correlation coefficient between government service duration and managerial experience,  $r = 0.46$  ( $p = 0.01$ )

Correlation results, however, show that there is inconsistent relationship between the outcome as a dependent variable and the rest of the independent variables of this study, as in the first survey.

The results in Table 8.8 indicate no significant differences in the results compared with the first survey.



Table 8.8

**Matrix of Inter-Correlation Among the Study Variables: Second Survey**

Variables*		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Qualification											
2	Job position	-.02										
3	Job grade	.19	.21									
4	Age group	.17	.03	.04								
5	Gender	-.37 <sup>b</sup>	.09	.11	.13							
6	Years in present position	-.11	.11	.07	.21	-.13						
7	Government service duration	.14	-.01	-.03	.41 <sup>a</sup>	-.11	.25					
8	Managerial experience	-.13	-.02	-.02	.10	.09	.22	.46 <sup>a</sup>				
9	Organisational climate	.24	.17	.10	-.21	-.07	.03	.02	-.09			
10	Performance	.03	.15	.13	-.11	.21	-.16	.12	.14	.24		
11	Advanced preparation	.15	.17	.18	.06	.05	-.30	-.07	.13	-.10	-.26	
12	Objectives of the E.P.D. (The outcome)	.03	.24	.09	-.11	.21	-.13	.22	.09	.13	.31	.12

\* Variables 1 - 11 are independent; variable 12 is dependent.

<sup>a</sup> p ≤ 0.01

<sup>b</sup> p ≤ 0.001

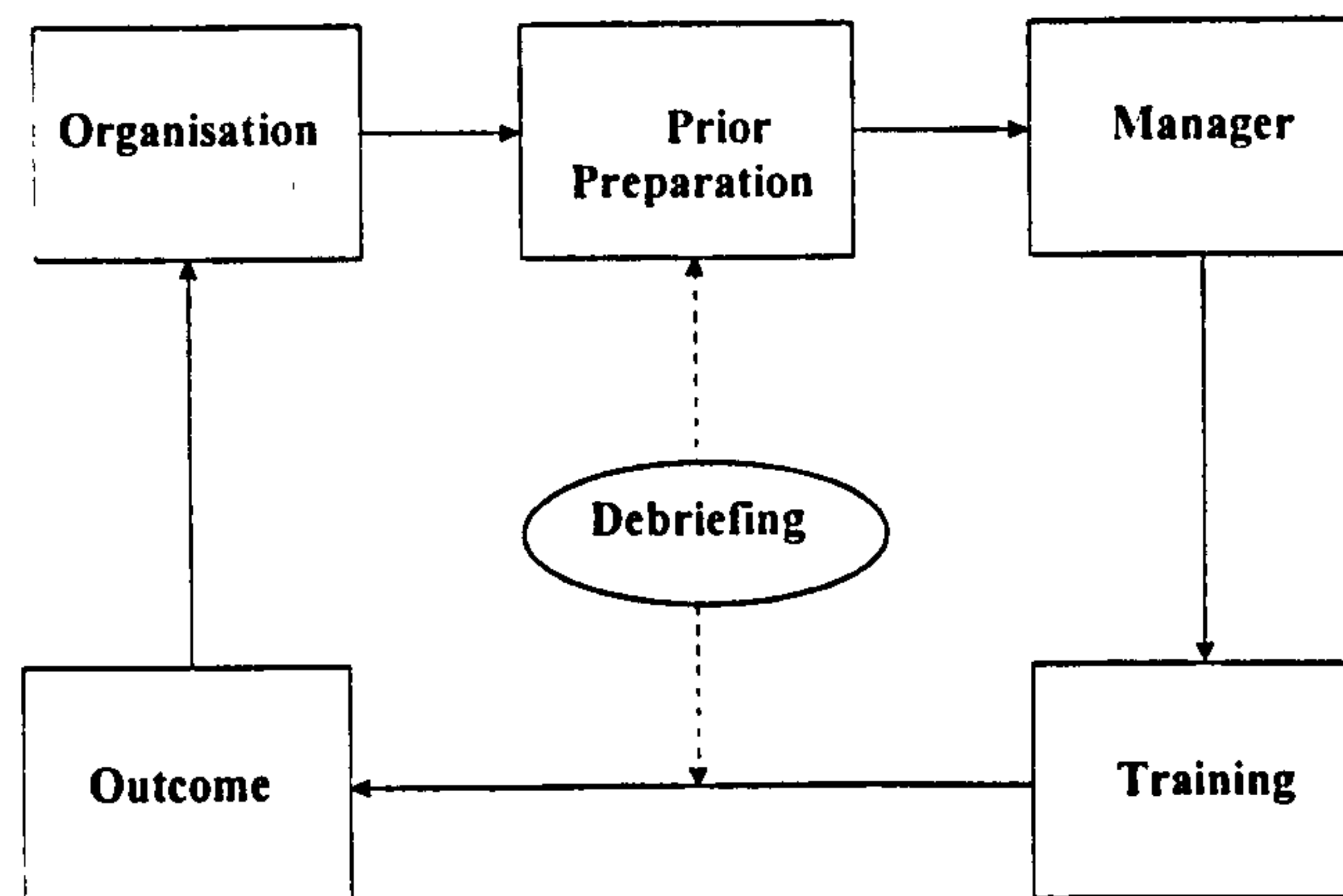
**8.3.6 Discussion and Conclusions (Second Survey)**

The findings of the data analysis of this study raised to the surface a puzzle or question that has to be understood and answered by the researcher. The puzzle is that the relationship between the independent variables studied and the training outcome has been shown to exist in other studies elsewhere, but this does not appear to apply in the study in Saudi Arabia. The question is why? One major factor may play a vital role in resolving this dilemma. This factor is the limited methodology implemented in this study. The findings might have been different if access had been granted to use observational and other methods in gathering the data of this study. The lack of access is a consequence of the social and organisational culture in Saudi Arabia.

In Saudi organisations, one cannot get access to use observational and documentary techniques in collecting data. Using these techniques might produce more variation in the findings than the questionnaire did. It is unlikely that any independent researcher currently would be given free access to do an observational study. The trouble with that is that Saudi management culture inhibits, and discourages criticism. Only a small number of participants were willing to respond critically to the researcher. They did not indicate any critical comments in filling in the questionnaire. This reinforces the notion that “if there is a formal question, the answer will be formal.” This reflects the impact of cultural aspects outside and within the organisation on the executives’ attitudes and behaviour. The researcher discussed in detail in Chapter Four and Five the impact of the cultural context on management development in Arab and Saudi management.

The kind of relationship the Hypothetical Study Model (I) (Figure 8.1) would suggest in terms of the factors influencing the outcome of the training, do not appear to occur. A major reason for this may be that there is so little variance ultimately in the outcome measurement. The impact of training appears to be positive irrespective of the organisational climate, advanced preparation or post-course debriefing or redeployment.

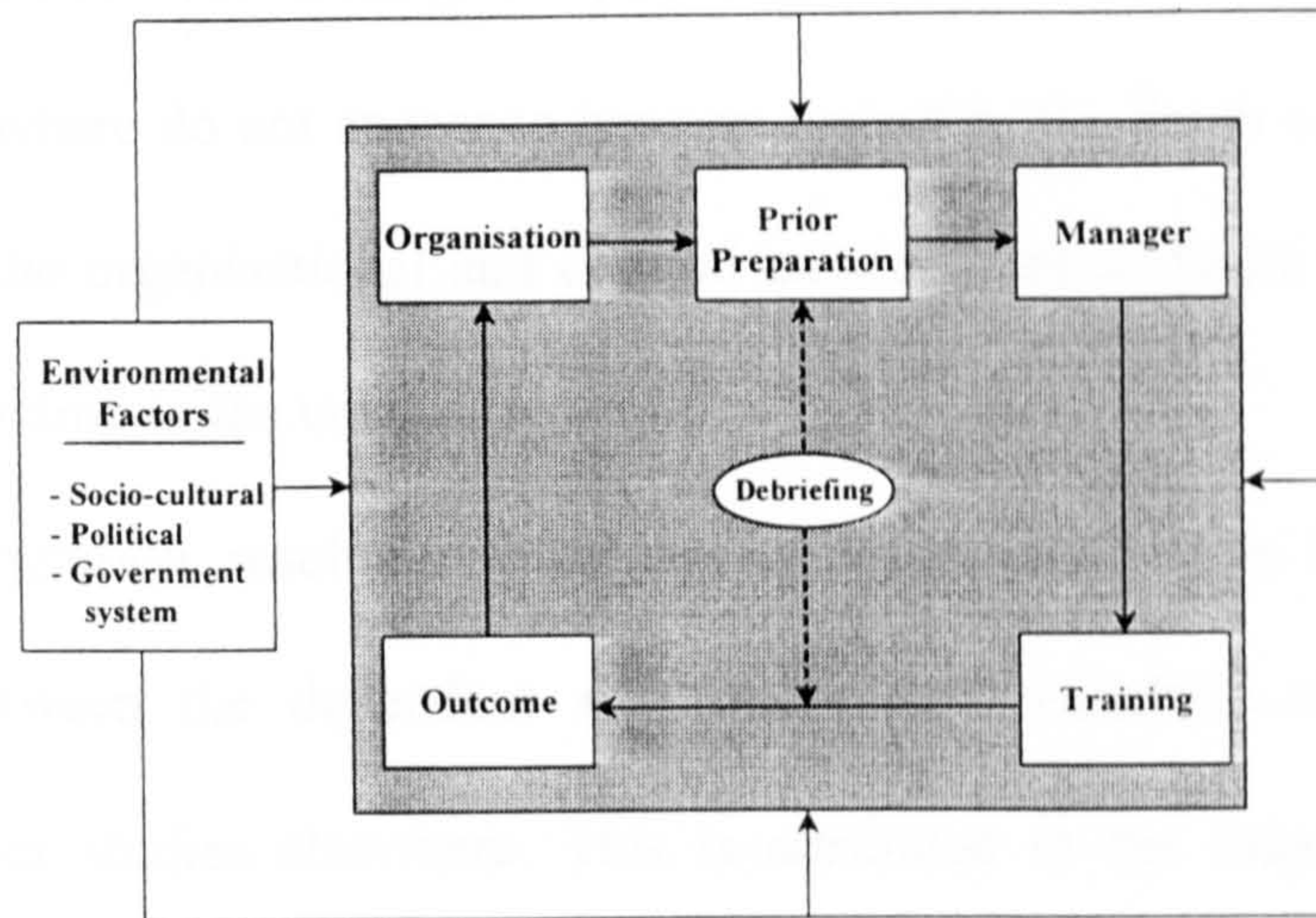
**Figure 8.1 The Hypothetical Study Model (I)**



Based on Model (II) in Figure 8.2 below, it was hypothesised that environmental factors have a major effect on the organisation, the managers, management training programmes and the outcome of these programmes.



**Figure 8.2 Hypothetical Study Model (II)**



The cultural environment leads to a fundamental dilemma in both the content and the valuation of the impact of management training programmes. If the content drew on western material, it would be unlikely to make sense to managers from Saudi organisations. On the other hand, if the content only included material from Saudi organisations, that would simply reinforce what people thought in the first place. How should this dilemma be resolved? This lies within the culture itself. The impact of culture, as both an external factor as well as an internal factor, is found within the organisation in the behaviour and attitudes of managers who work in the organisation. The IPA is part of the problem, but it is not a solution to solve the cultural impact on management development in Saudi society.

#### **8.4 Summary**

Two surveys have been carried out using two samples of participants and their managers to determine the extent to which on-the-job performance was affected by the

Executive Department Programme (EDP) offered by the Institute of Public Administration (IPA). The findings are puzzling: factors influencing training outcomes in research elsewhere do not appear to have an impact in the Saudi context. It has been suggested that the organisational and cultural environment in Saudi Arabia is a major factor in contributing to the unusual results.

The correlation results in both surveys show that there is an inconsistent relationship between the dependent and independent variables of this study with findings of other studies elsewhere. This is attributed to the impact of the cultural aspects in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter Nine endeavours to draw conclusions and make some recommendations.

## **Chapter Nine**

### **Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendation**



## 9.1 Introduction

As a developing country, Saudi Arabia is making great efforts to develop the country towards the national goal of self-reliance. In these efforts, developing its human resources one of the most important factors.

A prominent member of Saudi Arabia's business establishment has recently made a public call for liberal reforms, including more jobs for women. The liberal case for change in the conservative desert kingdom's reliance on foreigners and in the excessive religious fundamentalist influence is, in fact, an economic necessity. New emphasis is needed on hard-work, openness and self-reliance (Yamani, 1997).

The question of how to increase job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness a crucial one in the goal of self-reliance. As in most countries, achieving high performance through training and management development programmes is a positive goal.

The findings of this study are sufficiently different from those in other studies in developed countries to suggest that there are unique cultural features of management development in Saudi Arabia. This difference, however, may create not only problems but opportunity too.

The aim of this chapter is to highlight and discuss the major findings of this study and to define the problems facing management development and training in Saudi Arabia. Cultural aspects of Saudi society and organisations clearly had a major impact on the findings of this study.

As with many other studies in the field of management training and development, this study is an attempt to obtain more understanding of the impact of training programmes and to try to minimise the risks and failures that they may encounter. The effects of the Executive Development Programme (EDP) upon on-the-job performance of the executives who attended it have been tested in two surveys with two different samples.

The correlation results in both surveys show that the relationship between the dependent and independent variables of this study do not correspond to the expectation of the researcher from the review of the research literature. This can be attributed to the cultural context and its impact on the study's variables in Saudi Arabia, i.e. management training, organisations and organisational climate from which the trainees come, the prior preparation for the trainees before the training programme, briefing and debriefing by the superiors, the outcome from the training programme.

## **9.2 Conclusions**

The literature review suggests that management development can be one tool for changing managerial culture. However, if the social culture of the country remains very strong in influencing managers within the organisation, and if much of the management practice of the organisation reinforces that culture, this is questionable. In this respect management development is unlikely to change a culture as strong as that found within Saudi organisations. Management development can support changes but cannot create changes. Management development cannot do what the organisation is not doing.

Therefore, the reality is that management development can only make sense if other organisational reforms and changes are made as well.

The key focus, therefore, ought to be on reforming the management of Saudi public organisation themselves. Management development programmes can be followed by evaluation studies to discover what ought to be changed. However, within the context of Saudi culture, researchers would be restricted and may not be able to use the appropriate methods in their evaluation. Management development alone will not be useful: it would be useful where it supports deliberate and planned change and development in particular organisations, and where there is senior management support for proper research.

The findings indicate that much effort needs to be put into improving the training programmes of the IPA. Executives need to see a worthwhile future with continuous opportunities for personal growth, development and career advancement that is beneficial to both the individual executive and to the organisation. In this way, training opportunities become essential and play a key role in enhancing job performance, and they will probably play an even more important role in creating future self-reliance.

Based upon the findings of this study, the conclusions can be summarised as follows.

- 1) The EDP did not produce significantly better knowledge of modern management principles and techniques, leadership skills, better problem-solving skills, or more positive attitudes toward the job in the executives who attended the EDP in the IPA. This may be explained in terms of cultural differences: the EDP was designed and



delivered by Western approaches, methods and cases and tried to transfer them to a non-Western culture.

Further research is now needed to determine if this is a valid explanation. This research would relate cross-cultural differences, effectiveness of the methods used, trainers' abilities and experience and the content of the EDP to on-the-job performance before and after participation in the EDP.

2) Training programme designs should provide for active involvement of the participants' superiors. The involvement of the participants' superiors is essential because it can influence the effect of training. It is an indication that the superior is concerned with the effects of training. This support will provide the trainee with an appropriate climate to apply the newly-acquired skills and knowledge on returning to their organisation.

3) Evaluation of training programmes is critical for providing a link between the training environment and the job, identifying the weaknesses of the programmes, identifying the participants' training needs, and finding out whether the trainees' job performance has been affected formally by the training.

4) The weakness of the relationship between the variables in this study may indicate that social relationships and ties have a strong influence on both subordinates and superiors. Such a phenomenon cannot be explained without considering the environment of the study and the nature of the culture of the country in which the study was undertaken.

5) Finally, it is clear that there is not only no adequate evaluation of the EDP in the IPA but also not even the basis for an evaluation. In the cultural context of Saudi Arabia, evaluation is likely to be seen as a political issue.

### **9.3 Recommendations**

During this research study, several ideas and questions surfaced as to how this research could have been improved or extended, and in which directions future research in the Saudi culture should undertake.

#### **9.3.1 Further Research**

From the findings of this study, it is clear that much more work remains to be done and many questions must be answered. The following future research is recommended.

1) It would be advantageous to carry out more basic research into Saudi work culture and environment and their idiosyncrasies (i.e. ways of thinking or behaving particular to Saudi executives). A comprehensive study of values and needs of Saudi employees and their effects on their performance, particularly examining the impact of political, governmental and social value systems on Saudi management, would be useful.

2) A study is needed of how best to operationalise and measure executives' job performance before and after their training programmes by developing observational measures of job performance in addition to the questionnaire method.

3) Having established measures of executives' job performance, researchers should apply them in assessing the impact of training and development programmes.

Studies should also compare different methodologies in particular the observational and questionnaire methods of assessment of outcomes.

One of the most important research questions, with great particular relevance to Saudi government organisations, is how to design and evaluate management development programmes. This must go hand in hand with Saudi organisational structure and the Saudi cultural context to enhance the strength of the relationship between training and job performance.

### **9.3.2 Managerial Implications**

Training is different now because work is different and culture is different. Training is now as much about ideas as about skills.

Training does not work in same way for all organisational problems because it may be an inappropriate response to a particular issue (Furnham, 1997). There are good and bad trainers, good and bad training programmes, and good and bad trainees. It is essential to evaluate the contribution of training, just any other organisational process (Furnham, 1997). Having blind faith in training programmes, especially in a Saudi organisational culture, without feedback essential for development, will end up in a failure and as a waste of money.

On the basis of the findings and conclusion of this study, the following recommendations are made to reflect the practical contribution of this research in management development and training evaluation in the Gulf States in general and in Saudi Arabia in particular.



These recommendations aim particularly at helping the IPA to improve the EDP and to achieve maximum effectiveness.

The IPA should take immediate action to solve the problems that have been identified to improve the quality of the EDP and make it more responsive to the needs of the organisations and managers. If the IPA is to become a part of the solution and not remain a part of the problem, it will have to do a number of things:

(1) Open itself up to independent researchers and facilitate rigorous research for evaluating programmes.

(2) Organise itself and design its programmes in ways that take account of the structure and culture of Saudi organisations.

(3) Decide whether to continue generic courses like EDP which may have little relevance to the culture of particular organisations or to organise programmes for particular clients (i.e. tailor-made or customised programmes) which ensure that the people providing the training understand the particular organisations and culture.

(4) Make clear plans for improving and developing the skills of members of the IPA.

(5) Deal with the processes of management training as part of an entry system, as a basis for a number of activities such as performance evaluation and job description, etc. It is believed that such activities are vital for the success of the IPA training programmes because they are complementary.

(6) Establish an objective system to evaluate the training programmes and give a greater access to proper evaluation of training programmes.

(7) Ensure the homogeneity of the trainees in terms of their a professional, and status characteristics, as this remains culturally important within Saudi Arabia.

(8) Insist that the cases and examples in the programmes employed are derived from the Saudi culture and environment.

(9) Developing specific programmes to encourage and facilitate the development of women into managerial positions.

(10) The main recommendation: management development and training in the Arab World generally, and in Saudi Arabia specifically, must cover four categories. The first three categories mentioned earlier in Chapter Three (Figure 3.3), are technical and operational skills, interpersonal skills, and conceptual skills. The fourth category must cover environmental skills and is a major area with very rich case studies and integration with the former three categories. Figure 9.1 summarises this analysis.

**Figure 9.1 Management training categories in the Arab World**

Skills directly related to work		Skills related to the environment
1.	Technical and operational skills	Societal skills, understanding of social effects, values development, and social change, and creating an effective organisational culture.
2.	Interpersonal and behavioural skills	
3.	Conceptual skills	

Unless full coverage is given to social and cultural factors, and unless this is linked to the other skill categories, it is unlikely that management development and training will have much impact on personal and organisational development.

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## **Appendices**

# **Appendix A**

## **Tables of Data Surveyed**



*The First Survey*

<b>Number of Questionnaires</b>	<b>Responses</b>	<b>%</b>
52	40	77

<b>Government Unit</b>		<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
1.	Ministry of Education	13	32.5
2.	Ministry of Electricity and Industry	6	15
3.	Ministry of Interior	4	10
4.	Ministry of Municipalities	7	17.5
5.	Ministry of Health	10	25
TOTAL		40	100

<b>Nationality</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Saudi	40	100
Non-Saudi	-	-
TOTAL	40	100

<b>Qualification</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
High school graduate	4	10
College graduate	14	35
Higher degree	22	55
TOTAL	40	100

<b>Job Position</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
General Manager	13	32.5
Deputy General Manager	8	20
Others: e.g. Co-General Manager	19	47.5
TOTAL	40	100

<b>Job Grade</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Grade 11	15	37.5
Grade 12	11	27.5
Grade 13	14	35
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Age Group (years)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
30 - 40	13	37.5
41 - 50	22	55
over 50	3	7.5
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Sex Group (Gender)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Male	28	70
Female	12	30
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Years in present position</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Under 5	14	35
5 - 10	15	37.5
11 - 15	2	5
Over 15	9	22.5
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Years of government service</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Under 10	2	5
10 - 20	23	57.5
21 - 30	11	27.5
Over 30	4	10
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Acquiring of present grade</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
By promotion	32	80
By transfer from another Dept	3	7.5
By direct appointment	1	2.5
By higher educational degree	4	10
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Managerial experience (years)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Under 5	8	20
5 - 10	19	47.5
11 - 14	4	10
Over 15	9	22.5
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>



*The Second Survey*

<b>Number of Questionnaires Distributted</b>	<b>Responses</b>	<b>%</b>
155	123	79

<b>Nationality</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Saudi	123	100
Non-Saudi	-	-
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Qualification</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
High school graduate	6	5
College graduate	86	70
Higher degree	31	25
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Job Position</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
General Manager	22	18
Deputy General Manager	39	32
Head of Department	37	30
Head of Section	25	20
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Job Grade</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Grade 11	28	23
Grade 12	31	25
Grade 13	23	19
Grade 14	16	13
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Age Group (years)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Under 30	22	18
30 - 40	60	49
41 - 50	28	23
over 50	13	10
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Sex Group (Gender)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Male	112	91
Female	11	9
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Number of years in present position</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Under 5	57	46.3
5 - 10	40	32.5
11 - 15	12	9.8
Over 15	14	11.4
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Length of service with government (years)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Under 10	32	26
10 - 20	39	31.7
21 - 30	43	35
Over 30	9	7.3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Acquiring of present grade</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
By promotion	93	76
By transfer from another Dept	14	11
By direct appointment	-	-
By higher educational degree	16	13
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>

<b>Managerial experience (years)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Under 5	15	12.5
5 - 10	36	29.3
11 - 14	24	19.5
Over 15	48	39
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>100</b>



## **Appendix B**

### **The Questionnaires**

# **PARTICIPANT'S QUESTIONNAIRE**

**(Pre-Test Questionnaire)**

Name of the training programme :

**Participant's Questionnaire**  
**(Pre-test)**

**Dear respondent,**

As part of my Ph.D. study at the University of Strathclyde, this questionnaire is carefully designed to measure the effectiveness of the managerial training programmes offered and conducted by the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in the Kingdom of Saudi-Arabia - Riyadh.

The information / data given by you will be strictly seen only by me as a researcher, and it will only be used for research purposes.

Your help and patience in completing the presented questionnaire is greatly appreciated

Many thanks in advance.

**Bader Alaqeeli**  
**Researcher**



Please answer all the questions.

1. **Nationality**

Saudi

Non-Saudi, please specify .....

2. **Qualifications :**

Less than high school

High school graduate

College graduate

Higher degree, please specify .....

3. **Job Position :**

General manager

D- General manager

Others, please specify .....

4. **Grade :**

Grade 11

Grade 12

Grade 13

Grade 14

Grade 15

5. **Age :**

- Under 30
- 30-40
- 41-50
- Over 50

6. **Sex :**

- Male                         Female

7. **Years in present position :**

- Under 5
- 5-10
- 11-15
- Over 15





12. Indicate the training programmes you have received before and your position when you completed them.

No.	Grade	Training Programme Title	Duration	Institution

13. To what extent has your academic education helped you to perform your job as an executive ?

- Very great extent     
  Great extent     
  Fair extent     
  Some extent     
  Not at all

14. Do you agree that there is a need for executives to be prepared to be executives ?

- Strongly agree     
  Agree     
  Uncertain     
  Disagree     
  Strongly disagree

15. **Do you think there is a need for executives to continue their personal development ?**

Yes  No

If no, please explain why .....

16. **For how long have you worked under your superior's supervision ?**

.....

17. **Have you discussed the training objectives with your superior in relation to the needs of your organisation ?**

Yes  No

If no, please explain why .....

18. **Do the objectives of the training programme : (please answer both sections)**

(a) Meet your individual needs for your work and professional development ?

Yes  No  Don't Know

(b) Meet your organisational needs and objectives ?

Yes  No  Don't Know

19. **Who was involved in the decision to select you for this course ?**

(Please tick one only. )

Your superior

Top management as a group

Initiative taken exclusively by you

Set policy for the organisation as a whole

Any others, please specify .....

20. **Do you consider that the training programme duration will be quite enough ?**

Yes  No

21. **Do you expect this training programme will expand your present skills ?**

Yes  No

If no, explain why.....

22. **Do you expect that this training programme will expand your present knowledge ?**

Yes  No

If no, explain why .....



23. **Who do you think should be involved in deciding what management training programme you should receive ?**

- |                                  |                          |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Yourself                         | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Your superior                    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Training department              | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Personnel department             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Any others, please specify ..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |

24. **How much do you discuss the management training you are receiving/have received with each of the following ?**

	Full	Limited discussion	No
(a) Your immediate superior	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Training department	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Personnel department	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) Your peers (colleagues at same level)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**25. Do you think that the training programme you will attend is clearly organised and well prepared by IPA ?**

Yes

No

If no, please explain why .....

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26. What do you feel about the following statements ?

A. Information on the organisations managerial training policy is always available to me.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree

B. Information on all future managerial training opportunities is always available to me.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree

C. I am always concerned in decisions concerning my training.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree

D. My superior always participates in decisions concerning my training.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree

E. Managerial training decisions are always decided by the personnel/training department.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree

F. I usually discuss training programme objectives with my superior before participation.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree

G. It is difficult (not socially acceptable) on the training programme to reveal my own personal values and attitudes.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree



**27. To what extent do you agree that the IPA pay attention to insuring that trainees could relate to one and other on a professional level ?**

Very great extent	Great extent	Fair extent	Small extent	Not at all
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**28. If you have any other suggestions concerning issues raised in this questionnaire or concerning the IPA training programmes, please state them below.**

.....

.....

.....

**PARTICIPANT'S QUESTIONNAIRE**

(Post-Test Questionnaire)

Name of the training programme :

## **Participant's Questionnaire**

**(Post-test)**

**Dear respondent,**

As part of my Ph.D. study at the University of Strathclyde, this questionnaire is carefully designed to measure the effectiveness of the managerial training programmes offered and conducted by the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in the Kingdom of Saudi-Arabia - Riyadh.

The information / data given by you will be strictly seen only by me as a researcher, and it will only be used for research purposes.

Your help and patience in completing the presented questionnaire is greatly appreciated

Many thanks in advance.

**Bader Alaqeeli**

**Researcher**



1. **Dates you attended the IPA training programme:**

From ..... To .....

2. **Do you have the same position and responsibility now that you had before attending the IPA training programme ?**

Yes

No

3. **If the answer to question 2 is "No", after the IPA training programme you were :**

Given more responsibilities within the same position

Moved to another position with the same responsibilities

Transferred to another department with the same responsibilities

Promoted to a higher position

4. **Did you find any conflict between what you learned on the IPA training programme and the objectives, policies and practice of your organisation?**

Yes

No

5. **If yes, please explain the nature of the conflict.**

.....  
.....  
.....

6. **Do you think your on-the-job performance has been improved by attending the IPA programme ?**

Yes

No

7. **If the answer to question 6 is "No", what else might have improved your on-the-job performance other than IPA programme?**

- (a) Another training programme
- (b) Experience
- (c) Change in the conditions of the organisation
- (d) Promotion
- (e) New superior
- (f) Others, please specify .....

8. **If the answer to question 6 is "Yes", please circle the number which you think most closely describes the improvement in your on-the-job performance.**

Very High					Very Low
5	4	3	2	1	

9. **To what extent do you feel that training at IPA has helped you develop a positive attitude towards your job ?**

Very great extent	Great extent	Fair extent	Some extent	Not at all
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. **To what extent do you feel that training at IPA has helped you develop your analytical abilities ?**

Very great extent	Great extent	Fair extent	Some extent	Not at all
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. **To what extent was the training programme dominated by teaching theoretic approach in general ?**

Very great extent	Great extent	Fair extent	Some extent	Not at all
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. **To what extent do you think that skills you have gained in the training programme are relevant to your job ?**

Very great extent	Great extent	Fair extent	Some extent	Not at all
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. **Do you agree that the amount of managerial training offered to you as an executive was sufficient ?**

Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. **What methods of training were applied in the IPA training programme you attended ?**

Lectures	<input type="checkbox"/>
Case study	<input type="checkbox"/>
Role playing	<input type="checkbox"/>
Workshop	<input type="checkbox"/>
Seminars	<input type="checkbox"/>
Class discussion	<input type="checkbox"/>
Behaviour modelling	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others .....	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. **In your opinion which of these elements were affected by the trainer's effectiveness in the IPA training programme ?**

Knowledge about the course content	<input type="checkbox"/>
Skills in practical aspects of training	<input type="checkbox"/>
Class control and discipline over trainees	<input type="checkbox"/>
The training methods used	<input type="checkbox"/>
Interaction with the class	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others .....	<input type="checkbox"/>



16. Was there any achievement assessment for the training programme you attended ?

Yes  No

17. If your answer for question 16 is "Yes", in which of the following forms was the assessment made ?

Written exam

Practical test

Oral test

Essay or project report

Attending the course

Others, please specify.....

18. After the training programme, did you utilise the acquired knowledge and skills in your job ?

Yes  No

19. If the answer to question 18 was "No", what was the reason ?

No support from my department

Inadequate equipment and facilities

I had no motivation

Others, please specify.....

20. Was there any follow-up after the training programme ?

Yes  No

21. If the answer to question 20 was "Yes", was the follow-up made by :

Your superior

Training department

Personnel department

IPA

22. **Did you manage to apply what you learned from the IPA to your job ?**  
 Yes  No

23. **If the answer to question 22 is "Yes", what made it possible for you to apply what you learned from the IPA to your job ?**

- Conditions in organisation are permissive
- My superior is interested and supportive
- Relevance of materials used in the IPA/ to my situation
- Practical orientation of the IPA
- Co-operation from my peers and subordinates

24. **If the answer to question 22 is "No", what made it difficult for you to apply what you learned from IPA to your job :**

- Conditions in organisation are not permissive
- Lack of my superior's encouragement and support
- Irrelevance of materials used in the IPA to my situation
- Theoretical orientation of the IPA
- Lack of co-operation from peers and subordinates

25. **Please circle the number which you think most closely describes the rate of the IPA training programmes in developing the stated aspects for you.**

<u>Aspects</u>	<u>Very High</u>					<u>Very Low</u>
<u>Planning and control skills</u>	5	4	3	2	1	
<u>Effective managerial attitude</u>	5	4	3	2	1	
<u>Knowledge in functional areas</u>	5	4	3	2	1	
<u>Integrative capacity</u>	5	4	3	2	1	

26. Please circle the number which you think most closely describes the rate of the IPA training programme in developing your ability to perform the functions stated.

	Very High			Very Low	
<u>Set policies</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Set objectives</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Develop plans</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Use time effectively</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Set priorities on work</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Develop work standards</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Interview job candidates</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Select people for job</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Develop individual development plans</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Evaluate and follow up plans and policies</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Lead Meetings</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Assign work to people</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Inform superiors</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Inform subordinates</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Delegate</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Conduct formal briefings</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Motivate people</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Determine training people should have</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Conduct on-the-job training</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Recognise and analyse problems</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Identify solutions to problems</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Decide which solution is best</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Make decisions in emergencies</u>	5	4	3	2	1



27. Please circle the number which you think most closely describes the status aspect of your attitude towards your job.

	Very High			Very Low	
Interest in doing your job	5	4	3	2	1
Co-operation with peers and subordinates	5	4	3	2	1
Feeling towards management of organisations	5	4	3	2	1
Satisfaction with working conditions	5	4	3	2	1
Belonging to the organisations	5	4	3	2	1

28. How often were the following Audio-Visual Media utilised in explaining the contents of the above course ?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Training films	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Slides	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Tapes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Video cassettes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Transparencies	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

29. How would you rate the effectiveness of the Audio-Visual Media which were used, in terms of explaining the contents of the above course ?

	Very Effective	Effective	Don't Know	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
Training films	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Slides	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Tapes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Video cassettes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Transparencies	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

**30. If you have any other suggestions concerning issues raised in this questionnaire or concerning the IPA training course and programmes, please state them below :**

.....

.....

.....

**PARTICIPANTS' SUPERIOR QUESTIONNAIRE**

(Post-Test Questionnaire)

Name of the training programme :



## **Participants' Superior Questionnaire**

**Dear Respondent,**

As part of my Ph.D. study at the University Of Strathclyde, this questionnaire is carefully designed to measure the effectiveness of the managerial training programmes offered and conducted by the Institute Of Public Administration (IPA) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia- Riyadh.

The information / data given by you will be strictly seen only by me as a researcher, and it will only be used for research purposes.

Your help and patience in completing the presented questionnaire is greatly appreciated.

Many thanks in advance.

**Bader Alaqeeli**

**Researcher**

**This questionnaire concerns your subordinate ..... who attended the IPA programme from ..... to .....199-.**

**1. For how long has he worked under your supervision ?**

.....

**2. Does the participant have the same position and responsibilities now that he had before the IPA programme ?**

Yes

No

**3. If the answer to question 2 was "No", after the IPA programme he was**

Given more responsibilities within the same position

Moved to another position with the same responsibilities

Transferred to another department with the same responsibilities

Promoted to a higher position

**4. Did he attend another training programmes since the last IPA training programme ?**

Yes

No

**5. Did you find that there was any conflict between what he learned in the IPA training programme and the objectives, policies and practices of your organisation ?**

Yes

No

6. **If the answer to question 5 is "Yes", please explain the nature of the conflict.**

.....  
.....

7. **Did he tried to apply what he learned from the IPA to his job ?**

Yes  No

8. **If the answer to question 7 is "Yes", what has made it possible for him to apply what he learned from the IPA to his job ?**

- Conditions in the organisation are permissive
- My interest and support
- Relevance of the materials used in the IPA to his situation
- Practical orientation of the IPA
- Co-operation from his peers and subordinates

9. **If the answer to question 7 is "No", what has made it difficult for him to apply what he learned from the IPA to his job ?**

- Conditions in the organisation are not permissive
- Lack of my encouragement and support
- Irrelevance of the materials used in the IPA to his situation
- Theoretical orientation of the IPA
- Lack of co-operation from peers and subordinates

10. **Do you think his on-the-job performance has improved as a result of the IPA training programme?**

Yes  No



11. If the answer to question 10 is "Yes", please circle the number which you think most closely describes improvement in his on-the-job performance.

Very High

Very Low

5      4      3      2      1

12. If the answer to question 10 is "No", what else might improve his on-the-job performance other than an IPA programme?

Another training programme

Experience

Changes in conditions of the organisation

Promotion

New boss

Others, please specify .....

.....

.....

13. Please circle the number which you think most closely described the value of the IPA programme in developing the stated aspects in the participant.

Aspects	Very High					Very Low				
	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Planning and control skills</u>	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Effective managerial attitude</u>	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Knowledge in functional areas</u>	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Integrative capacity</u>	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1

14. Please circle the number which you think most closely describes his ability to perform the functions stated.

	Very High			Very Low	
<u>Set policies</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Set objectives</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Develop plans</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Use time effectively</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Set priorities on work</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Develop work standards</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Interview job candidates</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Select people for job</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Develop individual development plans</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Evaluate and follow up plans and policies</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Lead Meetings</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Assign work to people</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Inform superiors</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Inform subordinates</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Delegate</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Conduct formal briefings</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Motivate people</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Determine training people should have</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Conduct on-the-job training</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Recognise and analyse problems</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Identify solutions to problems</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Decide which solution is best</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Make decisions in emergencies</u>	5	4	3	2	1

15. Please circle the number which you think most closely describes the status aspect of your subordinates' attitude towards your job.

	Very High			Very Low	
<u>Interest in doing your job</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Co-operation with peers and subordinates</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Feeling towards management of organisations</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Satisfaction with working conditions</u>	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Belonging to the organisations</u>	5	4	3	2	1

16. If you have any other suggestions concerning issues raised in this questionnaire of concerning your subordinate and the IPA training programmes please state them below.

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.....