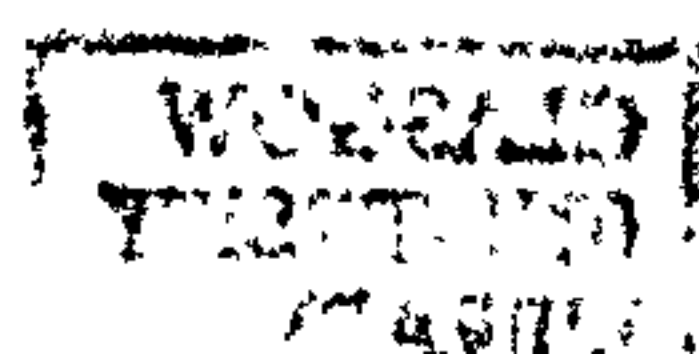


WORK ORIENTATIONS AND 'n ACHIEVEMENT' OF
MANAGERS IN GOVERNMENT, SEMI-PRIVATE AND
PRIVATE ORGANISATIONS IN SAUDI ARABIA

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Dedicated to

my father; Abdulaziz,
my mother; Haya,
my brothers and sisters,
and to the ones who paid the price of my involvement in postgraduate studies:
Eiman, We'am, and Haitham.

I also wish to dedicate this work to all those who work hard and honestly for the
welfare and prosperity of our people.

Declaration

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

ABSTRACT

The subject matter of this study was motivated by the apparent trend that many individuals in Saudi Arabia alienate from working in private organisations, in spite of the fact that such organisations provide better financial rewards than government organisations and have better employment opportunities. The broad objective was to investigate whether individuals working in organisations of different sectors have different attitudes to work. Along this line the research investigates the effect of socio-cultural experiences of employees in accepting and adapting to systematic work life and industrialisation. In addition, comparisons between different nationalities are made.

The achievement motivation (*n* Achievement) is seen as a devotion to hard work and pursuit of a standard of excellence that is chiefly developed in early years of life, and is thought to be an appropriate theoretical approach through which the objective of this study can be achieved. Assessing work attitude and perception of the subjects involved is carried out by exploring the following: i) their general work attitude; ii) their work orientations which includes; perception of work rewards, goals and priorities when selecting an employment, satisfaction with job aspects, and identification of sector preference; and iii) their *n* Achievement. Moreover, the mediation of the affiliation motivation and locus of control with the above variables is examined.

Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to 466 middle and lower level managers taken from a variety of organisations drawn from three sectors. They are; government, semi-private and private sectors. Two industries are chosen from the private sector, namely, financial and manufacturing industries.

The analysis of the data collected points to the failure to establish any differences between the respondents in terms of their general work attitude at the sector and nationality levels. Further investigation into their work orientations indicate that government managers have more instrumental views of their work than do other managers. Family and kin are considered more important when selecting a job than any job factors. Saudi subjects are in general slightly similar to government managers in terms of their views about work than the other nationalities. Government managers are found to be less achievement oriented and submit less to self-set high standard goals. They believe that their lives are determined predominantly by external powers, whereas others have self determination of their lives. Non-Arab subjects are more achievement-oriented and less people-oriented than Arab subjects. Discriminant analysis indicate that high achievers hold jobs which provide more incomes, more challenge, constant and immediate feedback, various tasks and less opportunity to work with other people. Finally, *n* achievement is found to be associated with fathers' education and family size.

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PART ONE

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND OUTLINE OF THESIS

- 1. *Theoretical Frame of Reference***
 - 2. *The Research Problem and the Thesis Proposed***
 - 3. *Theoretical Orientations and the Research Approach***
 - 4. *Research Significance***
 - 5. *The Research General Questions***
 - 6. *Scope and Limitation of the Study***
 - 7. *Structure of the Thesis***
-

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND OUTLINE OF THESIS

INTRODUCTION

The thesis proposed in this research project represents an attempt to assess preference of employment type of managers in Saudi Arabia by examining their work orientations and Achievement. In this chapter the scope and orientation of the study are laid down. The chapter begins with a theoretical framework representing the underlying assumption upon which the thesis is based. The research problem relevant to the objectives of this study is stated. This is followed by addressing the importance of carrying out this particular study in the light of the social and economic transformations taking place in the country during the recent decades. The general objectives and questions of the thesis are then listed and generally discussed. The chapter also discusses alternative theoretical approaches to the thesis proposed. Finally, a structure of the research is provided.

1.1 Theoretical Frame of Reference

The importance of the thesis proposed here stems from the importance of work itself and the meaning given to it. Work has always been important to mankind. In contemporary societies, for instance, the average person spends nearly one third of his or her day's activities at work. If studying, training and preparation for work are taken

into account, then the time spent in work related activities constitutes a major part of adult life (England, 1986).

The fundamental importance of work to humans is indisputable in this context. What is in question here is the different meanings given to work by different societies. Work is assumed to mean different things to different people; it may mean to survive, to make a living, to enjoy being with others, or to acquire self-gratification. The perception of work and the specific meaning giving to it can depend mainly on the culture within which the individual lives. As Watson maintains “...*the ways in which people think and feel about work will closely relate to their wider political and religious doctrines and to their general cultural orientations*” (1987: 82). The reason given here is that, unlike animals, human beings bring value-based *conceptions of alternatives* to the problem of maintaining life. Humans normally tend to prefer certain states of affairs over others and give them specific values (Watson, 1987). The different values given by different groups are the result of a non-rational value system programmed early in people’s lives. These values are created by their collective societies ‘human factor’ and cannot be explained by reference to any clearly definable set of instincts (Hofstede, 1984, 1991). Based on this, it can be concluded that “*meanings given to work, relationships between them, associations they invoke, and the feelings of approval, enthusiasm, obligation, disdain, detestation or even sheer indifference that they may stir up, are all humanly created*” (Rose, 1985: 22).

Since culture can be defined as “*transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic-meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behaviour and the artefacts produced through behaviour*” (Parsons and Kroeber, 1958; as quoted by Chen, 1980: 115), and since the problems of how ‘properly’ to go about working and ‘making a living’ face all human groups, then it can

be expected that every society, through its culture, will have its distinctive way of making sense of the question of work and a distinctive set of values and priorities giving guidance on how its members should proceed with it (Watson, 1987).

The effect of socio-cultural factors on national economic development and prosperity has been recognised in the recent times to be immense and significant. The economic development programmes that international organisations and national governments propose to overcome the plight which underdeveloped nations experience have always been undermined by such factors. The wide gap between what was planned and what was achieved of these programmes has brought into focus the interdependence of economic and social factors of development. One UN document, for instance, proclaims that “...*social reform and economic growth were two sides of the same coin and an inseparable part of the single strategy of development*” (*The United Nations Development Decade*, 1962: 2). The association between socio-cultural factors and economic development is unmistakable in recent writings. Baranson, for example, asserts that “*social organization, cultural values, and behavioral patterns have a direct bearing upon a society’s willingness and ability to adapt and absorb technology, [and upon its] ...preferences in product and equipment design and relative efficiency*” (1969: 8). A number of similar citations can be quoted in this context (*see for example*: Deem & Salaman, 1985; Foster, 1973; Hirszowicz, 1981; Rose, 1975; Rostow, 1990; Sutcliffe, 1971; and Vente & Chen, 1980).

One major socio-cultural factor that hinders economic development in underdeveloped societies is claimed to be their perception of work. It has been argued that work in underdeveloped mid-eastern nations (particularly, in Islamic cultures) is negatively perceived. People of those cultures display negative work behaviours such as

lateness, laziness, absenteeism, turnover, withdrawal from the workplace and general lack of commitment to work. They prefer to spend time socialising and therefore are bound to social obligations and constraints. They work only to maintain the minimum requirements of material life. This is taken as an indicator of the absence of work values which encourage people to work harder for the sake of work itself (Bocock, 1971; Turner, 1974a, 1974b; and Zureik, 1978).

Many social scientists are now convinced that the work ethic is often regarded as an indispensable aspect of modernisation and national well-being (Rose, 1985). The socio-cultural changes that third world countries need to induce in order to modernise their economies presumably have to deal first with the issue of work ethic. Although socio-cultural factors, including work values, are subject to slow gradual historic changes, they are in fact susceptible to some deliberate alterations which can be introduced by planned government programmes.

1.2 The Research Problem and the Thesis Proposed

Many factors have contributed to the vast and rapid social and economic changes that have been ongoing in Saudi Arabia for the last few decades. The most prominent of these is the high revenues from oil, especially after the oil prices boom in the mid seventies. The enormous wealth of the country has led the policy makers to modernise and diversify the country's economy. Industrialisation was chief amongst the chosen alternatives.

Since 1970 the government has embarked upon ambitious five-year plans in an endeavour to build a modern industrial-oriented country. Putting these plans into effect required enormous efforts, experience, and changes in almost all aspects of life.

On the road to modernisation and industrialisation, the need for a well-trained and experienced work force has been realised in order to run the diverse economic functions of the government and the other sectors, including the manufacturing sector. Therefore, a number of measures have been taken in order to transform the society from a generally nomadic and rural society to an urbanised and advanced one. Whilst these measures were being actualised, the reliance on foreign workforces and experts was immensely heavy.

Throughout the preliminary development stages extensive attention was paid to establishing the infrastructure, but the human factor was not forgotten. All government agencies were involved in material constructions, yet considerable attention was paid to developing manpower. Thus, educating people and offering training programmes were amongst the top priorities. This was facilitated by the provision of free general, technical, and higher education.

In spite of all this, the attention paid to human resource development, and the quality of the education and training in the last four development plans were inadequate. Fortunately, manpower development is the focal point of the fifth five-year plan and beyond. Along with this, the development of the private sector and privatisation programmes constitute major objectives of this plan. Regarding manpower, one of the Fifth Development Plan's key objectives is to *"...develop a Saudi work force whose education and skill profile, remuneration, and attitudes towards work are compatible with the realities of a dynamic labor market, by ensuring that the education and training systems are capable of producing high quality, motivated graduates with a skill mix that matches the manpower requirements of the economy"* Ministry of Planning (1990: 116).

The dark side of the bright picture portrayed above is that the Saudi society, which is relatively small and has recently shifted from an unstructured simple way of life, now has to deal with this relatively advanced new life-style effectively, efficiently and independently.

Although the Saudi development programmes have depended heavily on foreign experts, professionals and workforce, it is a fact that throughout the last three decades Saudis have gradually replaced foreign employees in government departments and in educational positions. Nowadays foreign employees are hardly found in government offices and even more rarely in general education posts. The problem, however, rests in the private sector and in jobs of a manual nature which are still dominated by foreigners. There is a tendency amongst the Saudi general public to prefer working for the government to working for the private sector in almost all industries, particularly in the manufacturing industry. Private organisations usually provide Saudis with better financial benefits than government organisations, particularly for managers and white collar workers. For example, the average monthly income for government managers involved in this study is reported to be SR 7,117, whereas for private sector managers the average monthly income amounts to SR 11,122. In addition to this the provision of more comprehensive fringe benefits in the private sector is obvious compared to the government sector. In spite of this financial difference the Saudi workforce constitutes only 7.5% of the total employment of the private manufacturing sector (The Consulting Center for Finance and Investment, 1988).

When industrialisation has been adopted as the way for modernisation and diversification of the country's economy, alienation from employment in the private sector does not blend with the spirit of the present developmental stage which the

country is undergoing. The dramatic growth of the industrial sector during the last two decades attests to the genuine commitment of the government to such an option. As shown in Table 1.1, the manufacturing sector, for example, has increased over four times in terms of the number of operating industrial firms between the years 1975 and 1987, and nine times in terms of the capital invested.

Table 1.1: Growth of the manufacturing sector in terms of number of plants, labour and capital invested.

Year	Number of Plants	Workforce	Capital Invested (\$m.)
1975	473	38625	2812.5
1980	1401	96023	12242.5
1987	2061	140620	25281.3

Sources: Ministry of Industry and Electricity (1984:5), *Industry and Electricity Progress and Achievements*, Saudi Arabia; and Ministry of Industry and Electricity (1987), *Industrial and Statistical Report*, Saudi Arabia.

The Role of the Private Sector in the Development of the Saudi Economy

By the same token, the private sector will assume a leading role in the development of the economy in almost all the industries during the present five-year plan and beyond. The growth of the private sector is genuinely encouraged by the government because it realises that the private sector can deliver more efficient and effective services. One example of such commitment, a privatisation programme, in which many government enterprises are sold to the private sector, is planned by the government during the present development plan. During the Fifth Development Plan the private sector is “...expected to play a key role in the diversification and expansion of the economy, in technology upgrading, and in the generation of new employment opportunities for the Saudi labor force” (Ministry of Planning, 1990: 135).

It is the aim of this study to investigate the underlying causes of the estrangement of many of the general public from the private sector jobs, and the preference for public sector jobs, although payment in the private sector is always much higher. Employment in the private sector refers here to the individual as an employee in a private organisation but not as an owner of the organisation.

Before going any further, it might be worthwhile to note that the sectors involved in this study are those of the government, semi-private and private sectors. Two industries are selected from the private sector for reasons detailed in Chapter seven. These are the financial and manufacturing industries. For convenience, they are referred to as sectors throughout the thesis. Therefore the sectors involved are the government, semi-private, financial and manufacturing sectors.

1.3 Theoretical Orientations and the Research Approach

The notion of work attitudes and perception has been in the centre of the social scientific research for a considerable time, and has been tackled from different perspectives. The many approaches to this notion reflect its complexity and ambiguity. The sociological and psychological as well as the physical factors, which can be considered responsible for shaping and conditioning people's work attitude and motivation, are countless and inter-related. Therefore different interpretations of work behaviour are expected depending on the approaches of different schools of thought.

Concerned only with calculated production at the work place, the scientific management initiated by Taylor (1911) introduced scientific techniques for controlling and measuring work and monetary incentives as an answer to the problem of motivation. Many approaches in organisational psychology are more concerned with

the individual's needs and behaviour at the work place, and the job content. Examples of these approaches are the need hierarchy theory (Maslow, 1954), ERG theory (Alderfer, 1969), the two-factor theory (Herzberg *et al.*, 1959), X and Y theory (McGregor, 1960), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) and the intrinsic motivation theory (Deci, 1975). Another theory, which can be considered to fall within this domain but which approaches the issue of motivation from a broader perspective, is the Equity theory (Adams, 1965). This theory is drawn from the principle of social comparison in which Adams suggests that motivation has a social, not biological, origin. How hard a person is willing to work is a function of comparisons of his or her effort to the effort of others.

The technological implications model is another approach to understanding industrial behaviour. It regards technology to be a major explanatory variable of industrial behaviour. Because technology can determine the division of labour at work and the likelihood of social interaction between these divisions of creating sociable groups, some researchers believe that technology can determine satisfaction, alienation and general work attitude (Blauner, 1964; and Hill, 1983)

Although many of the theories above were based on the human relations approach (the Hawthorne Studies), which offers a model of industrial behaviour in which the workgroup and man's social needs assume a special explanatory role, the interpretation of work motivation provided by them is largely restricted to the individual's needs, the job content and the work environment itself. This accordingly can limit the understanding of work behaviour to individual and specific group differences in particular work situations. But to understand work attitudes of individuals or groups within the context of a given culture a more global outlook must be adopted.

The effect of culture and the wider society on work attitudes was brought to the attention of social scientists as early as 1904 in Weber's thesis "*The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*". This approach has become known as the social action approach. The social action approach received great attention only following the appearance of Goldthorpe *et al.*'s (1968) "*The Affluent Worker*" study.

Far from relating work attitudes to fixed universal psychological needs or technological constraints, the social action approach acts as a vehicle to understand what goes on within work is the product of both the uniqueness of individuals and their social context. That is to say, the social experiences of workers inside and/or outside the factory boundaries would provide an important explanation of their shop floor attitudes through the virtue of describing their orientations to and expectations of work.

From a psychological point of view, the Weber's concept of work ethic, regardless whether its original thesis was correct or not, "...has confirmed its place as an important individual difference variable related to human motivation" (Furnham, 1990a: 31) through intensive investigation by psychologists during the last few decades. Most psychological studies related to this concept have attempted to measure it as a coherent, bi-polar belief system similar to the locus of control (LOC) construct. Amongst the many measures of this construct and most commonly used is the PWE scale developed by Mirels and Garrett (1971) (for more detailed account on this subject refer to Chapter four, section 4.4.2). Another line of investigation which falls within this category and is inspired by Weber's thesis is the study of work values. The most notable work in this regard is the development of the Survey of Work Values (SWV), which consists of six facets, by Wollack *et al.* (1971).

The work that has given this construct a psychological dimension by making it an individual difference variable and yet ascribing its aetiology to socio-cultural specificity is the work of McClelland (1961). McClelland relates the work beliefs of the individual to the notion of achievement motivation, or the need for achievement (*n* Ach, or *n* Achievement). He maintains that although work ethic exists on a socio-cultural level, the specific individual work belief system is developed in childhood through the means of child rearing. The work ethic of the individual, therefore, is his or her *n* Achievement.

The classification of the constructs laid down above may suggest that these constructs are distinct and unequivocal. In fact they, along with a number of specific psychological concepts, are ambiguous and largely overlap amongst themselves. This is the reason why these concepts were adapted by many researchers of different disciplines. Some of these researchers may consider such concepts distinct but interdependent. Other researchers consider one construct to be multi-dimensional consisting of a number of the other concepts, while another researcher may suggest the reverse. For example, Furnham (1990a) proposes that *n* Achievement is part of the multi-dimensional construct of work ethic. Meanwhile Cassidy (1988) suggests the opposite.

After a considerable review of the literature and for the reasons given above, it was decided that McClelland's *n* Achievement theory would provide an appropriate theoretical alternative by which it would be possible to identify the individual differences amongst managers in terms of their submission to goal setting and hard work and the selection of employment. In the meantime, it would be possible to attribute these differences to the relative cultural framework.

Having considered the debate about the multidimensionality of *n* Achievement, as presented in detail in Chapter three, it was decided to accept that the concept of *n* Achievement is more comprehensive than the work ethic. Therefore work ethic represents only one side, along with competitiveness, acquisitiveness, excellence, etc., of the *n* Achievement construct.

It was also thought that the instrument devised by Cassidy and Lynn (1989), which is multi-dimensional which consists of seven facets one of which is work ethic, would be appropriate for this study as it has the advantage of being comprehensive and straight forward (for more details of the reasons for choosing this measure refer to Chapters three and seven, sec.7.7).

1.4 Research Significance

In light of the research problem stated at the opening of this chapter and within the theoretical framework given above, understanding how people react to work situations would prove imperative to developing a healthy and effective industrial orientation which a developing country like Saudi Arabia is eager to achieve. The role of a positive perception of work and achievement striving should be recognised as a means to attain better national development and well-being through the industrialisation process, provided they are developed in conjunction with well planned and appropriate environments. Therefore the need for studying the general work orientation of the people concerned is an important starting point.

Identifying individuals' orientations to work would not only help in allocation and recruitment of employees, but also would assist in designing practical programmes with the view of developing healthier work attitudes and sense of achievement. In

particular, with the wider and more comprehensive role the private sector is assuming in Saudi Arabia and the need for identifying potential entrepreneurs, such a knowledge of people's work attitudes would help economic planners and policy makers in putting down ambitious but more realistic, attainable and effective plans in developing the private sector. For personnel managers, it is beneficial in the recruitment process to have a clearer picture of future managers' profiles.

More specifically this research project is motivated by two main agents. The first, is the search for the underlying causes for the phenomenon that a substantial number of the Saudi manpower prefer to work in the government sector rather than the private sector, in particular the manufacturing sector, at the time where the private sector offers much higher earnings and has more available jobs.

Secondly, Saudi Arabia has attracted many scholars and researchers of different interests in recent decades. Many of these studies have generally attempted to explore the nature of Saudi Arabia as a country, its culture and values , and the behaviour and beliefs of its people. However, the work-related studies are concerned mainly with the question of motivation and job satisfaction in the public sector and government-owned or partially owned organisations. Unfortunately, the issue of work values and ethic has not received equivalent attention. As far as could be determined with available information, there is only one comparative study, which is related to work beliefs of managers (Ali & Al-Shakhis, 1989). The present study, however, represents an attempt to close the gap of the lack for such a study. More specifically, it deals with the issues of managers' work attitude, work ethic, achievement motivation, affiliation motivation, job satisfaction and locus of control with comparisons of different sectors and nationalities.

1.5 The Research General Questions

Motivated by the rationales listed above and guided by the theoretical model outlined in the previous section, the following questions will be used as the guideline for this research project. The answers to these questions would probably provide the bases for understanding why people perceive their work differently and may help in providing the correct ingredient for manpower planning and development:

1. What are the main demographic and social characteristics of the Saudi and non-Saudi white-collar workers in the different sectors of the Saudi economy? How do these characteristics relate to their work attitudes?
2. Do their work orientations relate to any of these characteristics?
3. Do different cultures have any bearing on general work attitudes, work values, central life interests, and perception of jobs and occupations? Do the different sectors, i.e. Government, Semi-private and Private sectors, relate to these aspects?
4. What similarities or differences may emerge between Saudis, Arabs and managers of the developing and developed countries in terms of their: achievement and affiliation motives, locus of control, and job satisfaction? What similarities or differences may emerge between subjects of the three sectors in terms of these dimensions?
5. Do high achievers have different patterns of attitudes to work, hold jobs that have specific characteristics, or prefer to work for a specific sector? Are they more satisfied than low achievers?

6. Is there any inter-relationships amongst achievement motivation, locus of control and religion?
7. Can sector preference be predicted by knowing the manager's demographic, social, or personality characteristics?

Chapter Six gives a detailed account of all the questions and hypotheses proposed in this study. Each item, or a number of relevant items, is presented following a brief theoretical reasoning or rationale for the proposition of that item.

1.6 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study will be limited to the following subjects and organisations:

- I. The study is concerned with white collar workers for two reasons; first, white collar workers in the private sector are considered a matching group of government sector managers, whereas government offices may not necessarily have the equivalent blue collar workers found in the private sector, and in particular the manufacturing industry. Furthermore, the common languages for white collar workers are Arabic and/or English, whereas blue collar workers can be characterised as illiterate or badly educated, and speak many languages as they come from all corners of the globe.
- II. In the private sector, organisations will be drawn from two main industries; the manufacturing and financial industries. The reason behind the inclusion of the financial industry is the relative similarity of this industry to that of the government sector.

III. From the regions of Saudi Arabia, the main three were chosen and only the major cities of these regions are studied. These cities are; Riyadh in the Central region, Jeddah in the Western region, and Dammam and Jubail in the Eastern region.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The investigation of the questions laid out earlier in the chapter will be outlined in several chapters. In addition to this introductory chapter, which aims at familiarising the reader with the purpose of the study, its objectives and the theoretical framework within which the purpose of the study will be pursued, the study will be delineated in the following eleven chapters:

Chapter two focuses on the theoretical framework of the study; that is the Achievement motivation. First, it briefly presents this concept discussing how it evolved as a plausible candidate to explain a set of complicated work behaviours. It then traces its origins and historical evolution. In addition, a considerable account of how this motive develops in childhood is given. Within this, definitions are put forward for the concepts used here which are central to the study of industrial behaviour. The theoretical review of this concept can not escape the influential work of D. C. McClelland who is convinced that there is only one way of measuring this concept. The final part of the chapter will focus mainly on that measure and on projective measures in general.

Chapter three will be devoted to a measurement method of another school of thought; that is the objective method. To start with, the points of view of each school of thought is discussed and pros and cons for each method are laid out, and several

objective measures put forward by different scholars and researchers are discussed extensively. Within this, the views of the researcher are defined and the rationales behind the use of the instruments used in this study are then presented.

In chapter four the thesis (Weber's thesis) upon which McClelland built his theory is discussed. This is followed by a detailed consideration of McClelland's interpretation of the relationships between the main agents of Weber's thesis. More specifically, special attention is given to the description of high achievers, entrepreneurs, and business managers. Within this, a substantial consideration is given to the concept of work ethic and its role as an explanatory variable of work-related behaviour. The chapter then concludes with a small section discussing the role of locus of control.

In chapter five a detailed account of the physical, social and economic environments within which the subjects of this study operate. The chapter discusses the physical and demographic structure of Saudi Arabia accompanied by a deep investigation of its culture and history. It also presents its modern history and the present social and economic situation. The chapter concludes with a special reference made to the role of the private sector and industrialisation.

In chapter six a full review of the questions and hypotheses is given. Each item is presented along with its theoretical pros and cons. Some hypotheses are directional and some are not. This depends on the theoretical argument and the empirical support available in literature for each hypothesis. Some questions and hypotheses relevant to areas where empirical research is scant are advanced for exploration purposes.

Chapter seven delineates the different methods and designs available for the researcher and outlines the research strategy and the considerations regarding the way

in which the study's empirical part was carried out. The discussion includes the justification for the use of the selected research design and method, the setting and the data collection method.

Chapter eight provides a description of the sample's personal, social and organisational characteristics. A number of comparisons between subjects of different origins and sectors are carried out. It also gives their descriptive statistics along a number of factors.

Chapter nine, ten and eleven represent the inferential statistics part of the dissertation. Chapter nine is concerned mainly with the general work attitudes of subjects. It discusses the views of work formed by different cultures and how cultures give specific meanings and values to work. These views are then related to the subjects of this study and their cultures and type of organisation.

Chapter ten relates to the findings of the main concept of the study, i.e. the *n* Achievement. Relationship between *n* Achievement and other personal, social and organisational variables are examined on both bi- and multi-dimensional levels. The chapter then concludes with predicting high and low achievers by their job aspects and characteristics.

Chapter eleven is devoted to the findings of other related concepts considered in this study. These concepts are affiliation motivation and locus of control. The chapter concludes with the test of predicting sector type from individual characteristics.

Chapter twelve summarises the findings of the study and presents a discussion and conclusions based on these findings. Finally it considers the implications that emerge from these findings, and provides some suggestions for future research.

PART TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER TWO

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF *n* ACHIEVEMENT

1. *Achievement Motivation in Perspective*
2. *Definitions of the Achievement Motivation*
3. *Origin and Development of Achievement Motivation
in Childhood*

CHAPTER II

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF *n* ACHIEVEMENT

INTRODUCTION

Review of the literature which interprets the achievement motive as explanatory of some work-related behaviours is the subject of this chapter. The theory is first presented in a summarised form discussing its basic idea and the source of its popularity. The main body of the chapter is concerned with two aspects of this motive. First, the confusion surrounding the definition of the motive is detailed. This is followed by an investigation of the origins of the achievement motive and its development in childhood. The historical evolution of the achievement motivation is briefly presented in Appendix B.

2.1 Achievement Motivation in Perspective

The achievement motivation or need for achievement ('*n* Achievement' or '*n* Ach' for short)¹ is a concept that was first advanced by Murray (1938) who conceptualised it as a stable personality dimension that forms part of a conclusive need system responsible

¹ Note that "*n* Ach" or "*n* Achievement" is used as an abbreviation for both "the need for achievement" and "achievement motivation". The two terms are used interchangeably in most theoretical literature.

for determining the individual's course of action. It was McClelland, however, who popularised it amongst motivational theorists through his exhaustive research.

McClelland's research not only led to the conclusion that *n* Ach is a motive responsible for success at personal and group levels, but it also led to the belief that it is a determinant of success of a whole nation or nations through economic development, a dimension that gave this notion its explanatory importance.

The achievement motive (McClelland *et al.*, 1953), which initiated enormous interest in the achievement motive, acts as the cornerstone for this concept's current research. In this work, McClelland and his colleagues defined achievement motivation within a more general perspective of motivation. Their perception of a motive can be defined as the "redintegration by a cue of a change in an affective situation" (p.28). The key components of this definition are redintegration, cue, and affect.

Within the framework of this definition, a motivational theory is explicated as being conditional on an affect that can change in accordance with the subsequent feeling (pleasant or unpleasant) of a behaviour in presence of certain cues. The same cues (or stimuli) can then redintegrate the same affective state associated with them in previous situations.

The achievement motivation theory, according to McClelland's interpretation of his general motivational theory, applies the same principles in its development. This means that it is a motive that can be acquired and developed in early life by the way the child was reared.

The achievement motive can be characterised in a person by the ability of that person to direct his purposive behaviours towards achieving already-set goals in a way that is marked by working hard against some standard of excellence. The presence of

the motive in an individual can be identified by the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). The standardisation of TAT can be considered a major contribution of McClelland and his associates in their study (a detailed discussion of the *n* Ach measurement is presented later in the chapter and in Chapter three). To conclude from the above discussion, the achievement motive is a personality characteristic that is relatively stable throughout the adult life, and can be affected by the surrounding situation.

In his book entitled *The Achieving Society* (1961), McClelland gave the achievement motivation a wider cultural perspective when he claimed that it was partially responsible for national economic success. As achievement being an acquired motive which can be developed in childhood, McClelland accepts Weber's thesis that religion has a chief bearing in creating Capitalism through the achievement motive. But he interprets it through a series of relationships. He argues that Protestant reformations have a major effect on encouraging independence training in children through child rearing which leads to development of achievement motivation. This, in turn, leads to making, at least theoretically, entrepreneurs who help developing successful national economies (These arguments are taken up in detail in Chapter four).

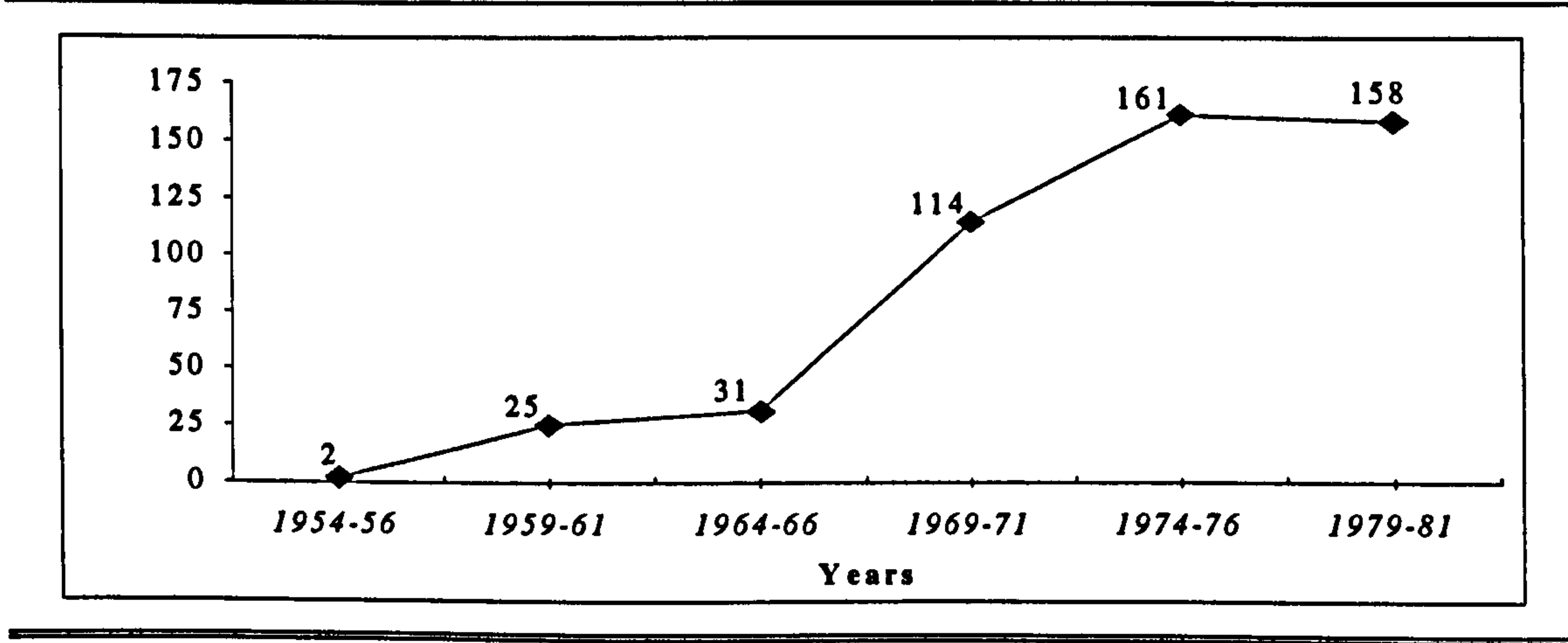
He further advanced the achievement theory by the empirical work he and another colleague undertook to demonstrate that businessmen could be taught how to be achievement oriented at later stages of life. Their work was published in their book entitled *Motivating Economic Achievement* (McClelland and Winter, 1969).

The work of McClelland and his colleagues during that period of time has generated considerable interest in achievement motivation and, therefore, research in it escalated as can be seen in Figure 2.1. The bulk of the research has taken many directions in an effort to determine the effects of this particular motive on the general course of action of individuals, and to establish relationships with other disciplines. By

doing so, optimal use of the predictive ability of the motive can be established and potential candidates for different practices can be identified early.

Early research has identified various characteristics of individuals with high need for achievement, it also indicated some factors that facilitate the advancement of the motive and foster its evolution. Atkinson, for instance, noted in experiments amongst which is a ring-toss game, that individuals high in *n* Ach select tasks that are

Figure 2.1: Annual number of publications on achievement motivation from 1954 to 1981, as listed on Psychological Abstracts, with frequencies averaged over 3-year periods*.



* Source: Heckhausen *et al.*, 1985.

moderately difficult, neither too difficult, nor too easy (Atkinson, 1957; Atkinson and Litwin, 1960; and de Charms and Carpenter, 1968). Based on these observations Atkinson developed his dichotomised theory of risk-taking model in which he explained the achievement motive theory in terms of two motives; i) the tendency to approach

success or (Hope of Success 'HS'); and ii) tendency to avoid failure or (Fear of Failure 'FF').

In contrast to low achievers, high achievers are found to prefer tasks or jobs that are characterised as challenging and that provide concrete feedback. Of central importance to the theory is the notion of performing well with reference to one's previous or others' performance. Without proper feedback, one would not know how well or badly he or she is performing (French, 1958b; and Kagan and Moss, 1962). Besides, individuals with high *n* Ach are found to prefer to claim personal responsibility over their own work. For only under such circumstances can they claim they have achieved success.

With respect to sex differences in the achievement motivation, the early work of McClelland and his colleagues (1953) found that women get higher *n* Ach scores than men under neutral conditions, but when achievement imageries were aroused, women's *n* Ach scores did not increase. Some researchers attribute this phenomenon to the TAT instructions which emphasise intelligence and leadership abilities (Lips and Colwill, 1978; and Maccoby and Jacklin, 1975). Many studies subsequent to McClelland *et al.*'s (1953) have also arrived at similar findings (c.f. Spence and Helmreich, 1983).

High academic achievement did not always indicate high *n* Ach. Due to many mediating factors, inconsistent results pertaining to the relationship between the two are not unusual. However, some studies have found significant relationships especially if using the achievement subscales of the PRF (Jackson, 1967) and the EPPS (Edwards, 1954) inventories.

Occupationally, high achievers are found to have greater upward mobility than low achievers. The fathers of the two groups were in low or middle prestige occupations (Crockett, 1962, 1964).

Socially, high achievers were found 20 years later in better social classes than low achievers (Skolnick, 1966), (for a brief account about the historical evolution of the achievement concept refer to Appendix B).

2.2 *Definitions of the Achievement Motivation*

Some of the most recognisable difficulties which investigators exploring the nature and ramifications of the concept of achievement have emphasised are the complexity and ambiguity of this construct. A chief reason for the lack of a universally accepted definition can be attributed to the multifaceted nature of this concept and the fact that it involves the interaction of many factors (c.f. Lynn, 1969; Jackson *et al.*, 1976; Spence & Helmreich, 1983; Tziner & Elizur, 1985; Cassidy & Lynn, 1989: This point will be taken up in detail in the next chapter). The ambiguity of this concept, best reflected in the wide range of its differing definitions, undermines considerably the possibility of researchers attaining an appropriate and valid measure of it.

Despite problems of ambiguity, achievement motivation is usually defined simply as “The competition with a standard of excellence” (McClelland *et al.*, 1953: 111). Although this definition does not explain much, it is widely used amongst researchers in this area.

Henry Murray (1938), the first to deal with the modern concept of Achievement, defined it as “*The desire or tendency to do things as rapidly and/or as well as possible*” (p.164). This definition includes a considerable number of acts, from

performing a simple task to accomplishing a complex one such as building up an aeroplane, which may gratify the achievement drive. He went on to elaborate:

... [*n* Achievement is] The desire to accomplish something difficult. To master, manipulate or organize physical objects, human beings or ideas. To do this as rapidly and independently as possible. To overcome obstacles and attain a high standard. To excel one's self. To rival and surpass others. To increase self-regard by the successful exercise of talent.

(Murray, 1938: 164)

Crockett (1960), who studied the relationship between *n* Achievement and occupational mobility, accepts McClelland *et al.*'s (1953) position of "affect in connection with evaluated performance" (p.79), and refers the notion "*n* Ach" to "The disposition to strive for success in situations involving evaluation of performance in relation to some standard of excellence" (1960: 3).

Heckhausen (1967) defines the achievement motive in a paradoxical term, namely as the condition that underlies the striving of an individual driven by either "hope of success" or "fear of failure" in a given situation. *n* Achievement is conceived of as "*The striving to increase or keep as high as possible one's own capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail*" (pp. 4-5).

In an attempt to develop an *n* Achievement measure, Holmes and Tyler (1968) described the need to achieve for their subjects as "... the degree to which an individual is concerned with achieving a goal and/or the degrees to which an individual strives to succeed or achieve a goal.the need to achieve can be seen in the degree to which an individual is consistently concerned with or striving for the

attainment of a goal which he or she has set for him or herself'. They concluded "... *a person's need to achieve is reflected in how hard he works to attain goals*" (Holmes and Tyler, 1968: 714).

From contextual and cultural perspectives, Maehr (1974; 1978; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980) stresses the universality of the achievement motivation phenomenon which is found in all cultures and is elicited by the contextual conditions. He thinks of it as tasks that "... *exist in all cultures for which there are standards of excellence, levels of challenge, and the possibility of self-attribution of some sort*" (Maehr, 1978: 211). The difference, then, is not whether a 'will' exists in any given culture or not, rather in which of the "ways, conditions, and contexts" this 'will' is actualised.

In his definition of achievement motivation, Maehr (1978) stresses the importance of three conditioning principles, viz. standard of excellence, individual's performance, and challenge. He outlines these defining principles thus:

... three delimiting principles are operative in restricting the range of observations to achievement. First, the persistence, the directional change, the performance variation, or some combination must occur in a task for which there is a *standard of excellence*; in other words, the activity must be such that it can be evaluated in terms of success or failure. A second defining condition is that the outcome on the task is potentially *attributable to the individual's performance*. This does not necessarily mean that achievement is only an individualistic activity. The point, however, is that achievement is something to which the person makes a contribution. Something is done by the individual; it is not done to the individual. Third, some level of *challenge* and, therewith, a certain related sense of uncertainty of outcome must be involved

(Maehr, 1978: 211)

In a conceptual restructuring of achievement motivation, Tziner and Elizur (1985) have provided a definition that was based on the achievement motive's believed component elements by means of facet analysis. Based on this definition, they constructed a questionnaire designed to solve problems of the motive's measurement.

The three domain facets on which the definition of achievement motive is based are; i) behaviour modality: in which the "action oriented" nature of the concept emphasised portraying the instrumentality aspects of the motive's behaviours rather than touching on any affective or cognitive attitudes; ii) type of confrontation: which refers to the readiness of the individual to confront oneself with a challenge and cope with it, such as difficult tasks, personal responsibility, and uncertainty. It also refers to the readiness of the individual to consider different aspects of the situation and match answers to challenges; and iii) time perspective of task performance: which can be classified as *before* the task is performed, like uncertainty and calculating risks; *During* task performance, like coping with difficulty or solving problems; or *after* task performance, like responsibility and satisfying the need to succeed.

Based on these three facets, Tziner & Elizur (1985) defined achievement motivation in terms of what they called "mapping sentence", (presented in Figure 2.2). They divided the universe of achievement motive into subuniverses by means of selecting one element of each facet (A=3, B=2, and C=3 elements). Each selection of components (3 x 2 x 3) represents a content area which is a subuniverse of the conceptual space of achievement motive according to this definition.

The content of the six components combining facets B and C which appear to differentiate distinctive components of achievement can be defined as follows: (Tziner and Elizur, 1985:212)

- B₁ C₁

To confront oneself with a challenge before task performance - to face *uncertainty*.
- B₁ C₂

To confront oneself with a challenge during task performance - to face *difficulty*.

Figure 2.2: Tziner & Elizzur’s mapping sentence for the definition of the achievement motive.

The extent that respondent (x) behaves

A. Behaviour modality

- a₁ Instrumentally (undertaken)

a₂ Affectively (is satisfied with)

a₃ Cognitively (prefers)

to confront

B. Kind of confrontation

- b₁ Himself

b₂ An answer

with a challenge associated with the stage

C. Time perspective

- c₁ Before

c₂ During

c₃ After

task performance →

High

:

Low

in the sense of the element of facet A

Source: Tziner & Elizur, (1985) p. 212.

B₁ C₃	To confront oneself with a challenge after task performance - to face <u>personal responsibility</u> .
B₂ C₁	To confront a challenge with an answer before task performance - to take a <u>calculated risk</u> by matching appropriate risk level with an expected gain.
B₂ C₂	To confront a challenge with an answer during task performance - to match <u>solutions</u> with <u>problems</u> .
B₂ C₃	To confront a challenge with an answer - after task performance - to match an activity to <u>satisfy</u> one's <u>need</u> to succeed.

Finally, a simple definition of achievement motivation is presented by Cassidy and Lynn (1989), according to whom "Achievement motivation (*n* Ach) is a term that has been used in psychology to describe the personal striving of individuals to attain goals within their social environment" (p. 301).

From the various definitions presented thus far, it can be concluded that there is some agreement in the theoretical literature with respect to the meaning of achievement as a term. Most researchers define the concept in terms of, more or less, the same key concepts, including competition, standard of excellence, accomplishment, as rapidly or as well as possible (Atkinson, Heckhausen, Maehr, McClelland, Murray). Some other concepts have been repeatedly mentioned in literature. These are: hard work, attainment of set goals (Holmes and Tyler), degree of challenge, persistence, variation in performance (Maehr), goal difficulty, task uncertainty, and personal responsibility (Atkinson, Tziner and Elizur).

Concerns of investigators vary depending on how they approach this concept. Whereas Murray's interest was mostly in personality, McClelland was concerned with personality and culture. Maehr was more interested in culture and the role of the

contextual situation than any other factor of achievement. Atkinson and Heckhausen are more interested in situational contexts in which achievement can be defined either in terms of “hope of success” or “fear of failure”. Risk taking and choice of task difficulty are more associated with Atkinson. Others were concerned with other factors and variables with which achievement can be related, such as; occupational mobility, sex role, social classes, gender, work ethics, education, managers versus workers, age, and other personal and organisational characteristics.

2.3 Origin and Development of Achievement Motivation in Childhood

The age at which achievement-motivated behaviours begin is a debated issue in the investigation of child development. Behaviours which appear to have achievement-relational motivational characteristics, including familiar routines which may indicate the presence of achievement motivation can be generally detected in early childhood. Piaget (1952) refers to these activities, which are of a sensorimotor behaviour type, as circular reactions; particularly “wanting-to-do-it-alone”; The same phenomena is referred to in the theoretical literature as mastery, competence, or effectance motivation (Donaldson, 1978; Harter, 1981; and White, 1959).

A child in his second year repeats simple acts that he or she has just mastered, and by doing so he or she enjoys the accomplishment of these things. The child also enjoys trying out new skills which allow him or her to control aspects of his or her environment. This is what White (1959) has called “need for competence”, which includes the desire for...

... grasping and exploring, crawling and walking, attention and perception, language and thinking, manipulating and changing the surroundings, all of which promote an effective - a competent - interaction with the environment. ... The behavior that leads to the building up of effective grasping, handling and letting go of objects, to take an example, is not random behavior produced by a general overflow of energy. It is directed, selective and persistent and it is continued not because it serves primary drives, which indeed it can not serve until it is almost perfected, but because it satisfies an intrinsic need to deal with the environment

(pp. 317-318)

To many researchers these achievement-related behaviours or phenomena of “wanting-to-do-it-alone”, and of persistence in sensorimotor activities have nothing to do with achievement motivation, nor are they considered to be the beginnings of it (Beller, 1957; Heckhausen, 1967; and Winterbottom, 1958). Therefore children who show a strong persistence in sensorimotor activities or seem to be occupied with specific things cannot be predicted to be achievement orientated in their childhood or during any other subsequent developmental stage (Kagan & Moss, 1962; Mussen, 1963), whereas at a later age achievement behaviours can be predictive of achievement at adulthood. Heckhausen (1967) states that *“Already at 10 years of age the future achievement behaviour of the adult can be predicted quite well”* (p147).

Although a few investigators of achievement motivation agree on the point that this motive develops before the age of three years, some even have gone further than the infancy stage and suggested that achievement motivation might have a heredity origin, a view Heckhausen strongly opposes. Cortés found that mesomorphic boys (those who have more muscles relative to fat and skin) have significantly higher need for achievement scores than other boys. (Cortés & Gatti, 1972).

Veroff (1969), in this concern, agrees on the importance of the evaluation of performance of achievement motivation as a distinction between a purposeful behaviour and a simple pleasure derived from exercising some skill. Nevertheless, he refers such capabilities to the practice of the language whose development occurs at a much earlier time, around the age of one and a half and two and a half.

In spite of all this, there seems to be a general agreement that the real achievement-motivation indicative behaviours are manifested in full force from the age of three onward. Heckhausen (1967) considers what seems to be achievement-related behaviours before the age of three as precursors but not the beginnings of achievement motivation.

The first appearance of achievement-related behaviours requires the structuring of the situation where the individual can manipulate the environment and can attribute the success or failure at a certain task to the self and enjoy the pleasure of success or persist on failed tasks.

These capabilities are associated with the cognitive step development which is exhibited between the age of three and three and a half when “... *the success or failure of one's activity directs the pleasure or disappointment no longer only at the outcome of the activity as such but rather at the self, so that with success the child experiences pleasure about his competence, and with failure experiences shame about his incompetence*” (Heckhausen, 1967, p143).

At this age children can also define and react to their self-imposed goals and work towards bringing them about. They will be able to evaluate the outcome of their courses of action and experience the positive or negative consequences attributed to the self. (Dweck & Elliott, 1983).

From the above, one can conclude that the achievement theory is basically a cognitive theory. It is best instantiated as such by Atkinson's theory which assumes that one's expectations about the likelihood of attaining a goal (success at an achievement task) mediate the perception of the task stimulus and the final achievement-related response. In view of the little attention paid by some achievement models to cognitive processes, Weiner (1972) argues that such a theory is best characterised as quasi-cognitive.

2.3.1 Transition from Mastery Motivation to Achievement Motivation

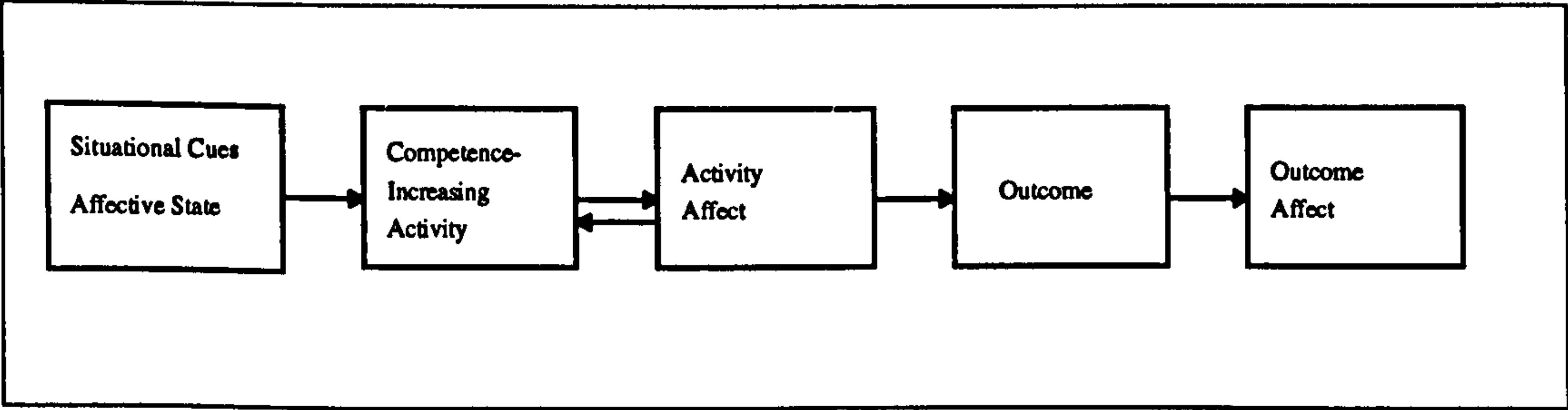
Suffice it to say that the evidence presented thus far indicates that most achievement motivation investigators believe that achievement-related behaviours which take place before the age of three have in fact nothing to do with the achievement motive. Rather, they are referred to as competence or mastery motivation.

The difference between the two is that Mastery or Competence activities at infancy are merely a form of reflexes or habits which require relatively little cognitive apparatus, and require no planning or outcome evaluation, whereas achievement motivated behaviours are of expectancy-value thinking nature where individuals are required to engage in deliberately setting goals for themselves and choosing the means by which they can attain these goals and work towards their attainment. The outcomes of their performance is then evaluated and consequences of the results are eventually experienced. All of this process requires a relatively developed level of cognitive structure.

The achievement motive emerges from early mastery or competence motivation and its emergence is marked by the emergence of achievement goals and

evaluative standards. In a preliminary attempt to chart the emergence of achievement motivation, Dweck and Elliott (1983) have proposed a model of transition from mastery to achievement motivation. Their proposal is based on Kagan’s (1978) assumption that the emergence and evolution of the child’s ideas about competence are tied to the emergence and conditions of the “self” which Kagan views as the psychological function that recognises and evaluates alternative possibilities, both with respect to courses of action and outcomes (means and ends) and with respect to one’s own personal qualities. Because achievement motivation involves the purposeful pursuit and evaluation of competence, its emergence coincides with the emergence of the “self” function.

Figure 2.3: Mastery Motivation: Proposal Processes



Source: Dweck & Elliott (1983) p. 673.

Dweck and Elliott (1983) suggested that from early mastery motivation to their postulated mature model of achievement motivation processes, layers of regulatory systems develop over each other in a way that allows the older primitive systems to work and the basic “mastery urge” to filter through the emerging achievement activity regulated by different cognitive structures.

Figure 2.3 displays the proposed process of mastery motivation. Taking into account that infants appear to do things that enhance their own learning and maximise their competence, mastery motivation system is exhibited as involving a series of affective states that a) instigate; b) maintain; and c) reinforce competence-producing activity.

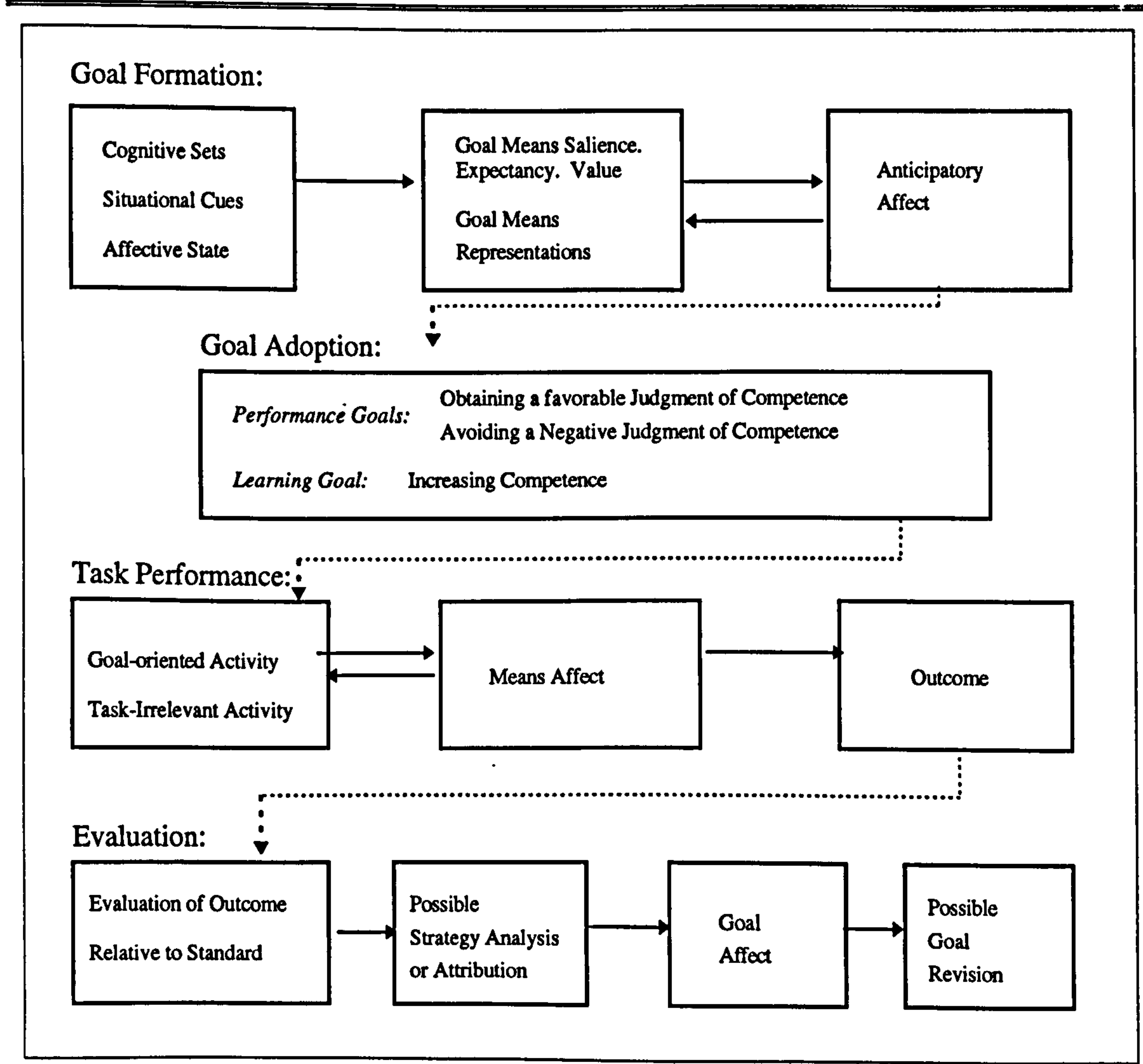
From the arousal perspective, there are two different positions. One is the types of stimulus situations that arouse the child to get involved in the course of action. There is a moderate degree of variation between external stimulus and the child's representation, e.g., expectations, schemata, etc., which creates an internal disequilibrium. The child, then, tries to restore the state of equilibrium by resolving the variation. Alternatively children are stimulated internally by curiosity or exploratory drives. The child then draws pleasure from engaging in initiated mental or physical activity, and when mastery is achieved, the child experiences satisfaction or joy which reinforces the activity. With the repeated occurrence of the process and experiencing the same affect, this outcome could be predicted in future activities.

2.3.2 A Cognitive Model of Achievement Motive Process

In their detailed study of achievement motive theories, Dweck and Elliott (1983) also proposed a preliminary cognitive model of mature achievement motivational processes, which portrays the sequence as an achievement process that children go through from task choice to performance evaluation. Along the way, cognitive and affective mediators of behaviour at each phase are analysed and factors that facilitate or impair learning and performance are explored.

The model which depicts a dynamic set of cognitive, affective and value-related variables is a preliminary attempt towards determining the choices available to the child, examining the factors that direct him or her towards certain choices, and exploring the consequences of those choices.

Figure 2.4: Achievement Motivation Proposed Process



Source: Dweck & Elliott, (1983) p. 677.

Although this model tends to idealise the representation of achievement motivational processes, its formulation, as with most achievement theories, is cast in expectancy-value terms. It is build around subjective expectancies and values that children may attach to different achievement goals and activities, and it examines what children might do with the information available to them in different situations.

Figure 2.4 involves four phases presenting the affective and cognitive processes of the achievement model. These phases are: a) instigation; b) direction; c) maintenance; and d) reinforcement of achievement-oriented activity.

Dweck and Elliott proposed that children come to the achievement situation equipped with particular cognitive sets, such as beliefs and theories, and with existing affective states which may be influenced by situational cues. They (cognitive sets, situational cues, and affective states) are seen as influencing the importance of the different goals and means, and as contributing to the expectancies and values attached to them.

According to Dweck & Elliott, the actual selection of goals and means can be explained in terms of two approaches. First, within a more cognitive approach, expectancies and values may take the form of cognition about what one can and wants to accomplish, with different goals being compared to each other in terms of some combination of 'can' and 'want'. The second approach that Dweck and Elliott propose is that, given particular expectancies and values, the child may activate or generate cognitive representations of salient goals and means. This position is basically a combination of the views of Kagan (1972) and McClelland *et al.* (1953). To Kagan, motivation involves activating the cognitive representation of goals, whereas to McClelland *et al.*, it involves anticipatory affective responses to goals. At this point the child may experience or expect affective reactions in relation to task initiation, task

activity, and task outcomes. Then he or she may acquire a knowledge of what activity may cause him or her to feel good or bad in the short or long run.

2.4 Overview

The first mention of the notion of achievement strivings in literature can be traced back to the work of William James towards the end of the last century. The concept of need for achievement as it is known today was first advanced as a stable personality variable by H. Murray in the first half of this century. However, it was D.C. McClelland and his colleagues who made it popular amongst psychologists, and many other scholars of other disciplines, through the extensive research they carried out on it. In particular the interest in the achievement motive was immense after the claim by McClelland that it is not only responsible for personal or group success, but also the success of whole nations through the development of an entrepreneurial environment.

In spite of his emphasis on the relationship between *n* Achievement and culture, McClelland has placed little importance on cultural differences and treats *n* Achievement as a stable personality variable. To him the role of cultural beliefs and values lessen after the development of the personality. Other researchers emphasise the effect of the different meanings given to the same goals by cultures and the role of situational factors in which the individual performs. Some other achievement theorists postulate that achievement motivation underlies approach of success as well as avoidance of failure. These tendencies determine at the end if a person will approach or avoid an achievement task.

The ambiguity of this concept and the difficulty in demarcating its boundaries, which can be attributed to its seemingly multifaceted nature, have contributed greatly to

both its adoption by other disciplines and the disagreement surrounding its definition. Nevertheless a general definition of it can read as “the competition with a standard of excellence”.

McClelland and his associates have defined the achievement motive within their general theory of motivation in which the motive is acquired in childhood through the process of child rearing. Although the achievement motive is largely believed to be developed in childhood, it still accepted that it can be to a certain degree acquired or altered at later stages of life. McClelland himself has conducted an empirical research teaching businessmen how to be more achievement oriented.

Although some investigators believe that achievement related behaviours can be detected during the first three years, there seems to be a general agreement that the real achievement-motivation indicative behaviours are manifested in full force from the age of three onward. The achievement related behaviours manifested prior to this age are a form of mastery motivation. The achievement motivation later emerges from mastery motivation. The first appearance of achievement-related behaviours requires deliberate goal setting and structuring of the situation where the individual can manipulate the environment and can attribute the success or failure at a certain task to the self and either enjoy the pleasure of success or persist on failed tasks. For this reason the achievement theory can be considered a cognitive theory.

CHAPTER THREE

ON THE MEASUREMENT OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

- 1. *Measuring n Achievement by the
Thematic Apperception Test***
- 2. *Can Projective Techniques Measure Things That Objective
Ones Cannot?***
- 3. *The Conscious Level of Achievement Motivation***
- 4. *Unitary- Versus Multi-Dimensionality of n Ach Construct***
- 5. *Objective Techniques in Measuring n Achievement***

CHAPTER III

ON THE MEASUREMENT OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

“Whatever exists exists in some quantity or can (in principle) be measured”.

E.J. Thorndike

Cited in Furnham, A. (1990a: 79).

INTRODUCTION

It goes without saying that a phenomena is not comprehensively understood and explicated unless it can be measured. If we assume that achievement motivation is responsible for certain achievement behaviours, then it is imperative to find a way of measuring this motive so as to empirically verify this claim.

There is often little agreement among psychologists as to the assessment device best suited for evaluating a particular personality disposition. Such agreement would only be possible if personality traits and dispositions were unequivocally indicated by overt measurable behaviours. The difficulty in relating behaviour to personality traits can create psychometric difficulties, especially in relation to measurement properties such as validity and reliability. The debate is even more heated when it comes to direct and indirect psychometric techniques.

In this chapter the direct and indirect methods of measuring the achievement concept are presented, and the arguments surrounding the suitable method of measuring the *n* Achievement construct are discussed. In particular, three important

questions are raised. The first question asks if projective techniques measure things that objective ones can not. The second relates to the consciousness level of the achievement motive, and the last question deals with the unitary construct of the motive.

3.1 *Measuring n Achievement by the Thematic Apperception Test*

One of the long-standing problems in the field of motivation measurement is that it is an intricate and equivocal process, yielding, quite often, misleading results. Measuring the n Achievement has indeed proved no different.

The earliest attempts at defining and measuring n Achievement were made by Murray (1938) in his study of the different traits of personality. He produced a six-part scale, one of the parts is a 10-item achievement subscale answered either by “agree” or “disagree”.

McClelland, not satisfied with the results of this questionnaire, was determined to develop a method by which this motive could be measured. In their classical study of *The Achievement Motive*, McClelland and his associates (1953) used a modified version of the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) developed earlier by Murray (1938).

The underlying assumption of the thematic apperception method is that motives are unconscious powers that can indirectly affect the person's course of behaviours of which the individual is not fully aware. Since the motives are repressed on the unconscious level, they can be approached through the individual's thoughts and fantasies. According to Freud, these fantasies can be gauged through dreams, stories told, autobiographies, free associations, and through behaviours in laboratories and real settings.

Murray has tried every possible way of measuring motives and has devised an eclectic method by which he tries to measure all motives which previous theorists thought important. To Murray, motives, unlike other personality aspects, cannot always be consistent due to the fact that they can be manifested in many ways and can find alternative behaviour outlets. For example, if a certain behaviour is not socially acceptable or an individual lacks the ability to perform such behaviour another more acceptable alternative is chosen. Hence, one way of manifestation could substitute and eliminate the other. Therefore, consistency from one activity to the other should not be expected, otherwise any attempt to build a motive measure by adding such activities would be likely to fail.

Murray's version of the test which was found to be helpful and productive by many clinical psychologists consists of 20 ambiguous pictures suggestive of key emotional complexes in the life of the individuals, such as personal relationship of father to son or mother to daughter.

McClelland decided to use the TAT with normal people to measure their inner motives on the basis that individuals would express their dominant motive tendencies in fantasy material. He states that "It is the fantasies of the person, his thoughts and associations, which give us his real 'inner concerns' at the time he is working" (McClelland, 1961, p41). Given the fact that fantasies could reveal the person's inner motives, he further assumes that *n* Achievement could be expressed either consciously or unconsciously through fantasies if aroused by presenting to the subject vague objects (pictures) portraying achievement-related situations. In this process the subjects are given instructions that arouse consciously or unconsciously a motive to do well. Work situations were chosen because this is what people would most likely think of when the

situation has to do with competition with others or with one's own previous performance.

McClelland (1961) justifies the use of fantasies in projective methods as they have advantages over any other type of behaviour. These advantages can be summarised as: 1) fantasies are not limited by reality or the individuals abilities; 2) they are more easily influenced than other kinds of behaviours; and 3) by measuring other 'overt' behaviours one might not know what motives are aroused.

McClelland's version of TAT consists of four ambiguous pictures representing suggestive achievement situations. These pictures, which are also adopted from Murray's TAT, portray: i) A boy and surgical operation scene; ii) Two men looking or working in a shop at a machine; iii) Older man standing and handing papers to younger man seated at desk; and iv) Boy seated at desk with head in his hands, and an open book in front of him. The individual is exposed to the picture for about 20 seconds and then requested to write a short story in about five minutes about each one of these pictures. The content is eventually analysed and placed in one of three categories; Unrelated Imagery (UI), Doubtful Achievement Imagery (TI), and Achievement Imagery (AI). A story that is categorised as Achievement Imagery must contain indications for achievement goals with clues for success in competition with some standard of excellence. The competition is scored against three criteria; These are 1) Actual statement of a standard of excellence, 2) Unique accomplishment, and 3) Long-term involvement. (For full details of scoring refer to Atkinson, 1958); (for more projective techniques refer to Appendix C).

Prior to investigating the questions raised concerning the usefulness of the direct techniques for measuring unconscious dispositions, and the consciousness level

of *n* Achievement a brief account is presented discussing the advantages and disadvantages of the indirect measures.

3.1.1 Advantages of Projective Techniques

The advocates of projective (indirect) techniques, led by McClelland, argue that the individual's fantasies, which reveal his/her 'inner concerns' are not limited by his/her abilities or the reality, are more easily influenced than other kinds of behaviours, and, unlike with objective measures, they can be more accurate in identifying the aroused motive. By using TAT, which is a projective measure, the subject remains, Heckhausen (1967) argues, unaware of the purpose of the test which helps minimise bias of defensive distortions. Fantasy content can also uncover hidden motives before they are reformed, due to external factors and other psychological reasons, in their final manifestation in behaviours. A further advantage of projective techniques is that such a method can give an abundance of data including experiences, courses of action, interpersonal interaction etc. which allow a person to be assessed in a most individual manner.

On top of this, Anastasi (1990) adds, most projective techniques, which may not include TAT, may provide a rapport between clinician and client which results in reducing embarrassment and defensiveness. Some other projective measures can be useful with young children, illiterates or persons with language handicaps.

3.1.2 Disadvantages of Projective Techniques

Despite the fact that TAT is the most often used test to infer *n* Achievement scores, it has generated, among other projective ones, a good deal of criticism from personality

and motivational researchers, and even from those who heavily rely on it as a chief assessment tool of their clients' characteristics. Criticism has been levelled at projective techniques, in general, from two perspectives.

The first perspective involves its fundamental underlying assumption. It is assumed that motives are powers that are repressed at the unconscious level and can indirectly affect the individual's course of behaviour. They, in turn, can be approached through thoughts and fantasies. It is a well-accepted notion amongst personality psychologists that motives are manifested in many ways. If social pressure or lack of ability hinders a given behaviour, another alternative of manifestation is chosen. Themes expressed in one's fantasies indicating his/her underlying motives may not be manifested in actual behaviour when the moment arises. Rather, they may represent unfulfilled wishes which the individual is incapable of achieving, or which are socially unacceptable. In such a case fantasies play a compensatory role by giving the unconscious motives an alternative channel to be freely exposed. Therefore, using fantasies as an indication of presence of certain motives, which presumably affect one's course of action, may in fact give inverse results (Bass, 1967; Brody, 1983; Lazarus, 1961; Lazarus *et al.*, 1957; Vogel *et al.*, 1958; Vogel *et al.*, 1959). In this concern, Brody (1983) rejects McClelland's argument and explains thus:

Although the conception of fantasy as a motivational source is certainly compatible with a Freudian view, it should be noted that in one sense McClelland's use of fantasy material was decidedly antithetical to Freudian notions. McClelland assumed that there would be a more or less direct relationship between the presence of a motive in a person and the content of the person's thoughts. Freudian theory has tended to argue that fantasy contents serve as indirect outlets for unconscious motivation. The theory tends to view fantasy material as inversely related to the underlying motive state. Thus an individual whose

fantasy life is dominated by aggressive themes might be viewed as being incapable of the direct expression of aggression by Freudian interpretation.

(pp.59, 60).

Lazarus (1961) goes even further than fantasy themes; he argues that even Achievement scores obtained in laboratories can be inversely related to actual achievement motivation “...that is, that the fantasy expression of need achievement is not a direct index of a person’s achievement motivation but is rather a compensatory response for the failure to exhibit achievement motivation in everyday life” (p. 184)

Heckhausen (1967), a proponent of TAT, responds to such critics by undermining the empirical part of the studies upon which such criticisms are built. He strictly replies that:

...a direct relationship between achievement motivation and TAT content may be considered an established fact; this relationship, however, can be obliterated, or even reversed, under nonoptimal arousal conditions in the TAT process. A reversal is not based on a compensatory or substitute mechanism but rather reflects directly *situationally aroused* inhibitory tendencies which are connected with the motives evoked.

(p.13).

The second perspective is concerned with the criticism of projective measures from a practical and empirical standpoint. A number of practical criticisms have featured in the literature that deals with projective techniques and can be listed as follows (some criticisms apply only to the TAT):

- i) Time consuming.
- ii) Very expensive to conduct.
- iii) Require enormous efforts to administer.
- iv) Scoring process is onerous and lengthy.
- v) Scorers require extensive training.
- vi) Low reliability from one scorer to another.
- vii) With especial reference to TAT, projective measures were found to be sensitive to irrelevant testing conditions, e.g. prevailing motivation of the experimenter, mood and attitudes of the subject, mood or race of the tester, etc. (Carney, 1966; French, 1958; Heckhausen, 1967; Hermans, 1970; McClelland *et al.*, 1953; Vernon, 1964; and many others).
- viii) The verbal nature of the TAT adds another difficulty to its already-unsound validity. It also makes the TAT not suitable to uneducated individuals and to young children who cannot write (Aronson, 1958; Morgan, 1964).
- ix) The TAT can be regarded as a suitable examiner for personality as a whole rather than taking a specific trait or using the measure as a discriminant device (Anastasi, 1990).
- x) McClelland himself found the test not independent of test anxiety (TAQ); this increases doubt about its discriminant validity (McClelland *et al.*, 1953).
- xi) Reitman and Atkinson (1958) summarised three more important methodological problems of TAT that affect its validity. First, some subjects adapt to the test, this is a function of 'serial position' which creates relative invalidity of picture scores. A second problem is the lack of knowledge of affects of picture content upon thematic apperceptive stories and upon scores derived from such stories. The third is the extent of generalisation of findings obtained with group administration to individual administration of the test.

xii) As far as culture and achievement are concerned, Maehr (1978) deems the TAT a cultural-bias measure. The TAT stimuli, Maehr claims, are ethnocentric in nature, and “...*probably are not even appropriate for subcultural groups* [in the same culture]” (p.208).

xiii) More importantly, projective techniques are marked with poor reliability and validity. Some comprehensive studies (e.g. Entwisle, 1972; Fineman, 1977; Klinger, 1966; Koricke, 1982; Miner, 1980; and Weinstein, 1969) reviewing *n* Achievement measures have come to the conclusion that projective techniques have low internal consistency, lack of test-retest reliability, low intercorrelations amongst these measures, and deficient validity against performance criteria.

An endless list of psychometric problems of this kind cannot go unnoticed, or be ignored even by those who advocate such techniques. As an investigator that regards the TAT the best measure for *n* Achievement, McClelland confesses that it has serious drawbacks. In this respect he (1964) writes:

The method of measurement we have been using is too sensitive, too easily influenced by the social atmosphere surrounding the people who take the test, to give reliable individual results. Under carefully controlled conditions it works adequately to distinguish large groups of people like managers versus professionals, but it is not yet useful for individual selection. What we have here is a theoretical, scientific ‘breakthrough’, not a practicable working device.

(p.129)

In the light of the above mentioned difficulties, many psychologists have been forced to abandon or seriously limit their use of projective tests, and, naturally, search for less problematic and more reliable and valid ones. Kline (1983), for example, concludes that “...*there arises the serious question of the reasons for bothering at all with projective tests, given the basic correctness of the objections*” (p.55). When using

projective techniques, it has been suggested, they should be supplemented by other tests, or, if possible, by some relevant performance criteria.

With a gloomy picture like that of the projective measures, one might ask: Why bother at all with such tests? Why not use objective tests? Unfortunately, objective techniques have not been without their psychometric problems either. Nevertheless, they, in general, happen to have acquired more acceptance than the projective tests given the fact that they usually have less practical problems and better reliability and validity (a review of some *n* Achievement objective measures used/adopted in previous research will be presented later in this chapter).

3.2 Can Projective Techniques Measure Things That Objective Ones Cannot?

It has been long accepted that projective techniques (many individuals prefer to call them techniques rather than tests, because the word tests implies right and wrong, which is not the case with these devices; Sarason, 1972) are best suited for assessment of personality motives and dispositions that are thought to be either outside the individual's consciousness or too threatening for the person to reveal. Throughout the years they were found to be, exponents claim, very useful in revealing covert, latent, or unconscious aspects of personality which are underlying causes of personality disorders, a reason that greatly contributed to their wide use amongst clinicians. Clarifying this point, Murray (1951), the founder of the TAT, comments that:

...whatever peculiar virtue the TAT may have, if any, it will be found to reside, not, as some have assumed, in its power to mirror overt behaviour or to communicate what the patient knows and is willing to

tell, but rather in its capacity to reveal things that the patient is unwilling to tell or is unable to tell because he is unconscious of them.

(p.477)

It is pointless, in fact, to argue against the usefulness of the projective techniques to circumvent unwillingness to tell, but there is a question that is raised from time to time which asks: Is whatever the projective techniques are measuring, unconscious? In order to answer this question we have to consider the other side of the argument.

Incidentally, there are some researchers who voiced their opposition to such exclusion and argue that whatever is projected in projective measures the projector is aware of. In other words, what can be measured by projective measures can as well be measured by objective ones.

Allport (1953) objects to the conclusion made by Murray by undermining the disclosure of unconscious motive by projective devices. He maintains that whatever projective techniques measure is not unconscious. In this regard he writes:

The trend of evidence that I have presented seems to indicate that a normal, well-adjusted individual with strong goal-directedness may on projective tests do one of two things: (a) either give material identical with that of conscious report - in which case the projective method is not needed; or (2) give no evidence whatever of his dominant motives.

(p.111)

In response to the above question Holmes (1968) reviews literature concerned with projection which he classified into four categories (i.e. Similarity, Attributive, Panglossian-Cassandran, and Complementary). More importantly, Holmes's study is

concerned with two points, namely: (a) whether the individual projects his own trait or different trait, and (b) whether the individual is aware or unaware of possessing the trait which results in the projection. The findings of the study support the proposition that a subject projects his/her own trait or a complement of the trait if he is aware that he possesses it. Holmes's findings can be regarded as answering the question imposed in this section. That is whatever individuals project in projective assessments is conscious. He, specifically, stresses that *"...only characteristics of which the individual is conscious are projected...[that is] characteristics which have been successfully measured by projective techniques should be conscious and measurable by more direct and efficient methods"* (Holmes, 1971: 23).

The same finding has been independently arrived at by Mischel (1972), in his study of direct and indirect measures of personality. His conclusions can be summarised in this quotation:

...the prediction possible for *S*'s own simple, self-ratings and self-reports generally have not been exceeded by those obtained from more indirect, costly, and sophisticated personality tests, from combined test batteries, and from expert clinical judges.

(1972: 322)

Many other proponents of objective or direct (also called self-rating or self-describing) techniques are convinced that what can be achieved by projective methods can also be achieved by objective ones in a simpler and more direct way (e.g. Fineman, 1977; Lindzey and Tejessey, 1956; Mischel, 1972; Scott and Johnson, 1972; Sherwood, 1966; and many others).

From the above observations, we can conclude that projective and objective methods are equally capable of eliciting from individuals equivalent materials that are predominantly conscious.

The questions that psychologists interested in *n* Achievement tend to ask quite often are: What is the responsible factor that causes *n* Achievement measures to yield conflicting results that they correlate positively amongst themselves in some occasions and negatively in others, and also in relation to relevant behaviour and performance criteria? Is it the methodological problems of thematic techniques? Is it the methodological problems of non-thematic techniques? Or, is it the construct of *n* Achievement itself (conscious vs unconscious, and unidimension vs multidimension)? The following section will be devoted to discussing some arguments about the structure of the need achievement concept. More specifically, the two most important issues to which the confusion in defining and measuring *n* Achievement is attributed (i.e. the conscious level and multidimensionality of the concept) will be addressed separately.

3.3 *The Conscious Level of Achievement Motivation*

Literature reveals that the concept has not been theoretically treated as an exclusively conscious or unconscious variable. The fact that McClelland, along with Atkinson and Heckhausen, exclusively used the TAT as the measure of *n* Achievement is not because he clearly defines *n* Achievement as being an unconscious variable, although this seems the case. It is rather because he disapproves of questionnaires as good devices which can efficiently escape conscious distractions and effects of social desirability or what he calls "*The desire to appear in a good light*". He goes on to elaborate that subjects answer questions about themselves "*depending on what they think the purpose of the*

experiment to be...[in measures which are] likely to reflect the way the subject has learned to view himself or reality, a perceptual picture which has many determinants beside the motive supposedly being measured". (McClelland, 1958a: 25). It is worth noting that Murray himself measured his 20 manifest needs, including *n* Achievement, using questionnaires.

In a study where they used different methods of measuring *n* Achievement, Holmes and Tyler (1968) found that self-peer ranking measure was significantly correlated with criterion achievement measures (i.e. class grades and 2 laboratory tasks) better than the TAT. The fact that subjects predicted their *n* Achievement accurately in relation to their peers' achievements indicates that this need is conscious. Holmes and Tyler reported this finding as follows: "*such accurate self-assessments would be impossible in the absence of knowledge about one's achievement motivation, hence it seems clear that S's are aware of this characteristic [n Achievement]*" (1968: 716). Based on this finding they were led to conclude that "*...n Ach was conscious and subject to direct self-report if the means of responding is made specific*" (p.712) (also see Holmes, 1968; 1971). A similar conclusion was arrived at by Fineman (1977). he wrote that "*...people should be able to report on their level of n Ach, therefore the questionnaire technique is a perfectly appropriate measurement tool*" (p.17).

Others are led to anticipate the promising effectiveness of objective techniques provided that achievement motivation is dealt with as a concept that consists of a number of dimensions which are measured in varying situations with a variety of methods (Cassidy and Lynn, 1989; Costello, 1967; Hermans, 1970; Jackson, 1967; Jackson *et al.*, 1976; Scott and Johnson, 1972; Sherwood, 1966; and Tzinor and Elizur, 1985).

From the above it is possible to conclude that *n* Achievement is not an exclusively conscious or unconscious motive. Based on some evidence, individuals can consciously identify their level of *n* Achievement, and, therefore, it can be measured by objective means.

3.4 Unitary- Versus Multi-Dimensionality of *n* Ach Construct

From its early developments, investigators of the achievement motivation have had misgivings about its function as a unitary construct to which, along with other but less important factors, definition and methodological intricacies of this notion can be attributed. *"No one knows for certain that there is a unitary n Achievement which can be satisfied by success and aroused by failure in the same way the hunger is satisfied by food and aroused by deprivation of food"* (McClelland *et al.*, 1949). However, low reliability, convergent validity, and low positive and sometimes negative correlations between *n* Achievement measures suggest that they do not measure the same variable, or they probably measure a complex of relatively independent variables. In his study of relationships among *n* Achievement measures, Weinstein (1969) concluded that *"...the several n Ach indexes do not measure the same thing and must not be used interchangeably"* (p.153).

Dissatisfaction with the low correlations amongst the various measures of *n* Achievement has led some investigators to the assumption that *n* Achievement is a multidimensional phenomenon. Even though many researchers seem to talk about a unitary achievement motivation, their work, in fact, implies that they deal with a multidimensional one. Using factor analysis techniques, many studies (Cassidy and Lynn, 1989; Costello, 1967; Helmreich and Spence, 1978; Hermans, 1970; Jackson,

1967; Jackson *et al.*, 1976; Lynn *et al.*, 1983; Mehrabian, 1968, 1969; Mitchell, 1961; Spence and Helmreich, 1983; Veroff *et al.*, 1975; and Weinstein, 1969) to name a few, have shown that *n* Achievement measures were loaded on different factors in several occasions. Spence and Helmreich (1983), for instance, have strongly emphasised such findings when they conclude that “...*factor analyses confirmed the suspicion that achievement motivation is a multidimensional phenomenon*” (p.41).

As a matter of fact, some of the studies mentioned above have provided developments of multifactorial measures accompanied with early results of their reliabilities and validities. These studies will be discussed below along with some of the studies that are concerned with the relationships between *n* Achievement measures that employ factor analysis techniques.

Mitchell (1961) conducted one of the earliest studies in this concern, and employed several *n* Achievement projective and objective instruments in order to identify possible achievement domains. A correlation matrix for 29 indices of achievement motivation has identified six dimensions, namely, Academic motivation and Efficiency, Wish-fulfilment motivation, Nonacademic Achievement motivation, Self-satisfaction, External Pressure to achieve, and Imputed Generalised motivation without attendant effort. Results of this study also showed that the simple adjective checklist was the best predictor of the criterion. Self-rating measures predicted actual academic performance better than projective ones which were either loaded on wish-fulfilment or error factors. This finding supports the compensatory views mentioned earlier.

In his development of a comprehensive *n* Achievement questionnaire, Hermans (1970), stressing the importance of the quality of the initial item pool of achievement-

related questions from which the questionnaire items will be taken, emphasises the theoretical heterogeneity of the achievement motivation construct. He included in his item pool all possible aspects that previous studies have identified as achievement-related. His list contained, more than any other *n* Achievement researcher, ten characteristics viz., Aspiration Level, Risk-taking behaviour, Upward mobility, Persistence, Task tension, Time perception, Time perspective, Partner choice, Recognition behaviour, and Achievement behaviour. As in the previous study, his finding shows that the TAT did not show any significant correlation with the criterion, nor did it correlate substantially with the resultant scale of this study.

This study supported the possibility of using a questionnaire as a method of measuring *n* Achievement, and the claim that the *n* Achievement construct is multi-dimensional.

Similar findings have been reported by Jackson *et al.*(1976). Based on a conceptual analysis, they postulated six distinct dimensions of achievement construct. They have devised five different methodological measures of each dimension which were later incorporated into a one multi-trait multi-method matrix. The dimensions proposed are: Status with experts, Acquisitiveness, Achievement via independence, Status with peers, Competitiveness, and Concern for excellence. Using factor analysis techniques Jackson *et al.* (1976) have come up with results that supported their postulation of six-dimension *n* Achievement. Hence, they concluded that “*achievement is a multi-dimensional construct*” (p.1). Factor analysis applied in constructing the Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire (WOFO), developed by Helmreich and Spence (1978), has resulted in categorising its statements into three factors: work orientation, mastery, and competitiveness. Their combined score indicates the

achievement level of the subject (this instrument, because it utilises the work choice theory, is displayed in that section of this chapter).

A combination of the results found in the above and other studies is also found in the study of Cassidy and Lynn (1989). In their study, the authors have produced a comprehensive 49-item questionnaire in which they incorporated, along with the Mastery factor, six factors, i.e. Work Ethic, Acquisitiveness for money and material wealth, Dominance, Excellence, Competitiveness, and Status Aspiration. This research was based on three studies conducted to validate the measure. Factor analysis was administered and results supported the hypothesised multifactorial nature of the *n* Achievement concept. Results have also shown that the test has good internal reliability and validity.

We can conclude that there are four major factors indicated by varying terms that are the common thread which runs through most studies reviewed in this section. These factors, viz. Competence, Excellence, Acquisitiveness, and Status, along with other less definite ones, denote the multi-dimensionality of the *n* Achievement concept.

3.5 Objective Techniques in Measuring *n* Achievement

The use of objective *n* Achievement measures has fluctuated because of conflicting views about its efficacy. On the one hand, its attractiveness is derived from the reliability and ease of conduct of its tests, as opposed to the unreliability and difficult administration of projective measures. On the other hand, its widespread use has been discouraged by the complexity and vagueness of the concept.

Because of reasons provided in the previous parts of this Chapter with regard to the deficiency of having a sound and viable test of *n* Achievement, investigators of this field have been relentlessly producing different kinds of methods and countless *n* Achievement measures which by and large fulfil specific purposes depending on the objectives of each particular study. In this section only the multifactorial *n* Achievement questionnaires are discussed. A more comprehensive discussion of direct *n* Achievement measures is presented in Appendix C.

3.5.1 Multifactor *n* Achievement Questionnaires

Faced with the likelihood that the achievement motive is not an univariable, some researchers have constructed questionnaires that deal with all possible factors.

One of these instruments is that of Herman's (1970) which consists of 92 items generated from all possible achievement-related aspects presented in antecedent studies. Correlation of the Hermans Achievement Motive Questionnaire (HAMQ) with the TAT was both low and insignificant for two samples of males and females. This questionnaire is one of those that treat the *n* Achievement concept as multifaceted (these instruments are discussed previously in this chapter).

Another questionnaire that also treats the concept from the same perspective is the Cassidy and Lynn Achievement Motivation Measure (CMAQ) (Cassidy and Lynn, 1989). This 49-item, 7-factor scale was found to be valid and reliable using the Cronbach alpha and split-half tests. Correlating subscales of this measure with the Work and Family Orientation Questionnaires (WOFQ) (Helmreich and Spence, 1978) subscales of Work, Competitiveness and Mastering and the Lynn *et al*'s (1983)

subscales of Work Ethic and Status Aspiration, it was found that these subscales correlate significantly (Table 3.1 illustrates these correlations).

TABLE 3.1: Pearson correlation coefficients between Cassidy’s subscales and subscales of the WOFO and the Lynn *et al.*’s (1983) inventory.

	Subscales of the Lynn <i>et al.</i> ’s Scale		Subscales of the WOFO		
	Work Ethic	Status Aspiration	Work	Competitiveness	Mastery
WE	0.63	0.04	0.53	0.02	0.30
Acq	0.11	0.30	0.04	0.33	0.05
Dom	0.14	0.93	0.11	0.39	0.32
Exc	0.19	0.19	0.71	0.07	0.21
Com	0.04	0.42	0.02	0.89	0.16
SA	0.05	0.79	0.08	0.41	0.18
Mast	0.38	0.30	0.32	0.29	0.89

Source: Cassidy and Lynn (1989).

3.6 Overview

In this chapter three issues regarding objective techniques were tackled. The first issue was concerned with whether projective techniques measure things that objectives ones cannot. The second issue was related to the consciousness level of the *n* Achievement construct, and finally the last part was concerned with the issue of multidimensionality of the *n* Achievement. In addition, a review of projective and objective instruments was presented.

The chapter commenced with a brief review of the use of the Thematic Apperception Test used in measuring *n* Achievement. This is followed by a general review of the advantages of projective techniques which include that they measure

fantasies that are not limited by reality or the ability of the individual, and are easily aroused in controlled situations. The criticism of these techniques was launched from two different perspectives. The first involved their fundamental underlying assumption in which themes expressed in one's fantasies may represent unfulfilled wishes which the individual is incapable of doing. The second is that they were criticised from a practical and empirical perspective such as difficulty of implementation and poor validity and reliability.

From the argument regarding the capacity of the projective techniques in measuring something that objective ones cannot it can be concluded that researchers agree that projective methods can circumvent the unwillingness of the individual to tell or the threat from revealing them, but whatever they measure is largely conscious and can be measured by objective ones.

Literature of *n* Achievement has not exclusively treated the concept as either conscious or unconscious, but most researchers consider it as largely conscious and the questionnaire as a perfectly appropriate measurement tool. The use of McClelland thematic methods is due to his objection to questionnaires rather than considering it unconscious construct.

As concerning the unitary construct of *n* Achievement contrasting views have been located. Low reliability, convergent validity and intercorrelation amongst measures which purport to measure *n* Achievement have led many scholars to believe that they do not measure the same thing, they may measure a number of interdependent variables. Therefore, it may be a multi-dimensional construct. Several recent studies using factor analysis have suggested a number of common variables within the

achievement motivation. Consequently, a number of multifactor techniques have been developed and used with this concept.

The last part considered the use of objective techniques as an alternative method to using projective ones. In particular, a discussion concerning multifactorial questionnaires was given. Other types of objective techniques are fully discussed in Appendix C.

CHAPTER FOUR

ACHIEVEMENT RELATED CONCEPTS:

Conceptual and Empirical Research

- 1. *McClelland's Achievement Motive and Weber's Thesis***
 - 2. *McClelland's Explanation of Relationship Between Protestantism and Capitalism***
 - 3. *Entrepreneurs and Business Managers***
 - 4. *Work Ethic as an Explanatory Variable of Work-Related Behaviour***
 - 5. *The Role of Locus of Control***
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CHAPTER IV

ACHIEVEMENT RELATED CONCEPTS:

Conceptual and Empirical Research

INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters the theoretical origins and empirical research of the achievement motive were discussed. This chapter, however, is devoted to the concepts relevant to the achievement motive which may provide explanations for work behaviour. It, firstly, starts with the presentation of Weber's thesis in which he relates capitalism to Protestantism. This view point is elaborated by utilising McClelland's interpretation of the achievement motive as a mediating variable to national economic development. Within it, the role of achievement motivation in the making of entrepreneurs is to be detailed. Secondly, literature which reviews the Work Ethic as an explanatory variable of achievement-related behaviour is presented along with other relevant psychological variables. The influence of religions and cultures in developing and shaping work ethic beliefs is debated. The chapter, finally, concludes with a delineation of the Locus of Control as a personality factor that can determine the individual's orientation to work and the sector at which one works.

4.1 McClelland's Achievement Motive and Weber's Thesis

As an outstanding researcher, McClelland advanced an ingenious hypothesis by which he gave a psychological variable a more comprehensive interpretation which was extended into other disciplines such as sociology and theology. The achievement motive is that variable by which McClelland explained profound and complicated historical, cultural, and economical phenomena.

McClelland studied the relationship between Protestantism and the rise of capitalism as it had been advanced by Max Weber (1904, 1930), and realised the similarities between the characteristics of entrepreneurs and the way they were formed as explained by Weber, and those individuals with high need for achievement. McClelland wondered if the achievement motivation was not the moderating variable between the Protestant Reformations and the rise of capitalism.

In his well-known controversial thesis, Weber attributed, at least partially, the rise of capitalism to the Protestant Reformations which took place in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, particularly to Puritan sects.

As the new religions broke away from the Church authority, and individuals formed direct relationships with God, as opposed to a relationship through institutions, individuals deemed themselves responsible for their own performances and sought their own salvation. They also endorsed such virtues as responsibility for own performance, thrift, and asceticism. Luther introduced the concept of the "calling" through which the individual seeks to fulfil his/her duty and obligations imposed upon him/her by his/her position in this world, *"rather than to withdraw from the world and devote himself [or herself] entirely to God, as the Catholic Church had taught as a counsel of perfection"* (McClelland, 1961: 48).

The roles of the new values, as opposed to the old traditions, can be seen clearly in the results of people's performances, particularly those which involve monetary materials. These attainments, McClelland argues, are reached by psychological attitudes such as savings and investments. This, in fact, gives Psychology and Sociology a fair share of explicating economic growth and deprive economic interpretations from being the sole explanatory factors.

The newly introduced puritan asceticism has a different meaning from the traditional one which denoted self-sufficiency. The new meaning, however, involves a capitalism of accumulation in which people accumulate gains not for their needs or out of necessity; rather, for the gain's own sake, or as Weber puts it "*he [the man] gets nothing out of his wealth for himself, except the irrational sense of having done his job well*" (1930: 71). The accumulation of more wealth is an end by itself. Puritans answer their calling by fulfilling their work duty in this world, and succeeding at it means that they are amongst the elect and not the damned. Through the hard work in one's own calling, the accumulation of returns, and the denial of self-indulgence, Protestants, Weber reasons, developed a successful entrepreneurial role by which they maintained a successful economy in nations where they live (Furnham, 1990a; McClelland, 1961, 1987; and Weber, 1930).

Although Weber and McClelland accept the effect of Protestantism on the rise of capitalism, they tackled this influence from two different perspectives. While Weber may have placed this relationship through the PWE believers' conscious compliance with the Protestant values of the callings and asceticism through which they monitor their behaviours. McClelland, on the other hand, hypothesised that capitalism was brought about through a personality factor that was developed at childhood through parental training.

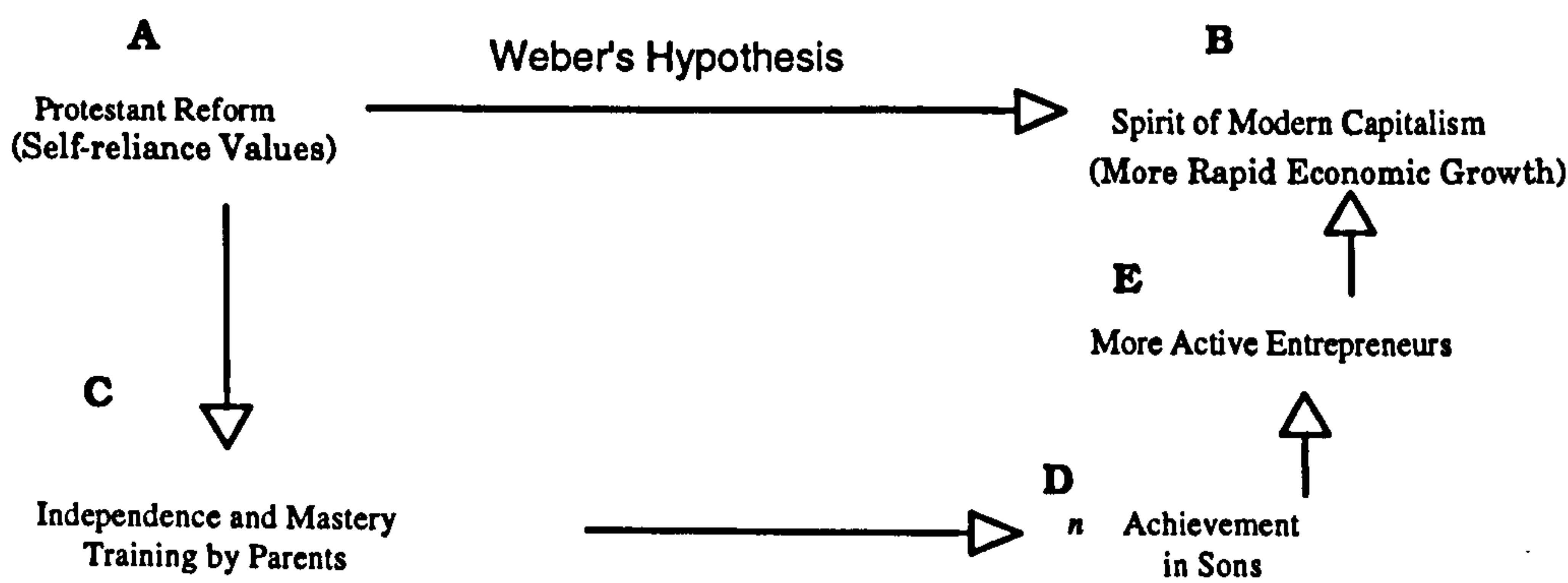
However this relationship is established, it remains a very complicated relationship in which countless factors can play a role. Due to this complication, the two theories cannot be accepted unquestionably. However, they are discussed here because they provide good insight into commitment to hard work.

4.2 *McClelland’s Explanation of Relationship Between Protestantism and Capitalism*

To describe the relationship between Protestantism and capitalism and how the *n* Achievement can act as a moderating factor, McClelland proposed a model in which the relationship between these two doctrines can be established through a series of relationships.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the original connections of Weber’s thesis; that is, the Protestant Reforms and the spirit of modern capitalism or variables A and B. The figure also shows that this relationship is formed, according to McClelland’s theory, through a number of mediating variables: Protestant Reformations have introduced

Figure 4.1: McClelland’s Hypothesised Effect of the Protestant Reformation on *n* Achievement and Economic Growth.



Source: McClelland, D. (1987). p.256.

different new values, some of which are self-reliance values (A). These values, McClelland explains, should have led Protestant parents to press on children's self-reliance and teach their children to closely watch their own behaviour at early childhood (C). This in turn should have increased achievement motivation amongst those children (D), which further leads to the production of more active entrepreneurs (E). The final sequence relates the bigger number of entrepreneurs to more rapid economic development (B).

4.2.1 Protestantism and Independence Training

As mentioned above, McClelland's hypothesises that the effect of the Protestant Reforms starts at childhood by the way parents raise their children. He explains that, Protestantism advocates independence from mediating institutions, i.e. churches, and stress one's responsibility for own performances "God helps those who help themselves". This value is translated by teaching children how to be self-reliant in life by practices of independence at early ages. The attitudes of parents towards self-reliance training include, among other things, the expectation of children to do well at school, to know their way around the city, to be active and energetic, to try hard things for themselves, to look after their own possessions, and so on (Winterbottom, 1958).

To test this hypothesis, McClelland (1961) cited studies, in some of which he took part, comparing Protestants, Irish Catholic and Italian Catholic mothers' and fathers' attitudes towards self-reliance training. The results significantly indicated that Protestant parents expected their sons to do things in which they rely on themselves, e.g. to know their way around the city at the age of 6 ½, whereas the Irish parents at about 7 ½, and the Italian parents at about 8 ½ (McClelland, Rindlisbacher, and de

Charms, 1955). Similar differences were reported by Rosen (1959) for French Canadian and Italian Catholics as compared to Protestants and Jews.

McClelland also supported this finding by studying Protestants and Catholics in places where they lived side by side for centuries. This study (McClelland *et al.*, 1958) took place in the German city of Kaiserslautern. It confirmed this hypothesis.

Some studies failed to yield similar results, especially in the United States (Veroff *et al.*, 1960; and Veroff *et al.*, 1980). McClelland attributes such things to what he calls "migration differentials" in which Catholics represent ethnic minorities which recently settled in the country and have started at the bottom of the socio-economic ladder (McClelland, 1961). More recently McClelland explains this phenomenon by reporting that "*whereas some traditional Roman Catholic groups have the authoritarian attitudes associated with low n Achievement, other Catholic groups have moved toward more general norms for independence and mastery training, so one would not expect an overall Protestant-Catholic difference in n Achievement scores at present*" (1987: 259).

The later writings of McClelland imply, one can reason, that the differences here are not due to a specific religion per se. They alternatively, can be attributed to what he calls "spirit of reforms" which drives the reformers to perform better in order to prove their rightness and the superiority of their methods. That is by stressing personal independence to perform as best as one can by the individual's chosen method. What counts at the end is the product of that performance. McClelland was led to come to this conclusion by realising that many societies and minorities have reached the top of the ladder of development and prosperity in a time where they belong to different faiths and ideologies. Examples of which are the Jains and the Parsis in India;

the Gurage in Ethiopia; the Santri Muslims in Java; the Jodo and Zen Buddhists in Japan (Bellah, 1963), and the Ismailis in Tanzania (Bocock, 1971).

The effect of spirit of reform and acquisition of independence can be attested to by the observations done by McClelland (1961) of two Mexican villages one of which had been recently introduced to a radical form of Protestant Christianity. The newly converted Protestants had set for themselves much higher achievement goals than had the traditional people in the other village and thought of themselves as superior to them in every way. Thus “...*Protestant reform from this point of view is simply a special case of any type of ideological movement that helps people set higher achievement goals for themselves*” (McClelland, 1987: 260).

4.2.2 *Independence and Mastery Training and n Achievement*

The relationship between independence and mastery training by parents, or (C) as indicated in Figure 4.1, and developing high *n Achievement* (D) is peculiar. It has been established, however, that self-reliance training associates with high *n Achievement*. Winterbottom (1958) in a classical study has pointed out a relationship between the way mothers reared their children and the level of *n Achievement* resulted in children. She was interested in establishing the link between self-reliance values and *n Achievement* in sons. She first obtained *n Achievement* scores of 29 eight-year-old boys and divided them into high and low achievers, then proceeded to test if there was any difference in mothers treatment to their sons. Interestingly, mothers of high achievers were found to place great emphasis on their sons to master things at an early age. They, particularly, expected their sons to know their ways around the city at an earlier age and also to be active and energetic, try hard things for themselves, make

their own friends, and do well in competitions. Mothers of low achievers, on the other hand, put more restrictions on their sons' behaviour and deprive them of making important decisions for themselves.

In spite of these results, other contradictory findings indicated that early demands from the parents' side are associated with low achievement motivation in sons. Thus, there seems to be a critical age at which mothers should make their achievement demands; that is, neither too early nor too late. McClelland (1987) cited a Japanese study by Hayashi and Yamasuki in which they associated low achievement motivation in very young children with high demands on the mother's part.

McClelland reasons that as a characteristic of high achievers who prefer goals of moderate difficulty. The rule seems to apply here on achievement goals in childhood as well; namely, when mothers make achievement demands too early (probability of success too low) they are setting very difficult goals. When they make achievement demands too late (probability of success too high), they are setting goals that are very easy. The result is that the child unlikely to get pleasure out of performing easy tasks and, therefore, does not develop high *n* Achievement.

4.2.3 *Achievement Motivation and Entrepreneurship*

With regard to *n* Achievement and the development of entrepreneurs (or entrepreneurship); is there any relationship between eventually being high in *n* Achievement and becoming an entrepreneur which tends to lead to economic growth, or as in Figure 4.1 between variable D and E?

Studies of achievement motivation have identified some unique characteristics of those who are high in *n* Achievement. By comparing these characteristics to those

of entrepreneurs, McClelland posed the question: Could the achievement motive be the factor responsible for becoming an entrepreneur, or acquiring entrepreneurial characteristics? Or possibly, could entrepreneurs develop high *n* Achievement because of the requirements of entrepreneurial jobs in which these people work? One cannot speculate a causal relationship or its direction between these two dispositions, but a relationship may exist. To examine these arguments, characteristics of high achievers will first be discussed, followed by studies relating *n* Achievement to business occupations or entrepreneurship.

4.2.3.1 *Characteristics of High Achievers*

Empirical research has given us a considerable knowledge of how the high achievers (those with high need for achievement) would behave. Atkinson and other researchers noted in experiments that high achievers tend to seek tasks where the level of difficulty is moderate, neither too easy nor too difficult. The incentive in this case is to “do better”. If the task is too easy there is no achievement gratification out of doing better (or success) in a task where everyone is likely to do better. If it is too difficult, however, there is still no satisfaction in doing it better because everyone is likely to fail it (French, 1955).

These observations constitute the grounds of Atkinson’s dichotomised theory of risk-taking model in which he classified the achievement motive into two motives: the tendency to approach success or (hope of Success (HS)), and the tendency to avoid failure or (Fear of Failure (FF)) (Atkinson, 1957). This two-motive model can be mathematically calculated to yield the individual’s Resultant Achievement Motivation (RAM).

In experiments where subjects are allowed to choose the level of difficulty, it was interesting to find that subjects who were classified as high achievers chose tasks of a moderate level of difficulty, whereas subjects low in *n* Achievement (low achievers) did not show a particular pattern. Examples of such experiments are the arithmetic problem solving of de Charms and Carpenter (1968), and the Atkinson and Litwin's (1960) ring-toss games. The difference between the two groups' patterns in the ring-toss game is clearly indicative of this proposition. In this experiment subjects are simply asked to toss rings over a peg standing from any of the marked distances they choose. Atkinson explains this phenomenon in his risk-taking model by calculating the approach tendency by multiplying expectancy of success (P_s) by the value of success at a certain difficulty ($1 - P_s$) by the motive to achieve (M_s). The high achievers are usually prone to take calculated risks that lead them eventually to most optimal success.

Individuals who are high in *n* Achievement are found to prefer tasks that give concrete feedback. In other words they seek to know where they stand in doing a specific task and how well they are progressing. McClelland (1987) cited some studies where it was apparent that high achievers sought solid feedback for their progress on tasks they were performing. In a study of different feedbacks induced, French (1958) introduced performance feedback to one group and affiliative feedback to the other. She found that high achievers performed better after performance feedback. In another longitudinal study Kagan and Moss (1962) demonstrated that boys with high *n* Achievement were more interested in and better at mechanical activities, examples of which are building model vehicles and carpentry than boys who were low *n* Achievement. Such results can be ascribed to the nature of concrete feedback these sort of tasks provide.

In situations where constant or instant feedback can not be acquired high achievers would not have a chance of knowing how well or badly they are doing. Therefore performing to one's best or competing against a standard of excellence would not be possible.

It is worth mentioning that in many cases where money or profit are the only ways of finding out how well one is doing, they are regarded by high achievers as a yardstick for their performances. Money or profit in such cases do not act as an incentive to work harder. In fact research demonstrated that when money is used as incentive and introduced in large amounts low achievers performed as well as the high achievers if not better (Atkinson, 1958; Atkinson and Reitman, 1956).

The distinction between acquisitiveness for money and *n* Achievement has been identified very early in the achievement research. Weber (1904) stressed the presence of acquisitiveness from as early as the world itself, but in his thesis it was considered as a convenient yardstick for psychological motives. McClelland (1961) argues that wealth is merely a measure for entrepreneur's success, although acquisitiveness for money is present but it is a secondary psychological variable. Such proposition is supported by the results of Jackson *et al.*'s (1976) study.

Another feature that distinguishes high achievers from low achievers is that high achievers, in general, prefer to claim personal responsibility over the work they are performing. Having control over one's task unequivocally points out who should be credited or, in a case of poor performance, blamed for the final outcome. High achievers proved to prefer working in conditions where they imply personal responsibilities for the outcome over conditions where the results can be attributed purely to chance even if the chance of having the same results is the same: "*All our*

evidence reviewed to date points to the fact that he [the man with high n Achievement] wants to operate in a situation where he can get a sense of personal achievement. He is conservative in games of chance, more daring in games of skill, overestimates his chances of doing well, works harder under competition, etc.” (McClelland, 1961: 229).

High achievers were also found to perform better than low achievers when the challenge is moderate, not too low nor too high (Raynor and Entin, 1982), and persist longer on performing at any task (French and Thomas, 1958). They are more innovative, seek different ways to find the most efficient one in solving a problem, try to acquire as much as possible information about the task they are performing which eventually helps them perform their tasks in most efficient ways. This caused McClelland to call the achievement motive “*the efficient motive*”.

4.2.3.2 Entrepreneurs as High Achievers

To complete the connection chain between the “spirit of reform” and economic growth of a whole nation, McClelland wondered what could be the link between *n Achievement* and economic development. He poses the question that “*How specifically does a high level of n Achievement result in more rapid economic development?*” (1961: 205). He confidently assumes the answer to this question lies in the making of entrepreneurs by the achievement motive. “*The link*” he answers “*is obviously the entrepreneur - the man who organizes the firm (the business unit) and/or increases its productive capacity*”.

In this section a discussion of who is the entrepreneur and what characteristics he possesses will be presented. It will also be considered if entrepreneurs have higher achievement motive than those in other professions. This will be followed by presenting evidence that achievement motivation leads those individuals high in

n Achievement to prefer and, in most cases, eventually end up in entrepreneurial occupations.

An entrepreneur is defined by McClelland as “someone who exercises some control over the means of production and produces more than he can consume in order to sell (or exchange) it for individual (or household) income” (1961: 65).

Some definitions stress the attributes that an entrepreneur has rather than describing tasks he performs. Carland *et al.* (1984) emphasised the presence of innovation in entrepreneurs as a significant attribute. They stated that “*An entrepreneur is an individual who establishes and manages a business for the principal purposes of profit and growth. The entrepreneur is characterised principally by innovative behaviour and will employ strategic management practices in the business*” (p.358). In his more recent book, Timmons (1989) defined entrepreneurship with more emphasis on what tasks an entrepreneur should do as well as skills and abilities he possesses. He states that:

Entrepreneurship is the ability to create and build something from practically nothing. It is initiating, doing, achieving, and building an enterprise or organization, rather than just watching, analyzing or describing one. It is the knack for sensing an opportunity where others see chaos, contradiction and confusion. It is the ability to build a ‘foundations team’ to complement your own skills and talents. It is the know-how to find, marshal and control resources (often owned by others) and to make sure you do not run out of money when you need it most. Finally, it is the willingness to take calculated risks, both personal and financial - and then do everything possible to get the odds in your favour.

(p.1)

Literature about entrepreneurship reveals a substantial variation in defining this term. Entrepreneurs, quite frequently, are either defined in broad terms that includes other classes of business people; or narrowly defined to the extent that some actual entrepreneurs are excluded (c.f. Chell *et al.*, 1991; Ginsberg and Buchholtz, 1989; and Johnson, 1990).

Although the term entrepreneur is not universally standardised nor has one definition been accepted by researchers, as will be pointed out later, the entrepreneur is said by many investigators, including the ones above, to possess certain characteristics and to exhibit particular behavioural patterns.

Those who sacrifice their job security and their peace of mind to take the burden of working long hours and risking their capitals in order to create a business or expand an existing one must be different from the general population. This inference has led many researchers to attempt to identify these differences.

Indeed, many traits have been acknowledged, with varying degrees, amongst researchers, to distinguish entrepreneurs from other professionals. The most reported psychological proposition that is evident amongst entrepreneurs is that of the high need for achievement. A substantial amount of research has investigated the link between *n* Achievement and entrepreneurship following its initiation by McClelland (1961) who realised that entrepreneurship is one of four crucial factors contributing to economic growth as pointed out by Schumpeter's (1934) economic theory. Ginsberg and Buchholtz (1989) reviewed ten studies of entrepreneurs and found that *n* Achievement is the attribute receiving significantly repeated attention. In a similar but more comprehensive study, Johnson (1990) reviewed the literature on entrepreneurs. Of the 23 studies he reviewed, 20 reported a positive relationship between achievement

motivation and some type of entrepreneurial behaviour or inclination. Other studies reported the ability of *n* Achievement to distinguish entrepreneurs from the general population and can also predict those potential entrepreneurs who will create high-growth firms (Bumm, 1988; Davidson, 1989; Hornaday and Bunker, 1970; Meyer *et al.*, 1961; Miner *et al.*, 1989; Perry, 1990; and Taffi, 1981). Although there is a negligible number of studies which did not report significant relationships between entrepreneurship and *n* Achievement (for example, Bonnett and Furnham, 1991; and Robinson *et al.*, 1991), it is an established fact that achievement motivation is a chief characteristic amongst entrepreneurs.

In Johnson's (1990) words "It would seem reasonable to draw the tentative conclusion that a positive relationship exists between the motive under study [the achievement motive] and entrepreneurship". Not only do entrepreneurs have a high *n* Achievement as one of their characteristics, but they normally have higher *n* Achievement than other individuals in different professions, though not significant when compared to managers. In Johnson's (1990) study, at least fifteen studies out of the twenty-three reviewed reported that entrepreneurs have higher *n* Achievement than other professionals. This confirms what McClelland had reported earlier in his studies.

Another common feature most studies found amongst entrepreneurs is that of their high independence. They greatly value their freedom in choosing a method of doing a task, and seek situations where they have a personal control over all aspects of work (Hornaday and Aboud, 1971; Robinson *et al.*, 1991; Cromie and Johns, 1983; and Kahl, 1965). Innovation is quite often reported as a major characteristic shared by entrepreneurs which discriminate them from most other professionals. They seek new ways of doing things as long as they are more efficient than the normal or regular methods, even if it takes them to take some risks. Innovation introduces change into

the community which, if accepted, leads eventually to profits which in turn serves as an indicator of success (Drucker, 1985; and Ginsberg and Buchholtz, 1989). Normally entrepreneurs are found to take calculated risks of moderate difficulty a reason to keep them going in their businesses. If they gamble and take high risks, they may lose out and go out of business. If, on the other hand, they take small risks they will develop their businesses more slowly and lose out to their more competitive risk-taking counterparts (Bumm, 1988; McClelland, 1961). Taffi (1981) does not include risk-taking as a characteristic of entrepreneurs in his study; rather, he considers it as a part of their environment which they have to take anyway. Insofar as entrepreneurs are concerned, he emphasises they would not take any risks if they can afford not to.

Taffi's argument is not necessarily an accurate one, because it ignores the fact that entrepreneurs are taking a risk by deciding to be entrepreneurs and have their own business in the first place.

Entrepreneurs are characterised by attributing their success or failure to their abilities and performances and not to some external powers. That is, they believe in internal locus of control. Those with an external locus of control feel that fate portrayed by luck. Chances they consider out of their control have a dominating influence over their lives. Pandey and Tewary (1979) produced evidence that individuals with high internal locus of control are more likely to be successful entrepreneurs. Other investigators have arrived at the same findings which justify the belief that internal locus of control is an entrepreneurial personality variable (Bonnett and Furnham, 1991; Brockhaus, 1982; Furnham and Koritsas, 1990; Perry, 1990; and Weiner, 1972, 1974).

In general, entrepreneurs can be described as those individuals who prefer to acquire tangible instant feedback (Bumm, 1988; McClelland, 1961; and Taffi, 1981), have the passion to work hard for long hours, have the need for recognition and for change, have the virtues of integrity, courage, willpower and vision. They are more self-confident, more persistent, and are very determined. Business to them is of a central life interest which is likely to interfere with their family life.

An endless list of personal characteristics is produced from studies involving entrepreneurship. In their study where ten studies were reviewed, Ginsberg and Buchholtz (1989) listed from only these studies 40 personal characteristics that differentiate entrepreneurs from the general public. This could be a result of the variability in identifying entrepreneurship, and measuring the personality traits of the entrepreneur. In Chell *et al.*'s (1991) words *"...the research findings on entrepreneurial traits have yielded equivocal results. Different schools of thought have offered explanations of entrepreneurial behaviour, but there seems to be little agreement regarding the profile of the entrepreneurs"* (p.37).

Psychologists often expend their energy when researching a new topic until it is exhausted and new correlations and relationships are established. Cause and effect, if possible, would be determined. The achievement motive was no exception, enormous efforts were expended to determine the foundations and elements of this motive. Moreover efforts were extended to designate what effect it may imply on the individual's course of action. Results of research on *n* Achievement identified the characteristics of individuals with high need for achievement, the presence of this motive with entrepreneurs, and the similarities between entrepreneurs' characteristics and high achievers' characteristics.

This is one reason to link *n* Achievement to entrepreneurship. Another and more significant one is that McClelland had found a relationship between national *n* Achievement, as measured by children's readers, and economic growth to that particular country, as measured roughly by electricity produced, along with similar studies of ancient civilisations. The results strongly suggest that there is a relationship between these two major variables. McClelland draws the conclusion that *"The link between the concentration of a particular type of human concern in a population and economic growth, is the business entrepreneurs"* (1971: 114).

The question that McClelland raised at this point is: Does the achievement motive lead those individuals who are high in *n* Achievement to be entrepreneurs? or: Do entrepreneurs develop high *n* Achievement as their type of work requires?

In order to fulfil these inquiries, McClelland (1961) launched research comparing boys from Japan, India, Germany and Brazil to those of the United States in respect of occupational preferences. It was found that boys from the US and Japan preferred business occupations. Those of Germany, India and Brazil, probably because of different meanings given to 'risky-jobs' by these cultures, did not show this preference. Nandy (1973) compared entrepreneurs to non-entrepreneurs, the result showed that high *n* Achievement was positively correlated with entry into business. Begley and Boyd (1986) drew the same conclusion when they found that business founders were significantly higher in *n* Achievement than non-founders. A more valuable study was the longitudinal study of McClelland's (1965c). After 14 years he found those who scored high in *n* Achievement were significantly found in entrepreneurial occupations than those low in *n* Achievement. Andrews (1966) (as reported in McClelland, 1987) found that even in college, students with high *n* Achievement are more entrepreneurial than those low in *n* Achievement. The answer

to the question posed above is that *n* Achievement is more likely to lead to entrepreneurial occupations. It could also be that entrepreneurship has an effect on the level of achievement in individuals, though not on the entrepreneurs themselves but on their sons. In this respect, Turner (1970) found that adolescent males with high *n* Achievement came from homes where fathers engaged in entrepreneurial role behaviour in occupational status.

4.2.4 *Entrepreneurship and Economic Development*

Returning once again to Figure 4.1, the connection circle almost complete. The remaining relationship which is between 'Entrepreneurship' (E) and 'Economic development' (B) is a very well established one. McClelland had started researching his hypothesis on the basis that entrepreneurship is one of the major key forces for economic development. More specifically he adopts the views of Joseph Schumpeter who formulated a theory of economic development in which the entrepreneur is the focal point. *"The 'heroic' entrepreneurs"* Schumpeter claims *"...were the ones who put firms together and created means of production where there had been none before; they often collected the resources, organized a means of production to combine the resources into a new product, and sold the product"* (McClelland, 1971: 114). It is, however, an established fact to McClelland that the production of many active entrepreneurs leads to national economic growth. The discussion of this sort of relationship is out of this study's scope (for more details on this matter refer to: Kilby, 1971; McClelland, 1961; McClelland and Winter, 1969; and Schumpeter, 1934).

4.3 *Entrepreneurs and Business Managers*

The research reviewed so far indicates that *n* Achievement relates only to entrepreneurs, while subjects of this study are entirely managers of organisation of different orientations. It is, therefore, essential at this point to identify the similarities and differences between these two classifications of business people on the one hand, and to furnish some studies relevant to achievement and managers on the other.

To start with, the definition of “*entrepreneurs*” or “*entrepreneurship*” in studies referred to above was not in fact unequivocal. On many occasions, the term has been elusively defined to include business managers as well as business-founders, and owners and managers.

Insofar as McClelland is concerned, he does not strictly differentiate between managers and entrepreneurs, and hence, subjects of his studies were a mixture of both in addition to non-profit organisations’ managers. The following passage taken from one of his writings shows such indifference. He states that:

In our search for further evidence that the major motive of business entrepreneurs of the past was their high *n* Achievement, we undertook many studies which dealt with the question: do *modern* business executives in different parts of the world in fact have higher *n* Achievement than other people of roughly the same status?

(1971: 116)

It is obvious from this quotation that McClelland uses the two terms “*business entrepreneurs*” and “*business executives*” interchangeably. It would not be surprising if we acknowledge that McClelland in fact defines “entrepreneur” exactly as a manager. In his words “*I am not using the term ‘entrepreneur’ in the sense of ‘capitalist’ - I am using it without any connotation of ownership; an entrepreneur is*

simply someone who exercises control over production that is not just for personal consumption. Thus a steel plant manager in Russia is as much an 'entrepreneur' in this sense as one in the US' (1971: 114).

Comments of this sort lead us to assume that whatever results are arrived at by McClelland, apply to business managers, who undoubtedly exercise control over production, as much as they apply to entrepreneurs. Many subjects of his studies which will be elaborated on later are, in fact, managers.

When reviewing literature of entrepreneurship, one, very often, comes across many definitions that do not really distinguish between managers, entrepreneurs and intrapreneurs, nor do they stress the necessity of founding or ownership of the business. They merely list personal qualities that are often found in managers. An example of such definitions is that of Meredith *et al.*, (cited in Chell *et al.*, 1991). They state that:

Entrepreneurs are people who have the ability to see and evaluate business opportunities; to gather the necessary resources to take advantage of them; and to initiate appropriate action to ensure success.

(p.4)

The description above can very well describe managers. They too should have the ability to see and evaluate business opportunities.

The attention of the reader should be drawn at this point to the fact that studies applied on entrepreneurs are not blindly generalised to include managers. On the contrary, the confusion which seems to appear here is due to the similarities between these types of business people.

In their comparative study between entrepreneurs and middle/senior managers, Cromie and Johns (1983) commented on the differences between these two groups by saying that “...*although established entrepreneurs do have a few distinctive qualities there are more similarities than differences between them and managers*” (p.323).

Managers and executives of small firms and middle and lower level managers of big firms resemble very much those *entrepreneurs* and “*intrapreneurs*” who are after all managers in terms of their responsibilities and work role. They supervise a moderate number of employees, and are involved in managing, organising, communicating, planning and innovating. General directors and corporation executives have been found to differentiate from middle managers in the role they perform and, hence, in their motivation. The dominant motive of corporate executives is found to be the need for power (*n* Pow) (McClelland, 1970, 1975; McClelland and Burnham, 1976). It has been also reported (reviewed in Stahl, 1983) that a combination of *n* Achievement and *n* Power is a good predictor of managerial success (Campbell *et al.*, 1970; Cummin, 1967; Steers, 1981; Veroff, 1982; and Wainer and Rubin, 1969). McClelland and Boyatzis (1982) classified motivation of top and lower levels of managers. Top level managers are characterised by the combination of high *n* Pow and low *n* Aff (need for affiliation) for long-term success, while a combination of high *n* Pow and high *n* Ach characterised effectiveness for lower level managers.

Unlike top managers, middle level managers and entrepreneurs do not put a lot of emphasis on controlling a large number of people, they, instead, are more orientated toward task-performing and goal-achieving than top level managers. When middle level managers are given more independence and freedom of choice of how to approach a given task, they prove effective and innovative. Frank Pacetta, manager of

Xerox Cleveland district, is an example of this when the corporate parent showed its confidence in him via an empowered programme called “vendor of choice” which gave him ample autonomy in achieving high goals (Blair, 1992). This class of businessmen which is becoming to be known as “*intrapreneurs*” (introduced by Pinchot, 1985) is being recognised more and more by big firms as a way of extracting them from stagnation and sharpening their edges to become more competent (Bumm, 1988).

Studies concerning managers and the achievement motive tend on the one hand to distinguish managers of entrepreneurial jobs from staff managers or non-entrepreneurial specialists but not from entrepreneurs. On the other hand, managers, in general, score higher in *n* Achievement than the general population. Amongst the first studies administered on managers was that of McClelland’s reported in his book *The Achieving Society* (1961). In it, he compared managers to professionals in four different countries; namely, the United States, Italy, Turkey, and the communist country of Poland. Of the four countries, managers in three countries (excluding Turkey) were found to significantly acquire higher *n* Achievement than the professionals. In a similar study Meyer *et al.* (1961) compared 31 managers of “entrepreneurial jobs” to 31 non-entrepreneurial specialists. Those of entrepreneurial jobs significantly scored higher in *n* Achievement than the specialists.

Stahl (1983) compared managers with non-managers, fraternity presidents, and engineering students, results showed significant differences between managers and the other three groups in their managerial motivation which includes *n* Ach and *n* Pow (see also Miner *et al.*, 1989 for similar results).

Perry (1990) found in a study of entrepreneurship research that achievement and internal locus of control distinguish entrepreneurs from the general population, but

not from managers which implies that managers are more achievement-oriented than the general population. Arab managers also show a consistence with these results in their achievement orientation. But, unlike western managers, they were found to have high *n* Affiliation instead of *n* Power (Yasin and Stahl, 1990). This finding is contrary to the general theory that *n* Ach and *n* Aff are negatively correlated (Heckhausen, 1967). In all-female study, Waddell (1982) failed to report any significant differences between female business owners and female managers in respect to their *n* Achievement and internal locus of control (ILC), but a significant difference was found between these two groups and female secretaries. Similarly, Robbins (1986), comparing entrepreneurs, intrapreneurs and managers, failed to infer significant differences in the same respect.

The list of studies relating *n* Achievement to managers can be endless. Hence, it suffices to make reference only to the original work of the concept, i.e. McClelland's work, in which men in entrepreneurial milieu in general, and entrepreneurs in particular, are the focal point.

It is possible now to draw the conclusion that middle and lower level managers are the best equivalent to intrapreneurs within organisations. It is beyond doubt that although managers and entrepreneurs share a lot of personal qualities, they also differ in many personal characteristics that their different jobs require. Some studies reported that managers differ from entrepreneurs in autonomy, risk-taking, innovation, and even in their *n* Achievement. For example, Begley and Boyd (1986) comparing business founders to non-founders (which equated to entrepreneurs and business managers respectively), they found entrepreneurs to score higher in *n* Achievement (see also Hines, 1973; and Lachman, 1980).

4.4 *Work Ethic as an Explanatory Variable of Work-Related Behaviour*

In some cultures people work harder and more efficiently than in others, and, naturally, become more advanced and productive. Work values and ethic have been diagnosed to be essential ingredients of hard work, efficiency, competitiveness and honesty which, in turn, are considered the cornerstones of development and advancement. The Protestant Work Ethic (PWE) is a factor, which has been the centre of attention for quite a long time, through which work orientation and advancement of Protestant western countries can be explicated.

The interest in the notion of the Protestant Work Ethic was instigated by Weber's thesis (1904) in which he ascribed the accomplishment of high economic growth to the value system brought about by the Protestant teachings. Although not without its critics, Weber's thesis provided a widely-accepted and plausible explanation of the origins of capitalism. The central theme of this thesis is that the PWE stresses the virtues of hard work and success in one's particular calling, and provides moral justification for the accumulation of wealth at a time where wealth cannot be spent on self-indulgence.

Many studies and arguments of the PWE concept that have induced many researchers to provide definitions notwithstanding, there are few explicit definitions, one of which is presented by Oates (1971) which states that:

The so-called Protestant Work Ethic can be summarized as follows: a universal taboo is placed on *idleness*, and *industriousness* is considered a religious ideal; *waste* is a vice, and *frugality* a virtue; *complacency*

and *failure* are outlawed, and *ambition* and *success* are taken as sure signs of God's favour; the universal sign of sin is *poverty*, and the crowning signs of God's favour is *wealth*.

(in Furnham, 1990a: 13)

The endorsement to hard work by the PWE can be explicated by the four principal components in Weber's scheme: (a) The concept of *Calling* of which the individual is called by God to work hard for his glory and salvation of oneself in whatever position the individual is. Work itself is a virtue and had to be excellently and honestly executed; (b) The *Predestination* concept suggests that those who succeed at their work because they are answering their callings could see themselves amongst the elect; (c) The *Asceticism* concept which refers to frugality, thrift, saving, and investment of capital with intention of expanding it. Returns should not be wasted on self-indulgence, leisure, gambling and luxuries; and (d) the *Doctrine of Sanctification* which pertains to rationalisation in all aspects of life, and to exercise personal control over one's life (Furnham, 1984; MacDonald, 1972; and Mirels and Garrett, 1971).

4.4.1 PWE and Other Psychological Variables

Like the achievement motive, the Work Ethic concept has no clear boundaries to enable one to assert that it stands by itself. Interestingly enough, the individual who is a strong endorser of the PWE has characteristics that are similar to those of high *n* Achievement, type A behaviour, and those who believe in internal locus of control. This suggests that there is an overlap between these psychological concepts. Furnham (1987) assumes an "overlap" that covers a wider range of psychological constructs than we noted above which include: Work ethics, achievement motivation, authoritarianism, belief in a just-world, conservatism, entrepreneurship, perceived control, postponement

of gratification, and the type A behaviour pattern. In this concern Cherrington (1980) notes that:

When talking about the work ethic people could be referring to any of these attitudes. The concept is so difficult to understand because so many ideas are thrown together. Although they might be related in the value systems of most people, those ideas need to be studied separately.

(in Furnham, 1990a: 34)

The relationships between the variables mentioned above no doubt exist, but to determine the magnitude of each relationship or the cause and effect is rather difficult. The fact that these variables have relationships amongst themselves does not mean that each one cannot be studied separately, and at the same time taken into account its relationship with the other variables. What is difficult as far as the present study is concerned, is the ambiguity of the nature of the relationship between the two main factors of this study, namely, the achievement motivation and the Protestant Work Ethic, although it is an established fact that some sort of relationship between these two variables exists. For example, in a recent comprehensive cross-cultural study inclusive of 30 cultures. Fyans *et al.* (1983) have documented such a relationship. According to Furnham (1990a):

There is no doubt whatsoever, that people who endorse the PWE tend to be those high in achievement motivation and there is empirical support for this thesis. However, there are serious problems and disagreements as to how to define, operationalize, and measure need for achievement (and indeed the PWE). Hence it becomes difficult to define precisely the nature of the relationship between PWE beliefs and need for achievement.

(p.36)

In regard to unidimensionality versus multidimensionality. Furnham (1990a) relates to the PWE as being a multidimensional factor of which *n* Achievement constitutes a chief element “...*n* Ach is clearly a major component of the PWE” (p.29) along with other psychological ones some of which are referred to above. In contrast, in most studies work ethic is considered to be one dimension of the achievement motivation which is regarded as multifactorial (Cassidy and Lynn, 1989; Helmreich and Spence, 1978; Jackson *et al.*, 1976; McClelland, 1961; and Weinstein, 1969). The present study adopts the latter viewpoint and acts accordingly.

It is significant at this point to give an account of how people endorsing the Protestant Work Ethic beliefs as portrayed in literature can be described. In general, an individual with strong PWE beliefs is a person of working class origins (Furnham, 1984) who works hard and values work over leisure, is frugal, ascetic, holds conservative attitudes towards resources, and defers immediate gratification for the benefit of distant and long-lasting goals (Ma, 1986). It is also found that the PWE believer has an authoritarian attitude, prefers a strong leadership style, and believes in internal locus of control (MacDonald, 1972).

Individuals with high PWE scores resemble very much those individuals with high *n* Achievement in the fact that they psychologically suffer more than low PWE endorsers when they have nothing to do, made redundant from work, or retired (Furnham, 1982). Shamir (1986), however, pointed out that individuals with high work involvement (WINV) are more likely to suffer from unemployment, but not individuals with high work ethic beliefs.

In circumstances where they have a choice of working or relaxing, high PWE endorsers try to keep themselves involved in useful work. Greenberg (1978) studied

train commuters and found that persons who scored high PWE engaged themselves in some kind of work while commuting, whereas low PWE believers did not. Feather (1982) found high PWE scorers search more vigorously for employment than low scorers when they were faced with unemployment, and stressed negative individualistic explanation for unemployment. In an earlier study, MacDonald (1971) derived similar findings in which PWE believers designated individual responsibilities (ethics of social responsibility) for being unemployed rather than blaming "the system" itself. In line with this, they are against welfare payment, taxation, and the social security system. They blame poor people for being poor, or as they put it, for being 'lazy' and lacking the willingness to exert some effort. Therefore, high PWE scorers are intolerant of and unsympathetic to the poor (Furnham, 1982, 1983; MacDonald, 1972).

The ability of PWE to predict the level of satisfaction of individuals at work has not been consistent. A relationship between Work Ethic beliefs and job satisfaction should be definitive according to Weber's (1904) interpretations. Weber conceives of the PWE beliefs as a self-imposed willingness to work. That is, the sources of satisfaction are coming from within. There are no external extrinsic characteristics that determines job satisfaction. Attachment to work, however, is for the value of the work itself which brings satisfaction for its own sake. Workaholics who are totally immersed in their jobs can be attested to validate this argument. Machlowitz (1980) reported workaholics to be remarkably satisfied and content with their work and lives in general. Internal locus of control, a concept most relevant to PWE, is too found to be associated with satisfaction (Weiner *et al.*, 1979). Very few studies have dealt with relationship between PWE and job satisfaction. Amongst these studies two have reported a direct relationship between these two variables. Blood (1969) found that the more the individual agrees with the PWE, the more he will be satisfied with work and

life in general. Also, Cherrington (1980) has found a positive correlation between moral importance of work and pride in craftsmanship and various dimensions of job satisfaction. Stone (1975), on the other hand, had failed to find PWE to be a moderating variable between job scope and job satisfaction. In the present research, a relationship between these two variables will be examined based on the theoretical rationales detailed above.

Some studies of PWE showed positive correlations between the PWE and authoritarianism (Joe, 1974; MacDonald, 1972; and Mirels and Garrett, 1971), authoritarian traits include avoidance of ambiguous situations, disinterest in political affairs, and preference for strong leaders.

A close concept to authoritarianism that relates to work orientation is conservatism which has been strikingly found in a number of studies to have characteristics that are similar to PWE beliefs (Furnham and Bland, 1983; Joe *et al.*, 1981; and Wilson, 1973). In general, a person classified as conservative has a conservative social attitude, is conservative in using resources (ascetic), religiously fundamental, pro-establishment politics, insistent on rules or punishments, anti-hedonistic outlook, pro-militarism, intolerant of minority groups and superstitious, resistant to sciences. Atieh *et al.* (1987) have noted the seeming contradiction in the relationship between conservatism and the PWE. The paradox rests in the argument of Weber that the PWE fuelled the spirit of capitalism; while characteristics of conservatives seem to be antithetical to capitalism, individual enterprise, and innovation. Atieh *et al.* (1987) tried to resolve this paradox by hypothesising a moderating factor of the PWE - conservatism relationship; this factor is the economic sector membership (public versus private). Their results, however, failed to support

this hypothesis, and hence "*the PWE-conservatism paradox remains unresolved*" (p.578).

In an attempt to predict Protestant work ethic beliefs, Furnham (1987) found among ten anticipated predicting variables five predictors to significantly relate to PWE. People with high internal and powerful other locus of control beliefs, limited education, conservative/free-enterprise economic beliefs, and strong postponement of gratification beliefs and practices were most likely to endorse the PWE.

Apparently there are few investigators considering the relationship between the Type A behaviour pattern and the PWE although Type A persons show a great deal of achievement striving behaviours. The Type-A pattern which is believed to be learnt behaviour is characterised by excessive and competitive drive. Type A persons are likely to be more anxious, more aggressive, more impulsive, more extrapunitive, and more extroverted than Type B persons (Furnham, 1990a). They have "*an intense sustained desire to achieve, an eagerness to compete, persistent drive for recognition, a continuous involvement in deadline activities, a habitual propensity to accelerate mental and physical functions, and consistent alertness*" (Furnham, 1990b: 48). Furnham (1990a) wondered if there is any association between the PWE and Type A behaviour which exhibits, as listed above, a considerable work orientation. He implemented a study in which he administered: a) a widely used multidimensional Type A/B questionnaire which consists of three subscores: speed and impatience, job involvement, and hard driving; and b) three work ethic questionnaires, namely: Blood's Protestant Ethic, Mirels and Garrett's Protestant Ethic Scale, and Ray's Eclectic Protestant Ethic. Result show that the only consistent pattern of correlations is between the "hard-driving" subscale of the Type A measures and all three total PWE scores.

4.4.2 *Measuring PWE*

The Work Ethic is usually measured by objective means, in most cases by self-report questionnaires. It has fewer measures as compared to *n* Achievement (see the measures reported in the previous chapter). This might suggest that it is a conscious, unidimensional concept that it is simple enough to be identified by straightforward self administered measures. In literature at least seven measures have been reported. They are all short questionnaires ranging from 4 to 19-item scales.

The first attempt to assess PWE was made by Goldstein and Eichhorn (1961) which resulted in their Protestant Ethic Scale which contains four items only. Another short but more often used measure is the 8-item Pro-Protestant Ethic Scale of Blood's (1969). It is a two-direct scale, one direct assesses attitudes towards work - while the other assesses attitudes towards leisure. A very similar to this measure is that of Buchholz (1976) which differs from Blood's by the number of items, the former contains 15 items. Two measures of the seven were validated on Australian culture. The Ray's (1982) Eclectic Protestant Scale was developed using a large pool of items including those of Mirels and Garrett's scale. The result was two 9-item pro-Protestant, anti-Protestant scales. Although Ray contends that there is no religious differences, the measure's title contains the word "Protestant". The second measure was the Australian Work Ethic Scale (AWE) of Ho and Lloyd (1984) which consists of seven items, this scale was found to have reasonable convergent and concurrent validity.

The measure that is most widely used is the 19-item Protestant Ethic Scale (PES) developed by Mirels and Garrett (1971) and perhaps the best known and most popular scale of work ethics (Furnham, 1984). This test has good reliability and

validity, it has been used well over 40 times eleven of which were by Furnham alone (Furnham, 1990a). The present study used this scale to substitute it for the Work Ethic scale in the Cassidy and Lynn's (1989) *n* Achievement multifactorial questionnaire, justification for this act is presented in the methodology section of this thesis.

Furnham (1990a) has compared and contrasted seven measures of the PWE reviewed in literature. Based on this comparison he argues that the PWE is a multi-dimensional concept that consists of five main factors, namely, belief in hard work, the role of leisure, religious and moral beliefs, a stress on independence from others, and asceticism. In accordance with his findings he suggested that one produces a measure that is of a multi-factorial nature.

4.4.3 *Origins of PWE*

A question of central importance to this concept is: how do individuals acquire their work ethic beliefs? In other words, what are the origins of these beliefs? There are very few studies concerned with answering this question, though there is a general agreement among these studies about the child-rearing practices as an aetiology of work ethic acquirement. One of the principal studies in this regard is that of McClelland's (1961) in which he attributed the aetiology of *n* Achievement, and hence the PWE, to the child-rearing patterns.

Similarly, Furnham (1990a) ascribes the development of work ethic beliefs to the beliefs induced by parents to children at early ages. Although there is no specific study concerned with the acquirement of PWE, Furnham deduced that much of work orientation research undertaken on children's socialisation can be applicable to the PWE concept because of the overlapping between these constructs. One of these constructs, which he considers as "*clearly a component of the PWE*" (1990a: 109), is

the internal locus of control which is shown by some studies (e.g. Levenson, 1973) to be related to warm, protective, positive and nurturant child-rearing patterns exhibited by parents. Other studies (e.g. Feather, 1978; Furnham, 1987; and Wijting *et al.*, 1978) reported strong evidence that parents transmit their work-related values to their children. Thus *“it is entirely reasonable to expect children’s work-related behaviours to correspond with those of their parents as the latter communicate their beliefs, attitudes, and value in the way they perform activities in the home, discuss their job experiences, reinforce their work habits and achievements”* (Furnham, 1990a: 111).

4.4.4 PWE and Religions and Cultures

As the name indicates, the Protestant Work Ethic should distinguish Protestants, who supposedly submit to such beliefs, from other religious groups. Most probably the PWE beliefs may have originated as Protestant beliefs introduced by Protestant Reformations and teachings as Weber (1904) proposed, but recent works (Beit-Hallahmi, 1979; Furnham and Muhiudeen, 1984; Ma, 1986; Marshal, 1982; and Ray, 1982) have failed to report significant differences between Protestants on the one hand and other religions or sects on the other, and have stressed the convergence between religion groups which may be a result of people becoming less identified with religions, or/and because of more international integration in recent times. At the time where religions have less influence on work ethic beliefs, other cultural and economic values increase their bearings in determining work orientations. MOW International Research Team (1987) found no association between religion and work attitudes. They believe work centrality is primarily a function of industrialisation.

Upon Kim’s (1977) results, which showed no significant difference between Protestant denominations, Catholics, and Protestant sects, Furnham (1990a) concludes

that “...any study of behavioural correlates of religion should abandon the use of religious affiliation as a measure of the PWE” (p.71). Ray (1982) supports the findings presented by Beit-Hallahmi (1979) that PWE beliefs did not discriminate between Protestants and Catholics. Ray is convinced that “...all religions have to come to share these attributes [spirit of enterprise and worship of work] to an equal degree. The Protestant ethic in substantive terms is certainly not yet dead; it is just no longer Protestant” (1982: 135). A result of the universality of the PWE has led many writers to drop the term Protestant and talk only of the work ethic (Furnham, 1984).

The study of work ethic and cultures has not produced unequivocal results. As stated above, many studies showed that different religions have been found to stress in one way or the other some sort of work commitment. It is reasonable, one assumes, to argue that work ethic beliefs cannot entirely be explained within a religious framework for two reasons; Firstly, like the western Protestant world, many minority groups which belong to different religions have shown great work endorsement and economic success, although some writers claim that the success of some of these groups (e.g. Ismailis in Tanzania) is due to colonisation or through contacts with the western world (Bocock, 1971; and Turner, 1974b). An example of these groups are the Jodo and Zen Buddhists in Japan, the Jains and Parsees in India, the Santri Muslims in Java and Ismaili Muslims in Tanzania (Bellah, 1963; and Kennedy, 1962).

Secondly, many work ethic studies in different cultures have yielded results, which suggest that factors other than religious ones are equally responsible for these cultural economic discrepancies. Examples of these studies are; Farnham and Muhiudeen’s (1984) study in which they found three Malaysian ethnic groups (i.e. Malay, Indian and Chinese) to significantly endorse the PWE beliefs higher than their British counterparts. In a similar study, Isonio and Garza (1987) unexpectedly found

the Mexican sample to have higher scores of PWE than the Chicanos. Much to their surprise, the Anglo-American sample scored the least of the three. Compared to American students, in another study, Taiwanese scored much lower on the Protestant ethic scale, although Taiwanese of Chinese origins scored higher than native Taiwanese (Ma, 1986).

Studies in some Muslim cultures have also come up with similar results. They indicate that some groups have generally displayed a higher degree of work commitment than others (Alatas, 1963; Hafsi, 1987; and Vandewiele and Philbrick, 1986). Hafsi (1987), for instance, has pointed out that the group with stronger work commitment is the one with stronger religious convictions. The Furnham's (1989) study which was based on results of work ethics from thirteen countries asserts the difficulties, laid down above, of explaining the allegiance to Protestant Work Ethic beliefs within a religious frame of reference. The results obtained from this study showed, although not consistent through the different measures, that India and Zimbabwe score the highest, whereas Germany and Britain are at the bottom of the ladder. They indicate, however, that many cultural and sociological factors are to be considered if determinants of work beliefs are to be diagnosed.

4.5 *The Role of Locus of Control*

Locus of control is one of the overlapping constructs which is believed to determine work-related behaviour. It is empirically demonstrated that a relationship exists between perceived control and similar personality dispositions such as *n* Achievement and Work Ethic beliefs (MacDonald, 1972).

Locus of control can be described as a continuum of perceived control over life events along which people may be classified (Moran, 1990). At one extreme an individual perceives reinforcement following his/her action as the result of luck, chance, fate, or as under the control of powerful others. In this case the individual is labelled as an *external*. At the other extreme the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his/her own behaviour or his/her relatively permanent characteristics. He/she is, then, labelled as an *internal* (Rotter, 1966).

Although locus of control is a personality variable that is relatively stable, it can be affected later in life by religious beliefs and education. Familial origins play a significant role in determining the locus of control in children. Parental practices may decide to which pole of Internal-External control the child be prone. For instance, inconsistent and depriving parental behaviour can lead to external locus of control in children.

Relationships found between PWE and locus of control may suggest that values and beliefs held by parents and passed on to children, as being influential factors that shape up the individual's work orientations. Mirels and Garrett (1971) are the first to report a relationship between these two variables; other subsequent studies reported results that supported Mirels and Garrett's findings (MacDonald, 1972; and Waters *et al.*, 1975). Furnham (1987) found locus of control to be the most significant predictor of PWE (both internal and external). People who believe in PWE tend to have high internal locus of control. To illustrate the relationship between work and locus of control from a motivational point of view, it is reasonable to argue that *externals* (those who believe in external control, or fatalists) do not submit to work because there is no point in working hard if reinforcements for such efforts are determined by luck or fate (Moran, 1990). On the other hand, *internals* persist on

performing tasks because success is seen to be dependent on their efforts and abilities (Lefcourt, 1982). Lefcourt (1982) has cited two studies in which persistence at difficult tasks has been found to be related to locus of control.

The relationship between locus of control and *n* Achievement did not prove simple and/or conclusive. Nevertheless a positive relationship between internal LOC and *n* Achievement is reported more often than not in studies concerning these two variables. Bar-Tal & Bar-Zohar (1977) have examined such studies. Among the 36 investigations that they reviewed, 31 reported positive relationships which justify the generalisation that locus of control is associated with achievement motivation. Children who developed internal locus of control achieve better academically. The Sense of Personal Control was found to correlate with grade point averages (Lessing, 1969). High school students who had a sense of personal control spent more time doing their homework, and were more persistent in their attempts to solve complex logical puzzles (Lefcourt, 1982). Likewise, professionals who are expected to have high need for achievement should be *internals*. This has been found true especially among entrepreneurs. Pandey and Tewary (1979) provide empirical evidence that people with high internal scores on Rotter's (I-E) scale are more likely to be successful entrepreneurs. The reason for the internals' success is that they believe they are in control of their destiny and that luck and fate has only a modest influence on events' outcome. Therefore, they tend to be more self-reliant and independent.

The Rotter's (1966) Internal-External locus of control is the most widely used questionnaire of locus of control. It contains 23 forced-choice items and 6 fillers, each item consists of two statements from which the respondent must choose one. This scale is utilised in this study after omitting some items for the sake of efficiency. Other not-as-popular scales of locus of control include the 60-item James' (1957) I-E scale

from which Rotter's scale was adapted. The James scale can be regarded as the first locus of control scale. Other scales may include Bialer's Locus of Control Questionnaire (Bialer, 1961); and Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973). Levenson (1973) developed a scale that is composed of three factors, namely, *Internal Control*, *Powerful others*, and *Chance*. The inventory contains 24 items rated on a 7-point agree-disagree scale. Reid and Ware (1974) have developed a scale of the same sort, it is a 45-item forced choice questionnaire that is composed of three similar factors. These are: *self-control*, *social systems control*, and *fatalism*.

If we are to believe that locus of control is induced by social and religious values, then it is possible to argue that some cultures endorse one pole of I-E control or the other more than other cultures. In other words some cultures can be said to be more fatalistic than others. Fatalism as defined by Furnham and Bochner (1986) refers to "*the generalised expectation that outcomes are determined by forces such as powerful others, luck or fate*" (p.167).

It is widely accepted that Middle Eastern cultures and particularly Arabs display a distinctive fatalistic outlook on life. This widespread view especially amongst Western social scientists is quite often linked with Islam (c.f. Mansfield, 1976; Patai, 1973; and Rodinson, 1974). Fatalism undeniably exists in the Saudi society as it is known to the author. The origins and magnitude of this orientation are an area of contention and argument which are outwith the purpose of this dissertation.

Notwithstanding The culture is fatalistic, Locus of control is a personality disposition that varies among individuals depending on up-bringing differences. This research is set to test, along with other things, the hypothesis proposed by Frantz

(1980) that public sector employment is associated with external locus of control. Thus, fatalists are predicted to be located more in the public sector.

4.6 Overview

This chapter has tried to shed some light on the achievement related concepts that are considered by some researchers to form a dimension of the achievement motivation and to help understand individuals' industrial orientations. The thesis proposed at the turn of this century by Max Weber, in which an explanation to the rise of capitalism was advanced suggesting that Protestant reformations to be the causes, has been explained from a psychological perspective by McClelland.

It has been shown in this chapter how McClelland, though he did not escape criticism, succeeded in delineating, in a circular relationship, that achievement motivation is the central point to national achievement which in turn leads to economic development. The main feature through which national achievement can be realised is the entrepreneur who supposedly successfully has developed *n* Achievement in childhood. Similarities and differences between entrepreneurs and business managers and other professionals have indicated that entrepreneurs and business managers and indeed intrapreneurs are very similar. Upon this conclusion, it was justified to hypothesise that managers could be driven to work in private organisations by their achievement motive.

The Protestant Work Ethic, or the work ethic as it has been lately known, is conceptualised as a motivator, derived from childhood upbringing by parents or guardians, that determines, in addition to other variables, the individual's achievement behaviour. The religious sources of the work ethic may have recently been substituted

by industrial, economic, or social values that are systematically set to determine people's work ethic beliefs. The chapter concludes with a review of the Locus of Control concept which closely relates to both *n* Achievement and work ethic concepts. Internally controlled persons are thought to be more likely driven into private organisations where performance determines rewards and advancement. This assumption forms one of the main hypotheses of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

MANAGERS' PHYSICAL, SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENTS:

A Profile of Saudi Arabia

- 1. *Saudi Arabia: The Land and the People***
 - 2. *The Socio-Cultural Milieu***
 - 3 *Developmental Aspects Of Contemporary Saudi Arabia***
 - 4. *The Private Sector and Industrialisation***
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CHAPTER V

MANAGERS' PHYSICAL, SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENTS:

A Profile of Saudi Arabia

INTRODUCTION

Studying the setting in which manpower in Saudi Arabia operates is important due to the determining role the social and cultural, as well as the physical, environments play in conditioning individuals' behaviour. Social scientists have recognised that in order to fully understand human attitudes and behaviour an account of social values, beliefs, customs, and religious practice are to be considered.

This chapter aims to shed some light on the socio-cultural and economic contexts of which managers in Saudi Arabia are the product, and within which they perform. Understanding these norms can help the appreciation of different attitudes and practices which different cultures produce. The goal of this chapter is to be achieved in four parts.

The first will be concerned with the geographical and physical features, and the demographic dimension of the country coupled with a brief history of modern Saudi Arabia. The second part deals mainly with ancient history and social structure from which social values and beliefs are derived. In this section the prominent historical

events which influenced and irreversibly shaped the personality of the people of that region are delineated.

The third section extensively deals with aspects and factors shaping the development of contemporary Saudi Arabia. Chief among them will be the role of education, training, and the economy in determining the present status of manpower in the country. Within this framework the role the five-year development plans play in the advancement of the country will be discussed.

The last part will be devoted to industrial development in Saudi Arabia, and in particular the recognition of the government in recent years of the role that the private sector can play in industrialising the country and diversifying the economy, and, therefore, lessening the heavy dependency on a finite source, namely; oil.

5.1 Saudi Arabia: The Land and the People

In this part an account regarding the physical nature of the Kingdom is presented. This is followed by its demographic aspects with special reference to the recent census, which took place in the year 1992.

5.1.1 Physical Features

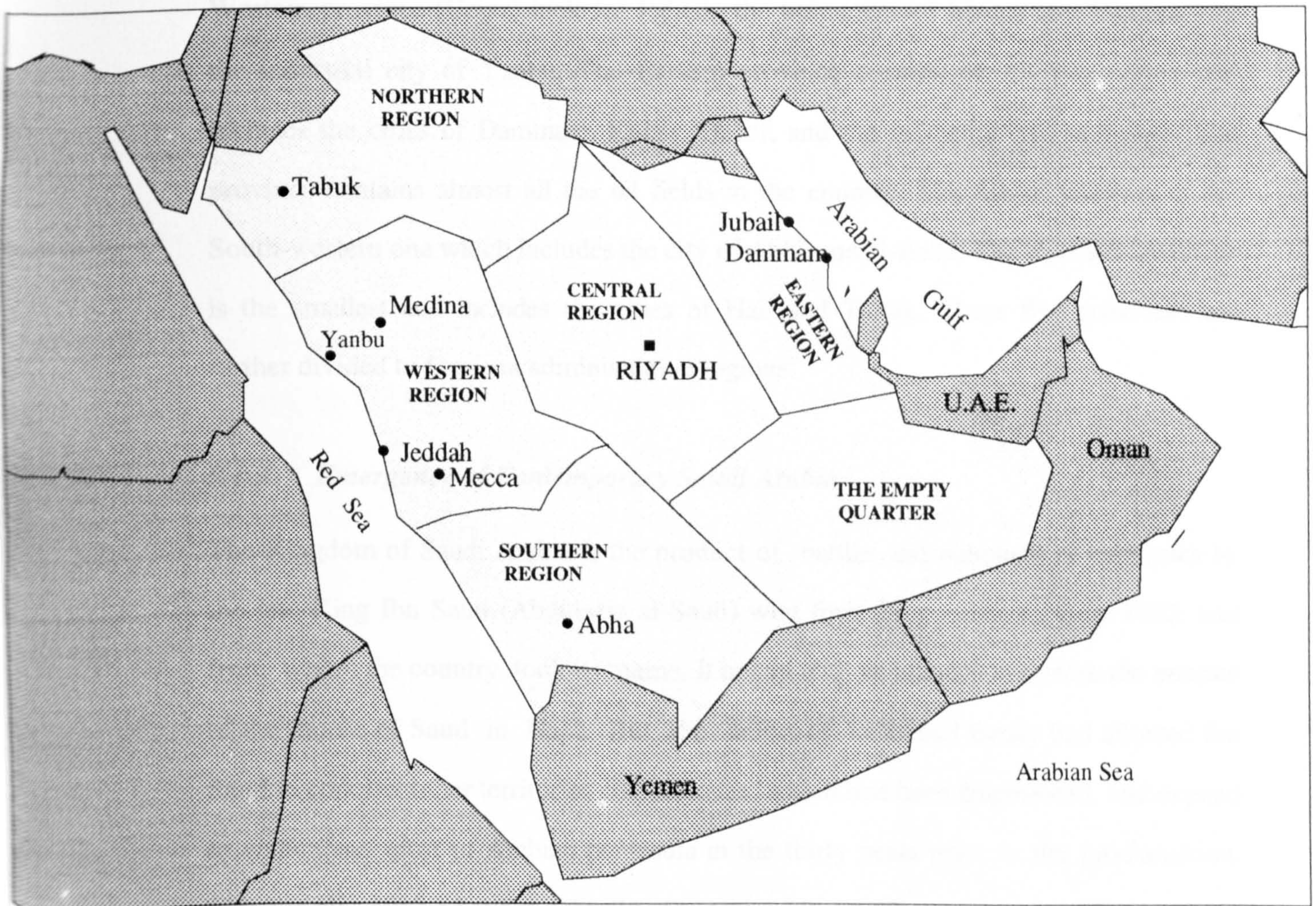
The name Saudi Arabia refers to the modern country situated in the Arabian peninsula and occupying almost four-fifths of its area. The Kingdom covers an area of 2,240,000 square kilometres (865,000 sq. miles), which is equivalent to nine times the area of the United Kingdom. Most of this vast area is uninhabited. The Arabian peninsula is situated in the south western part of Asia and is delimited on three of its sides by water. On the west by the Red Sea, on the east by the Arabian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman, and

on the South by the Arabian Sea. The country has common boundaries with Jordan, Iraq and Kuwait to the north, Qatar and the UAE to the east, Oman and Yemen to the South (the Middle East and North Africa, 1994).

The land is mainly desert with three great sand areas. The biggest and one of the world's largest deserts is the "Empty Quarter", it covers 230,000 square miles and is located to the Southeast of the country. The Dahna desert is an 800-mile long strip of sand arching across the east side of Arabia and connecting the Empty Quarter to the third sand body, the Great Nafud desert, in the north. The western area (Al-Hejaz) is marked by the Sarawat mountains stretching near the western coast from Yemen in the south with summits at 4,000 m. decreasing in height as they go north ending north Mecca and Medina. East of these mountains lies the Arabian plateau which stretches across most of the central region (Najd) ending with the 500-mile long Tuwaiq escarpment at its edge near Riyadh.

Because of the western mountains the area is landlocked, and winds reaching Arabia are generally dry causing aridity in most of the country with cloudless skies. There are severe shortages of rain except at the mountains in the western and southern regions. However, rain in the north can reach 100 to 120 mm. annually while in the south-west it can reach over 220 mm. (Central Department of Statistics, 1990). Weather as a result of this can be extreme with overwhelmingly hot summers reaching a temperature of over 50°C. In winter there can be severe frosts and quite cool weather specially in the north. As a result of poor rainfall and the lack of running rivers the Kingdom suffers from severe shortages of water, which drove the country to rely on desalination plants for its daily water use.

Figure 5.1
Map of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia



Source: Ministry of Planning (1985). Fourth Development Plan, Saudi Arabia

Administratively Saudi Arabia is divided to five principal provinces which are based on their geographical proximity (see Figure 5.1). The Central province (which occupies most of Najd) is the prime one which includes the capital city of Riyadh. The Western province (Hejaz) includes Jeddah, the holy cities of Mecca and Medina, and the industrial city of Yanbu. The Eastern province consists of Al-Hasa region and includes the cities of Dammam, Kubar, Hufuf, and the industrial city of Jubail. This province contains almost all the oil fields in the country. The fourth province is the South-western one which includes the city of Abha and al-Baha. The Northern province is the smallest and includes the cities of Hail and Tabuk. These five provinces are further divided to fourteen administrative regions.

5.1.2 *Emergence of Contemporary Saudi Arabia*

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is the product of battles and conquest of territories by the late King Ibn Saud (Abdulaziz al-Saud) who formally proclaimed it in 1932, and from whom the country took its name. It began with an attempt to restore the emirate of the house of Saud in Najd. But the defeat of al-Rashid family had allowed Ibn Saud to conquer other territories and emirates, which had been fragmented, and expand to encompass most of Arabian peninsula in the thirty years prior to the proclamation. This has also allowed al-Saud family to successively rule the country ever since.

The official and only religion of the country is Islam from which the legal and judicial systems are derived. The Islamic law is called "*Sharia*". The tight bounds between the government and implementing the *Sharia* are motivated by two factual reasons: i) the first and probably the most important reason is that Islam had emerged and departed from the Arabian peninsula, and equally important is that the Islamic two holiest cities are located in that region; and ii) the second reason is that the house of

Saud had allied with Sheikh Abdul-Wahhab when they were ruling the small town of Deriya about two hundred years prior to the proclamation of the contemporary Saudi Arabia by Ibn Saud. This alliance, which led to the emergence of what is now known as Wahhabism, forms the framework upon which the present socio-political fabric is maintained.

The traditional rule was based solely on the ability and charisma of the leader, the government nowadays departs from this and is more structured. Responsibilities are centralised for the purpose of creating efficient government mechanisms. The government is led by the King who also acts as the Prime Minister, and consists of; the Crown Prince who is the First Deputy Prime Minister; the second Deputy Prime Minister; and a host of Ministers all of whom are appointed by the King. Recently a consultative house was formed to assist in running the country and correct the misconduct of ministers.

5.1.3 Demographic Features

The population of Saudi Arabia according to the census held in September and October 1992 recorded as 16,929,294 as compared to 7, 012, 592 in the 1974 census (the Middle East and North Africa, 1994). Of this figure 4,624,459 (males 70.4%, females 29.6%) are foreign nationals as compare to the 3.5 million estimated in 1985 (the Saudi Consulting House, 1986). The number of foreigners reflects the country's dependence on foreign contract labour in most areas of employment outside administration, banking and certain state enterprises.

The figures above show that the population has increased almost two and a half times from 1974 to 1992. Based on the birth-rate, the kingdom's growth rate was 3.94% per annum during the period 1980-1985. The population is expected to reach

18. 9 million by the year 2000, and 30.6 million by the year 2020 (Kurian, 1987). The relatively high population growth is attributed to a high birth rate as typical of a traditional society, and a considerable decrease in death rate as a result of improvement and expansion of the health service as well as an awareness among people with respect to the service. The final reason for growth is the improvement of economic and social conditions that the society enjoys at the present time.

Urbanising the population is central to the development plans advanced by the government. It may be difficult to accurately define how nomadic the population is, the Saudi society was described as 85 to 95 percent Bedouin by the *United Nations Yearbook* (1970). A more recent study suggests that in the early 1980's perhaps 5 percent of the Saudi population remained wholly nomadic (Al-Farsy, 1980). Although the social transformation in Saudi Arabia is indisputable, it seems more appropriate to report the estimate that more than three-quarters of Saudi Arabia's population resided in urban areas in 1990 compared with less than one-half at the end of the 1960's (the Middle East and North Africa, 1994). To take an example, the population in Riyadh had risen between the years 1986 and 1991 by 49%. The percentage ratio of nomadic population to that of the total population in the 1974 census is 26.9 (Al-Madani & Al-Fayez, 1976).

A population survey in 1985 indicates that people under working age (14 years) constitute 43.1 percent, people of working age (15-64) make up 54.1 percent, and those over the working age (65 and over) make up only 2.7 percent of the total population. The male-female ratio is 1.023:1, and almost 73 percent of the population live in urban areas (the Saudi Consulting House, 1986).

5.2 The Socio-Cultural Milieu

The role of cultures in, not only influencing but, forming individuals' work values and attitudes is unmistakable and has been recognised by many social scientists (c.f. James and Jones, 1974; Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978; Shaw, 1976; and Zalesny *et al.*, 1985). In the work environment, behaviour does not prevail in isolation to the external environment. In reality, as many scholars argue, values, orientations, and attitudes toward work are shaped by, and brought from the wider society. Goldthorpe stresses the point that “... *the values and motivations that lead worker to the view of work they have adopted must be traced back, so far as this is possible to the typical life situations and experiences*” (1968: 185).

Understanding people's work behaviour is facilitated by understanding the relevant social and cultural contexts. If work attitudes are to be favourably altered, change in the basic cultural elements is inescapable. From this perspective, the need to understand the culture within which subjects of this study operate is of great importance.

For any study, concerning the Saudi society, to be complete two factors have to be critically considered. These factors are the unique traditions of the Arab society, and the influence of Islam as the principal source of values and beliefs of the people.

5.2.1 The Arabs' History

The term “Arab” applies today to any individual that belongs to any one of the present 21 Arabic speaking independent states located in the Arabian peninsula, Great Syria and Iraq, North Africa, the Nile valley, and the African Horn. The unifying character of an Arab is the speaking of the Arabic language. Historically, Arabs are the “*Semitic people of the Arabian peninsula. ... [They are] the nomadic inhabitants of the central*

and northern Arabian peninsula" (Mansfield, 1982: 13). Their earliest history has been the account of small pockets of settled civilisation, subsisting mainly on trade, in the midst of nomadic tribes. The earliest urban settlement is the Minaean kingdom in the south-west in the 12th century BC. This was followed by the Sabaeen and Himyarite kingdoms, which lasted until the sixth century AD (the Middle East and North Africa, 1994). At the turn of the 7th century a major watershed changed the Arabs' history irreversibly, the emergence of Islam. Inspired by Islam the Arabs have assumed a leading role in creating a great civilisation by conquering neighbouring empires and kingdoms. The new empire extended from west Africa and Spain in the West to the Subcontinent and central Asia in the East (Lewis, 1981).

5.2.2 *The Religion*

The influence of Islam can never be exaggerated in Saudi Arabia. The strong influence of Sheikh Abdul-Wahhab's teachings coupled with the adoption and fostering of the house of Saud to this sect, which called for the fundamental practices of Islam as embodied in the Koran and *Sunna* (the prophet's traditions), has led to a very religious and conservative society that closely observes Islamic daily practices.

In addition to submitting to and practising the five pillars of Islam, which include the profession of faith, prayer, almsgiving, fasting, and pilgrimage to Mecca, people practice Islam in every way in their lives, following the sayings, traditions and deeds of the prophet Mohammed (pbuh), in dealing with each others or regulating their rights and duties. For this reason it is claimed that Islam is not merely a religion, but also a way of life (Hitti, 1970).

Unlike most Islamic countries, in Saudi Arabia, Islam plays a specific role in directing the behaviour of the people and the government alike. The government has

embraced the Islamic laws as the country's official laws. The Koran was announced to be the country's constitution, and the judicial and administrative systems are wholly based on the *Shari'ah* (Islamic law taken from four sources: the Koran, *Sunna*, *Qiyas*, and *Ijma*. The latter two refer to the analogical reasoning by religious scholars to confront new issues, and the consensus of opinions of experienced jurists on various subjects, respectively). With this sort of implication Islam cannot only be the source of the spiritual and the moral code of the society but also the source of the institutionalised values and norms.

5.2.3 *The Character of the People*

Islam is a way of life, its laws have been closely observed throughout the centuries in day to day practice. A hard-and-fast line cannot be drawn between what is an Arabic tradition or Islamic value in Arabia. The reason here, as Patai puts it, is that “...*the religion is the fundamental motivating force in most aspects of Arab culture and has its say in particularly every act and moment in life*” (1952: 7). The social structure in Arabia for a long time has been predominantly tribal. The basic element of tribal society is the blood connection (kinship), or federation between tribes. The smallest unit of a tribal system is the family (usually extended ones) and not the individual. The interests of the individual are always subsumed by those of the family and beyond that the tribe (Berger, 1962; Hamady, 1960; Nydell, 1987; and Piercce, 1971). For this reason Arab culture can be characterised as being a collectivist one (Hofstede, 1991).

In Arab culture the family plays a major role in the formation of one's identity, and poses as the chief source of values and beliefs. Furthermore, the family gives unconditional support to the individual whose success or failure can be directly passed to the family. Without family support no one is expected to advance or gain much in

the wider community. Therefore , “...*family loyalty and obligations take precedence over loyalty to friends or the demand of a job*” (Nydell, 1987: 75). Family loyalty exceeds any loyalty to other institutions except the religion which encourages such devotion. The unity of the family is deeply rooted in this culture. In the past families, clans and tribes played a protective and supportive role in the nomadic society. Islam has proclaimed the family as the basis of the entire socio-cultural system, 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 (Ahmed, 1987). In the present day the tribal role and structure are diminishing and the clan is replaced by the extended family and kin.

This fact is imperative if the social behaviour and attitudes of the Arabs are to be fully understood. Based on this concept there are many significant social values that play leading roles in forming the Arabs' (or in a narrower scope Saudis') behaviour and attitudes. There are, in my opinion, a number of specific values that affect attitudes toward work and behaviour in the workplace. These values are: social connections or interpersonal relationships, generosity and hospitality, fatalism, and loose temporal proximity. These values and traditions can be a great hindrance to efficient work. Some examples of their effect are: nepotism in recruitment, favouritism, and office visits which result in time wasting.

Below, a brief discussion will touch on each of these themes bearing in mind two points. First, minimum attention will be given to whether the source of these concepts is religion or tradition. Second, it should be understood that these themes are interrelated, and, therefore, the effect of one can never be isolated.

I- Interpersonal relationships:

In the family the concept of relationship and priorities are first developed. Normally, the relationships learned in the family are those of deep warmth and intimacy created by the unconditional love and affection other members of the family provide to younger members. Norms and values of relationships between family members are taught at an early age and are expected to be followed and conformed to. Chief among these values are respect for the elders and in particular of the parents. Respect can in many cases extend to the extent of absolute obedience. On this point, Islam emphasises that one should always endeavour to please God in the first place and parents in the second place.

A blind loyalty and devotion to the family coupled with love and respect of family members develops a sense of selflessness in which individual interests are denied and other's interests are fulfilled. The behaviour of the individual in the wider community is mainly an expression of his family pattern. Relationships with others are warm, intimate and boundless. Asking or doing someone a favour can be seen within this context as a sign of good friendship and loyalty. As one Western observer notes *"Among Arabs..., a friend is someone whose company they enjoy. However, equally important to the relationship is the duty of a friend to give help and do favors to the best of his ability."* She goes on to suggest *"For an Arab, 'good manners' require that one never openly refuse a request from a friend"* She then concludes *"A good personal relationship is the most important single factor in doing business successfully with Arabs. ... In the end, personal contacts lead to more efficiency than following rules and regulations"* (Nydell, 1987: 19, 20, 25).

Although this kind of relationship can help in work situations in terms of personal contacts and as a source of information, it in fact poses a threat to efficient

work when, for instance, selection of employees is based mainly on their relationship to the personnel manager.

Another aspect of the relationship learned in the family and practised at the workplace is that of obedience and total submission to superiors by subordinates. As the individual submits to and accepts the paternal authority at home and is encouraged to obey parents and the elders, he begins to shape his own concept of authority in general. In the work place he displays almost full submission to his superiors, and in turn adopts an autocratic management style when he becomes a superior (al-Awaji, 1971).

II- Hospitality and Generosity:

Among the undisputed traits of Arabs, and in particular Nomads, are their inherent hospitality and generosity. These two values are deeply rooted in the nomadic life style and could go back as far as the Biblical times. A person is always judged and valued by how hospitable and generous he or she is. Consequently, displaying a lavish, and sometimes unnecessary, hospitality is seen as good manner which results in enhancing reputation within kin or tribe and the reputation of his family within other families or tribes. Failing to meet one's responsibility so far as hospitality is concerned frequently leads to a blemished reputation of his tribe (Hamady, 1960). Other reasons to be hospitable are related to one's position in the tribe. Being unlimitedly hospitable may help climb the social hierarchical structure and be chosen or accepted as head (Sheikh) of the tribe or clan someday.

Another value that is closely related to hospitality and can not be separated from it is generosity. Generosity means that one has to be hospitable to the maximum of ability. It is undoubtedly perceived by many members of the community as a sign of

unselfishness and care for the others. This non-materialistic view of life is frequently positively valued. As Nydell notes *"Arabs are generous in the hospitality they offer to friends and strangers alike and admire and value the same in others. Generosity to guests is essential for a good reputation. It is an insult to characterize someone as 'stingy' or 'inhospitable'"* (1987: 57).

The problem with being hospitable and generous is that, though the outcomes are enjoyed by most individuals, they are no longer a matter of choice for those individuals, rather they are an inescapable obligation that must be met. Irrespective of economic situation, an Arab host must make every effort possible to treat his guests in the most lavish manner. Even a poor man has to meet this expectation, and will literally slaughter his last animal, or even go further and borrow money from a friend or relative in order to provide a banquet for a guest who may be a complete stranger (Matheny, 1981).

To go through all this is a requirement for being part of the community, otherwise one would be ousted and socially isolated. It must be emphasised that although this is an integral part of the Arab character which has been reinforced for thousands of years, it can be displayed in varying degrees throughout the Arab world, with more intensity in nomadic and traditional areas depending on region advancement. During recent decades with the rapid social development and urbanisation in many regions of the Gulf area, these traditions are more relaxed and less highly valued.

The implication of these values on work can be immensely influential. For Arabs hospitality is not exclusive of the work environment. Nydell emphasises that *"Arabs assume the role of host or hostess whenever the situation calls for it—in their office, home, or shop"* (1987: 57). Treating people hospitably and generously at work

is not necessarily beneficial to work. Some of the negative practices at the workplace including the ones outlined in the above section, which affect the flow and efficiency of work, are also results of these two social values.

Furthermore, the sense of immaterialism developed as a result of these values shape the general attitude to work of which maximum financial gains are not of a paramount importance to the individual.

III- Fatalism:

Fatalism is one of the most controversial and misconceived concept of the Arabic, and Islamic, cultures, even by the general public to whom this concept applies as well as by many Western scholars. In Islam the individual must totally submit to the belief that results of all courses of action are predetermined by God. He is the ultimate cause of action starting from natural events to the ultimate destiny of humans in the Later life. He has the fore knowledge of all events (Watt, 1974). No matter how one behaves the outcomes of behaviour is "God's will". Numerous Koranic verses can be cited pointing in every situation to forces that are mightier than man.

Likewise, there are other verses indicating man's free will and responsibility for the outcome of his choices. However, the misconception raised above rests on the fact that in addition to the total belief in God's will, one also must exert his ultimate effort to change the course of action, and do what is best for him or her. Nevertheless, however great the effort and whatever the result the outcome is known beforehand (determined) by the almighty.

The complexity of this analogy has frequently led to misunderstanding of the whole concept, mainly by the very people to whom it is directed. The obvious result of

this misunderstanding has always been the acceptance of the *status quo* and a passivity in the face of possibilities to change the course of action of one's life, and to attribute negative outcomes to external powers.

Some other writers believe that other social and political reasons are responsible for such a fatalistic outlook on life. Hamady claims that the political systems and economic conditions individual Arabs have been subjected to throughout history have led them to submit to the power of external forces and accept their fate. In this respect she writes:

The impact of fatalistic philosophy on the Arabs is due not so much to religious doctrine of determinism (though it does seem to encourage a fatalistic behaviour) as to the nefarious influence of political subjugation, economic poverty and social tyranny. The Arabs picked from the Koran only the passages that can support significantly their improvident outlook on life and in which they can find a religious excuse for their inactivity and stagnation.

(1960: 188)

Muna (1980) warns from any generalisation of such a view to all Arabs without considering the individual socio-economic and educational background. Such a generalisation would be "*academically irresponsible and misleading*", he emphasises. He goes on to attest to the error of connecting Islam and fatalism by the fact that "*...past Islamic achievements [referring to the Islamic empire] demonstrate the use of long range planning and desire to understand and control nature and environment*" (p. 96).

Al-Awaji (1971) also blames social norms and conformity to social approval as responsible for initiating and fostering fatalistic views. He emphasises that:

...whether the individual consciously believes in deterministic doctrines or merely is influenced by social norms which are severely sanctioned by public or community opinion, or both, he simply tends to accept his family's prerogatives, and the passage of time as forces beyond the domain of his own will. His conformity with what he considers right in the cultural sphere is one of his strongest motives.

(pp. 76-77)

It is the belief of the researcher that fatalism can be thought of as the creation of many social values coupled with misrepresentation of the concept of God's will and fate. However the effect of fatalistic attitudes can greatly undermine positive work attitudes and place hurdles in the path of creativity and effective use of time.

IV- Loose Temporal Proximity:

Other outcomes of these values and traditions are unpunctuality, a relaxed attitude to appointment and inefficient use of time. These difficulties are frequently reported by those who have been in contact with Arabs, and by business executives in respect of their employees in the Arab world and in the third world in general (Abuznaid, 1990; Muna, 1980; Nydell, 1987; and Sulieman, 1984). One Western writer states his feelings on this matter as follows:

...nothing ever gets immediate attention in Saudi Arabia, in my experience, and few things get belated attention either. The prevailing attitude to time, indeed, made largely irrelevant any distinction between now and then, by funding most things into the bottomless pit of never. The wags of Jeddah called this attitude A.M.T., or Arabian *Ma'aleesh* Time, because as every middle eastern traveller knows, *Ma'aleesh* means 'never-mind' and never minding time in Saudi Arabia was the chief national occupation.

(Holden, 1966; cited in Diyab, 1987: 38)

The strong feelings stressed here should not be taken, I hope, to indicate that Arabs take no responsibility for their actions. However the poor management of time and the relaxation of time boundaries of plans and projects are motivated, as I see it, by two frames of reference. The first, Arabs mostly have lived for very many centuries an unstructured traditional nomadic life in which the basic unit of the day was defined as only day or night. The basic daily tasks, though harsh, were conducted in a short span of time and they were left with the big task of passing the time. The socialisation and passing of time by gossip are then inherent in the life style adopted throughout these periods of time.

The second reinforcer of the development of this specific attitude toward utilising time is a combination of the above discussed social codes. In particular fatalism may have a bigger share. People wrongly believe that whatever they do or how hard or fast they do it, there is only one outcome and that is previously determined. "If God wills," "*Insha Allah*" it will happen, if not it won't happen. Thus, may be there is no point in killing one's self over something the outcome of which he or she has no control over. However, there is a growing awareness that ineffectiveness at work and in the use of time is vice and has nothing to do with the belief in "God's will". People are now becoming more aware that unpunctuality and ineffective use of time are not appropriate with a new life style which demands more exactness and competence. Nydell in this respect asserts the following point:

Social occasions and even appointments need not have fixed beginnings and endings. Arabs are thus much more relaxed about the timing of events than they are about other aspects of their lives. Nevertheless, these attitudes are beginning to change as Arabs respond to the demands of economic and technological development and modernization.

(1987: 60)

It should be emphasised at this point that some of the attributes discussed above apply more to the people in the Arabian peninsula and countries that lie on its northern borders, and that attachment to many of these characteristics have been relaxed due to the changes undergoing in the Arab societies during the recent decades.

5.3 Developmental Aspects of Contemporary Saudi Arabia

In this section some of the aspects that constitute the bases of development in modern Saudi Arabia are elucidated. These aspects include education and training, manpower, development plans, and economy.

5.3.1 Education and Training

As education is regarded as the backbone of the social and economical development of any society, it has been given the utmost attention by the Saudi authorities and many billions of Riyals have been spent in order to leap nearer the developed countries' standards. In a relatively short span of time the country has advanced from an almost illiterate nation to become one of the most highly educated nations of the third world. The mindfulness to education is shown by abundant spending on education and providing free education for all students at all levels including free books. In addition to free education, students of higher and vocational education are provided with free accommodation and monthly allowances. In terms of capital figures the educational budget (which includes general, higher, and vocational education) in 1990 sums to SR. 25,612 m. (\$6,830 m.), or 17.9% of the total national budget (Central Department of Statistics, 1990). This handsome financial expenditure is responsible for the sharp rise of students attending schools. For example, the number of students in the formal

education rose from 478,000 in 1970 to 2.15 m. in 1987 (Al-Farsy, 1990) (see Table 5.1).

The history of education in Saudi Arabia is as recent as the history of the country itself. At the time of the country’s proclamation education was exclusive to the privileged in the Western region where a handful of private schools were run by businessmen, or charity organisations from other Islamic countries. In the rest of the country schooling was limited to the teaching of the Koran in mosques by some clergymen (al-Shamikh, 1973). Formal education was introduced towards the end of the late King Abdul Aziz’s reign, in the years 1949-50. The boom years for the introduction of education started in the 1950’s. The year 1957 witnessed the opening of the first university (King Saud University) in Riyadh with only one college. Girls’

Table 5.1: Development of number of pupils in pre-school and general education in Saudi Arabia during eighteen years.

Year	Pre-school	Elementary	Intermediate	Secondary	Total
1969/70	4	397	61	16	478
1970/71	6	428	70	20	524
1971/72	7	475	84	23	589
1972/73	8	521	100	27	656
1973/74	10	578	116	33	737
1974/75	14	634	137	42	827
1975/76	16	686	155	49	906
1976/77	16	726	178	60	980
1977/78	18	753	197	70	1038
1978/79	23	803	220	84	1130
1979/80	24	862	245	93	1224
1980/81	28	930	257	100	1315
1981/82	35	998	274	116	1423
1982/83	41	1074	301	130	1546
1983/84	47	1167	335	147	1696
1984/85	55	1242	373	158	1828
1985/86	68	1317	388	172	1945
1986/87	60	1460	432	199	2151

Source: Al-Farsy, F. (1990) *Modernity and Tradition, The Saudi Equation*. Kegan Paul International: London. p.255.

education was introduced with great opposition in the 1960's. The total number of female students in formal education increased from only 128 thousand in 1970 to 0.93 m. in 1987 with an annual average increase of 13.6% (Al-Farsy, 1990).

Provision of pre-school education to the public has not yet been regarded as essential by the government. However, a little over half the total number of kindergartens are run by the government, the remaining are run by the private sector. Most of these are located in the major cities. General education is divided to three levels; elementary (six grades), preparatory (three grades), and secondary level (three years). Due to the totally segregated schooling for boys and girls, the Ministry of Education runs males' education, whereas the General Presidency for Girls' Education is concerned, as the name implies, with girls' education. The grade system of girls' education is identical to that of the boys'. The Ministry of Education assumes the role of making the overall educational policy and supervising girls' education as well.

Although the General Secretariat for Girls' Colleges is the body responsible for the eleven girls' colleges scattered around the country, five of the different seven universities provide education for girls. The seven universities are: King Saud University in Riyadh, King Abdul Aziz University in Jeddah, the Islamic University in Medinah, King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals in Dahrhan, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in Riyadh, King Faisal University in Al-Hasa and Dammam, and Umm Al-Qura University in Mecca. In addition to the eleven girls' colleges, these universities contain 66 colleges and faculties. The number of students and schools at different educational levels (exhibited in Table 5.2) has increased 66% between the year 1983 and 1990. The ratio of male-female students for the year 1990 for all type of education is 1.25:1, and the ratio of teacher-student for the same year is 1:15.1 (Central Department of Statistics, 1990).

Table 5.2: Development of number of school, institutions, and universities and their relevant students (male and female) between the years 1982-1990.

Education Level		1982-83	1989-90	Growth %
Elementary	(Schools)	6,792	8,808	29.68
	(Students)	1,073,528	1,801,065	67.77
Preparatory	(Schools)	1,922	3,110	61.811
	(Students)	301,498	538,214	78.51
Secondary	(Schools)	717	1,255	75.04
	(Students)	130,281	268,582	106.16
Institutes	(Number)	179	167	-6.70
	(Students)	18,451	26,727	44.85
Universities	(Number)	7	7	0.0
	(Students)	75,118	130,328	73.50
Total number of students at all educational levels		1,818,408	3,020,442	66.10

Source: Central Department of Statistics (1990). *Statistical Year Book*, Saudi Arabia.

In respect of technical education and vocational training, they have received special attention because of their importance in providing middle level technicians upon which industrialisation greatly rely. Technical education and vocational training were first introduced in 1970-71. These two programmes serve both the government and the private sectors, they are supervised by the 'General Organisation for Technical education and Vocational Training'. Although this type of education does not enjoy a great social status, it has been cleverly introduced and has sustained a steady increase. In fact it has the highest growth compared to the other types of education. For the first thirteen years the annual growth rate for technical education was 21.7 followed by higher education with 17.7 (Ministry of Planning, 1986).

Technical education is concerned with industrial, commercial, technical, and agriculture fields. By 1986-87, there were two community colleges for each of the commercial and industrial fields with a total number of 439 and 364 students respectively (Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency, 1988). Three colleges in the commercial field and further one in the technical field were opened by 1987-88. By the year 1990 technical institutes reached the number of 7. As for the number of secondary institutes during the same period, there were 22 commercial, 8 industrial and 1 agricultural institutes counting a total of 7383, 5362 and 266 students respectively.

Concerning vocational training centres, with duration of ten months, their number reached 28 by 1986-87, with a total number of 8379 students, of which 5545 have already graduated (Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency, 1988).

In addition to training centres provided by organisations in the private sector, such as banks and other industrial companies, technical institutes, and vocational training centres, further training centres are provided by the Al-Jubail and Yanbu industrial cities and Sabic's training centre (for information on Sabic, refer to section 5.4). Sabic provides all its employees regardless of their educational background extensive training programmes before joining the company, and continuous training for enrolled employees. It works in this regard in collaboration with the Technical institutes and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) (Sabic, 1988). Samarec (an affiliated company of Petromin) also provides similar manpower training and development programmes which cover theoretical and practical short and long term training programmes for its personnel at various levels, at its own as well as government vocational training centres (Samarec, 1991).

The Institute of Public Administration was established in 1960. It is the body that provides government employees with training in relation to their respective positions and qualifications. Furthermore, it aims to offer educational programmes for government employees, provide consultations to various government agencies, and conduct research in relative areas (Abdul Kader, 1980).

5.3.2 Workforce in Saudi Arabia

Not so long ago manpower in Saudi Arabia was characterised by being largely expatriate, even in the government sector. Since the emergence of the country the government recruited as many Saudis as possible. Saudi manpower was not qualified enough to assume a new structured life style to fulfil government as well as private employments, which demanded discipline and education. Today, the national workforce is relatively better educated and trained to the degree that it can run the country's economy efficiently enough. Nevertheless, Saudi Arabia still relies to a large extent on a foreign workforce which is of higher quality than their Saudi counterparts. In particular, Saudi employment is severely limited in the private sector. Among the 584,779 employees in Riyadh, for instance, only 254,182 (or 43.5%) jobs are filled by Saudis (Riyadh Development Authority, 1992).

In line with the overall development of the country, employment has for a long time maintained its sharp rise. In 1975, for example, civil employment mounted to 1.75m., this number has reached 2.2m. in 1980 (Sinclair and Birks, 1982), and 5.77m. in 1991. It is estimated to reach 6m. in 1995 (the Middle East and North Africa, 1994). The percentage of expatriate workforce to the total was 41.3 in 1975, and was estimated to reach 48.8 in 1985 (Sinclair and Birks, 1982). Although the size of the foreign labour force has increased between these years, their participation in the

government sector has severely diminished. Their increase, however, was due to the growth of the private sector.

There are several reasons for the number of expatriate workers. First, the Saudi population is relatively small, but more importantly many Saudis are inadequately trained for the existing work demands. Second, employment of women is severely restricted because of traditional customs and religious beliefs. Third, many types of work are negatively valued. Fourth, the population is mainly young that around 60% of

Table 5.3

Saudi Working Age Population and Civilian Labour Force.

	1989/90	1994/95*	Net Increase 1989/90-94/95	Average Annual Growth Rate (%)
<i>Working age population (000)</i>				
Saudis				
Males	3223.7	3937.6	713.9	4.1
Females	3200.5	3909.1	708.6	4.1
Total	6424.2	7846.7	1422.5	4.1
<i>Labour Force Participation Rate (%)</i>				
Males	54.4	54.4		
Females	5.3	5.5		
Total	29.9	30.0		
<i>Civilian Labour Force (000)</i>				
Males	1754.3	2142.1	387.8	4.1
Females	168.9	215.0	46.1	4.9
Sub-total				
Saudis	1923.2	2357.1	433.9	4.2
Non-Saudis	3848.6	3628.2	-220.4	-1.2
Total	5771.8	5985.3	213.5	1.25

* projected.

Source: Ministry of Planning (1990). *Fifth Development Plan*, Saudi Arabia.

Riyadh's population, for instance, are under 20 years of age in 1991 (Riyadh Development Authority, 1992).

For females, they can only work in professional and technical positions such as teachers and medical doctors. The percentage of working females within the total working population is shown in Table 5.3 as 5.3 compared to 54.4 for males (Ministry of Planning, 1990). The total segregation of gender makes it virtually impossible for women to find suitable jobs in the wider community.

One of the fifth development plan's objectives is to increase Saudi participation in the private sector and to increase the participation of women in the work force. This is illustrated in Table 5.3. Total Saudi employment is projected to increase by 4.2 % per year, while non-Saudi employment is expected to decline at a 1.2% annual rate. Employment growth for Saudi women is targeted to be higher than for Saudi men. Although total employment is targeted to increase by 213,500, the Saudi labour force is projected to grow by 433,900 over the Fifth Plan period. Therefore, a reduction of 220,400 in the size of the non-Saudi labour force is expected. Table 5.4 points out that the producing sector's share of total employment is projected to increase from 35.0 % at the beginning of the period to 36.0% at the end. The services sectors and the government sector are expected to account for slightly smaller shares of total employment. Within the producing sectors, employment in manufacturing is targeted to grow by 85,600, or at an average annual rate of 4.2 percent. Manufacturing's share of total employment is expected to increase from 6.4 % in 1989/90 to nearly 7.6 % by 1994/95 (Ministry of Planning, 1990)

5.3.3 The Five-Year Development Plans

The increase in the government revenues from oil and the need to build a modern state with sound economic and social development has necessitated the need for comprehensive short and long-term planning. The need to achieve the long term strategic goals through systematic planning was particularly obvious in the late 1960's. Since then the five-year plans were introduced with the first development plan commencing the year 1970.

To date, four development plans have been concluded, with the end of the fifth five-year plan approaching. Every plan has a certain set of goals which can be different

Table 5.4

Civilian Employment classified by Type of Sector.

	1989/90 (000)	1994/95* (000)	% Distribution 1989/90 94/95		Average Annual Growth (%)
Producing sectors					
Agriculture	569.2	596.6	9.9	10.0	0.9
Other Mining	3.5	3.8	0.1	0.1	1.7
Manufacturing	374.9	460.5	6.4	7.6	4.2
Public Utilities	126.9	136.7	2.2	2.3	1.5
Construction	944.1	959.9	16.4	16.0	0.3
Sub-total	2018.6	2157.5	35.0	36.0	1.3
Service sectors	3081.6	3146.6	35.4	25.6	0.4
Government sector	624.8	633.5	10.8	10.6	0.3
Total non-oil sectors	5725.0	5937.6	99.2	99.2	0.7
Crude oil & Natural Gas	46.8	47.7	0.8	0.8	0.4
Total	5771.8	5985.3	100.0	100.0	0.7

* projected.

Source: Ministry of Planning (1990). *Fifth Development Plan*, Saudi Arabia

from the others. The first plan which was covering the years 1970-1975 was inferior by subsequent plans' standards. However, with a total budget of SR 56,223 million (\$23.1 bn.), it established for the first time a comprehensive planning framework for the construction of a modern infrastructure. It also concentrated on the improvement of government services such as health and social security, and the development of human resources through adequate education and training, thereby laying the foundations for achieving long term strategic goals (Ministry of Planning, 1990).

The Second Development Plan (1975-1980) was far more ambitious than the first one and was assisted in this by the sharp increase of oil revenues in the latter part of the First Plan years. It provided for expenditure of no less than SR 498,230 m. (\$142 bn.). The major emphasis of this plan was on infrastructure and industrialisation. Expenditure on these was increased dramatically in order to overcome barriers to economic growth. Investment was increased on defence, education, urban development, and industrial and mineral production. Major features of the second Plan were the establishment of the Ministry of Industry and Electricity, the project to increase industrial output by creating two new industrial cities of Jubail and Yanbu and the Royal Commission of Jubail and Yanbu, and the creation of the Saudi Arabian Basic Industrial Corporation (SABIC) (the Middle East and North Africa, 1994).

In the third Plan (1980-85) the emphasis was shifted from infrastructure projects to the productive sectors for the purpose of diversifying the economy instead of mainly relying on revenues from oil. However one of the objectives which remained was to accelerate the construction of physical infrastructure. The Plan aimed to invest SR782,000 m. (\$235,000m.), excluding defence spending, in order to achieve its objectives which were mainly centred around initiating capital intensive industries linked to the kingdom's petroleum resources. The private sector was to concentrate on

manufacturing industries and agriculture. But more importantly the need for trained Saudi manpower was realised and the need to achieve this goal was recognised. The plan stressed the need for manpower training, to reduce reliance on foreign labour.

The second half of the plan has witnessed a sharp decrease in oil demand by the international markets and the Plan has suffered a major setback so that many of its objectives could not be materialised.

The Fourth Development Plan (1985-90) envisaged a total expenditure of SR1,000,000 m. In the period of this plan, the majority of the Kingdom's infrastructure was completed. The main theme of this Plan was to; reinforce the diversification of the economy, with the private sector assuming a leading role; enhance operational efficiency; emphasise non-oil revenue-generating activities; and integrate the country economically and socially within the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC). Government spending on construction, transportation and communication would be slowed down or could even decline. Instead, the plan would focus on health, education, training, and other social services essential to social and human development, which was a major feature of the Fourth Plan.

The Fourth Plan has fallen short of its targets, mainly as a result of the steep decline in oil revenues following the collapse in oil prices in 1986. And also as a result of the increase of military spending due to the Iran-Iraq war.

Although recovery started in the last years of the Fourth Plan, the Fifth Development Plan (1990-95) has started with a major shake up represented by the Gulf war which led to the increase of military spending, and about 34% of the total expenditure of the Fifth Plan was to be re-allocated to defence, with education receiving 19% and health and social services 12%. The Fifth Plan envisaged a total

expenditure of SR753,000 m. The main themes of this plan were a greater emphasis on the private sector; and creation of more efficient Saudi labour force. It also continues what has been advanced in the Fourth Plan such as; diversifying the economy and increasing revenues from non-oil sources; promotion of exports; and encouragement of Saudi industry, notably in the construction sector (Ministry of Planning, 1990; and the Middle East and North Africa, 1994).

5.3.4 *The Economy*

Since the emergence of Saudi Arabia the dominant single factor of its economy has been oil, although commercial quantities were discovered in mid 1940's. Prior to the proclamation of the country in 1932, an integrated national economy did not exist. Economic activities outside Hejaz were confined to livestock raising by Bedouins, primitive agriculture, and production of simple tools by craftsmen who lived in small towns concentrated around the sources of water (Johany, 1982).

Now Saudi Arabia is by far the third largest oil producing country in the world, and the largest producer and exporter of oil within the Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). Although the country has received massive revenues from oil exports, the effective role of oil was evident since the year 1973-74 after the dramatic increase in international petroleum prices. During the last two decades the economy has grown to be ranked among the 20 largest economies in the world, while the country accounts only for 0.2 percent of the world's population (Ministry of Planning, 1990).

The substantial revenues from oil which started at \$103m. in the fiscal year 1947-1948 and reached \$73,000m. in 1980-81, has financed an ambitious programme

of infrastructural development and modernisation, as well as far-reaching programmes for providing free health , educational and social services.

Despite the fact that new reports indicating the Kingdom's proven reserves of crude oil amounts to 315 billion barrels, which exceed the previous figures of 170 billion barrels existed prior to the year 1987, the government realises the need to diversify the economy and lessen the reliance on oil revenues. Although the reserve can conservatively last for 150 years, experience has shown that a slump in oil prices has direct impact on the country's economy and the execution of development projects (ARAMCO, 1989).

The figures in Table 5.5 show that in 1970 oil contributed to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by almost 56%. This figure increased to almost 85% of the GDP in 1974 the year in which oil prices boomed to their highest peak. Close examination of the figures reveals that although the contribution of the oil sector to the GDP increases annually, the ratio of the oil to non-oil sectors gradually decreases to reach a minimum of 21% in the fiscal year 1989-90.

Despite the relative increase of the oil sector's contribution to the country's economy, the major increase was achieved in the non-oil sector. The most important domains in which the government envisaged economic development which could help to diversify the economy of the country were manufacturing and agriculture. For the contribution of the different sectors to the GDP in 1990 see Figure 5.2.

In respect of manufacturing, one step thought essential in developing a solid and healthy environment for industrialisation is the establishment of the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) and the industrial cities of Jubail and Yanbu. The purpose was to provide primary industries of petrochemicals and make good use of the abundant availability of the basic source for such industries, oil. Over the past less than

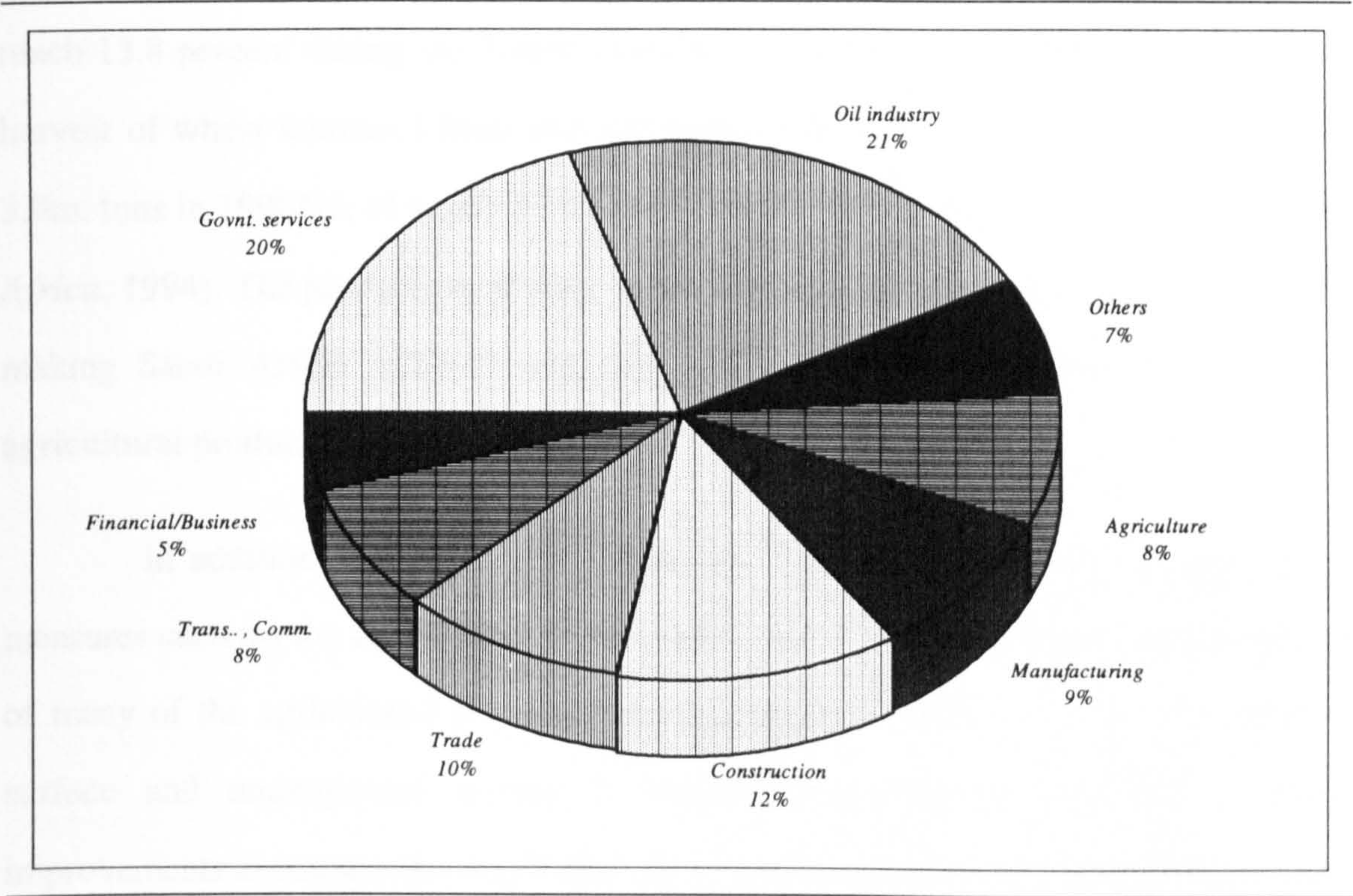
Table 5.5
Contribution of oil and non-oil sectors to the GDP over 20 years period.

Year	Oil sector			Non-oil sector			Total
	SR (millions)	% Share	% Growth	SR (millions)	% Share	% Growth	
1969/70	9,566	56	—	7,587	44	—	17,153
1971/72	18,674	67	95	9,183	33	21	27,857
1973/74	83,410	84	347	15,430	16	68	98,840
1975/76	116,570	71	40	47,323	29	207	163,893
1977/78	133,935	60	15	89,883	40	90	233,818
1979/80	252,705	66	89	130,884	34	46	383,589
1981/82	337,884	65	34	184,293	35	29	522,177
1983/84	157,989	43	-53	210,410	57	14	368,399
1985/86	90,004	33	-43	184,715	67	-12	274,719
1956/87	85,513	32	-05	178,561	68	-03	264,074
1989/90	60,200	21	-30	220,000	79	23	280,200

Sources: Al-Farsy (1990). *Modernity and Tradition*, Kegan Paul International: London.
And Ministry of Planning (1990). *Fifth Development Plan*, Riyadh: Saudi Arabia.

two decades, SABIC has spent nearly \$12 billion on the development of 13 industrial projects most of which are for petrochemical products. Other areas of basic industries include factories for the production of steel and fertilisers. Other important steps in industrialisation were the establishment of the Public Investment Fund (PIF) and the Saudi Industrial Development Fund (SIDF) which both provide extended soft loans. The former is primarily concerned with large government-sponsored projects (e.g.,

Figure 5.2: Contribution of the different sectors to the Saudi Gross Domestic Product for the year 1990.



SABIC) and carries a charge when the project is profitable, and the latter is to help finance individual factories (Askari, 1990). As a result of the attention paid to the manufacturing industry, its growth rate increased from 3.9 percent during the First Development Plan to 7.3 percent during the Third Development Plan, and then dropped to its previous level which is 3.9 percent during the Fourth Plan.

On the other hand, the agricultural industry has assumed a bigger share of the GDP. This was made possible by the concessionary loans to private farmers by the Saudi Arabian Agriculture Bank (SAAB). In 1988, for example, agricultural exports accounted for about 40% of non-oil exports, and during the Third Development Plan the output of the agricultural sector expanded in real terms at an average rate of 8.7%

per year, compared with its projected growth rate of 5.4%. The annual growth rate of the agricultural industry rose from 3.6 percent during the First Development Plan to reach 13.8 percent during the Fourth Plan. As a result of this development, the annual harvest of wheat increased from 142,000 metric tons in 1979/80 to a record level of 3.9m. tons in 1990/91, of which 1.7m. tons were exported (*the Middle East and North Africa*, 1994). The production of other agricultural products has also sharply increased making Saudi Arabia self-sufficient, and for the first time an exporter of many agricultural products.

In addition to giving “soft” loans, the Saudi government has adopted other measures such as; the distribution of free agricultural land to farmers; the subsidising of many of the agricultural products; and construction of dams in order to conserve surface and underground waters. It should be mentioned here that all these improvements encounter the major obstacle of scarce water resources. For this reason, the Saudi agricultural policy has faced growing criticism because of the high depletion rate of the non-renewable fossil aquifers from which farmers draw most of their water supply (*the Middle East and North Africa*, 1994).

In spite of the positive contribution of some of the non-oil sectors to the GDP, the overall growth of the non-oil sector has witnessed an unfavourable decrease during the Fourth Development Plan. Instead of the targeted growth of this sector of 2.9%, a decrease of an average annual rate of 0.8 percent during that period has been experienced. The largest decrease was evident in the construction sector. This can be attributed to the completion of most of the infrastructure.

5.4 *The Private Sector and Industrialisation*

In developing economies the role of governments can never be undermined as their fragile structure needs close attention, protection and organisation. The role of the government in building and providing the basic infrastructure on a nationwide scale is a crucial prerequisite for industrial development beyond the scope of the private sector or beyond its ability to carry the development through quickly enough. Example of these projects are transport and communication (Presley and Westaway, 1989). Nevertheless, competence and advancement come only with the free enterprise system and private ownership with the government playing regulating and protective roles. This fact has been recognised by the Saudi government, and it has been working for sometime to increase the involvement of the private sector. This concept has been persistent since most of the infrastructure has been completed. Hence, the role of the private sector has been emphasised in the Fourth and, more strongly, in the Fifth Development Plans.

The involvement of the private sector has been tremendous in magnitude and sophistication. During the Forth Development Plan the private sector's role was not only to take small shares of construction subcontracting from big Western companies as was a normal practice in the early stages of development. Rather, more sophisticated new companies were formed dedicated to operations and maintenance for industrial plants and equipment. The magnitude of the involvement of the private sector can be evident in the increased investment in agriculture; the rapid growth of high quality medical services at privately owned hospitals; and the increased investment in consumer goods industries to meet the growing needs of the population. In fact it has developed in all economic activities. In capital terms, private non-oil sector investment increased from SR2.4 bn. in 1973/74 to SR23.2 bn. in 1979/80, representing a growth rate of 46 percent/annum in value terms. Since 1980 the share of private sector investment has

risen steadily. In 1986/87 it reached 47%, which for the first time was higher than public investment (Presley and Westaway, 1989).

During the Fifth Plan and beyond, it is envisaged that the private sector will take over on a commercial basis many of the services now provided by the government. It is estimated to account for about 77 percent of the value added in the producing/service sectors, 58 percent of the non-oil GDP, and 38 percent of total GDP in 1989/90, and is projected to increase its share of value added during the Fifth Plan in real terms by 0.3 percent in the producing/service sectors, about three percent in the non-oil GDP, and about two percent in total GDP. These shares could be considerably increased by implementation of a privatisation process (the Ministry of Planning, 1990).

One key goal of the Fifth Plan is privatisation by which many government enterprises are sold to the private sector, shares in some other selected government enterprises are sold to private investors, or other similar measures. Privatisation programmes are expected to increase private sector investment in the economy; increase economic efficiency and innovation; increase competition; reduce subsidies; and encourage a wider distribution of ownership of economic resources. To summarise, the goal of private sector development in the Fifth Plan is not just to achieve faster growth; more importantly, it is to build the foundations to support a much more broadly based, stronger, efficient, and competitive private sector for the future (Ministry of Planning, 1990).

5.4.1 *The Manufacturing Sector*

The industrial picture Saudi Arabia is trying to portray coupled with the prosperity the country is currently experiencing may lead to a mistaken conclusion that the Kingdom is to be lined up with the industrial countries. Presley and Westaway have warned that

the Saudi situation is *"...newly found and came only with the oil price rise in the early 1970s. It has until recently been a largely agricultural economy with a shortage of capital to bring about industrialisation. In this respect until 1973 it was no different to many Third World economies"* (1989: 21). Nevertheless, serious steps have been taken to ensure that the country can benefit from building an industrial economy.

The measures outlined in the above section are examples of these steps. The cornerstone of the industrialisation programme is the construction of refineries and processing industries to exploit the country's huge reserves of crude oil and natural gas. These huge projects which had been the responsibility of the newly established Saudi Arabian Marketing and Refining Company (SAMAREC) are now operated by Saudi Aramco after the abolition of Samarec in 1993. Samarec was affiliated operating company of the General Petroleum and Mineral Organisation (PETROMIN). The abolition of Samarec may reflect the disorientation of the present industrial stage.

A prominent feature of the present stage of industrialisation is the involvement of joint venture programmes. Saudi Aramco, which has been formed in 1989 to take control of the nationalised Aramco assets, has succeeded in 1988 in securing a joint venture with Texaco, whereby it gained access to a refining and marketing network spanning 26 states in the southern and eastern USA. In 1991 it acquired a 35% equity interest in South Korea's largest refining company, Ssangyong Oil (the Middle East and North Africa, 1994).

SABIC's projects, which are mainly located in Jubail and Yanbu industrial cities headed by the Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu, are almost entirely 50-50 joint ventures with leading international manufacturing corporations. Currently, SABIC's companies produce 9 million tons of over 20 different top quality products

annually to meet the needs of more than 2000 customers in 65 countries (SABIC, 1988). In 1986, SABIC's sales world-wide amounted to \$984.8 million. Its first and second generation companies include nine petrochemical and plastic companies, three fertiliser companies, two steel companies, one gas company and two marketing companies, in addition to participation in three Gulf region industrial partnerships based in Bahrain.

The first generation industries of Sabic's are the following:

I- Petrochemicals: National Methanol Co. (Ibn Sina), with American partners; Saudi Methanol Company (ar-Razi), with a Japanese partner; Al-Jubail Petrochemical Company (Kemya), with American partners; Saudi Yanbu Petrochemical Company (Yanpet), with American partners; Saudi Petrochemical Company (Sadaf), with American partners; Arabian Petrochemical Company (Petrokemya), fully owned by Sabic; and Eastern Petrochemical Company (Sharq), with a Japanese partner.

II- Fertilisers: Saudi Arabian Fertiliser Company (Safco), fully Saudi owned; and Al-Jubail Fertiliser Company (Samad), with a Taiwanese partner.

III- Metal: Saudi Iron and Steel Company (Hadeed), with a German partner; and Jeddah Steel Rolling Mill Company (Sulb), fully Sabic owned.

SABIC's second generation industries are to support its basic industries. These are: National Industrial Gases Company (GAS), with Saudi private investors; National Plastic Company (Ibn Hayyan), with a Korean partner; Saudi European Petrochemical Company (Ibn Zahr), with Finnish and Italian partners; and National Chemical Fertiliser Company (Ibn al-Baytar), fully Sabic owned.

The two marketing companies are SABIC Marketing Ltd. and SABIC Marketing services Ltd. The first company is in charge of selling SABIC's products, whereas the second company provides technical support, product research, and customer service. Sabic employs 8002 employees in 1985 of which 663 are engineers, and 4087 technicians. Of the total, 3894 (48%) employees are Saudis (SABIC, 1988).

The private manufacturing sector has witnessed a great development during the last two decades. Table 1.1 (reproduced in Table 5.6 for convenience) shows that the number of plants developed from 473 in 1975 to 1401 in 1980, with growth rate of 196% during this period (the Second five-year Plan), and it further increased to 2061 in

Table 5.6: Growth of the manufacturing sector in terms of number of plants, labour and capital invested.

Year	Number of Plants	Workforce	Capital Invested (\$m.)
1975	473	38625	2812.5
1980	1401	96023	12242.5
1987	2061	140620	25281.3

Sources: Ministry of Industry and Electricity (1984:5), *Industry and Electricity Progress and Achievements*, Saudi Arabia; and Ministry of Industry and Electricity (1987), *Industrial and Statistical Report*, Saudi Arabia.

1987, with growth rate of 47% for that period. Of this number 1629 plants, or 79%, are wholly national and 411 (21%) are joint venture. The industry containing the highest number of factories, as shown in Table 5.7 below, is the Metal industry with 28.2%, followed by the construction industry with 25.8%.

Regarding the capital invested, the chemical industries account for over 55% of the total capital, whereas they account for only 15% and 17% of the total number of

plants and the labour force respectively. The reason here is that these industries include the giant projects of Sabic and some of that of Petromin. The large capital invested is helped by the soft loans given by the Saudi Industrial Fund (SIDF), which was established in 1974, it finances up to 50% of the total costs of a project (The Saudi Consulting House, 1986). In a joint venture project, the Saudi equity must not be less than 25% of the total costs of the project in order to qualify for a loan. By the year 1986 the SIDF has spent SR14.1 bn. to finance 938 projects. In 1990 alone, the loans given reached SR1.35 bn. (Saudi Industrial Development Fund, 1991).

Table 5.7 also shows that the total number of workers in the manufacturing industries exceeds 140 thousand of which almost 60% work for the Construction and Metal industries. In a survey, depicted in Table 5.8, conducted in 1988 of most of the manufacturing companies and classified according to nationality, the Saudis account for

Table 5.7: Growth of manufacturing sector in terms of number of plants, labour and capital invested.

<i>Industrial sectors</i>	<i>Plants</i>		<i>Workforce</i>		<i>Capital Invested (SRm.)</i>	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Food	329	16.0	18,461	13.1	6,550	6.9
Textile	42	2.0	3,740	2.7	702	0.7
Leather products	10	0.5	535	0.4	81	0.1
Wood	67	3.3	4,470	3.2	596	0.6
Paper & Printing	125	6.1	6,588	4.7	1,868	2.0
Chemical	302	14.7	23,649	16.8	52,382	55.3
Ceramic & Glass	6	0.3	1,505	1.1	427	0.5
Construction matrl.	532	25.8	40,929	29.1	20,033	21.1
Metal	581	28.2	38,494	27.4	11,367	12.0
Other industries	67	3.3	2,249	1.6	799	0.8
Total	2,061	100.0	140,620	100.0	94,805	100.0

Source: Ministry of Industry and Electricity (1987), *Industrial and Statistical Report*, Saudi Arabia.

only 13% of the total workforce of the manufacturing sector (The Consulting Centre for Finance and Investment, 1988).

Almost 50% of the Saudis working in the manufacturing sector work for Sabic and Petromin with percentages of 58% and 67% of their total workforce respectively. In the private manufacturing sector the Saudis account for only 7.5% of the total workforce. That is of over 80 thousand employees only slightly over 6 thousand employees are Saudis. By all measures this ratio is extremely low. Chief among the characteristics of the private manufacturing sector are low job security, and long work

Table 5.8

Survey of the workforce of the manufacturing sector classified by nationality.

<i>Industrial sectors</i>	TOTAL	SAUDIS		NON-SAUDIS	
	No.	No.	%	No.	%
Food	17,103	1,118	6.5	15,985	93.5
Textiles	1,232	65	5.3	1,163	94.7
Leather products	339	21	6.2	318	93.8
Woods	2,181	87	4.0	2,094	96.0
Paper & Printing	4,792	391	8.2	4,401	91.8
Fuel & Refineries	4,724 *	3,212	68.0	1,734	32.0
Chemicals	14,518 *	2,990	20.6	11,306	79.4
Ceramic & Glass	579	19	3.3	560	96.7
Construction materials	23,272	2,165	9.3	21,107	90.7
Metal	20,651	1,442	7.0	19,209	93.0
Other industries	940	25	2.7	888	97.3
Total Industrial Sector	90,331 *	11,566	12.8	78,765	87.2
Petromin Refineries	4,428	2,971	67.1	1,457	32.9
SABIC Industries	4,268	2,494	58.4	1,774	41.6
Private MFG Sector	81,635 ♂	6,101	7.5	75,534	92.5

* Including Petromin's and Sabic's industries.

♂ Excluding Petrofina's and Sabic's industries.

Source: The Consulting Centre for Finance and Investment (1988), *Survey of Industries, 1407 (1987)*. Riyadh: Saudi Arabia.

hours. In such an atmosphere Saudis can not compete with workers coming from some disadvantaged Third World countries. Such workers would gladly accept all conditions of factory life.

Although there is legislation forcing private investors to hire Saudis in order to qualify for loans and other privileges, the private sector is always tempted to import cheap labour rather than employ nationals. In the long run, it is more advantageous for the country to have national labour, especially in highly skilled jobs. It would be a worthwhile investment for the government to pay the difference in wages. The result would be the future availability of highly qualified, trained and experienced labour.

Other radical steps must be undertaken if industrialisation is to be achieved. Increasing the role of the private sector is only the start. Some social, political and administrative measures are essential for bringing about the transformation needed in order to achieve the overall goals of creating a productive nation.

5.5 Overview

The aim of this chapter was to highlight the socio-cultural and economic, as well as the physical, environments within which manpower in Saudi Arabia performs. The capacity of the context in which people work to condition and shape their behaviour necessitates their discussion in this study. The discussion is concentrated on four important topics. These are; the physical and demographic aspects of the country; the historical and social aspects of Saudi society; the factors thought essential to the development of the modern Saudi Arabia represented by education, manpower, development plans and the economy of the country; and finally a thorough discussion

relating to the role of the private sector, and in particular the manufacturing sector, in transforming the economy of the country.

Saudi Arabia as it is known today is the country created in 1932 by the late King Ibn Saud. The salient physical feature of Saudi Arabia is that it is a huge desert country that covers an area of 2.2m. km², located in the Arabian peninsula in South-west Asia. The people of the country are mostly homogeneous in total 13m., and speak Arabic. The religion of the country is Islam whose laws are applied in every day life. Religion is understood to be the fundamental motivating factor in most aspects of the Arab culture.

Arab values and norms are a blend of religion and the nomadic life style. In the Arab culture the family plays a major role in forming values and beliefs. Family ties are strongly preserved and loyalty to family exceeds any other obligation, therefore the interests of the individual are always prevailed over by those of the family. The life Arabs have enjoyed for hundreds of years has formed a distinctive set of values and traditions. These values and traditions are found to greatly affect the way Arabs go about their day to day affairs.

It is widely accepted that the way people behave at the workplace is greatly influenced by the learning process in the wider society. The values learned in the community are brought into the work environment. These values form a network, one value can not be singled out to be the dominating one. However, in this study some values have been identified to be more influential than the others in forming work attitudes and work-related behaviour. These values create a management culture that is unique to Arabs. These values and traditions can be said to be; interpersonal relationships; hospitality and generosity; fatalism; and temporal proximity.

The cornerstone of human resource development is education and training. Education is given considerable attention by the Saudi authorities as shown by the huge amount of capital invested which amounts to SR 25bn. (or 18% of the total national budget) in 1990 alone. The number of students in general education (high school or less) has risen from 478 thousand in 1970 to 2.1m. in 1987. Education has also been diversified to include vocational and technical as well as higher education. Education and training has helped in qualifying Saudis in filling thousands of occupations, particularly in the government sector.

Civil employments have increased sharply from 1.75m. in 1975 to 5.77m. in 1991. The percentage of expatriate workforce to the total has also increased from 41.3 in 1975, to reach 48.8 in 1985. Irrespective of this increase, expatriate participation in the government sector has severely diminished. This increase was due to the huge expansion of the private and semi-private sectors.

To ensure a well planned preparation of national human resources, together with the need to build a developed country, long and short term strategic plans were necessary. This was realised early in the nineteen sixties, and the introduction of the first five-year plan commenced in the year 1970. The five Plans already conducted have helped a great deal to set up a framework for achieving the overall policies of the authorities.

One of the key goals of the country is to diversify the economy and reduce the dependency on the single commodity of oil. Undoubtedly oil has facilitated the development of the Kingdom, and has helped a great deal in bringing about otherwise remote goals. Since the emergence of the country, the economy has relied heavily on oil. In the last three five-year development plans diversification of the economy has

been dominant. Many ways to attain this aim have been suggested. Chief amongst them are industrialisation and the enlargement of the private sector's role in most industries.

Agriculture is one of the industries that have sustained a steady growth. This has been achieved by soft loans and subsidies to farmers. As a result, agricultural exports accounted for about 40% of non-oil exports in 1988. The annual growth rate rose from 3.6% during the First development Plan to 13.8% during the Fourth Plan. Despite what seems a bright picture, agricultural policies have faced a main criticism regarding the high consumption rate of the non-renewable aquifers from which farmers draw most of their water supply.

On the other side, in the manufacturing sector, many crucial measures have been adopted by the government to help the manufacturing sector flourish. The establishment of Sabic in 1976, with its almost 20 projects, and the development of the Jubail and Yanbu industrial cities have created a healthy ground for the first and second generation of petrochemical and other supporting industries.

The establishment of two industrial funds (the Public Investment Fund, and the Saudi Industrial Development Fund) have helped the private manufacturing sector to grow more than fourfold in just 12 years. One major drawback of this sector is the acute shortage of Saudis employed in it. A recent study shows that only 7.5% of the total workforce of the private manufacturing sector are Saudis. This includes all positions of employment. Expectedly, the overwhelming majority of the Saudis are in managerial and clerical positions. A number of reasons for this imbalance have been laid down in the body of this chapter. For a more balanced picture of employment in this sector a number of drastic measures have to be adopted and implemented by the authorities. Some of these actions are also discussed where relevant.

PART THREE
EMPIRICAL APPROACH

CHAPTER SIX

REVIEW OF THE SPECIFIC QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

- 1. *Questions Pertaining to Sample Characteristics***
 - 2. *Culture, Work Attitudes and Job Preference***
 - 3. *Assumptions Relevant to n Achievement***
 - 4. *Assumptions Relevant to Other Concepts***
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CHAPTER VI

REVIEW OF THE SPECIFIC QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In the following sections the specific questions and hypotheses of the study are briefly stated and individually discussed along with the theoretical arguments surrounding their proposition. Some of the questions raised in this study are of an exploratory nature that do not necessarily anticipate specific answers. It is worthwhile to note that the arguments upon which the questions and hypotheses are based are presented briefly here. Full considerations are given in their respective chapters.

6.1 Questions Pertaining to Sample Characteristics

The sample characteristics and differences amongst the subjects are investigated in three areas of interest; these areas relate to personal, social and career variables. The following questions detail the specific variables pursued.

Due to the absence of accurate personal information regarding members of the different sectors in Saudi Arabia it is intended from the following question to portray a profile for each sector in respect of the sort of employees it retains. As a result of a free labour market that covers almost the entire world it is expected that sectors attract different nationalities depending on the economic development and technology level of those countries:

1. How can each sector be described in terms of its managers' nationality, age, education and area of speciality?

The variables included in the question below were chosen because they were believed to have an effect on *n* Achievement. They will be discussed in the section relating to *n* Achievement more fully but are stated here:

2. How can the respondents be characterised in terms of their marital status, family size, father's education and geographical origins?

The characteristics in the following question are a continuation of those advanced in the first inquiry above:

3. How can managers of each sector be characterised in terms of their career related variables, i.e. experience with their present organisations, previous experience with other organisations, training, and incomes?

6.2 *Culture, Work Attitudes and Job Preference*

The following inquiries relate to the effect of culture on the formation of general work attitudes and, in turn, the preference for a specific type of organisation.

Instigation of the issue of general attitude to work is prompted by the argument that individuals belonging to cultures of unsound work ethic, to which traditional societies in general can be categorised, are motivated to work only to survive, or retain the minimum quality of life. That is to say, work is not an end in itself. If the material or financial gains are separated from end-product of work then these individuals would have no reason to continue to work. In this respect the following three hypotheses are proposed:

1. Since the Saudi society can, to a certain extent, be classified as a traditional society, it is conceivable that Saudis exhibit a less favourable commitment to work as compared to the non-Arab groups.
2. As the Saudis themselves come from different backgrounds, it is expected to observe some differences amongst them in terms of their views to work depending on their regions, demographic origins and parents' education. It is also expected that other nationalities will vary on the same variables.
3. It has been argued that government sector employment requires less work commitment than the private sector. Therefore, it is expected that the government sector attracts individuals with the least scores on the general work attitudes question.

Subjects are expected to value the specific jobs they seek according to how differently they perceive work. Individuals who display a positive attitude to work are deemed to be less concerned with relations at the workplace and work hours, and should be concerned with pay, fringe benefits and promotion which indicate preference for linking performance with compensation. On the contrary those who see work as of less central life interest would be expected to favour less work hours, working with pleasant workmates and having jobs with better social status. On the basis of this reasoning the following two hypotheses are put forward:

4. Based on the hypothesis proposed above (No. 3), government managers, unlike the other managers, prefer jobs that offer less work hours, pleasant workmates, more job security and better social status, and they are less concerned with financial gains.
5. The factors mostly considered by government managers when making an actual employment decision are non-work-related factors.

6.3 Assumptions Relevant to n Achievement

Taken as the main thrust of the study the concept of *n* Achievement accounts for most of the assumptions presented herein. Some of the assumptions presented so far may be

found to apply in one way or another to this concept, especially those concerned with cultural factors and work orientations. In this section a number of hypotheses which may enhance our understanding of this concept are proposed.

One major concern in this study is to highlight the relationship between organisation type and ownership on the one hand and the level of *n* Achievement of its managers on the other. This relationship has been of concern to many studies but outcomes are far from conclusive. Nevertheless a general tentative conclusion can be drawn which states that in general managers of private organisations are more achievement oriented, which means in the interpretation of this concept more enterprising. A main study conducted by McClelland (1961) comparing managers from Turkey, Italy, USA and Poland showed that in Turkey and Italy bureaucrats in government organisations have lower *n* Achievement than executives in private organisations, whereas in the US and Poland no significant differences were observed.

The intention here is to examine whether the case in Saudi Arabia follows that of Turkey and Italy or is different altogether. The present economic developmental stage in Saudi Arabia witnesses indecisiveness as to the size of the role given to the different sectors. It is therefore of interest to identify the sector that contains managers who set high standard but attainable goals, assume personal responsibility for solving problems, and display initiative and exploratory behaviour by continually researching their environment for the most efficient ways of conducting things. The managers with such traits are those who are high in *n* Achievement and who are expected to be more efficient managers (for more details on the description of high achievers refer to Chapter four). The literature indicates that such managers are better equipped to deliver

economic development (cf. McClelland & Winter, 1969). Based on the theoretical and empirical research in this respect the following hypotheses are advanced:

6. Managers who are more achievement oriented are more likely to work in private or semi-private organisations rather than in government organisations.
7. Managers who prefer to work for government organisations (the government sector), regardless of where they currently work, are expected to be less achievement oriented than those who favour the other sectors.

Literature about the *n* Achievement concept has indicated that this need is developed to a great extent in early childhood through the child rearing process in which parents or minders play a vital role in forming this need. Parents of high *n* Achievement children are described in the relevant literature as less authoritarian, stress more self reliance, set goals and encourage higher standards of performance in children than parents of low achievers (Rosen & D'Andrade, 1959; Winterbottom, 1958) (for detailed review see Chapter eight). In this study only fathers are investigated for reasons outlined in Chapter seven. Therefore:

8. It is expected that fathers of high *n* Achievement children are more educated than fathers of low *n* Achievement children. In other words, a positive relationship between *n* Achievement and father's education is expected. That is the higher the father's education the higher the achievement score.

A notion that is closely related to father's education but can be more attributed to culture advancement is the family size. Less advanced cultures and less educated parents are typically associated with large families. Studies of family size have reported inverse relationships with average intelligence of family members and scholastic attainment (Hanushek, 1992; Hauser & Sewell, 1985; and Zajonc, 1976). Parents with a large number of children may not allocate enough time and efforts to their children's

upbringing. This, along with findings reported by Rosen (1961) concerning family size and *n* Achievement, lead us to hypothesise that:

9. Children of smaller size families are expected to be more achievement oriented than those brought up in large families. That is, there is an inverse relationship between their achievement scores and family size. (Family size refers to the family in which they were brought up).

A more defined cultural factor into which subjects can be classified is nationality. National cultures represent a set of values, beliefs and systems along which people may differ. Nationality represents the narrow meaning of culture, people belonging to one nationality may be defined as having characteristics more similar to each other than to other nationalities. Research suggests that traditional cultures have unfavourable work attitudes, and since the Saudi and may be other Arab cultures can still be defined, to a certain degree, as traditional cultures, then it is hypothesised that:

10. In general Saudi and Arab subjects are expected to be less achievement oriented than the other subjects.

Religion is one of the most important cultural factors which greatly influences people's behaviour. In literature religion was claimed to be associated with the development of specific work ethics. To examine this in this study, it is hypothesised that:

11. As a major cultural determinant, religion has a bearing on the formation of *n* Achievement.

The regions of Saudi Arabia differ in their regional cultures. In particular the Western region has been more developed as a result of maintaining strong cultural and commercial links with other cultures. For example, it has enjoyed for a long time, even before the establishment of the modern Saudi Arabia, a more formal education system.

Consequently, education was both practised and valued by the people of this region.

Therefore:

12. Amongst the subjects reared in Saudi Arabia, those who were brought up in the Western region are expected to have higher achievement scores than individuals brought up in the other regions of the country.

In addition to these variables, some personal and organisational variables are examined against the *n* Achievement for exploratory purposes with no particular presumptions for their findings. The demographic variables include marital status, number of children, age, education and geographical origins. The organisational variables include experience with current company, previous experience with other organisations, monthly income, training and education abroad.

As with subjects' general attitude to work, the importance of work rewards is examined against their *n* Achievement. Similar results are expected to emerge from this investigation. If we take the achievement motive as a sign of positive attitudes to hard work, then high achievers can be identified through the work rewards they are most concerned about. As reported in the literature high achievers are more concerned with financial gain as it is considered a measure of their performance and success, and the freedom to choose the method by which they can achieve their goals. Low achievers would also be identified through other work rewards they consider important. Based on this, it could be hypothesised that:

13. High achievers are expected to positively value autonomy at work, high incomes, fringe benefits and promotion. On the other hand, low achievers are expected to value aspects like pleasant work mates, job security, less work hours and job status.
14. High achievers are expected to hold challenging and enriching jobs which give concrete feedback,.

6.4 Assumptions Relevant to Other Concepts

In this section two other concepts relevant to *n* Achievement are investigated. The first is *n* Affiliation which forms one part of McClelland's trichotomy of needs theory. The affiliative motive or *n* Affiliation is not the opposite to *n* Achievement, however it is the need to be liked and be amongst other people in work and in other aspects of life. In work situations a strong *n* Affiliation is considered a negative sign for efficient productivity. This motive is included in this study to cross validate results of *n* Achievement and to locate the difference between traditional and advanced cultures. The other concept is locus of control. This construct has some common grounds with *n* Achievement and therefore they slightly overlap. In this study locus of control is introduced in order to see if high achievers are internally controlled, and if religion mediates this relationship.

In respect of *n* Affiliation the following findings are expected:

15. In considering the question of culture, traditional culture -which includes Saudis and Arabs- should be more affiliative than non-Arabs. Factors associated with traditional culture, such as family size and number of children, are positively correlated with *n* Affiliation.
16. Individuals with high *n* Affiliation are expected to prefer organisations and jobs that provide them with more social interaction.
17. As they are people-orientated, individuals with high *n* Affiliation are assumed to socialise more outside the workplace, and therefore expected to favour jobs with less work hours.

The concept of locus of control has been suggested in the literature to be developed at childhood through parental child rearing, and it has been shown to be influenced by some cultural factors. It has also been reported to have a relationship with *n* Achievement. High achievers are thought to be internally controlled (Bar-Tal &

Bar-Zohar, 1977). Since the effect of culture on LOC is evident in literature, and since there is a relationship between LOC and *n* Achievement, then the same factors responsible for the development of internal LOC should account for the development of *n* Achievement. For this reason the following hypotheses are proposed:

18. Since locus of control is developed to a large extent in early childhood and is influenced by parental upbringing, then it should have a relationship with father's education.
19. The effect of culture on locus of control is evident in literature, therefore locus of control is expected to be different according to nationality and religion.
20. Because individual with external LOC accept whatever situation they are in and make little effort to improve their situation, hence it is more likely to find these subjects working in government organisations.
21. Because externals make little effort to change their situation, they are expected to be less satisfied with their jobs than internals.
22. Internals are expected to quit their jobs if they are not satisfied. Therefore, those who have previous experience with other organisations are more likely to be internals.
23. Since there are a lot of similarities between high achievers and internals, then there should be a positive relationship between high *n* Achievement and internal locus of control.

Along with investigating these questions and hypotheses, an attempt will be made to predict high and low achievers using their personal, social and organisational characteristics. Following this, membership to any of the four sectors of the research study will be predicted using all relevant variables taken from respondents' answers.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1. *Designing the Study Research*
 2. *Designs of Research*
 3. *The Design Applicable to This Study*
 4. *In the Field*
 5. *The Sample: Sectors, Organisations and Managers*
 6. *Measurement Methods*
 7. *The Instruments Used in this Study*
 8. *Preparation of the Questionnaire*
 9. *Difficulties of the Study*
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CHAPTER VII

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter spells out the procedures for gathering the evidence upon which the objectives of the study can be actualised. It first starts with a presentation of some unique particulars of this study. This is followed by a general account of research designs available to social scientists together with a discussion of their obvious advantages and disadvantages. This presentation is meant to be a prelude for the design chosen to be used in this study. A description of, as well as an argument, for the selection of sectors, organisations and individuals within these organisations is given in detail. The following section is concerned with measurement methods in social research in general along with strengths and weaknesses of each type. This last section closes with a presentation of the rationales underlying the selection of the measurement method adopted for this study. The chapter ends with a comprehensive explanation of the instrument of the study, its sources and preparation for the main study. The chapter closes with a brief presentation of the major difficulties of the study.

7.1 Designing the Study Research

Research design constitutes a significant part in research undertaking which should eventually lead to fulfil both purposes of providing answers to research questions and controlling different variances. Of course, all research studies aim to answer specific

questions or settle some queries, but the most successful ones are those that particularly seek to technically control variances. That is, to maximise experimental variances (be they manipulated variables or attribute variables), control extraneous variables, and minimise error variances (Kerlinger, 1986).

To facilitate our understanding of research design, it would be imperative that we indicate what we precisely mean by this term. Kerlinger simply defines research design as *“the plan and structure of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions”* (1986: 279). Zikmund, likewise, defines it as *“a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the needed information, and is a framework of the research plan of action”* (1984:40).

It is needless to assert the common knowledge that much of a study success depends substantially on the design on which the collection of necessary data is based. Unfortunately, it is a fact that, not uncommonly, psychologists and social scientists make faulty designs. We are often reminded of some famous design mistakes that have consequently led to inappropriate results, be they experimental, as in introductions of new methods or products, or attitudinal surveys, as in electoral voting. Besides getting improper results, inadequate or poor designs can dissipate valuable efforts, money, materials and time. Therefore, conducting a research needs foresight, purposeful decision, and careful consideration of important details of procedure and design before engaging in the actual data-gathering.

7.1.1 Preliminary Considerations

Prior to deciding on research design, some important elements need to be considered and borne in mind if an appropriate design is to be eventually accomplished.

First, an emphasis should be put on the fact that the purpose of this study is both exploratory and analytical at the same time. The review of the relevant literature at the beginning of this study reveals that very little official or otherwise information has been found about managers in the Saudi economy - e.g. their numbers, nationalities and other personal characteristics - and particularly those in the private sector. Thus, an account describing managers in different sectors and organisations will be given. This will be followed by the major analysis of the study in which managers' attitudes and orientations towards work, on the one hand, and their personal characteristics and demographic variables, on the other, will be pointed out.

Secondly, the study aims to be a comparative one in which subjects of each sector will be compared and contrasted to each other and other relationships are established. Results of the study are meant to be generalised to include sectors in all parts of Saudi Arabia. To make comparison and generalisation possible a considerable number of subjects and a uniformity of data are essential. Uniformity of data can be accomplished through quantitative measures where statistical analysis can be used to infer most accurate results, and where small variations can be detected.

Thirdly, whatever design is to be chosen, it must give consideration to the limited time, money, materials, and efforts available to a single researcher.

7.2 *Designs of Research*

A suitable design for a given research, as is clear from some definitions above, pertains to the most efficient and applicable way by which the required data are gathered, and the most accurate analysis and interpretations are produced. In accordance with this, one expects that specific designs are suitable for specific researches, that is, depending

on particularities and purposes of the given research. Simon (1969) strongly emphasises that *“The design of a piece of research must depend upon the particular purpose that the research is intended to serve, a message I shall repeat again and again”* (p.8).

A brief account of each of the research designs usually available to social scientists will be given below. In this account, the main advantages, disadvantages and the situations where each of these research designs is most suitable will be indicated. The major types of research design are :

7.2.1 Experimental Design

Experimental design is the design in which the experimenter can intentionally manipulate independent variable or variables in order to assess their effect on dependent variable(s) in a controlled environment where other variables are held constant. Stone (1978) defines experimental designs as *“those which allow for the manipulation of a study’s independent variable and the subsequent assessment of the impact, if any, such manipulation has had on the study’s dependent variable”* (p.92).

Experiment designs are best suited for explanatory and descriptive studies in the natural sciences, but are used less often by social scientists due to the difficulties that arise in creating the same effective conditions as in the natural settings, or for moral reasons, especially if human or animal subjects are involved (Sanders and Pinhey, 1983).

The most prominent advantages of experimental designs, particularly laboratory experiments, are their ability to examine certain aspects of changes, and to isolate controlled variables and establish causal relationships. The high variable control means that they have high internal validity. They can also be useful in creating

conditions for experiments that are costly or difficult to administer in real world (Sanders and Pinhey, 1983).

The major drawbacks of experimental design are that it can create artificiality in the experimental environment. That is, it creates its own environment and may not reflect what can be observed in the large social world. As a result, lack of external validity develops and generalizability is difficult to attain (Stone, 1978). In longitudinal experiments there is always a possibility of intervening uncontrolled changes such as mortality, maturation, and testing effect, etc. .

Field experiment is another experimental design which can substitute for laboratory experiments. In it, the experimenter can manipulate variables in real settings. In some cases human subjects are manipulated without their consent or even knowledge of the experiment. This kind of experiment is usually faced with moral and ethical problems. Therefore, social scientists prefer to use 'natural' experiments where conditions have risen naturally or have been introduced by other institutions.

7.2.2 Case Study and Action Research Designs

In case study designs, the investigator thoroughly examines one or more units of analysis (e.g. person, group, or organisation) (Stone, 1978). This anthropological-like-approach, which was pioneered in the 1950's by organisation investigators, demands of the researchers to literally live and work in the organisations they study (Bedeian, 1984). Conducting a case study requires not only the consent of the person(s) whose history is being studied, but also their total co-operation and assistance (Zikmund, 1984). Only in case study can both quantitative and qualitative data be combined, can an investigator use a wide range of data-collecting methods which most of which are unstructured measures (e.g. records and reports, intensive interviews, long discussion,

and observations), and is the best use of data gathering methods, inferences and interpretations left to the imagination and abilities of the researcher (Simon, 1969).

The purpose of the case study is to reduce the scale of research, or increase the range of different units within one study. It is the method of choice when the subject matter is under-researched and a wealth of detail about a subject is needed. In other words, the case study is best suited for exploratory research.

Other advantages of the use of case study are that it can confirm other studies' findings, and test existing theories (Bryman, 1992). It also can compare a number of different approaches to a problem in sufficient detail and cover a large amount of ground for an acceptable cost (Moore, 1983).

The chief drawback of case study which greatly hinders its use is that outcomes resulting from case study can not be generalised since the social and interacting variables are unique to that specific case. This is the reason why *"...many practitioners adopt an almost apologetic stance when presenting evidence and feel it incumbent upon them to justify their reliance on a single study"* (Bryman, 1992: 172). This particular problem has led researchers in the 1960's to shift to surveys and experiments in an attempt to infer results that are applicable to many organisations. In fact, not only generalisation is problematic, but also internal validity is questionable. Hypotheses can not be tested using case study due to the lack of measurability since data are based on perception and subjective interpretations. Causality is also impossible to infer in view of lack of control over confounding variables. The time required to conduct a case study which may extend over many years or even decades, and the inescapable effect of the researcher and research process, as evident in the 'Hawthorn effect', are other setbacks for the use of case study.

ACTION RESEARCH: action research refers to a design where the real project or research is carried out in the actual situation and outcomes are analysed and evaluated and then fed back into the process in a continuous manner. Bryman (1992) defines action research as “...an approach to applied social research in which the action researcher and a client collaborate in the development of a diagnosis of and solution for a problem, whereby the ensuing findings will contribute to the stock of knowledge in a particular empirical domain” (p. 178).

Action research is very similar to case study in that an understanding of a total system is essential, but it requires only one case. It is a process whereby collaboration of a researcher and client is required to develop a diagnosis of and a solution for a problem.

Moore (1983) lists the advantages of action research as including the fact that it is real, concrete and can be seen by everyone. It invites various people to participate in the research and may eventually lead to their support and acceptance. With a successful action research project the intervening stage required in other types of research is avoided and there can be a smooth transition from research to operation.

There is, however, a disadvantage in making the process known to everyone. When mistakes happen publicly, reputation of organisation risk being jeopardised. Bryman (1992) notes that there are some ethical and political problems when groups of employees are excluded from the research, and when proposals of researchers are refused to be implemented because of the management's disapproval of, or dislike for, the researcher's findings.

7.2.3 *Nonexperimental Design*

In contrast to experimental designs, researchers in nonexperimental designs investigate relationships and causalities in natural settings that already exist and over which they have virtually no direct control. Thus, manipulating independent variables is not possible. However, in nonexperimental design, which is exemplified by survey research, the examination of relationships between variables where data have been collected simultaneously is permitted, whereas experimental design entails the collection of data in relation to the independent and dependent variables at different stages. Kerlinger (1986) defines nonexperimental research as:

...systematic empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of independent variables because the their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulable. Inferences about relations among variables are made, without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables.

(p. 348)

The survey is the nonexperimental research design most widely used in social sciences. The primary function of surveys is to employ methods where by data are collected from a sample or samples of individuals or units (population) for the purpose of obtaining conclusions upon which knowledge will be based, or to discover the relative incidence, distribution, and interrelationships of sociological and psychological variables (Kerlinger, 1986).

In describing survey research, (Bryman, 1992) cautiously asserts that:

...survey research entails the collection of data (invariably in the field of organizational research by self-administered questionnaire or by structured or possibly semi-structured interview) on a number of units

and usually at a single juncture in time, with a view to collecting systematically a body of quantifiable data in respect of a number of variables which are then examined to discern patterns of association.

(p.104)

Questionnaires and interviews are the principal methods by which data are gathered in surveys. Yet, they are not the sole means, contrary to what many researcher have suggested. Observations and reliance on pre-existing statistics are also other methods of data collection (Bryman, 1992).

Survey research can be classified into two major designs; viz. descriptive design and analytic design. These are briefly described below:

a) Descriptive design: the purpose of descriptive survey is to obtain an accurate picture of the universe. This picture is given through a quantitative description of such aspects as population (Simon, 1969). In most cases it is impossible to give an account of all the targeted population. Therefore, a representative sample is required to substitute for measuring a whole population, and then inferences are made to project a general result for the population as a whole. In such cases, samples of all segments must be represented, otherwise conclusions will be distorted and misleading. Descriptive surveys aim to answer questions of 'how many', 'how much', or 'what proportion of'. In other words, it is a fact finding and describing procedure.

Although predictions, associations and relationships can be made on the basis of a descriptive survey, it is not possible to establish based on its data such phenomena as cause-and-effect relationships. Examples of descriptive survey include; census, public opinion, and commercial investigations (Oppenheim, 1992).

b) Analytic design: analytic design is the survey design that is most comparable to experimental design. It can explore associations between variables, explore specific hypotheses, and can determine, to a certain degree, cause-and-effect relationships. In contrast to laboratory experiment, the analytic survey design can research variables that are not amenable to manipulation. This kind of design aims to ask ‘why’, and ‘what goes with what’.

Data in surveys are usually collected simultaneously, which makes it difficult to control for all possibly effecting variables. Thus, relationships could be reciprocal, or affected by extraneous, indirect, or moderating variables. Controlling for these variables is handled by what is called ‘*a post hoc imposition of control*’. This is done by excluding or holding constant these variables, or by randomisation of subjects or treatments of the study (Bryman, 1992). A way of determining causal attribution in surveys is to collect data at two or more different junctures.

Many analytic researches are designed to overcome causality problems. These designs include cross-sectional design, longitudinal design, regression and multivariate analysis design, factorial design, and before-and-after design. With these designs, we are more confident to cautiously determine cause and effect, although results are not conclusive.

When using surveys it is possible to generalise results to a wider population, use different groups with minimum effect on researcher, and to, in statistical terms, compare results and test hypotheses (Stone, 1978). However, there are inherent setbacks that militate against the use of surveys. The main ones may include the inability to confidently interpret results appropriately, and seriously misleading results can be easily arrived at, unaware, as a result of faulty designs, and/or representation

biases. Furthermore, obtained data can give a superficial picture sacrificing the depth of information for its width.

7.3 *The Design Applicable to This Study*

The research designs displayed above, along with the merits and shortcomings associated with each, are designs that are generally available to investigators when undertaking a particular research in social sciences. It is possible that for a given research there is a design that best suits its purposes and particularities and only with that design can optimum results be obtained. However, there are also many other designs that can lead to almost the same results. Simon (1969) is strongly convinced that this is the case. He advises researchers in this regard to “...*not wait to start your research until you find out the proper approach, because there are always many ways to tackle a problem - some good, some bad, but probably several good ways*” (p.4). This suggests that although there might be a best design for a certain research, there are others that could be equally good. What seems to matter most in designing a research is, as we emphasised in several places, its goals and purposes. Sanders and Pinhey (1983) note that “... *there is no single research approach or methodology that is appropriate for every research question. One key rule we should remember is that the research question dictates the research method and not vice versa*” (p.36).

In the literature on work orientations reviewed in the previous chapters, it was indicated that the most influential studies used surveys as their main design (e.g. Aronson, 1958; Hermans, 1970; Weinstein, 1969; etc.). Experiments were used when theories were being developed (as in the ring-toss game), and when a measure was being tested (as with the development of the Graphic Expression Test). Depending on the instrument used and purpose of each study, a specific research design was devised.

When McClelland (1961) was studying national achievement, he used children's readings. When he wanted to measure economic achievement, he used existing statistics. But when correlations and relationships were to be established, the predominant design was the survey whether the instrument was projective, objective, or projective with objective scoring.

Since the goal of this study is to investigate the relationship between managers' work orientations and attitudes on the one hand, and the type of sector and organisation function on the other, its design would have to control for all possible affecting factors and leave the variables in question to vary. The manipulation of this independent variable is accomplished through the selection of establishments in different sectors. To minimise the influence of extraneous variables (e.g. job role, level of responsibilities, etc.), two levels of management are included in the study. Nevertheless, the managers' choice of sector type, as typical of attitudinal studies, is to be regarded as the functions of their already-formed work orientations.

For this reason and for the considerations presented at the opening of this chapter, namely, the exploration of different sectors in the Saudi economy, the comparisons which would be made between these sectors, generalizability of study results, and the limited time and resources available to the researcher, the experimental design and case study, given these limitations, would not satisfy all these requirements. Therefore, the design thought best suitable for this study is the cross-sectional survey. Obtaining statistically-based results which would open the possibility to compare the finding of this study with the conclusions of other studies using the same instruments is yet another argument for utilising the cross-sectional survey.

7.4 *In the Field*

The best way to ensure the adequacy and efficiency of the data collecting process is for the researcher to attend at the locale where the study takes place. In fact this is especially required when; a) accurate lists of, and information about organisations are not readily available; b) numbers, nationalities and other demographic characteristics of employees are difficult to obtain; c) mail services are not most efficient, and accurate addresses are not confirmed or available; and most importantly, d) when respondents are not as enthusiastic as the researcher would be for filling out the questionnaire (or whatever method) and sending it back. For these reasons and others, it is essential that the researcher collects the required data in person.

In addition, there are some important procedures that must be undertaken preceding the actual data collection which demand the personal presence of the researcher. These are:

- To conduct the critical pilot study upon which the final clarified questionnaire will be based.
- To finalise the sampling design based on actual contacts with establishments needed to be studied, and to establish a factual picture about elements of these organisations including size, number of employees, function etc., and
- To ensure agreements about participation and co-operation in the study through personal contacts with top management supplemented by the support of the educational body which granted this scholarship.

7.5 *The Sample: Sectors, Organisations and Managers*

In statistical theory, it is acknowledged that a sample can substitute for the targeted population. The sample is simply defined as a “subset of the population” (Rossi *et al.*, 1983). Sampling, however, is the process of taking a sample from the population for the purpose of making conclusions regarding the population at large (Zikmund, 1984). Kerlinger (1986) defines sampling as “...taking any portion of a population or universe

as representative of that population or universe” (p.110). When considering sampling, three issues are to be addressed, namely, defining population, sample size and sample representation.

As this study is concerned about managers in the three different sectors of the Saudi economy, then the population from which our samples will be drawn is the entire middle and lower-level managers in the public sector (government sector, most of which are non-profit establishments), semi-public sector (establishments of both private and public ownership), and the private sector (establishments of private ownership). The decision to use managers, as opposed to blue collar workers, as the subjects of this study is based on the following rationales:

- i) Blue-collar workers as opposed to white-collar workers are evident in the private and semi-public sectors. However, in government organisations or offices, most of the work is of a clerical type and typical manual blue-collar jobs are scarce. This would seriously affect the comparisons made of the results.
- ii) Blue-collar workers in the private sector are of foreign origins. Saudis are limited in numbers in this stratum, and one of the purposes of this study is to include Saudis whenever possible.
- iii) As regards low-skilled labour, who are characterised as badly educated or illiterate, it is always difficult to gather questionnaires. Added to this is the fact that, as the case in Saudi Arabia, they come from all corners of the globe, and, as a result, speak different languages which would make it even more difficult to communicate.
- iv) More importantly, it was realised that in the literature most studies dealt with entrepreneurial occupations of which managerial occupations constitute a part.

v) It was felt that managers would provide the best grounds for comparisons since they perform similar tasks regardless of where they work. To control for job role it was considered favourable to use different levels of management. Based on this, the decision was made to include both middle and lower-level managers.

To define our two-strata population, it is preferable to give a basic definition for each stratum of managers that can be applied when drawing our samples from each sector. Middle-level managers are defined as those '*functional managers or department heads*', whereas lower-level managers are those '*section managers, supervisors, or foremen*'.

To ensure the availability of managers of both categories it was thought essential to include organisations of 400 or more employees in the industrial sector, and of 300 or more employees in the civil or service organisations.

The sampling process was carried out in two stages for every sector in each of the selected provinces. The first one was the selection of establishments, and the second was the selection of individuals within these establishments.

It is essential to point out that the country of Saudi Arabia is divided into five main provinces, namely, a) the central province which includes the capital city of Riyadh, b) the western province which includes the main cities of Jeddah, Mecca and Medinah, c) the eastern province which includes Dammam, Khobar and Dahrhan, d) the northern province which includes Hail and Tabuk, and e) the southern province which includes Abha.

Table 7.1
Distribution of Plants by Economic Activity and Region for the Year 1987.*

<i>Economic Activity</i>	<i>Regions</i>					Total
	Cent.	West.	East.	South.	North.	
Food & Beverages	98	132	63	20	16	329
Textiles	16	22	3	1	0	42
Leather Products	4	3	3	0	0	10
Wood	34	17	13	1	2	67
Paper & Printing	50	44	23	5	3	125
Chemical	81	133	95	7	6	302
Ceramic & Glass	4	1	1	0	0	6
Construction materials	215	118	122	57	20	532
Metal	247	167	140	15	12	581
Other industries	28	25	11	2	1	67
TOTAL	777	642	474	108	60	2061

Source: Ministry of Industry and Electricity (1987:19), *Industrial Statistical Report*, Saudi Arabia.

* The industries of Sabic and Petromin are included in this table.

It is understood that for a sample to be more representative proportion samples are to be taken from each province of the country. In this study, however, only three provinces were chosen for obvious reasons. The provinces included in the study are the central, western and eastern provinces. The rationale behind this selection is that the provinces selected contain within them the most important and largest cities in the country where establishments pertaining to different sectors are located. The government offices are found in all cities and even in villages, but private and semi-public organisations are mainly found in large cities. Table 7.1 indicates the differences

between the different regions in the manufacturing sector. The southern and northern regions are marked with strikingly low manufacturing organisations as compared with the other regions. Since we are dealing with a comparative study, the different establishments have to be taken from the same areas if extraneous variables are to be controlled. We assume that when a wide range of choices is available to the individual the prime determining factor for making the choice is the individual's work orientation. If the choices are limited or the individual is driven to make a decision for a particular reason, then it would not be adequate to attribute the decision to his work orientations.

For this reason and for the extra efforts, money and time needed if the other less important regions are to be included in the sampling process, the choice of these three main regions is reasonably justified.

By looking to the tables of the manufacturing industries, particularly the large ones, it was noticed that the development of plants in each region is concentrated in one or two major cities. For example, in the central region, the overwhelming majority were located in the industrial estates of the city of Riyadh. Similarly, in the western region the large industries are located in the city of Jeddah and in the industrial city of Yanbu (which is the western part of the two industrial cities of the Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu). In the eastern region, the big industries are concentrated in the Dammam industrial estate and in the Jubail industrial city (see chapter five for the two industrial cities of Jubail and Yanbu). Accordingly, the decision was made to limit our sample organisations to the industrial estates and cities specified above.

7.5.1 Government Departments and Offices

The establishments in this category are any ministry, office or authority that complies or affiliates with the General Civil Service Bureau (GCSB), which is the body responsible for planning, recruiting, organising and supervising all civil employments and retirements. Civil employees belonging to the GCSC are treated similarly under the same regulations and laws. The same general pay scale applies to all professions (except for judicial, formal and higher educational professions).

For convenience, limited organisations and as many managers as possible from each organisation are to be chosen. The reason behind this procedure is that for each organisation approached a series of meetings and correspondence with the relevant authorities are required if a permission for data gathering is to be granted. In particular, in government organisations permission are granted from high level authorities.

In Riyadh, there was no shortage of large government organisations since ministries are located in this city. Military ministries and ministries of especial nature of work such as foreign, health and education ministries were eliminated. Managers in such ministries can be of a particular quality, namely, officers, diplomats, medical doctors or educationalists. From the remaining ministries three were chosen according to convenience. In the western region (Jeddah), and the eastern region (Dammam and Khobar) the government section in the telephone directories were consulted to decide the three seemingly largest government organisations on the basis of the number of their departments since the size plays a major role.

7.5.2 Semi-private and General Organisations

Amongst the industrial organisations that can be regarded as semi-private, and which are owned by both the government and the private investors, is the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) and its 18 companies. The parent corporation was founded as a government company by a royal decree in 1976. Its 15 joint-venture companies manufacture petrochemical, plastics, fertiliser and steel products.

General organisations or enterprises can be included in this category. They are companies that are owned by the government, but, unlike many government organisations, they enjoy a great deal of independence for the sake of efficiency and have their own rules and regulations in regard to personnel, financial and administrative matters. Examples of these organisations are the General Organisation for Social Insurance, the General Organisation for Electricity, the General Petroleum and Mineral Organisation, the Saudi Arabian Airlines Corporation, the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training, and many more. These organisations are referred to by the General Organisation for Social Insurance (1986) as Semi-State Bodies which implicates their structural and functional type regardless of their ownership. In this study one of these enterprises is included in the semi-state sector in addition to SABIC, namely, the General Petroleum and Mineral Organisation (PETROMIN), which is concerned with oil refining, marketing and shipping, utilising natural gases, and exploring minerals. Petromin runs a total of 18 different projects and employs around 15,000 employees.

In this sector one company from Dammam, one company from Jeddah and the Headquarters in Riyadh are taken from SABIC. From PETROMIN one company is taken from each of the three cities.

7.5.3 The Private Sector

Within the private sector, two economic sectors were designed to be given equal weight in the study. These two subsectors are the manufacturing and financial subsectors.

It is well accepted that the essence of economic advancement in any country lies in its manufacturing industry. In terms of it a particular country can be classified as either developed or underdeveloped, and the spread of it suggests the emergence of an industrial culture in that country (Kerr *et al.*, 1973). For this reason the Saudi government invests heavily in this sector and unlimitedly encourages its development. The reason the financial sector is included in this study is that, in addition to being no less important than the industrial sector, it has clerical work which resembles work in government offices, and, unlike work in a manufacturing firm, it is not based in industrial surroundings. But, unlike government offices, working in financial companies demands more rigorous work, longer hours and less holidays.

The financial sector is represented in this study by two major Saudi Banks. The sample units were taken from their headquarters in Riyadh and their regional administrations in Jeddah and Dammam.

The manufacturing sector is represented by an average of six factories in each city. Although factories chosen were those big companies employing more than 400 employees, it is a fact of manufacturing firms that their managerial structure is much narrower than financial and service organisations. To substitute for the number of managers needed and to keep the sample number balanced with other groups of the sample, it was decided to increase the number of manufacturing firms in our sampling process. The firms were drawn from the Saudi Producing Factory Guide (Ministry of

Industry and Electricity, 1989) after classifying them according to their employment size into different categories. The type of output each company produces was thought unimportant since the purpose of this study is to explore managerial work orientations in manufacturing environment in which managers perform fairly similar tasks. The number of factories of 400 employees and over are as follows: Riyadh, 12; Jeddah, 12; and Dammam 10. Six factories from each of Riyadh and Jeddah and five from Dammam (a total of 17) were randomly drawn to represent their sector.

The selection of elements (individuals) in the sampling process was based on the non-probability convenience sampling where the researcher had no control over the availability of units at the time of conducting the study, or when the organisations management limits the involvement of all the managers. For reasons of this sort the convenience sampling is probably the most frequently used sampling strategy in organisational behaviour research (Stone, 1978). In most cases in this study, however, all managers available were approached and asked to take part in the study.

7.5.4 *The Sample Size*

The sampling literature does not fully address the question of how big a sample should be. However, there are some determinants of sample sizes. If, for example, the population is homogeneous a small sample would suffice, but when a population is heterogeneous a larger number would be required to represent all strata of the population and to yield weights for the various strata if it is not broken down to small homogeneous subsamples. Another determining factor of sample size is the number and size of the subsamples into which the sample is broken down (e.g. household sampling, block sampling or district sampling). If sampling units are large, then a greater number of cases is needed for individual tabulation (Parten, 1950). It should be

noted that, the size of the population has no direct effect on the size of the sample, and therefore does not enter into the calculation of the size sample (Churchill, 1987).

Beside the number of sub-groups of the sample concerned, the factor upon which sample determination in most cases is based is the degree of precision. Degree of precision refers to the sampling error which, in turn, refers to the range within which the population parameter is expected to fall. Expectedly, the larger the sample the smaller the sampling error. Theoretically, the degree of precision is preliminarily obtainable and statistical tables are available for degrees of precision for samples of different sizes. The size of a sample, it should be noted, is not important in itself, but it is one factor of ensuring the achievement of desired degree of precision (or the reliability of the estimate). By ensuring this precision we can be confident to a certain degree that results acquired from the sample can represent their universe. A more important factor in determining precision is the *accuracy* of the sample representation. A properly drawn sample of a small number of cases can give more reliable estimates on a population of many millions than a poorly drawn huge sample of hundreds of thousands (Oppenheim, 1992). Nevertheless, samples should sustain a minimum number of units. Some surveyors suggest that the base number for each cell of the sample should not be less than 25 or 30 units (Parten, 1950).

Other factors determining sample size are the theoretical requirements (such as cluster size, and required accuracy of population estimates), precision of sampling operation, the nature of the dependent variable, e.g., interval or nominal scale, and ultimately constraints of time, costs and personnel available for the study (Churchill, 1987; and Oppenheim, 1992). With consideration of these determining factors, a rule of thumb in sampling is to draw as large a sample as time and cost allow, because reliability or precision of the sample statistics increase in proportion to the sample size.

Kerlinger strongly recommends students of research to “*Use as large samples as possible*” (1986:117). In the same regard, Stone explains that “*As the size of the sample increases the degree of which a sample-based statistic approximates its associated population parameter increases*” (1978:84).

Concerning the present study cost was a major determining factor for the sample size. As has been pointed out earlier, approaching the sample units and distributing and collecting the questionnaires had to be made on person to person basis. Taking into account that different cities have to be visited and time has to be spent in them in order to collect the needed data, this eventually means that time and cost increase as the sample size increases.

For the purpose of convenience and accuracy sample sizes were predetermined to be relatively equal for all subgroups including the two subsectors of the private sector. “*If one [wants] the same level of reliability in each [subgroup]*”, Sudman writes, “*then identical sample size should [be] taken*” (1983:149). Sample size based on population size was ruled out for two reasons. First, although the total number of employees in the different sectors can be acquired, the number of managers and their demographic data cannot be obtained. Secondly, and more importantly, samples taken on the basis of the percentage of population have no statistical advantage. In fact this process may distort their reliability. Sudman confirms that: “*... sampling variability depends not on the percentage of the population, but almost entirely on the sample size alone*” (1983:149). The sample size targeted for this study was a minimum of 400 managers of both levels (i.e. middle and lower levels), allowing each subsector to consist of at least 100 persons from the three regions. To ensure the achievement of this number, 600 questionnaires were distributed.

The returned usable questionnaires were 466 making a return rate of around 78% which is reasonably high. The reasons behind this rate of return can be attributed to the personal contact with most individuals, assurances of anonymity, inaccessibility of management to responds’ questionnaires which gave opportunity to respondents to respond and express their feelings freely, and, above all, the assistance and endorsement provided from the organisations’ managements to the researcher for which he is grateful.

Table 7.2
Distribution of Achieved Sample by region and sector

<i>Sectors</i>	<i>Regions</i>			
	Central	Western	Eastern	Total
Financial	46	38	33	117
Manufacturing.	44	36	30	110
Semi-private	37	45	34	121
Government	42	38	38	118
TOTAL	169	157	140	466

Additionally, 36 (6% of the total number) forms had to be abandoned because either they were incomplete or inadequately filled. Although every effort was made to ensure response, it was unavoidable to encounter, as typical with such a research method, such non-responses.

The total sample can be broken down into the sectors as follows (see Table 7.2): the government sector, 118; semi-private sector, 121; the private sector, 227 of which 117 represent the financial sector, and 110 represent the manufacturing sector.

7.6 *Measurement Methods*

Once objectives and purposes of research are put forward and design of research is decided upon, it is then critical to decide how to go about collecting and analysing the data. Choosing the right method is as important as making the right research design. Further, research methods greatly depend on topic area, research objectives, and research design. In fact, much of the results and conclusions are contingent upon the method by which data are gathered. Research methods are simply defined as “*the tools of the trade*” (Moore, 1983:9). A working definition of research methodology reads as “*the strategy or architectural design by which the researcher maps out an approach to problem-finding or problem-solving*” (Buckley, *et al.*, 1976:14). One important feature of research methods is their abundance and diversity. Nevertheless, methodology in most scientific disciplines have some general properties in common. Below, a brief account of the most widely used methods is given.

7.6.1 *Observations*

The observational method can be regarded as the oldest form of research. Much of the knowledge accumulated throughout history is made possible by observations; it is a method that is used on a day-to-day basis by individuals upon which they make their inferences (Kerlinger, 1986). In modern sciences, it is a method that is suitable when the subject matter can be observed; this is especially true in history and natural sciences.

In social sciences, it is less efficient, particularly if attitudes or thoughts are to be researched.

Observation surveys should be chosen when it is difficult to obtain data about behaviour because subjects are either unwilling or unable to report them. In addition, a researcher can observe a behaviour only as it occurs, avoiding retrospective reports by subjects, and out of these observations, he or she can make inferences about what caused the behaviour (Stone, 1978).

What makes observation an unreliable and, therefore, an unsuitable means to use is the subjectivity of the observer since the latter usually forms a part of the measuring instrument. The observer's knowledge, experience, interest and attitudes are part of the measuring process. Therefore, many inferences made must be affected by these features (Kerlinger, 1986). For an observation to be objective it must be factual; this means that the same results can be reproduced with a different observer (Stone, 1978). Other problems are that it can be costly and 'very time-consuming' (Moore, 1983). Finally, it is possible to add that subjects can distort or act favourably when noticing, as is widely known in the famous Hawthorne Studies, that they are being observed.

7.6.2 *Questionnaire surveys*

Questionnaires are regarded by social scientists as the most widely and frequently used data collecting device as far as behavioural and organisational researches are concerned. They consist of sets of items of questions to which subjects are requested to answer. Answering could take the form of either responding to prepared choices or in the case of open-ended questions to give a subjective account to the questions. Questionnaires aim to assess attitudes, opinions, and/or demographic characteristics of

respondents (Stone, 1978). Normally questionnaires are used with studies applying quantitative techniques. Thus, statistical inferences can be made through the use of different type of scales (e.g. nominal, ratio, etc. ...) and different levels (e.g. true vs. false, 5-point scale, etc.).

Constructing questionnaires is a very crucial and profound process. Asking the right, clear and precise questions requires an experienced researcher. If questions are poorly constructed, useless or misleading results would be inevitable, particularly if questionnaires are self-administered and the researcher is not around to probe or clarify questions. As Sheatsley puts it, *"The most ingenious sample design, skilled interviewing, and sophisticated analytical techniques cannot redeem a survey that asked the wrong questions or asked them poorly. For this reason alone, it is clear that questionnaire design is a crucial element in survey research"* (1983:198). Administration of questionnaires can be done either by telephone, personal contact, mail or face-to-face interviewing.

The prominent features of the questionnaire that make it appealing to many researchers are that it is a relatively inexpensive mode of data collection; it can be mailed to respondents to be self-administered, and can reach a large number of subjects. It can also provide unique anonymity to individuals which may encourage them to openly and truthfully respond to its items, and prevent researchers from interfering with subjects responses or the effect that their presence may cause. Above all, questionnaires present unified stimuli to all subjects, a factor that makes comparing and contrasting via statistical analysis a plausible reality.

Factors that limit the use of questionnaires or make them difficult to administer are: the response rate which, especially in mailed questionnaires, probably

yields seriously biased results, or, worse, leads to a situation where it is impossible to make any use of collected data. A problem of no less importance is the missing data. Subjects may choose not to respond to some items because of sensitivity, carelessness or misunderstanding a situation in which the researcher will have no opportunity to correct, clarify or probe. Illiterate people have no chance in answering questionnaires, a reason that forces the researcher to look for an alternative method if subjects are not literate, have poor education or visually handicapped. Qualitative depth to the answers and inability of respondents to fully explain their attitudes, opinion and values are traded for the simplicity in answering questions and ability of questionnaires to reach wider respondents.

7.6.3 *Interview schedules*

Interviews are very similar to questionnaires, they differ from questionnaires in the fact that the interviewer makes a face-to-face interaction with the respondent and directs questions at the interviewee and records the obtained responses, whereas in questionnaires the respondent read for himself and record the elicited responses. Constructing an interview schedule requires very much the same process as constructing a questionnaire. Compared to the questionnaire, conducting an interview demands a great deal of skill and experience, especially if in-depth interviews are being administered where efforts are necessary to keep the interview close to the point and not deviate to irrelevant side issues. Oppenheim (1992) emphasises this point, arguing that, "Probably no other skill is as important to the survey research workers as the ability to conduct good interviews, ... The interview [...] requires interpersonal skills of a high order." He went on to conclude, "When taken seriously, interviewing is a task of daunting complexity" (p. 65).

Types of interviews depend on the degree of structure of interviews. These types involve a) Structured interviews or 'standardised interviews' which require a questionnaire-like schedule in which the interviewer reads questions to respondents, b) Semi-structured interviews, which also require a schedule but the interviewer is less committed to its items, and in which conversation is generated and committed to detail some specific items, and c) In-depth interviews or 'exploratory interviews', which are a free-style procedure in which a great experience is needed to get the needed information in an informal conversation.

In-depth interviews are best suitable "to develop items and research hypotheses rather than to gather facts and statistics" (Oppenheim, 1992:67). Interviews, as a technique of data gathering, are a best method to ensure a complete response as compared to questionnaires, for if a subject declines to participate replacement can be found until the targeted sample is complete. In addition, interviews can be applied with illiterates and can produce qualifying answers when the interviewer has a chance to 'probe' and 'promote' answers.

For many studies, and particularly the present one, interviews are not the ideal choice. The interview is generally costly and more importantly it is very time-consuming. If a big sample is to be interviewed, then a great deal of money, time, effort and several trained interviewers are required. Training interviewers is a long and costly process in itself. Moreover, data collected by interviews are usually difficult to interpret and their consistency if several interviewers are involved is difficult to ensure. The interviewer's effect is another problem that is difficult to isolate, his/her personal characteristics, or if he/she is tired or is not interested, may effect the attitudes of interviewee and, hence, results' validity may suffer.

In some studies, archives and archival records are the prime source of data. Archival records may include any collection of original documentary material, such as letters, lists, diaries, drawings, etc. (Calvert, 1991). Records may be either public or private. Political and judicial records, governmental documents, and the mass media are categorised as public records. Private records, however, may include organisational records of various types, autobiographies, and diaries (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1981).

Although conducting a research, where archival records are the sole methods of gathering data, is an inexpensive one, access to many archives is not always guaranteed. Added to this, when accessibility is granted, some papers are either lost, badly stored or at best uncatalogued.

7.7 The Instruments Used in this Study

The questionnaire survey is the research method adopted in this study for three reasons; firstly, self-administered questionnaires collect as much data as needed in the shortest time possible; secondly, they are an inexpensive form of data collection and they can be answered at the respondents' own pace; thirdly, and, most importantly, the instruments used in the original studies are in the form of questionnaires. Applying the same methods used in the original studies legitimises the comparisons between those studies and the present one.

The objective of the questionnaire developed for this study is to tap the theoretical concepts presented in previous chapters and to allow these concepts to be empirically tested. The questionnaire is designed to achieve the objectives of the study through the following points:

- I) For the study to be meaningful, it has to discriminate between the different patterns of individuals involved in the study. For this reason, a section is devoted to identifying the personal and demographic attributes of the individuals (e.g. age, marital status, family size, etc.) and their career-related information (e.g. salary, level of management, type of organisation in which they work, etc.).
- II) The choice of organisation type may function as an indicator of level of achievement motivation, but, alternatively, type of organisation choice might have been made for some other reasons. Therefore, it was thought necessary to ask respondents if they moved from one type of organisation to another, and to what type they would have moved if were given the chance and for what reasons.
- III) Qualifications and experience are thought by many to be very important factors that affect one's perception of work. These factors are exemplified by questions about level of education, number of training programmes and years of experience with the current and other organisation(s).
- IV) The socio-ethnic background of respondents is a far more important factor than any other personal characteristics, and may, then, impose a far greater impact on work perception. This variable includes, among other things, family size, nationality, religion, origin of childhood (i.e. urban vs. rural areas), and parents' education and occupation.
- V) The major variable of the study, namely the achievement motive, is measured using the multidimensional *n* Achievement questionnaire (the Multifactorial Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (MAMQ)) developed by Cassidy and Lynn (1989). The development process of the instrument was thorough. A pool of items was generated from several resources among which are unitary well-known scales which measure the different dimensions that make up the final construction of the achievement concept.

The sources of the items were: Work Orientation Scale (WOS), Jackson *et al.*'s (1976); Work and Family Orientation Scale (WOFO), Spence and Helmreich (1983); Work Involvement Scale (WIS), Warr, Cook and Wall (1979); and some additional items. The final questionnaire incorporates seven dimensions of seven items each, making 49 items in total, answered using a 5-point Likert-type rating scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Below a brief description of each dimension is given as described by Cassidy and Lynn (1989:302-3).

- 1) Work Ethic (WE). The concept has been adopted by psychologists from Weber's Protestant Work Ethic to describe motivation to achieve, which is based on finding reinforcement in the performance itself. It incorporates 'the desire to work hard', and is seen as a motivational attribute of the individual which influences attitudes, values and behaviour.
- 2) Pursuit of Excellence (Exc). This is the factor that McClelland *et al.*, (1953) defined as 'competition with a standard of excellence' and it can be described as motivation that finds reward in performing to the best of one's ability. The concept was used by Murray in the definition for *n* Achievement and as the basis for all intrinsic achievement motivation. Recent work sees it as one factor of motivation.
- 3) Status aspiration (SA). This is the motivation which is reinforced by climbing the social status hierarchy and includes the desire to be dominant, to be a leader. This concept stems from the sociological and theological notion of human social behaviour in terms of pecking orders in a social hierarchy. It is suggested that much of the motivation for human action is based on the individual's evaluation of him/herself in terms of other individuals of a more significant social standing.

- 4) Competitiveness (Com). This can be described as the enjoyment of competition with others with the ultimate goal of winning. As opposed to definition of Excellence, this refers to competition with others rather than one's own standards of excellence. It is often cited in common parlance as the 'American way of life'.
- 5) Acquisitiveness for money and material wealth (Acq). This is simply motivation based on the reinforcing properties of material reward.
- 6) Mastery (Mast). This is also a form of competitiveness, but not with individuals. Rather, it evokes the reinforcing properties of problem solving, of tackling difficult tasks and succeeding in the face of difficulties.
- 7) Dominance (Dom). This concept refers to the desire to lead or be in a position of dominance. It is a motive that is synonymous to what McClelland calls the 'power motive' which is the exertion of influence, impact, or control over another person, group, or the world at large.

v) The Work Ethic subscale in this questionnaire was substituted for another scale in this study for two reasons:

- 1) It was decided to use the well known scale of the Protestant Work Ethic developed by Mirels and Garrett (1971). This scale is the most widely used scale in the area of work ethic. Its validity and reliability is very well established. Mirels and Garrett (1971) reported a Kuder-Richardson coefficient of 0.79. In subsequent studies Lied and Pritchard (1976) reported an alpha coefficient of 0.70, and in another study 0.75 (Ganster, 1980). The scale was not observed to significantly associate with the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).

- 2) Comparing the two scales (i.e. WE. subscale in Cassidy and Lynn's questionnaire, and the Mirels and Garrett's PWE scale), it is concluded that the PWE contains items that are worded in a more acceptable fashion than the WE subscale in the (MAMQ) for the culture where it would be administered.

For the purpose of efficiency and convenience, six items instead of seven of the six subscales of the MAMQ are used in this study. For the same reasons, nine items instead of the 19 items which composed the original PWE scale are used. The criteria for choosing the adopted items are face validity, factor loading, internal correlation and their wording. For the reason of reducing the number of items of the scales used in this study comparisons with similar studies using the same scales should be made with caution.

The decision behind the choice of adapting the Multifactorial Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (MAMQ) (Cassidy and Lynn, 1989) was based on the following arguments:

- 1) The author accepts that the achievement motive is a multifaceted concept.
- 2) He also agrees with authors of the questionnaire on the number of dimensions of which it consists.
- 3) Notwithstanding the number of achievement measures that have been described in the literature, this measure is an objective, straightforward, and comprehensive tool.
- 4) Although the instrument is fairly recently developed, the scale shows a good internal reliability as measured by Cronbach's reliability coefficient alpha and split-half reliability. It also has a good internal consistency and face validity.
- 5) The present study will serve as a validity and reliability test for the scale and will provide a wider dimension for its implication with subjects of a different culture.

VII) To cross validate the results of this study, a five-item scale of *n* affiliation (Steers and Braunstein, 1976) is included in the instrument, and answered using a five-point scale ranging from "Strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The *n* Affiliation is

found (refer to Chapters 2, 3 and 4) to correlate negatively with scores of *n* Achievement. Managers who are achievement-oriented care less for making friends and working with others at the work place. Therefore, one of the aims of this study will be to investigate the relationship between these two variables and to examine if managers in Saudi culture have a different pattern than reported in literature.

VIII) Assessing the general attitude to work was tapped by using the traditional question of non-financial employment commitment or what is known as the “lottery question” (Morse and Weiss, 1955) (question 11, part 1, appendix A).

IX) work orientations were tapped by using two different formats. First, by indicating the importance respondents attribute to different work rewards (question 10). Secondly, by asking them to indicate their goals and priorities in work when selecting their present jobs (question 8). These techniques were borrowed from Blackburn and Mann (1979), Ingham (1970), and Prandy *et al.* (1982).

x) Feelings towards one’s own job can be taken as an indicator of work-orientations as a whole. If a job fulfils one’s needs then satisfaction is expected to be reported, even though it is not deemed to indicate work-orientation in general. These feelings about the immediate job are examined by using a short form of the Warr *et al.*’s (1979) job satisfaction questionnaire which is responded to by choosing one of the five choices ranging from “strongly satisfied” to “strongly dissatisfied”. Of the 16 items, 11 were used in this study touching on 10 different aspects of job and a further item assessing the overall satisfaction about the whole job.

The inclusion of this variable aims at making up for the under-research of this area in relation to achievement motivation.

XI) The sector preference was tapped by a straightforward single question asking respondents to indicate their preferred type of employment (question 9).

XII) Locus of Control has been considered to be an important determinant of work-orientation. This study seeks to investigate, among other things, if Locus of Control would add any weight in determining people's orientation to work in a culture that has been thought for long to be fatalistic.

The Rotter (1966) E-I Locus of Control scale is adopted in this study for this particular purpose. Of the 29 items of which 6 are fillers, 12 items were finally selected to assess this important variable. Each item consists of two statements of which a respondent must choose the one he most identifies with.

XIII) The type of work may bear considerably on work perception. To control for this variable a scale is designed to assess job characteristics. Seven characteristics were borrowed from the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman and Oldham, 1975) and another one thought to be related to achievement motivation requirement of a job (i.e. challenge of job) is added by the author. The other seven characteristics are: dealing with others, autonomy, skill variety, task significant, feedback from the job itself, task variety and making friends.

7.8 Preparation of the Questionnaire

During the process of developing the instrument a number of important points were borne in mind. They were assumed to contribute significantly to the preciseness and appeal of the instrument, which would, in turn, affect the understanding of, and response to the questions and statements provided. If the instrument is not understood or has major flaws, it would eventually lead to cast some doubts on the validity and the

usefulness of the study as a whole. The standards meant to be met here are: a) questions and statements should be short and precise; b) they should be clear and understandable to all subjects of the sample; c) a statement should not connote more than one question. That is any question should entail only one answer (no two questions in one); d) as much as possible statements should be responded to by ticking one of several possible choices. Rarely were open-ended questions or elaboration on answers required. This was to reduce time required to complete and to elicit more accurately statistically analysed answers; and, e) personal questions and questions related to private or secret information were avoided as much as possible.

It was the intention of the researcher to avoid any such questions that would discourage subjects from responding honestly or responding at all. Questions about age and salary were thought to be very personal and were presented in a form of categories, although having actual numbers is statistically more useful. It was also thought that if questionnaires started with personal questions, respondents may be daunted to respond to it. If, on the other hand, they were placed at the end, the questionnaire may elicit honest answers to the parts preceding the section(s) concerned with personal information. Respondents then may either continue responding honestly, or feel threatened by their preceding answers and, as a result, either abandon the whole matter, or, worse, untruthfully complete the questionnaire. For this reason, and as a compromise solution, the questionnaire started with a section about the job and organisation of the respondent followed by a section about his background. This process was very necessary since in this study a lot of personal information thought essential in determining work behaviour was needed (e.g. number of children, family size, religion, nationality, salary, parents' education and occupation, and so on).

It is also a fact that you can not both satisfy all aims of the study by including the full relevant scales and at the same time keep the questionnaire short enough to generate high response rates. Therefore, a compromise had to be made, and some of the statements with low factor loading and internal correlation were abandoned.

The result is a 9-page questionnaire accompanied with a cover letter which explains the purpose of the questionnaire and invites the targeted subjects to take part in the study by filling out the questionnaire which takes a maximum of 25 minutes to complete.

The questionnaire sources were developed in English-speaking countries, namely the United Kingdom and the United States of America. But while the mother tongue of the Saudi and Arab subjects targeted by this study is Arabic, the rest of the subjects are of different foreign origins and hence speak different languages. It is, however, the case that foreign managers are fluent in English.

In view of this fact, it was necessary to translate the instrument into Arabic for the Saudi and Arab managers along with the English version for the other nationalities. The process of translating an important psychological measure is an operation that is very critical and far from straightforward. In this study translating the instrument proved laborious and daunting, but it eventually yielded a very satisfactory output.

Amongst the methods of translating a questionnaire put forward by Brislin (1980), the back translation was taken to be most suitable for the present study. In his conventional back translation technique Brislin (1970) recommends the process to be as follows:

1) The original transcript to be translated into the target language, 2) Target transcript to be grammatically checked, 3) Target transcript then to be translated back into the original language, 4) A pre-test to be undertaken before actual application.

In the present study this technique was precisely followed. Three competent Arab postgraduate scholars from the English department studying English Literature, translation and linguistics were independently and at different periods of time contacted for this purpose. The first one specialised in translation between Arabic and English was given the assignment of translating the questionnaire from English into Arabic. The result was then given to another one for checking grammar, and very little changes were made as a result. The process of back translation into the original language was carried out by the third person. The outcome of the back translation was remarkably similar to the original one though some differences were spotted. Joint discussion and comparisons of versions resulted in slight changes made to some terms in the Arabic version. The problem of understanding the instrument did not really end up here. On the contrary it had just begun. The next stage was to give the two versions of the instrument to scholars specialised in similar fields. Five colleagues from the Glasgow Business school and Department of Statistics were approached and given the questionnaires for the purpose of evaluation and criticism. Recording the time needed to complete these preliminary questionnaires was also equally important.

The feedback given by these scholars was extremely valuable. The changes made can be summarised as follows: a) the size of the questionnaire needed to be reduced to allow for answering within a shorter time, b) some of the terms needed to be simplified, c) rearrangement of some statements and sections orders, and d) many of the instructions were simplified and clarified.

7.8.1 *The Pilot Study*

In spite of all this long process of preparing the instrument, a final typing of it was not carried out. Prior to conducting the actual field work 35 questionnaires of both versions (approximately 6% of the targeted sample) were prepared to be used as a pilot study. The researcher is strongly convinced that pre-testing is fundamentally important “to identify the major flaws in a study plan before starting the main study” (Runkel and McGrath, 1972:242), and proceed in correcting them before they damage the main study. The individuals chosen for the pilot study were managers satisfying the same requirements as the actual respondents of the main study. The only difference is that they were easily accessible to the researcher because most of them either were personally known to the researcher or their supervisors were. After the completion of the questionnaire by the assigned persons feedbacks were obtained by conversing with them and discussing confusion, misunderstanding and difficulties of some of the items or instructions. They were invited to give their own alternative solutions. The necessary changes were made and the final output of the Arabic version was given to a colleague from the Arabic department at King Saud University in Riyadh for a final grammar checking. It should be mentioned here that the questionnaires of the pilot study were included in the sample since they did not involve any major flaw or fault. The unclear points were corrected after the discussion and questionnaires were received complete.

7.9 *Difficulties of the Study*

During the conduct of the research and data collection the following drawbacks have been experienced:

1. The Achievement motivation construct in this research project is quite equivocal and overlapping with many other similar concepts. Most of these concepts have the same ingredients in explaining work behaviour. There seems to be a little agreement amongst researchers as to which concept acts as the surrogate of the others.
2. In respect of the subjects of this study, there was a lack of some statistical information pertaining to employees of the private sector in terms of their nationalities and other demographic characteristics and incomes. In general the information found about the private sector workers does not lend itself to make a viable conclusions about this kind of manpower. Furthermore, comparisons of these subjects with others in other sectors are not possible in the light of the available information.
3. Similar shortage of information was experienced for government employees. Although the monthly pay scale of civil service was obtainable, the average monthly income of any group was quite difficult to find. Many other personal and demographic information of these employees were also difficult to find.
4. Some government statistics about some economic and social aspects did not always hold constant. Therefore, careful calculation, scrutiny and deduction was necessary to make meaningful conclusions using statistics from various sources.
5. Regarding the questionnaire the highly literate translation of the original instruments made it difficult for some subjects to fully understand the concept and therefore the meaning of some items. Hence, some revision and simplification was needed for some of the items after the pilot study.

Nevertheless, some items had to be discarded due to lack of consistency with similar items.

6. During the field work many difficulties, typical of survey research, were encountered. These difficulties include maintaining constant personal contacts with subjects in order to get the required responses on time, and the lack of commitment and honesty on the part of some respondents. Nevertheless, with dedication and persistence fruitful results were eventually be achieved.

7.10 Overview

In this chapter a comprehensive discussion of the methods used to verify theoretical assumptions and hypotheses was provided. The discussion details the operationalisation process of gathering necessary data to achieve the study's objectives. Rationales for specific decisions and/or choices were given whenever it was deemed necessary. The chapter started with an account of some of the considerations that should be borne in mind when selecting the research design to this study. Alternative research designs were also considered highlighting their strengths and drawbacks.

We have pointed out that this study is both exploratory and analytical in nature. It aims to shed some light on managers work in different sectors in Saudi Arabia, and in the meantime establish relationships between their personal motivation and different characteristics. The cross-sectional survey design was thought to be the best suitable for this sort of study.

A sample of 466 managers was finally achieved after discarding incomplete and wrongly filled out questionnaires. These managers represent the three different sectors of the Saudi economy, namely, government sector, semi-private sector and

private sector. The latter two sectors are represented by two subsectors, viz. manufacturing sub-sector and service sub-sector. The organisations included in the survey covered a wide geographical area by virtue of their being based in the major cities of the three main provinces in Saudi Arabia.

The instrument used for data collection is composed of a number of sections taken from existing scales. The development of the scale required a lot of efforts to come up with a reasonable questionnaire that can be filled out in about 20-25 minutes. The measure passed different stages of pre-testing, and was finalised with an important pilot study which clarified all possible misunderstanding and confusion.

The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part contains the career-related and personal demographic information. Part two contains the major variables of the study; it is a 50-item scale composed of eight dimensions. The last part measures three work-related variables, namely, job satisfaction, locus of control, and job characteristics. A small space at the end of the questionnaire was designed to invite comments and suggestions which turned out to be useful.

PART FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS

CHAPTER EIGHT

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

- 1. Demographic Characteristics as Work Attitudinal Determinants***
- 2. Personal Related Characteristics***
- 3. Social Related Variables***
- 4. Career Related Variables***

CHAPTER VIII

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a characterisation of the sampled managers in the different sectors of the Saudi economy in terms of their personal, social and occupational backgrounds. The discussion is organised in two sections, namely the type of sector they belong to, and their nationalities.

With regard nationality, the subjects of the sample fall into four groups and sometimes five. The Saudi managers account for one major group and the other Arab managers form a second group. In view of their relatively large number, Egyptian managers constitute a separate group within the non-Saudi Arab group. The remaining non-Arab subjects of the sample are divided into two groups, developing and western countries, depending on the relative technological and industrial development of their countries of origin.

The demographic characteristics of the sampled subjects are divided into three categories. The personal related variables involve nationality, age and education. The social variables concern marital status, family size, parent's education and geographical (rural-urban) origins. The third category deals with the career related variables including length of service, training and monthly income.

8.1 *Demographic Characteristics as Work Attitudinal Determinants*

Within the area of research concerned with personnel management the origins and background of individuals have long been assumed to function as significant indicators not only of perception of, but also reaction to, one's work. Personality characteristics or traits are, indeed, not solely established or conditioned by demographic variables, although demographic variables contribute considerably to the development of the individual's personality, and, therefore, form an important work attitudinal frame of reference. It follows from this that differences in demographic characteristics between managers of different organisations can provide a reliable index to the personnel selection and assessment process made by the given organisations. The qualities and experiences required by the new employees, as well as the training and teaching programmes provided at the workplace reflect, among other things, the job requirements, work advancement, and competitiveness of the organisation. The unique personal characteristics an individual generally brings to the workplace, as well as several other variables at the workplace itself, can undoubtedly determine the attitudinal framework of that individual. Accordingly, personnel psychologists have sometimes identified such conditioning variables and extensively implemented cognitive, personality and work-related activity tests as tools or criteria on the basis of which different employees are assigned different jobs. Managers, in particular, have been generally, and quite controversially, distinguished from non-managers on the basis of their cognitive activities and personality profile (House and Baets, 1979; and Stogdill, 1974).

A selection of some demographic variables considered to be relevant to work perception and reaction are considered below. In particular, differences between

managers in different organisations which may indicate different organisation competitiveness will be highlighted.

8.2 Personal Related Characteristics

Amongst the personal-related characteristics of the sample the most important three are detailed in this descriptive account. These features include Nationality, Age, and Education and area of study.

8.2.1 Nationality

The subjects of the sample come from as many as 22 countries, representing all continents (see Table 8.1), with the overwhelming majority, not unexpectedly, being Saudis. Of a total of 466 subjects, 340 or 73.1% are Saudis. The other nationalities fall into 3 categories. Arab nationals form one category, subjects from developing countries

Table 8.1: The nationality distribution of the sample by the different sectors (number and percentage).

<i>Sector</i>		<i>Nationality</i>					Total
		Saudi Arabia	Egypt	ARAB Countries *	Developing Countries	Western Countries	
Government Sectors		117 100%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	117 25.2%
Semi-Private Sector		116 94.3%	0 0%	2 1.6%	3 2.4%	2 1.6%	123 26.5%
Private Sector	Financial	76 64.4%	18 15.3%	16 13.6%	7 5.9%	1 0.8%	118 25.4%
	Manufact.	31 29%	15 14%	32 29.9%	19 17.8%	10 9.3%	107 23%
Total		340 73.1%	33 7.1%	50 10.8%	29 6.2%	13 2.8%	465 100%

* Excluding Saudi Arabia and Egypt.

account for a second category, and a third category is formed by western subjects.

The Arab managers account for 88 subjects of the sample or 17.8% of the total, with 40% of them being Egyptians and the remaining others belonging to 7 other Arab countries, namely; Yemen, Palestine, Jordan, Syria, Sudan, Iraq, and Lebanon. Managers from developing countries number 29 or 8.2% of the total. Most of these subjects come from the Philippines, India and Pakistan. The remaining come from 6 other countries. Finally, a small number (13 or 2.8%) of managers come from western countries, namely Canada, Sweden, the UK and the USA.

Table 8.1 shows that (i) subjects of the government sector are totally Saudis (100%), that (ii) 94.3% of the semi-private sector managers are Saudis, with managers of different nationalities accounting for only 6%, that (iii) Saudi managers account for 64.4% of the total number of managers in the financial sector, with Egyptians and other Arabs accounting for 15.3% and 13.6%, respectively, and that (iv) only 29% of the manufacturing sector managers are Saudis. About 44% of the total number of managers in this sector are Arab nationals of which 14% are Egyptians. The table in question also reveals that 65.5% of the developing countries' managers and 77% of the western managers work in the manufacturing sector.

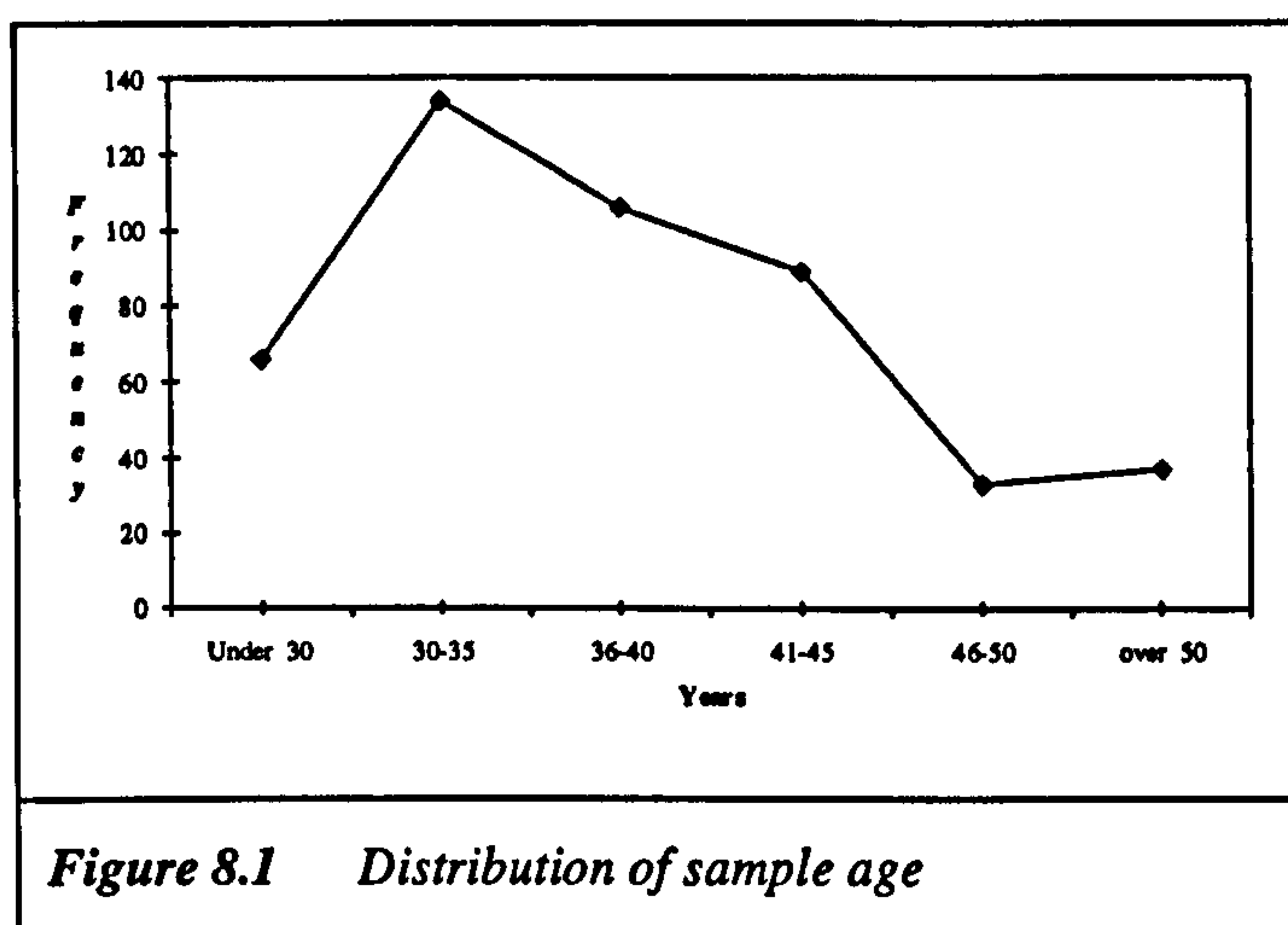
The distribution of managers across the different sectors provides a clear indication of the fact that the first priority of the government in personnel selection is the recruitment of the Saudis (what is called the Saudization). This is most evident in the government and the semi-private sectors where the government is the prime policy-maker. On the other hand, the private sector, and particularly the manufacturing sector, relies substantially on the industrial experience of the industrially advantaged countries.

8.2.2 AGE

Age of the managers is assumed to be one of the important work-related factors that can significantly affect work perception. In addition to its ability to considerably shape work perception, age is also taken to provide a clear referential index to the development of the different industries and of the country as a whole.

Age of managers may furnish an indication of the relative advancement of the country. Generally, the younger they are, the less developed is the country or the industry to which they belong. Older managers indicate availability and competence of managers,

and, relatedly, difficulties to climb the advancement ladder. It should be noted that the relationship is a nonlinear one, in the sense that the relationship starts to inverse at a terminal period (Carrell and Elbert, 1974).



Research concerned with work attitude and age has established that older people are generally more satisfied with their jobs than younger ones (Allen & Meyer, 1973; Campbell *et al.*, 1976; Glenn *et al.*, 1977; Herzberg *et al.*, 1959; Organ, 1877; Quinn *et al.* 1974; Rhodes, 1983; and Wright & Hamilton, 1978). Wright and Hamilton (1978) suggested three possible explanations for this particular phenomenon. The first explanation attributes the differences to the value differences between the different generations; the second explanation postulates that older people learn to be satisfied

with less as a result of their erosion by long years in the system; and the third explanation hypothesises that older people simply have better jobs.

A consideration of Table 8.2, which is concerned with the age distribution of the sample, reveals that the sample average age is relatively low, with over 65% below 40 years of age, and over 70% between the age of 30 and 45. The mean of this sample age is 37.45. The table also shows that across the different sectors, managers associated with the manufacturing sector are the oldest, with a mean of 41.2, whereas those associated with the government sector are the youngest, with a mean of 35.3 years. A plausible explanation of this difference might be sought in the fact that jobs in the manufacturing industries demand much more experience and more refined managerial skills. At any rate, most of these managers are foreigners who are older and more experienced.

A comparison of the semi-private and manufacturing sectors suggests a profound relationship mediated probably by a third factor. While these two sectors are

Table 8.2
Distribution of the sample age according to their relative sectors.

Age groups	Sector								Total	
	Govert.		Semi-prvt.		Financial		Manufact.			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Under 30 yrs	30	25.6	7	5.7	18	15.1	11	10.3	66	14.2
30 - 35 yrs	31	26.5	50	40.7	33	27.7	20	18.7	134	28.8
36 - 40 yrs	30	25.6	33	26.8	29	24.4	14	13.1	106	22.8
41 - 45 yrs	16	13.7	24	19.5	21	17.6	28	26.2	89	19.1
46 - 50 yrs	5	4.3	2	1.6	11	9.2	16	15.0	33	7.1
Over 50 yrs	5	4.3	7	5.7	7	5.9	18	16.8	37	8
Average age (years)	35.19		36.89		37.25		40.77		37.45	

assumed to have a lot in common, they differ in the substantial government ownership of the semi-private organisations. A look at Table 8.1 explains this difference. The predominance of Saudis in the semi-private sector can be explained in terms of the fact that a first priority of the government in the process of recruitment is the selection of Saudis whenever that is possible.

Manufacturing organisations recruit foreign managers because of their industrial/managerial experience, which is novel to the Saudi society. Table 8.3 shows that the Saudi managers are the youngest vis-a-vis their foreign counterparts.

Table 8.3
Distribution of the sample age according to their nationalities.

Age groups	Nationality								Total	
	Saudis		Arabs		developing countries		Westerners			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Under 30 yrs	58	17.1	6	7.2	2	6.9	0	0.0	66	14.2
30 - 35 yrs	119	35.0	12	14.5	3	10.3	0	0.0	134	28.8
36 - 40 yrs	85	25.0	11	13.3	9	31.0	1	7.7	106	22.8
41 - 45 yrs	52	15.3	23	27.7	10	34.5	4	30.8	89	19.1
46 - 50 yrs	12	3.5	13	15.7	4	13.8	4	30.8	33	7.1
Over 50 yrs	14	4.1	18	21.7	1	3.4	4	30.8	37	8
Average age (years)	35.7		42.3		39.9		46.9		37.45	

The novelty of the industrial culture to the Saudi society may be inferred from both the age of the Saudi managers and/or the insufficiency of the latter in the manufacturing industries. On the assumption that age of managers may be viewed as an index to the relative degree of advancement of the particular industry or the entire country to which these managers belong, the distribution of age among Saudis (see

above) may be taken as an indicator of the modest level of advancement of the country as a whole.

A comparison to other related situations reaffirms this conclusion and strongly suggests that age of managers very much relates to the development of the country. Under socio-economic conditions almost identical to those obtaining in Saudi Arabia, managers in Libya (Buera and Glueck, 1978) and Kuwait (Al-Tuhaih and Fleet, 1978) show a similar age distribution as the Saudis, with a mean of 35 years for the Libyans and under 40 years for approximately 89% of the Kuwaiti managers. More industrially experienced Arab countries, on the other hand, exhibit a higher age average among managers. For example, Egyptian (Askar, 1979), Jordanian (Shaikh, 1988), and Iraqi managers (Sulieman, 1984) have the age means of 43.4, 47.3 and 46.7, respectively.

England's studies comparing managers of more advanced countries point out the close relationship between age and the level of advancement. In his studies, he found that American (England, 1967), Korean (England and Kyong-Dong, 1968) and Japanese managers (England and Kokie, 1970) have the age means of 47.4, 43.6, and 53.4, respectively.

8.2.3 *Education and Area of Study*

Another important personal characteristic that can determine managers' ability and quality of work is level of education. The latter can also be considered to affect one's work orientation and attitude. Previous research addressing this point has identified an education-work satisfaction relationship. More years of education create high expectations of one's job and, concomitantly, less satisfaction with one's work (Bruce *et al.*, 1968; Mann, 1953; and Vollmer and Kinney, 1955).

The educational level of the subjects of this study is generally reasonably high. Table 8.4 reveals that 73% of the sampled subjects have at least a first degree, whereas 24.7% have a high school diploma or a lesser degree. A cross-sector comparison shows that the semi-private sector has the highest number of subjects with a Bachelor degree (i.e. 63%). It also shows that the manufacturing sector displays the largest group of highest educated managers; only 17.7% in this sector have a high school diploma or a lesser degree. But unlike other sectors, only this sector shows managers with vocational degrees. The table in question also shows that the government sector includes a large proportion of managers with high school diplomas or less (32.5%). But, on the other hand, it has the highest proportion of managers with higher degrees (27.4%)

Table 8.4

Education level of the sample subjects in accordance with their relevant sectors.

Level of education	Sector									
	Govern.		Semi- priv.		Financial		Manufac.		Total	
	Frq.	%	Frq	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%
Less than										
High School	18	15.4	4	3.3	0		6	5.6	28	6
High School	20	17.1	25	20.5	29	24.3	13	12.1	87	18.1
Vocational educ.	0		0		0		8	7.5	8	1.7
Bachelor	47	40.2	77	63.1	69	58.0	60	56.1	253	54.4
Higher educ.	32	27.4	16	13.1	21	17.6	20	18.7	89	19.2

With regard to the relation of educational level to nationality, Table 8.5 shows that western managers display the highest qualifications, with 53.8% of them holding bachelor degrees and 38.5% of them with a higher degree. It should be noted that this group is too small to allow for any significant relationship to be inferred or correlations to be established.

Table 8.5

Level of education of the sample subjects classified according to their nationalities.

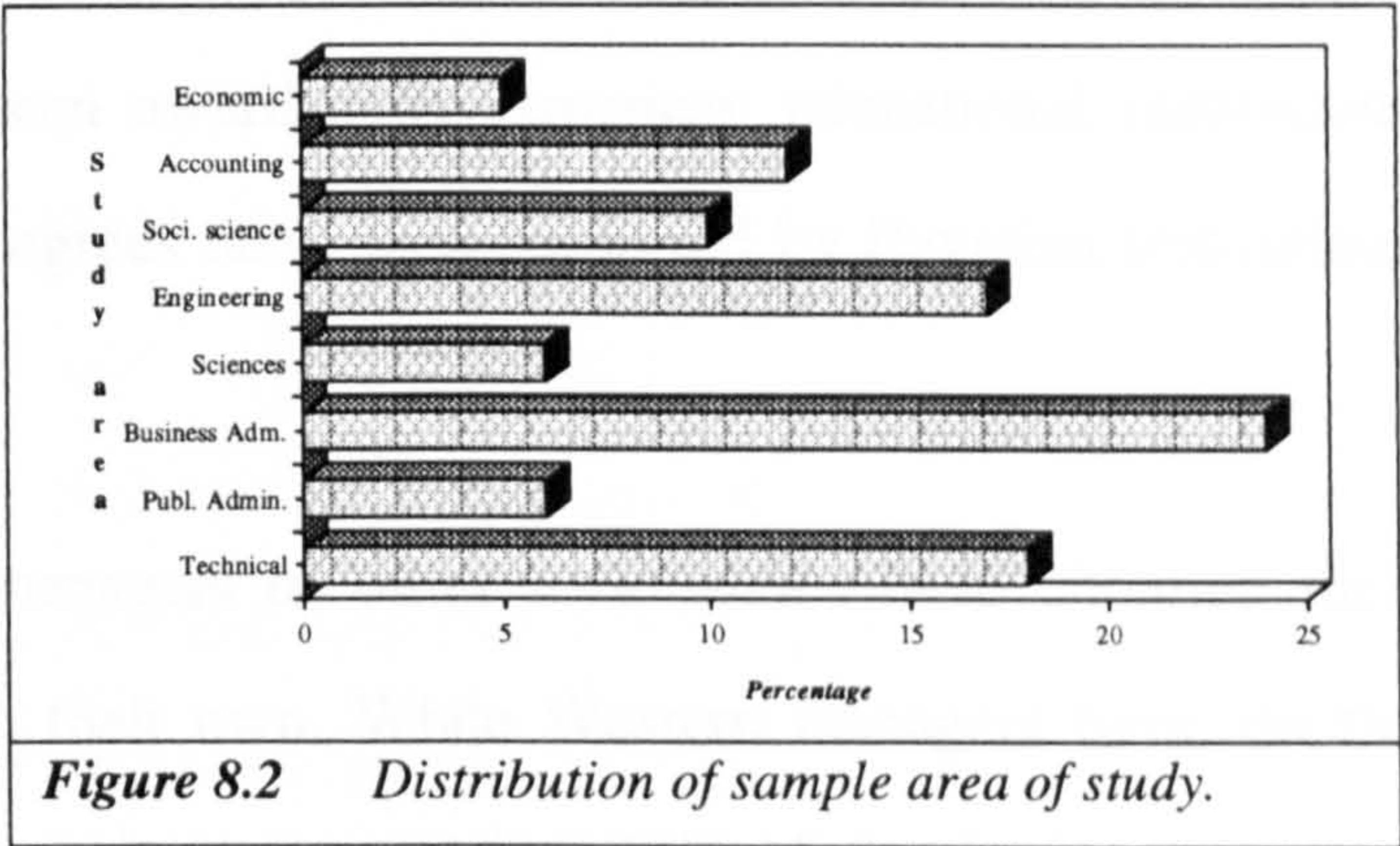
Level of education	Nationality									
	Saudis		Arabs		developing countries		Westerners		Total	
	Frq.	%	Frq	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%
Less than high school	26	7.7	2	2.4	0		0		28	6
High school	68	20	15	18.1	4	13.8	0		87	18.1
Vocational educ.	0		2	2.4	5	17.2	1	7.7	8	1.7
Bachelor	178	52.5	51	61.4	16	55.2	7	53.8	252	54.3
Higher educ.	67	19.8	13	15.6	4	13.7	5	38.5	89	19.2

Like western managers, third world managers have a minimum of bachelor degrees, but with 17.7% of them having received a vocational education. Although over 70% of the Saudi managers have a bachelor degree or a higher degree, (27.8%) have a high school degree or a lesser degree, substantially larger than the other groups.

The type of degree or speciality of subjects of this sample, shown in Table 8.6, is consistent in most cases with the nature of the organisation they belong to. Since we are dealing with different types of organisations, it is not surprising, however, to find that 24% of all subjects have majored in business administration (Figure 8.2 depicts these figures in details).

Intreguing findings that invite questioning of suitability of employees to jobs is that 25% of government managers have majored in business administration, and 15% of the semi-private employees hold social sciences degrees, and that 63% of those with a social science degree are employed by the Saudi Airlines.

Regarding the ministries' managers, 43% were found to hold agriculture engineering degrees. This predominance of managers with agriculture degrees might be attributed to the fact that one of the ministries included in the sample was the Ministry of Agriculture. In view of this, the finding should not be generalised.



Other expected findings are that amongst the subjects in the manufacturing industries 27% are engineers, and 22% of the financial sector managers hold accounting and financing degrees. a high proportions of managers in the Financial, Manufacturing and semi-private sectors are business administrators, with percentages of 24.8%, 19.6%, and 26.7%, respectively.

Table 8.6

Area of study of the sample subjects by their relevant sectors (percentage).

Area of study	Sector				Total
	Govert.	Semi-prvt.	Financial	Manufact.	
Technical	21.6	22.5	17.1	10.3	18.0
Business	33.6	32.5	31.6	20.5	29.8
Sciences	28.4	15.9	8.6	41.1	23.1
Social science	6.0	15.8	10.3	8.4	12.8
Accounting & economic	5.2	13.3	30.7	15.9	16.3
Other	5.2	0.0	1.7	3.7	2.6

Amongst the Saudis, 107 managers or 31.5% have studied abroad. 48.6% of these have obtained bachelor degrees and 45.8% obtained higher degrees. The outright majority of these degrees have been awarded by American educational institutions (74.5%), whereas 9.4% of these degrees have been conferred by Egyptian institutions and only 7.5% by UK institutions.

35 persons or 28% of managers of other nationalities have obtained their degrees from countries other than their own. While Western managers have, on the whole, obtained their education in their own countries, 38% of developing countries' managers were educated abroad. About 28% of Arab managers have also studied abroad, obtaining at least a bachelor degree.

Again, the United States tops the list of countries awarding degrees for the other nationalities, with a percentage of 20%. Egypt and Saudi Arabia come next with 17% each, followed by the United Kingdom and Germany with a percentage of 14.3% each.

With the exception of the government sector, an average of 33% of the managers within the various sectors have been educated abroad. The education of managers in government sector falls into two categories. The first category groups the managers of ministries of which 53.7% have been sent to study abroad, whereas the second category groups managers in other government offices of which only about 8% have been granted a scholarship to study abroad. This pattern accords with government subjects' education. As regards ministries, 34% of the managers hold college degrees and 53.7% hold higher degrees. In other government departments, only 13% have higher education and about 43% hold a college degree.

8.3 Social Related Variables

8.3.1 Marital Status

Family is a most crucial factor in workers' lives, and as such, it can function as a source of inspiration and achievement or a source of problems and stress. There is an extensive body of literature addressing this point, and pointing out the effect of family life on determining peoples' attitude to work. Hall and Hall (1980), for instance, finds that families are the main source of stress among dual-career couples.

In developing countries the family generally plays a central role in the individual's life. Individuals receive greater support from members of their families as well as from members of the much larger social community. Relatedly, they can be considerably influenced regarding the various aspects of their daily lives, including the question of determining a job choice and attitudes to work.

The managers sampled in this study were predominantly married (94%). This fact can be attributed to two major factors, namely, (i) the average age of the sample (see under section 8.2.2), and (ii) the fact the conservative Saudi society encourages married life on both societal and religious grounds.

Managers from developing countries display the highest percentage of single managers (around 14%) within the same nationality group, whereas all Arab managers, excluding the Saudis, are married (or divorced 1%).

Around 85% of the single group are Saudis. This can be explained in terms of two factors. The first is that the Saudis are the largest group in the overall sample (73%), and, second, the Saudis account for the youngest group. Single persons can be

associated in this study with young age: 80% of the single persons are under the age of 35 years.

The ultimate aim of marriage is reproduction. Children in the Saudi society, and in the Arab society in general, are so highly valued that the word children is synonymous with the concept of marriage. In total, 94% of the married managers have children. The Saudi group does not differ substantially from this percentage. Notwithstanding the fact a large number of the Saudis included in the sample are young, 93% of the married Saudis have children.

In respect to the number of children, the Saudis account for the highest average, with a mean of 3.4% and SD. 2. Other Arab managers exhibit a mean of 3.3% and SD 1.58, with the exception of Egyptian managers who show a mean of less than 3% and SD 1.24. In contrast, western managers have the smallest number of children with a mean of 2.5%, and SD 1.33 (see Table 8.7).

Table 8.7: Number of children of respondents and size of family they belong to distributed in accordance to their nationalities (means and standard deviations).

		Nationality				
		Saudis	Egyptians	Arabs	Developing Countries	Western Countries
Number of children	X	3.4	2.97	3.34	2.84	2.54
	sd	2	1.24	1.59	1.46	1.33
Family size	X	10.12	7.09	9.4	8.17	6.08
	sd	5.7	3.17	5.3	3.14	2.81

8.3.2 Family Size

Family size is included in this study for the purpose of testing as well as establishing the claim that the achievement motive is affected by birth order and number of siblings.

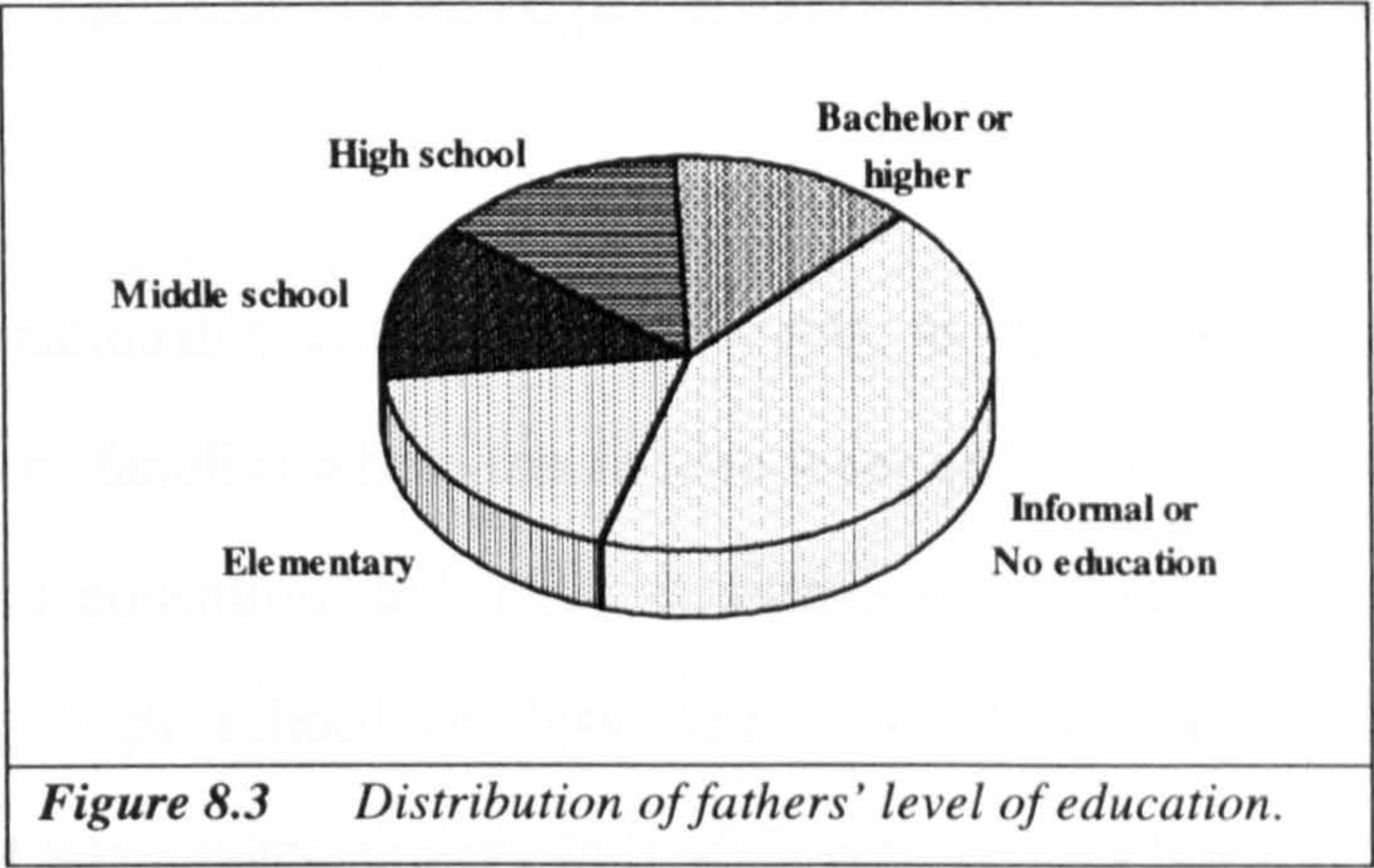
Preliminary descriptive analysis reveals that (as shown in Table 8.7) within the Arab states families can be extremely large, with members of the family often reaching thirty or even going over this number. A most likely reason for this phenomenon is that in the Muslim culture a man is allowed, provided he satisfies a number of requirements and conditions imposed by the muslim law (Shariiça), to marry as many as four women at the same time. In a traditional society like the Arab society, marrying more than one wife does not always prove difficult; on the contrary, it is generally viewed as providing, among other things, a source of labour. In a modern society, in contrast, this marriage possibility is difficult and expensive to sustain.

In our sample, the Saudis either exhibit the traditional type of life, or adhere to the Islamic endorsement of this way of life.

The Saudi managers come from very large families with a mean of 10.1 and SD 5.7. This is calculated by including the respondent, his father, mother, step-mothers (if applicable) and siblings. Egyptians were found in this regard to differ from the other Arabs, a phenomenon that can probably be explained in terms of their metropolitan backgrounds. As is the case of Saudi managers, Arab managers come from big families (mean 9.4% and SD 5.3). Egyptian families of our sample, however, average only 7.1% and SD 3.2. Finally, and as expected, western managers come from smaller families (mean 6.5%, SD 2.8).

8.3.3 Parents' Education

There is very little doubt that educated parents affect their children's perception of work and life as a whole. The atmosphere in a home with educated parents is certainly different from that in a home with uneducated or illiterate parents. A broader dimension of experience is passed to the child and more understanding of what channels are suitable for the child in the future exist in a home with educated parents.



For the purpose of examining if the education of parents variable has any substantial effect on attitudes to and perception of work, it is thought that eliciting

Table 8.8

Level of education of the sample subjects' fathers classified according to nationalities (percentage).

Level of education	Nationality				Total
	Saudis	Arabs	developing countries	Westerners	
No or informal education	51.5	25.3	6.9	0.0	42.5
Elementary	16.6	30.1	0.0	23.1	18.1
Middle school	11.8	19.3	17.2	0.0	13.1
High school	11.5	12.0	31.0	46.2	13.4
Bachelor or higher	8.6	13.3	44.9	30.7	12.9
χ^2 79.65 Df. 8 α .0000					

information bearing only on the father's education would be sufficient. It is assumed that mothers of our sample subjects would be, as the previous generation of women in Saudi Arabia, predominantly housewives and therefore illiterate. More importantly, asking for information on mothers' education would be perceived by some Saudis to be too intruding a question.

As expected among the nationality groups of this sample, as shown in Table 8.8, 52% of the Saudis come from families where the fathers were either uneducated or have at best received informal education. 8% have a college or a much higher degree, with the rest receiving high school or less education. Managers from developing countries are the most advantaged group, with 55% with fathers having an education that is more advanced than high school and only 7% with illiterate fathers.

8.3.4 *Geographical Origins*

It has long been held that the community within which the individual works has a significant impact on his/her perception of work (Martinson and Wilkening, 1984). A wide range of studies have supported the hypothesis that geographical origins (rural-urban) not only influence work orientation of individuals, but can affect their perception of work later in life (Frances and Lebras, 1982) and career advancement (Poole *et al.*, 1991) as well. The argument has also been put forward that the adaptation of the individual to industrial life style is significantly dependent on his/her geographical origins. It is argued, in particular, that those of rural origins find it difficult to adapt to the more organised and disciplined life style associated with the industries.

This study will further investigate such assumptions with special reference to a cross-groups comparison. We assume in this study that the Saudi society has, in general,

enjoyed until recently a traditional way of life. Differences are, as a consequence, not expected to be detected between geographical origins and organisation allocation of managers. We can exclude in this connection the Saudis who lived their childhood or during an early period of their lives in the eastern province on account of the fact that this province has been characterised for the past 60 years by a disciplined industrial life as a result of the discovery of oil and arrival of oil companies there.

Table 8.9

Geographical origin of the sample subjects classified by both nationality and sector.

	<i>ORIGIN</i>							
	Big city		Town		Country side		Total	
	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%
<i>Nationality</i>								
Saudis	231	77.3	99	69.7	10	41.7	340	73.1
Arabs	49	16.4	26	18.3	8	33.3	83	17.8
Developing Countries	18	6.0	9	6.3	2	8.3	29	6.2
Westerners	1	.3	8	5.6	4	16.7	13	2.8
<i>Sector</i>								
Govern.	72	24	43	30.3	2	8.3	117	25.1
Semi- priv.	92	30.7	27	19	4	16.7	123	26.4
Financial	87	29	27	19	5	20.8	119	25.5
Manufac.	49	16.3	45	31.7	13	54.2	107	23
Total	300	64.4	142	30.5	24	5.2	465	100

The Saudis sampled were asked to indicate where they lived for most of their childhood. They were asked, in particular, to provide information on whether they did so in the countryside, the desert, a village, a small town, or a big city. It was found that a large proportion of the total sample or 64.4% lived in big cities. Only 5% lived in the

countryside. In respect of nationalities, the results were similar for all except the Westerners of whom 61.5% come from small towns or villages. Contrary to our expectations, and in contrast to the other sectors, Table 8.9 shows that less than half the managers of the manufacturing sector come from big cities.

8.4 Career Related Variables

8.4.1 Tenure

A variable that is closely related to job attitude and, in particular, satisfaction is the length of experience with a given organisation (Frances and Lebras, 1982). Length of service with a particular organisation can also be taken as an indicator of career mobility and promotion within the organisation in question. For instance, if managers reach their current posts within a short period of time since joining the organisation, this might seem to point to a good promotion system, lack of competition, or easy job requirement. In the same way, high mobility between organisations may indicate career instability or low satisfaction with one's job.

A general career stability among the sampled subjects is apparent. About 75% of the subjects have spent more than five years, and over 49% more than 10 years with their current organisations. Saudi managers show a high tenure with their organisations, with over 78% serving for more than 5 years and almost 50% over 10 years. This might be explained in terms of the fact that they have almost life-time jobs.

A similar pattern emerges among the Arab managers of whom over 50% have spent over 10 years with their current organisations. As expected, other managers have been with their organisations for less time than either the Saudi or Arab managers. All western managers, for example, have spent less than ten years with their organisation.

This can be accounted for by several factors. A chief factor is the fact that these managers tend, in view of the enormous social and cultural differences and the pressures that arise from these differences, to stay only for a short period of time.

8.4.2 *Previous Experience With Other Organisations*

Understandably, non-Saudi managers employed for a specific time are generally expected to be experienced managers. It is fundamentally because of their experience that these foreign managers are hired: hiring experienced managers implies that the latter will bring their experiences to bear in their jobs and, as a result, contribute to the development of the country. Benefiting expertise and experience that is lacking among the local managers is what the policy of importing foreign managers is essentially designed to accomplish.

The results of the survey confirm this supposition, i.e. that foreign managers are assumed to be considerably experienced. Of the non-Saudis only 8% have no previous experience prior to their joining of their current organisations. Only about 40% of the Saudi managers have started their careers in other organisations before they joined the current one.

In respect of sector type and movement between organisations, it is found that among the various sectors investigated the government sector involves the largest group of managers with virtually no experience before they joined the sector in question; 78% of managers in this sector have never worked in any other organisation. This can be interpreted as a sign of job satisfaction, or can, alternatively, be explained in terms of the reluctance to change or resign from government posts.

8.4.3 Training

Training of managers was included in our examination on the basis of the assumption that it is an important indicator of organisational competency. Organisational goals can be accomplished only with the help of competent personnel whose standards can be greatly enhanced through management development programmes and training.

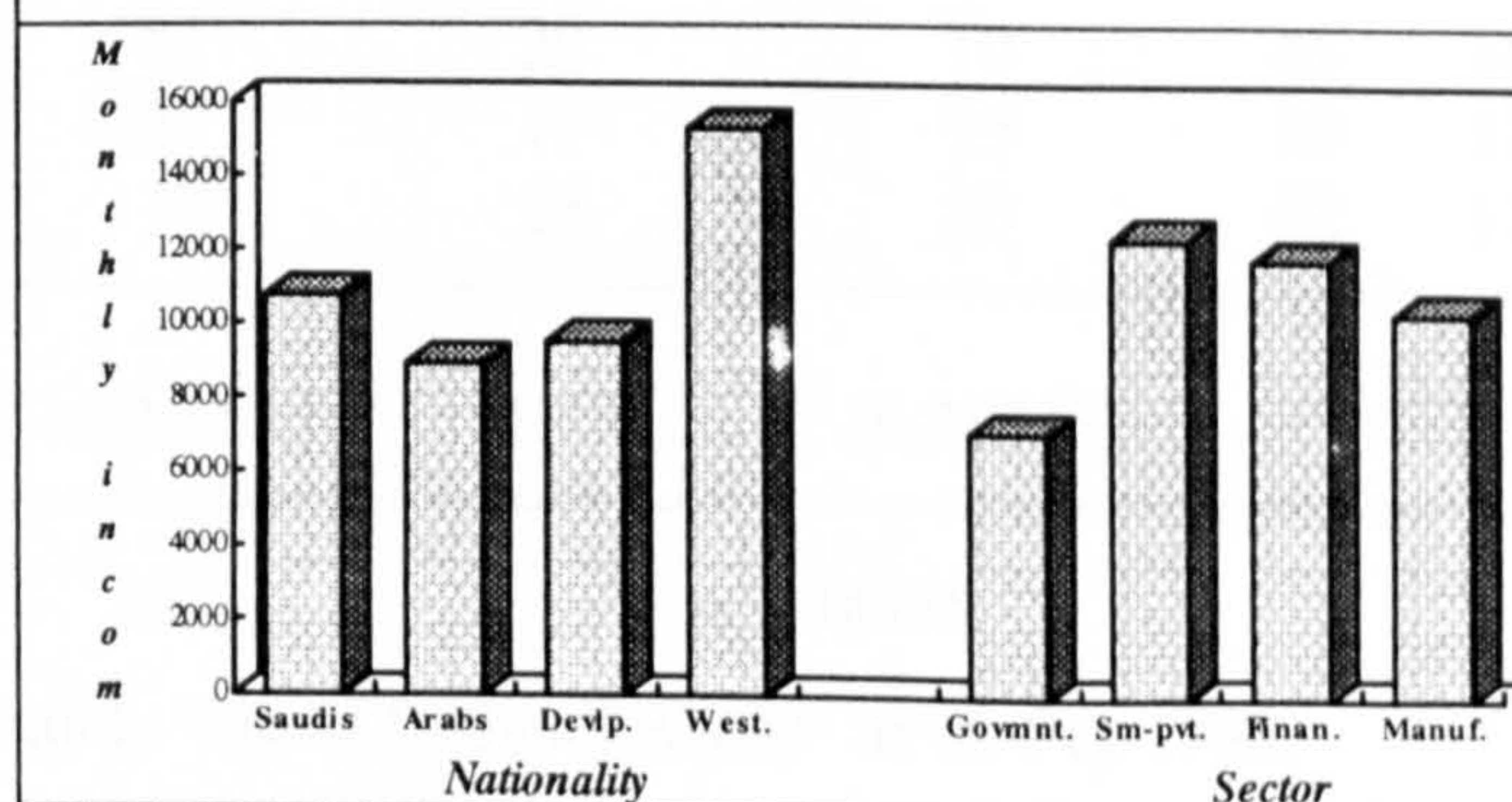
The importance of training to organisation can never be questioned (Hinrichs, 1976). Although the employees are the immediate beneficiaries from such training, the organisation's goals are achieved in the long run.

The majority of the total sample (nearly 87%) has had training in their current or previous organisations. Of the sectors, the semi-private sector exhibits the highest number of trained managers (93.5%), while 77.6% of managers in the manufacturing sector have attended training programmes, contrary to what is expected. It was expected that the manufacturing sector requires highly trained and experienced managers due to the high uncertainty and competition within this sector.

8.4.4 Income

Although achievement motivation theory considers financial rewards as merely an index of how well one is doing (McClelland, 1965c), there are some theorists who assign even a less important role to extrinsic rewards on account of the view that they remedy dissatisfaction only temporarily (Deci, 1972; Herzberg, 1966; McGregor, 1960). It is argued in this

Figure 8.4 *Distribution of subjects' monthly income by their nationality and sector.*



* £1 is equivalent to approximately SR 6.00 (Saudi Riyal) as of Sep 1993.

We should, however, note that in view of the fact that the questionnaire does not go beyond the monthly income, no data is available regarding differences in benefits and rewards between the different sectors. Nevertheless, one might assume that low payment in the government sector is compensated for by a high level of job security, less working hours, and less stringent demands and requirements.

Within the private sector, it was expected that the manufacturing sector would provide better payments than the financial sector on account of the high level of competition and the more demanding working conditions in factories.

As regards the correlation between nationality and income, and as expected, western managers received the highest payments by far, with an average of SR 15,307.7. Figure 8.4 shows that the Saudis come second, with an average of SR 10,750. The other two groups closely ranked behind with Arab managers occupying the last position.

8.5 Overview

The chapter aims at providing a description of the sampled managers in the different sectors of the Saudi economy in terms of their personal, social and occupational characteristics. The discussion was organised around two different dimensions, viz. the sector they belong to, and their nationalities.

As regards nationality, the sampled subjects fall into four groups and sometimes five. The Saudis constitute one major group and share a lot in common. The Arab managers form another group, and though they differ in terms of their local customs, they also have many things in common, most notably religion, language and many traditions. Although Saudis are Arabs in the first place and on account of this can

be grouped with other Arab managers, they are in fact the sole beneficiaries of specific rules and regulations. Due to their restricted number, Arab managers could not be broken down into smaller sub-groups, although Egyptian managers are sometimes treated as a separate group as a result of their relatively considerable number (33 respondents).

The remaining non-Arab subjects of the sample are divided into two groups depending on the technological and industrial development of their countries of origin. One group subsumes those originating from the developing countries, whereas those coming from the developed or western countries fall into the second group.

The personal characteristics considered were nationality, age, and education. The Saudi managers can be characterised as young, well-educated but less experienced than any of the other groups. The government sector employed the youngest managers of the sample, whereas the manufacturing sector employed the oldest and the most qualified ones. Non-Arab managers were found to be the most qualified of all.

Concerning social status, the overwhelming majority were married, and most of them had children. The Saudi and Arab subjects were found to generally come from large families, with over half the fathers of the Saudi group being either illiterate or informally educated.

As for length of service of our sampled subjects with their current organisations, the Saudi and Arab managers show in general longer years of experience; over half of the managers in these two groups have spent 10 years or more with the same organisation. The Saudis enjoy relatively more secure jobs and earn the highest income of the group preceded only by western managers who receive considerably higher payments.

CHAPTER NINE

CULTURE, AND RESPONDENTS' WORK ATTITUDE AND ORIENTATIONS

- 1. *Reliability of the Instruments***
 - 2. *General Presentation of Results***
 - 3. *Assessing Differences Between Management Levels***
 - 4. *Culture and the Meaning of Work***
 - 5. *Work Orientations of the Sample***
-

CHAPTER IX

CULTURE AND RESPONDENTS' WORK ATTITUDE AND ORIENTATIONS

INTRODUCTION

Chapter nine is the first of the three concerned with the inferential use of the data. The chapter begins with a presentation of the instrument properties. Consistency of subscales will first be examined. This is followed by a general presentation of all findings acquired in this study pertaining to the sample as a whole.

The first investigation will compare and contrast the two management levels. The main body of the chapter will be devoted to finding whether different work interests exist between managers of the different sectors and the extent to which the wider society affects perception of work. Prior to this, the relationship between culture and work will be touched on briefly.

General work attitudes of the respondents will be identified through a simple question. The process through which work orientations are determined, and the effect of the wider society in determining these orientations is divided into four phases. These phases are: determining the importance of work rewards to respondents, identifying their goals and priorities when choosing their current occupations, detecting their in satisfaction with some aspects of their jobs and with the job as a whole, and identifying the preferred sector for each individual.

9.1 Reliability Tests of the Instruments

Extending the discussion advanced in Chapter seven (section 7.7) in regard to the instruments used, this section reports the more concrete results obtained from this study. It has been described, in that section, how the instruments used in this study consists of several independent measures. The properties of each one of them resulting from this study will be highlighted below.

One of the most important issues to consider when using questionnaires is their reliability. Reliability is the ability of the test to yield the same results on repeated use. The consistency or stability of a measure is what Campbell and Fiske define as “... *the agreement between two efforts to measure the same trait through maximally similar methods*” (Reported in Churchill, 1987:386). Reliability can be measured through different forms; amongst them are the following: a) test-retest in which the device is applied at two points in time and scores are compared; b) equivalent form, where two parallel or equivalent forms are designed to measure the same thing and given to the same group of people, then the two sets of scores are compared; and c) internal consistency.

Internal consistency reliability is the reliability test that is possible to infer using the same set of data of a given measure independently. Internal consistency of a measure is “the extent to which it has homogeneous content” (Muchinsky, 1983: 98). It can be computed through two possible types, namely, split-half reliability where the items of a test are split in half and the two sets of scores are correlated and the commonly used Cronbach's alpha where every item is considered as a mini test by itself, and items are intercorrelated and averaged to get one general score of homogeneity. Below are the results of these two tests.

Table 9.1 presents both types of internal consistency reliability resulted in this study for the *n* Ach measure. The two tests, i.e. split-half (Spearman-Brown formula), and Cronbach's alpha are compared with results obtained from the three studies carried out by Cassidy and Lynn (1989).

It should be noted here that two items had to be excluded from the analysis due to their low reliability. Items numbered 7 of Work Ethic, and 4 of Status

Table 9.1: Split-half and Cronbach's reliability scores for the *n* Achievement subscales for the present study compared to Cassidy and Lynn's studies .

Reliability results across Lynn and Cassidy's three studies						
Factor	Study 1		Study 2		Study 3	
	Split-half	Alpha	Split-half	Alpha	Split-half	Alpha
Work ethic	0.78	0.79	0.77	0.74	0.69	0.76
Acquisitiveness	0.62	0.67	0.64	0.67	0.67	0.66
Dominance	0.81	0.81	0.75	0.73	0.70	0.77
Excellence	0.57	0.58	0.64	0.65	0.52	0.55
Competitiveness	0.65	0.71	0.71	0.74	0.62	0.67
Status Aspiration	0.62	0.66	0.70	0.72	0.75	0.76
Mastery	0.64	0.65	—	—	0.55	0.60

Reliability results for the present study		
Factor	Split-half	Alpha
Work Ethic	0.62	0.61
Acquisitiveness	0.71	0.71
Dominance	0.66	0.65
Excellence	0.56	0.56
Competitiveness	0.66	0.66
Status Aspiration	0.70	0.71
Mastery	0.62	0.57
Total scale	0.82	0.78

Aspiration subscales showed very low correlations with items of the same subscales and therefore affected the reliability of the scale as a whole. Following the suggestion put forward by Churchill (1979) that items with low inter-item correlation should be dropped from the study to improve reliability of the instrument, these items were excluded. A possible explanation for this lack of correlation is that these questions may have conveyed unclear meanings due to either literal translation or different cultural meanings.

To compensate for the excluded items, and give equal weight by the seven subscales to the total inventory, the average of each subscale is calculated. In general, subscales showed reasonable reliability coefficients similar to those of Cassidy and Lynn's (1989) studies. Across the four studies the Excellence subscale has maintained relatively lower reliability coefficient than the other subscales. This may suggest the ambiguity of the items, or, worse, the concept at large.

The Work Ethic scale used in this study is a short version (9 items) of Mirels and Garrett's (1971) Protestant Work Ethic (PWE) which consists of 19 items. Comparing reliability coefficient produced in this study with other studies using the PWE, such as Kidron (1978) with 0.67 coefficient and 0.70 by Lied and Pritchard (1976), reflects the relatively low reliability of the scale in this study. Although the difference is not substantial, it could be attributed to the difference in the number of items used in these studies and the present one. It is widely accepted that the increase of items can improve the scale's reliability (Kerlinger, 1986). Looking at the coefficient of the total scale in Table 9.1 (the Multifactorial Achievement Motivation Questionnaire) supports this point of view.

Table 9.2: Pearson intercorrelation coefficients amongst the *n* Ach subscales of the present study compared with Cassidy and Lynn's (1989) studies.

<i>Cassidy and Lynn's studies</i>							
	WE	Acq	Dom	Exc	Com	SA	Mast
STUDY 1							
Work ethic	1.00						
Acquisitiveness	0.11	1.00					
Dominance	0.16	0.32	1.00				
Excellence	0.11	0.06	0.11	1.00			
Competitiveness	0.02	0.35	0.31	0.11	1.00		
Status Aspiration	0.38	0.28	0.35	0.25	0.31	1.00	
Mastery	0.51	0.17	0.28	0.17	0.10	0.31	1.00
STUDY 2							
Work ethic	1.00						
Acquisitiveness	0.70	1.00					
Dominance	0.24	0.23	1.00				
Excellence	0.26	0.03	0.16	1.00			
Competitiveness	0.03	0.33	0.18	0.07	1.00		
Status Aspiration	0.09	0.20	0.49	0.19	0.36	1.00	
Mastery	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
STUDY 3							
Work ethic	1.00						
Acquisitiveness	0.01	1.00					
Dominance	0.07	0.25	1.00				
Excellence	0.31	0.03	0.09	1.00			
Competitiveness	0.01	0.37	0.36	0.02	1.00		
Status Aspiration	0.02	0.22	0.63	0.06	0.40	1.00	
Mastery	0.36	0.08	0.30	0.24	0.21	0.19	1.00
<i>Correlation results of the present study</i>							
	WE	Acq	Dom	Exc	Com	SA	Mast
Work ethic	1.00						
Acquisitiveness	0.10	1.00					
Dominance	0.12	0.32	1.00				
Excellence	0.24	0.06	0.33	1.00			
Competitiveness	0.01	0.38	0.33	0.11	1.00		
Status Aspiration	0.15	0.44	0.57	0.24	0.43	1.00	
Mastery	0.16	0.13	0.26	0.16	0.10	0.17	1.00

Regarding the intercorrelation between the subscales of *n* Ach, Table 9.2 displays these features contrasted with those resulted from Cassidy and Lynn's (1989) studies. Considering the results of the present study in the table in question reveals that most coefficients are significant and similar to those of Cassidy and Lynn's results with substantially different coefficients of Work Ethic with Status Aspiration and Mastery. Some of the variables or (subscales) correlated highly with others and low with some others. Dominance and Status Aspiration are highly correlated with each other and to a lesser degree with Acquisitiveness and Competitiveness. Work Ethic and Mastery showed a general low correlation with most other dimensions.

Reliability of the other scales is marked with high coefficients, as apparant in Table 9.3, except for the *n* Aff scale which yields a substantially lower coefficient than the remaining scales. Unlike the other scales, the *n* Aff scale consists of only 5 items of which one item had to be excluded due to its low consistency with the other items which suggests that it has been misinterpreted. This particular item can be interpreted in two different meanings which has, most likely, contributed to respondents' confusion. In their original study of developing the Manifest Needs Questionnaire, Steers and Braunstein (1976) reported an alpha coefficient of 0.56 for the *n* Affiliation subscale. Reliability coefficients reported by Warr *et al.* (1979) for the Overall Job Satisfaction Questionnaire for two samples were 0.85 and 0.88. The last factor pertains to job characteristics. The internal reliability coefficient of job characteristics reported in the original studies of Hackman and Oldham (1975), and Oldham *et al.* (1978) for the seven job characteristics ranged from 0.59 - 0.78 and 0.58 - 0.75 for the two studies respectively. In this study, only one item per characteristic was used and, therefore, internal reliability was not possible to infer.

Table 9.3: Internal reliability coefficients for the scales used in this study presented together with results of the original studies.

Scale	Results of Present Study		Results of Original Studies		
	Split-half	Alpha	Test	Coef.	Study
n Achievement	0.82	0.78	—	—	—
n Affiliation	0.47	0.49	Alpha	0.56	Steers & Braunstein (1976)
Locus of Control	0.71	0.70	—	—	—
Job Satisfaction	0.82	0.81	Alpha	0.85 0.88	Warr <i>et al</i> (1979) (two studies)

9.2 General Presentation of Results

Figures 9.1 and 9.2, and Tables 9.4 through 9.6 display the general results obtained from questionnaires in this study. This process aims to provide the reader with a general portrait from which preliminary assumptions and deductions can be drawn.

General attitude to work is tested using a workplace-related question. The question pertains to the basic concept of work. That is the perception of work as an end in itself. To measure this, a hypothetical question is used. It is referred to as the “Lottery question” which asks if one would prefer to continue to work even if one won a lottery and had enough money to live comfortably for the rest of his or her life (Morse and Weiss, 1955). It should be noted that the question has been slightly changed in order to suit the culture in which it is applied. Instead of winning a lottery, which is not feasible in Saudi Arabia, winning a prize or inheriting money were more acceptable. The alternatives in this question are either stop working at all, continue in the same job with the same conditions, or continue to work but in different conditions.

Figure 9.1 shows that the outright majority (almost 90%) of the total sample would still continue to work, with over 62% of them, choosing different jobs or introducing some changes to their current jobs.

Figure 9.1
Responses to the “lottery question” for total sample.

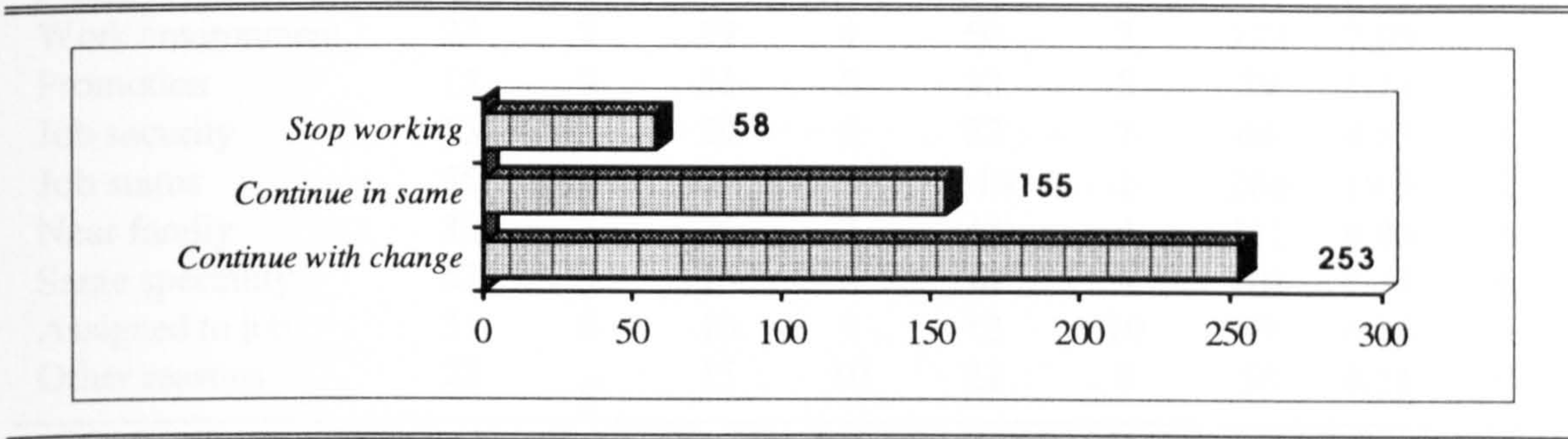


Table 9.4 presents the three most important factors subjects assigned responsible for choosing their current jobs. The table reveals that the financial benefits are deemed the most important factor and account for the first and second reasons for choosing the job. The nature of work ranks second. Along-side, perception of work rewards to the total sample is laid down in Table 9.5.

Respondents were asked to rank-order 11 work rewards according to their importance to them. Rating these facets would probably not give an adequate picture since many facets are important and, therefore, would be rated the same. Rank-ordering would more likely to allow for greater variations between the individuals involved. Variations between respondents may help, as will be pointed out later in the analyses, identifying the underlying factors upon which subjects are grouped. Work-interests are not necessarily identified through the respondents' current jobs. A preference for certain aspects of an hypothetical job can more likely and accurately

Table 9.4: Frequency of subjects of total sample considering a work reward as important when seeking present job: List of the three choices alongside the rewards' ranks (the smaller the number the more important the factor is).

Aspects	First Choice		Second Choice		Third Choice		Total*		
	Frq	Rank	Frq	Rank	Frq	Rank	Frq	%	Rank
Nature of work	86	2	54	3	30	6	161	11.7	3
Financial benefits	123	1	157	1	88	2	368	26.7	1
Work environment	23	7	39	4	50	3	112	7.99	4
Promotion	15	9	31	5	33	5	79	5.74	7
Job security	13	10	29	6	22	7	64	4.65	8
Job status	55	4	74	2	118	1	266	19.3	2
Near family	36	5	26	7	49	4	111	8.06	5
Same speciality	62	3	25	8	14	9	101	7.33	6
Assigned to job	31	6	16	9	12	10	59	4.28	9
Other reasons	22	8	15	10	21	8	58	4.21	10
Total	466		466		437		1379		

* Total frequencies add to 300% as the three choices were combined.

point out these different work-related interests. The ranking in the table in review takes the values between one and eleven with one indicating the most important. Therefore, comparing the means (the smaller the mean the more important the item is). This would give a clearer picture of what factors the subjects value as more important. Nature of work and pay rated the most important items to consider when looking for a job, whereas work hours is the least important reward.

A more straight forward question which directly asks the respondents to indicate their preferred sector is presented in Figure 9.2. More precisely the statement lists four alternatives of different types of organisational ownership. Self-employment was introduced as a type of employment along the other three sectors; namely, government, semi-private, and private organisations. Self-employment was included

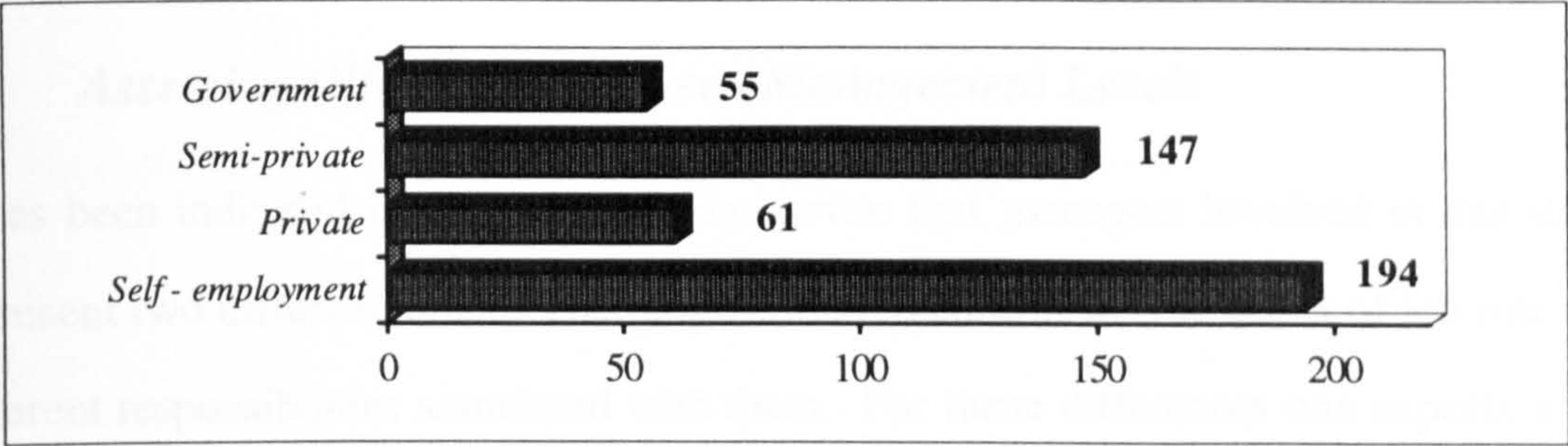
here in order to distinguish between a private organisation in which one is an employee and a private employment in which one is the sole owner and, in most cases, the director. It is assumed here that the choice of self-employment represents a desire to be an entrepreneur. The figure shows that over 41% prefer to have their own business. Amongst the sectors, over 31% prefer to work in semi-private organisations, while only about 12% wanted to work for the government.

Table 9.5: Means and ranks of work rewards according to their Importance to managers of the total sample (the smaller the mean the more important the aspect is).

WORK REWARD	Mean	Rank
Nature Of Work	3.32	1
Good Income	3.91	2
Pleasant Co-workers	6.06	7
Fringe Benefits	6.00	6
Promotion	5.82	4
Secure Job	5.66	3
Autonomy	6.52	9
Good Working Conditions	5.97	5
Less Work Hours	9.16	11
Status Of Job	7.06	10
Recognition By Superiors	6.33	8

Table 9.1 (in Appendix D) displays descriptive statistics acquired for the job satisfaction and job characteristics scales. The job satisfaction scale consists of ten items inquiring about the different job aspects and another considers the overall job satisfaction. The table reveals that subjects are generally most satisfied with their job security, but least satisfied with promotion and pay (For inter-item correlation refer to Table 9.2 in Appendix D).

Figure 9.2
Preferences for employment type for the total sample.



Results relevant to the remaining three personality dispositions (i.e. *n* Achievement, *n* Affiliation, and Locus of control) are presented in Table 9.6. Like the results reported in Cassidy and Lynn’s (1989) study (see Table 9.3 in Appendix D) the mean of the Excellence subscale is markedly higher than the other subscales, while the mean of the Acquisitiveness subscale is the lowest. The mean of the locus of control scale is the average of the total item scores which can take one of two possible

Table 9.6
Descriptive statistics for the personality disposition scales for the total sample.

SCALES	MEAN	St. Dev.	S.E. MEAN
<i>n</i> Ach subscales			
Work ethic	3.490	0.509	0.024
Acquisitiveness	3.026	0.717	0.033
Dominance	3.322	0.509	0.024
Excellence	4.246	0.425	0.020
Competitiveness	3.319	0.669	0.031
Status Aspiration	3.465	0.535	0.025
Mastery	3.428	0.486	0.023
Total scale	24.298	2.198	0.102
Locus of control	16.361	2.351	0.109
Affiliation	3.592	0.684	0.029
Overall job satisfaction	33.622	6.267	0.290

scores (i.e. 1 or 2). 1 always represents the external locus of control (LOC), whereas 2 represents internal LOC (in many studies the low values represents internal LOC).

9.3 *Assessing Differences Between Management Levels*

It has been indicated in Chapters one and seven that managers involved in this study represent two different strata. The purpose was to control for the effect of job role and different responsibilities associated with them. For these differences one expects some work-related attitudinal and motivational variations between the two strata to prevail.

In respect of the *n* Achievement, a small difference was expected to emerge between the two manager groups. Normally, middle managers arrive at their present positions through climbing the hierarchy ladder of which lower-level management forms the nearest step below. However, due to variant personal abilities and qualities, and personality differences not all lower managers can make it to the upper position in the hierarchy. Although research with regards to motives points to discrepancies amongst management levels throughout the organisation, the differences more clearly exist between top and middle managers, with top managers stronger in *n* Power and middle managers stronger in *n* Achievement (Stahl, 1983). Although literature lacks studies comparing middle and lower level managers in this respect, it is suspected in this study that lower managers with high *n* Ach would have better chance of being promoted to upper positions. Based on this speculation middle managers would therefore be expected to be higher in *n* Ach than lower managers.

Results of this study pertaining to the two groups failed to detect any differences in respect of personality dispositions. The emerging differences relate only to their job requirements, rewards and personal qualifications such as education.

Findings summarised in Table 9.7 reveals no significant differences regarding work attitude, *n* Achievement, *n* Affiliation, Locus of control or satisfaction. Nevertheless Middle managers are different from the point view that they have fathers who are better educated than those of lower managers. They themselves are also better educated than lower managers. A simple explanation can be stated in this respect. It seems that they have acquired this current positions because they are better qualified than lower managers.

Table 9.7: Scores of different variables between the middle and lower managers sampled in the study.

Variables	Mngt. level		Test	Test value	Df.	α
	Means					
	Middle	Lower				
Personality variables						
Work attitude	24.26	24.33	χ^2	1.27	1	.260
<i>n</i> Achievement	10.7	10.8	t	-.38	463	.703
<i>n</i> Affiliation	16.34	16.37	t	-.56	463	.575
Locus of control	16.34	16.37	t	-.14	461	.888
Job satisfaction	37.6	37.2	t	.67	464	.504
Personal variables						
Respondent's education			χ^2	17.90	2	.000
Father's education			χ^2	10.06	2	.006
Nationality			χ^2	15.38	3	.001
Age			χ^2	9.20	4	.056
Career related variables						
Salary			χ^2	39.67	4	.000
No. of subordinate	35.4	19.0	t	3.06	464	.002
Experience with previous organisation	5.7	4.2	t	2.37	464	.018
Training programs with previous organisation	2.23	1.40	t	2.47	464	.014
Training abroad			χ^2	24.48	1	.000

Other differences were typical requirements and privileges of these two positions. Compared with lower managers, middle managers are, not surprisingly, characterised by better salaries, older ages, longer service, more training, and have more subordinates. In this study middle managers also have had more experience with other organisations and, naturally, have attended more training programs with other organisations. In addition, many of them have been educated abroad.

In respect of nationality, each nationality group is expected to contribute more lower managers than middle managers, since the total of lower managers is higher. On the contrary, the developing country group and western group supply substantially larger numbers of middle managers. Again, this asserts the previously discussed need of foreign expertise at the corporate level.

Based on the lack of substantial differences between the two managerial groups, in terms of the main psychological dispositions relevant to this study, the managerial segmentation will be overlooked in the remainder of the analysis of results. Therefore, any discussion referring to managers will represent both levels alike.

9.4 *Culture and the Meaning of Work*

In this section the discussion we started in Chapter one in connection with the concepts of culture and work is to be broadened and closely linked to the present study. Amongst the few areas that have received substantial academic attention in recent decades is the concept of culture and work. A view widely held by many scientific researchers is that social factors have a specific capacity to predict employees perception of their work (James and Jones, 1974; Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978; Shaw, 1976; Zalesny *et al.*, 1985). Comparing work attitudes in two different cultures,

namely, the United States and Japan, Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) concluded that the Japanese culture plays a significant part in deciding the deep commitment and motivation of Japanese workers. In particular, work attitude is the product of work organisation which, in turn, is the product of cultural experiences. Their argument, however, centres around the possibility of isolating the organisation structural determinants, e.g. managerial practices, enterprise unionism, etc., from its culture, which as a result a similar work context can be created in a different culture. They exemplify the founding of elements of the Japanese labour system in the U.S. context which, indeed, have the same effect on labour commitment.

Historically, the meaning of work differs across cultures and civilisations. The ancient Greeks regarded work as a degrading activity which was to be avoided by full human beings. Leisure was the most desirable and the only good of life. Work, in the sense of supplying the necessities of life, was confined to the lowest social class, and especially, to slaves. The Romans followed the Greek view. The Hebrews viewed work as unpleasant, but a mean to expiate sin and recover a degree of spiritual dignity.

A change of view developed during early Christianity in which work was recognised to possibly make one healthy and shift one from sinful habits. Nevertheless work was never seen as noble, rewarding or satisfying (Watson, 1987). A drastic change happened with the Protestant Reformation in which work came to be viewed positively, and was suggested to be “a way of serving God” (discussed in detail in Chapter four). Work is now associated with prosperity, personal and social advancement, and self-fulfilment.

The effect of culture and the wider society on forming work attitudes has been first suggested by Weber (1904) early this century. His thesis became known as the

social action approach. The social action approach hypothesises that what goes on in the workplace is the product of both the individual and his or her social environment. That is, work attitudes are mainly the product of the social values brought from the wider society.

More recently Hofstede (1984) explored the differences in thinking and social action that existed between 40 different modern nations. In that study, he substantially narrowed the meaning of cultures to mean nations. The argument raised here is that a modern nation is a separate entity that its culture is formed by its history, political system, form of government, own institutions, legal system, educational system, labour and employers association system, etc. (Hofstede, 1983).

The basic issue in cross-cultural research of work behaviour, as argued by Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) stated above, is to identify the extent to which cultural basic elements affect the individual's behaviour in the work place (Adler, 1982). The transferability and adaptation of a new industrial way of life in traditional cultures is based on the argument that individuals, irrespective of culture, are pressed to adapt to industrial attitudes and behaviour such as rationalism, secularism, and mechanical time in order to comply with the imperative of industrialisation. The success of this adaptability, or what is coming to be known as convergence hypothesis (Kelly and Worthley, 1981), depends to a large extent on the deep understanding of the cultural forces of the receiving society.

9.4.1 Work Attitude of the Sample

The different responses to the lottery question (discussed in section 9.2) can indicate the differences between the respondents in respect of their commitment to work, or what is termed "non-financial employment commitment" (Harpaz, 1989).

The entire responses to the question summarised in Figure 9.1 showed that only 12.5% would stop working if the economic rationale for the necessity of working has been removed.

Originally, the lottery question is responded to by choosing one of two alternatives, either to stop working or to continue to work. In this study the three alternatives proposed in the MOW's (1987) study were adopted. These alternatives are: 1) "I would stop working"; 2) "I would continue to work in the same job"; and 3) "I would continue to work, but under different conditions". Responses 2 and 3, in the study in view, are collapsed and considered as expressing a desire to continue working and equivalent to "continue to work" response in earlier studies.

When the stop-continue dichotomy response was used in the present study, findings failed to show any significant difference between respondents when the sample was broken into different national or sector levels.

Table 9.8: Percentage distributions of the wish to continue/stop working for this study compared to other studies.

Country	Subjects	<i>n</i>	Continue	Stop
Great Britain*	Labour force	840	68.8	31.2
Germany*	Labour force	1278	70.1	29.9
Japan*	Labour force	3226	93.4	6.6
USA*	Labour force	1000	88.1	11.9
Saudi Arabia**	White Collars	340	87.9	12.1
Sudan***	Blue Collars	185	66.7	33.3

*

Results from Harpaz (1989)

**

Results from the present study

Results from Elmahi (1990)

Nationality comparisons, it should be emphasised, can not be legitimised to represent any other single nation in this study but Saudi Arabia. The number of subjects representing their own separate countries would not, one can conclude, lend support to infer valid comparisons. However, nationalities can be grouped on a wider range basis to represent Saudis, Arabs, and non-Arabs. More valid international comparisons can be made using the Saudi's work attitude results in this study (87.9%) and other national results from other studies using the same methods. Compared to some of the national samples of labour forces reported in Harpaz's (1989) study (summarised in Table 9.8), the percentages of respondents wishing to continue to work ranged from 68.8 among the British to 93.4% among the Japanese sample. In a similar study to the present one, Elmahi (1990), using Sudanese blue collar workers, reported only 66.7% of these subjects, relatively the lowest amongst reported results, wishing to continue to work.

There are, however, two interesting variables found to have some bearing in determining the attitudes towards work. One is that of age in which a curvilinear relationship was observed. Subjects at either end of the curve (i.e. under 35 and over 45 years of age) showed a higher tendency to continue to work (92.6% of them) as compared to subjects between the ages of 35 and 45 (80.5% of them) (χ^2 15.77, Df. 4, α = .003). The other variable is that of rural-urban rearing. Those who were reared in towns showed a greater preference to stop working (21%), compared to those of big cities or country side origins (8.7%, and 8.3% respectively) (χ^2 14.1, Df. 2, α .0008).

Education displayed some bearings on work attitude so that subjects with higher degrees exhibited a different pattern from the others. The higher the education the more likely they would continue to work. Amongst the Saudis, it is interesting to

Table 9.9: Chi-square results of work attitude for the ‘lottery question’ with some significant variables.

<i>Results of stop/continue dichotomy of the ‘lottery question’</i>			
Variables	χ^2	DF	α
Age	15.77	4	0.003
Education	7.97	3	0.05
Geographical origin	14.12	2	0.000
Province	11.49	2	0.003
<i>Results when the ‘continue’ option was subdivided to two choices.</i>			
Nationality*	15.68	4	0.003
Sector	16.66	6	0.01
Age	24.56	8	0.001
Education	22.04	6	0.001
Geographical origin	26.63	4	0.000
Province	28.76	4	0.000

* Nationality is divided to three groups 1= Saudis, 2= other Arabs, and 3= others.

note that managers who are originally from the central area are less willing to work compared to those from other areas.

When the choice of continuing to work was classified to either “continue in the same job” or “continue under different conditions”, several interesting differences emerged. As summarised in Table 9.9 the most notable variation is between the Saudis on the one side and the other groups on the other. Although the two groups showed a similar tendency to continue to work, the Saudis displayed a greater desire to continue working in their current jobs, whereas the other nationals prefer to induce some changes to their work situations.

In respect of the different sectors, managers of government organisations showed a similar pattern to those subjects with less than Bachelor degrees. This means that managers of the government sector demonstrated more willingness to stop working if they didn't have to work, and for those who would continue to work, would remain in their current jobs rather than move elsewhere.

It should be noted here that the choice between remaining in present position or working under different conditions, if one is to continue to work, is a reflection of the respondents' feelings about their immediate jobs, and, hence, is more likely to be indicative of their job satisfaction rather than their general perception of work.

9.5 Work Orientations of the Sample

This section is an extension to the previous one. Due to the considerable generality of the question used in investigating managers' work attitudes, i.e. the 'lottery question', no essential effect for the socio-cultural or organisational variables was detected between the subgroups. In this section, the inquiry however will be narrowed down for the purpose of specifying work orientations of the sample and attempting to identify the factors to which discrepancies in these orientations can be ascribed. The discussion given in the section above (sec. 9.4) may provide an appropriate ground upon which we can anticipate certain differences between the sample subgroups. Indicating work orientations may also help establish adequate bases for understanding the individuals' Achievement, which will be treated in the following chapter.

The assumption that the organisation type has a direct influence on the individual's work orientations is based on the following rationale: on the whole, each organisation type (the sector it belongs to) is thought to represent jobs whose content

constitutes specific pattern upon which individuals can be classified. I further assume that the subjects involved appreciate particular job-related rewards in accordance with their already-formed work values. Goldthorpe *et al.* (1968) stress the operation of the labour market as a mechanism for allocating workers with particular orientations to jobs and firms which offer the most appropriate “mix” of rewards. Thus they argue that there will be a relatively high degree of homogeneity within a firm. Derived from this, one is led to believe that the rational judgements made by individuals to join a given organisation, or move between different organisations, are largely based on careful calculations and weighing of options. It is needless, however, to assert the possibility that some individuals are met with limited options or, worse, driven to unwillingly accept specific jobs. Therefore, working in a specific organisation reflects one's belief about work.

The orientations investigated here may refer to several elements, but the general agreement points in one way or another to ‘goals’, ‘expectations’, ‘priorities’ and ‘wants’ individuals have regarding work (Blackburn & Mann, 1979; Child, 1969; Goldthorpe *et al.*, 1968; and Ingham, 1970). Child considers orientation to work to be “the ordered expectations and goals an individual has regarding the work situation” (1969: 61). Blackburn & Mann (1979) define orientation as “a central organizing principle which underlies people's attempts to make sense of their lives” (p. 141).

In literature the construct of work orientations is measured by identifying the work rewards that attract the individual to that job and sustain him or her in it (Goldthorpe *et al.*, 1986; and Ingham, 1970). In this study orientations were traced by asking the managers involved to identify their preferences along the following three dimensions: a) the importance of work rewards as perceived by them; b) their

priorities when selecting their present jobs; and, c) their satisfaction with these work rewards.

Furthermore, an additional investigation deals more precisely with the identification of respondents' preferred sectors. This final part tackles the issue from two points of view. The first proposes an hypothetical question concerning sector preference. This is rather a straight forward question that asks respondents to indicate the organisation type most favourable to them. A list of organisation types were given and respondents were also asked to provide the reasons for their choices. The idea is that, as pointed out above, some individuals did not have a reasonable range of choices, and for those who did, probably did not have the necessary experience to make the appropriate decision.

The series of inquiries in this section intends to test the consistency of respondents' replies across different frames of reference. The findings of one may perform to ascertain and cross-validate the findings of the others.

Notwithstanding the carefully-designed investigation to draw a preliminary identification of work interests of managers with different backgrounds, some drawbacks relevant to this kind of methods are evident and must be addressed. One such weakness is that some of these questions deal with hypothetical situations in which respondents are asked, for instance, to indicate the type of organisation they would join if they were given the chance again. In such a case, one can not be certain if respondents would pursue their indicated preference in actual situations where unforeseen factors may arise. Another difficulty is associated with asking respondents to indicate the importance of work rewards. The idea here is to examine if managers in different sectors value rewards of the jobs they seek differently. The difficulty,

however, rests in the fact that when a given reward is rated highly from a particular group of subjects, it may not indicate that this specific reward is valued as such when the employment is first sought. Rather, it may just be, as Hulin *et al.* (1963) suggests, a manifestation of dissatisfaction with that very aspect as a result of lack of sufficient representation of it in the job. These problems will be adequately dealt with in their relevant discussions.

9.5.1 Importance of Work Rewards

The importance (salience) attributed to the various work rewards by the individual is one of the dimensions along which work orientations of that individual can be identified. Salience is a basic aspect of orientations. Insofar, as orientations to work are a matter of priorities in rewards sought, they entail the relative importance of various rewards (Blackburn & Mann, 1979). The significance of the importance attributed to work rewards rests in the fact that actions of humans and the decisions they make are determined in part by their behavioural intentions which depend in turn on the outcomes they expect such actions to provide (Hulin & Triands, 1981).

In the procedure used to assess the importance of work rewards respondents were asked to rank-order eleven work rewards according to their relative importance to every single subject. The choice was either rate or rank these rewards. It was considered more appropriate to rank these facets in order to maintain their relative importance even to the whole sample by calculating their means where, at the same time and as with the rating method, variations between groups of subjects can be statistically examined. The ranking can range from one to eleven. One was allocated to the most important aspect, and eleven to the least important. Since all of job factors can

be considered important, using the rating scale technique may result in little differentiation (Jurgensen, 1947).

Responses of the total sample reported in Table 9.5 about perception of work rewards are broken down in Table 9.10 below to represent differences and/or similarities between the four involved sectors. In the table under review the means were calculated for each sector given figures that can be relatively ranked indicating their importance to subjects. Along the side, these rewards were ranked from lowest mean (given the value one) to highest (given the value eleven). Differences between the sectors can be established by comparing either ranks or means. Variant ranks of the same aspect did not lead to statistically significant differences among their means in all cases, nor do all rewards with the same rank have statistically insignificant differences.

Comparing the means, the government sector is shown to be variant from the others along four work rewards, namely; nature of work, pay, co-workers and work

Table 9.10: Means and ranks of work rewards according to their importance to managers of the different sectors (the smaller the mean the more important the aspect is).

ASPECTS	Sectors							
	Government		Semi-Private		Financial		Manufacturing	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Nature of work	4.19	1	3.07	1	2.95	1	3.05	1
Good income	4.75	2	3.55	2	3.64	2	3.73	2
Pleasant co-workers	5.15	3	6.61	7	6.24	6	6.21	7
Fringe benefits	6.14	8	5.17	3	6.32	7	6.45	9
Promotion	6.02	7	5.79	5	5.72	4	5.76	4
Secure job	5.44	4	5.39	4	5.64	3	6.24	8
Autonomy	6.89	9	7.10	9	6.66	10	5.30	3
Good working conditions	5.91	5	5.82	6	6.14	5	6.03	5
Less work hours	8.02	11	9.46	11	9.29	11	9.91	11
Status of job	7.18	10	7.24	10	6.62	8	7.22	10
Recognition by superiors	5.94	6	6.66	8	6.64	9	6.06	6

hours. Although job security is ranked eighth by subjects of the manufacturing sector, which is substantially different from the others, means showed no statistical significance. A possible explanation for the seemingly unimportance of job security seen by subjects of this sector is that over 70% of them are expatriates to whom securing the job indefinitely is not a foremost priority. Some work rewards, although ranked the same by the different groups, showed highly statistical variations. This is shown in Table 9.11 below.

When tested individually using one way analysis of variance three variables were found to have some relationship with work rewards. These variables are: sector, nationality and father's education. The three variables then were tested simultaneously using Anova. Initially father's education was associated with five work rewards, when combined with the other two variables only two significant results were observed. In Table 9.11 outcomes of sector and nationality are reported only with the main effect of each test. Results of father's education are not listed in the Table due to their insignificant outcomes.

Analysis of the figures in these two tables reveals that managers, in total, value nature of work as the most prominent priority followed by financial rewards. At the other end of the table comes work hours as the feature least valued by all groups preceded by status of the job for all groups except for the financial sector (see Table 9.5). Looking again at Table 9.10 the figures reveal that although ranking the same, managers in the government sector value the nature of work and pay less importantly than the other groups ($F = 3.97$, $\alpha .001$, and $F = 5.15$, $\alpha .001$ respectively), whereas they perceive co-workers and work hours more importantly ($F = 7.56$, $\alpha .000$, and $F = 4.50$, $\alpha .000$ respectively). Managers of the Semi-private organisations highly value Fringe Benefits than any other group. Autonomy was highly ranked by subjects of the

manufacturing sector compared to the other sectors with equally reversed perception of job security. Also in Table 9.11 the nationality variable was found to have effect on subjects' job preference. Findings of nationality yielded unclear results, but it can be generalised that variables like pleasant co-workers and job security are more important to the Saudis, whereas autonomy and work conditions are more important to the non-Arabs.

The findings discussed so far may lend support to the agreement of how these sectors can be characterised. It has been discussed previously that the government organisations are characterised by routine, bureaucratic and less stringent work, lower but acceptable payments, high job security, less work hours, and generous vacation

Table 9.11: Results of analysis of variance for the two variables most determining perception of work rewards (tested simultaneously).

Aspects	Main effect	F - values	
		Sector(a)	Nationality(b)
Nature of work	3.66**	3.97**	1.32☆
Salary	3.59**	5.15**	.58☆
Co-workers	6.16***	7.56***	5.30**
Fringe benefits	4.03***	3.28*	1.39☆
Promotion	1.25☆	.10☆	3.02*
Job security	3.07**	.07☆	3.73**
Autonomy	8.82***	2.58*	5.65**
Working condition	3.84**	.75☆	6.13**
Work hours	6.88***	4.50**	.31☆
Job status	1.04☆	.86☆	1.02☆
Recognition	1.27☆	2.12☆	.44☆

(a) The four sectors are: 1= Government, 2= Semi-private, 3 = Financial, and 4= Manufacturing.
(b) Nationality groups are: 1= Saudis, 2= Arabs, and 3= Others.

* P < .05 ** P < .01 *** P < .001 ☆ Not significant.

and sick leave. Managers working for the government in our sample manifested a greater preference for the features associated with the government sector. They also displayed, as we saw above, a great interest in relationships within the workplace. Having pleasant work mates is a highly valued alternative to the large amount of work needing to be done. This, one should mention, is not particularly a characteristic of high achievers.

Organisations within the semi-private sector provide the most comprehensive fringe benefits compared to the other organisations in the sample. Examples of these benefits may include housing allowance, free medical treatments, up to three months salary bonus, and not to mention the yearly free tickets for almost all employees of SAUDIA Airlines (Siragelden & Siragelden, 1984).

Similarly, the high value given to autonomy by managers in the manufacturing sector stems from the high uncertainty associated with this type of organisation in which greater flexibility of the decision making process is required.

The findings reported here suggest that the work rewards indicated as important by respondents are those which characterise and distinguish their specific jobs. It is interesting to speculate therefore that subjects seek out jobs which suit their needs.

The findings are contrary to the speculation stated in the previous section that respondents may ascribe some work rewards as important only because they are dissatisfied with these aspects.

9.5.2 Respondents' Priorities when Selecting Present Job

This section is closely related to the previous one, but is different from it from the point view that it investigates the actual work interests and priorities upon which respondents made their decisions to undertake their current jobs. In the previous section, which dealt with evaluating some work rewards that are viewed as important to the sampled managers, a connection between these features and subjects current jobs was not specifically emphasised. The enquiry for work priorities and goals can help “explain why individuals may be satisfied with some jobs and occupations and not with others and why some work situations are attractive to individuals while other work situations are unattractive” (MWO, 1987: 111).

Table 9.12: Work priorities of subjects of the different nationalities when selecting present job: the three choices are combined. Frequencies and ranks (the smaller the rank the more important the aspect is).

Aspects	Nationality					
	Saudis n = 340		Arabs n = 83		Others n = 42	
	Freq	Rank	Freq	Rank	Freq	Rank
Nature of work	120	3	38	3	11	5
Financial benefits	257	1	71	1	40	1
Work environment	54	9	20	4	22	3
Promotion	61	7	12	7	6	6
Job security	68	6	7	9	3	8
Job feature	168	2	55	2	23	2
Near family	104	4	6	10	1	9
Same speciality	77	5	18	5	5	7
Assigned to job	50	10	8	8	1	10
Other reasons	61	8	13	6	14	4
Total*	1020		248		126	

* Total frequencies add to 300% excluding missing values.

The investigation accounted in this section did not provide participants with a predefined list of items, instead they were freely left to state the actual three most influential factors when making their decisions to assume their current employments. The purpose here is two-fold. First, is to locate the real work interests that subjects may hold differently, and secondly to further examine the work rewards that are generally appointed as important in the previous section.

Table 9.13: Work priorities of subjects of the different sectors when selecting present job: the first three choices are combined. Frequencies and ranks (the smaller the rank the more important the aspect is).

Aspects	Sectors							
	Government n = 117		Semi-Private n = 123		Financial n = 119		Manufac. n = 107	
	Freq	Rank	Freq	Rank	Freq	Rank	Freq	Rank
Nature of work	24	8	51	3	45	3	41	3
Financial benefits	47	3	138	1	89	1	94	1
Work environment	29	6	24	4	23	5	34	4
Promotion	14	9	22	5	31	4	12	7
Job security	26	7	19	7	9	10	10	8
Job status	46	4	76	2	82	2	62	2
Near family	62	1	21	6	19	7	9	9
Same speciality	52	2	11	9	21	6	17	6
Assigned to job	34	5	5	10	12	8	8	10
Other reasons	8	10	14	8	11	9	25	5
Total*	342		381		342		312	

* Total frequencies add to 300% excluding missing values.

The resulting factors were classified into ten categories, responses for the three choices were then combined to form one overall index. The results for nationalities are summarised in Table 9.12. The categories in the table are ranked for

each group according to the frequency in each category. The higher the frequency the more important the item is. The results indicate that the Saudis differ from the other two groups mainly along two dimensions. The first is that work environment was mentioned less frequently by the Saudis than by others as one of the important priorities when selecting a job. The other is that they chose their occupations on the basis of their family residence.

As with the perception of work rewards, the government sector showed a unique pattern, whereas the other three sectors displayed a remarkably similar ranking to each other, and were identical in the top three categories. Table 9.14 presents the intercorrelation coefficients amongst the four sectors using the ranking in Table 9.13. They clearly indicate how different the Government sector is from the other three homogeneous sectors.

While financial benefit was the most motivating factor for managers of the private and semi-private sectors, the factor most thought of by government managers when selecting their current jobs was the family residence. These managers needed to be in the same city where their families lived (presumably their larger families, e.g. parents, brothers, sisters and close relatives). This is a strong indication that their life interests lie outside their work environment.

The second most important factor which led the government managers to their present occupations was specified as "the same speciality" which means that they take jobs that require their qualifications. This attribute may not be a very accurate classification. It is probably more appropriate that this category be combined with the category, which they ranked fifth; namely, "assigned to the job". This category means that the employee has limited options in choosing his job. This category is also rated

highly by the government managers. The huge role the government plays in running the diverse economy of the country can be responsible for having managers with diverse qualifications, and be blamed for limiting the private sector's role. It is noteworthy to mention that the joining of the sampled managers in their present organisations took place sometimes in the past (average of over ten years) where the private sector assumed a very limited role in the country's economy.

This particular factor illustrates the widespread recruitment procedures firmly practised until recently by the government central employment office (The General Civil Service Bureau, GCSB), in which university students sign accords with the government indicating that they are bound to work for the government after graduation, for at least the same number of years they spent at university. In such cases graduates have limited choices in choosing their jobs or the organisation they join. Taken together, these two categories do not particularly unearth the underlying causes for committing oneself to a life-long employment at the time when other alternatives were available. The reason might be that the question at hand investigates the reasons for choosing the current job

Table 9.14: Intercorrelation coefficients between the ranks of reasons for joining current organisation reported in Table 9.13.

	Government	Semi-Private	Financial	Manufacturing
Government	1.0000			
Semi-Private	0.0545 (0.881)	1.0000		
Financial	0.2121 (0.556)	0.8424 (0.002)	1.0000	
Manufacturing	-0.0424 (0.907)	0.8061 (0.005)	0.7697 (0.009)	1.0000

* Values in parentheses denote Alpha probability.

rather than the type of organisation or sector. This particular point will be examined in the next subsection.

Another intriguing difference noticed between the government sector and the other sectors is that some factors that are thought central to work life were considered insignificant to government managers. The nature of work and promotion were rated the least important factors to be considered when one is weighing the options to undertake a job. It is worth mentioning that promotion was also not highly considered by managers of the manufacturing sector. This is most likely attributed to the fact that managers of this sector have no plans for long-term careers in the country.

To summarise, managers of the government sector have shown a unique pattern that differs from the other manager groups who exhibited very similar patterns to each other. The factors considered by respondents when making actual employment decisions are still the same factors regarded important by the same individuals after working for many years in the same job.

The finding here leads one to arrive at a conclusion supporting the speculation put forward earlier, that the decision made by an individual to take up a specific employment, when many alternatives are feasible, is a rational one that is carefully calculated and made within personal, social and cultural frameworks. Such decision can be considered as indicative of where the central life interests of a person lie. Although central life interests are not the central theme of this study, it can be seen, however, that work and monetary gains are by no means the paramount central life interests of government managers.

9.5.3 Satisfaction With Job Aspects

Satisfaction with job aspects can further help indicate work orientations of the respondents. Feelings of workers about their job aspects can be considered as another way of expressing the importance of these aspects to them. The facet with which the individual is least satisfied may be the one most important to him or her (Hulin *et al.*, 1963). Another reason that we may gain some knowledge about work orientations from examining job satisfaction is that satisfaction may reflect whether expectations of workers from a given work reward have been met or not. Although job satisfaction is not a measure of work orientations, Blackburn and Mann defend the use of job satisfaction as an implicit indicator of work orientations by the following statement “...if workers do have orientations which they bring to the work situation these will

Table 9.15: *F* values of job satisfaction for ten job aspects and overall job satisfaction for the sector and nationality variables.

Satisfaction with	F - values	
	Sector ^(a)	Nationality ^(b)
Attention paid to suggestions you make	6.34***	11.44***
Your rate of pay	24.54***	1.97☆
Amount of variety in your job	7.44***	18.59***
Your chance of promotion	10.69***	10.75***
Your job security	4.59**	8.76***
The freedom to choose your own method of working	8.09***	12.21***
Your opportunity to use your abilities	4.78**	13.00***
Your hours of work	10.23***	3.19*
The amount of responsibility you are given	2.80*	5.21**
The recognition you get for good work	0.99☆	4.04*
Overall Job Satisfaction	7.28***	13.50***

(a) The four groups are: 1= Government, 2= Semi-private, 3 = Financial, and 4= Manufacturing.
(b) Nationality groups are: 1= Saudis, 2= Arabs, and 3= Others.
* P < .05 ** P < .01 *** P <.001 ☆ Not significant.

influence the evaluation made. Thus we may be able to observe their effects in expression of satisfaction of dissatisfaction” (1979: 168).

The responses in the job satisfaction questionnaire which include ten job aspects and overall job satisfaction are outlined in Table 9.15 below. The results are depicted along the two dimensions of sector and nationality. In respect of nationality, the feelings expressed towards the intrinsic and extrinsic facets of the job indicate that the Saudis in general are less satisfied with most of job aspects especially those intrinsic aspects relevant to job performance which include responsibility, freedom at work, recognition for doing a good work, and using one's abilities. This may indicate the frustration the Saudis have in respect of the lack of freedom in conducting their duties. This can point to either that superiors lack the confidence in the ability of their Saudi subordinates or, more likely, to centralised management practised in Saudi government organisations. Regarding job security the one group that is more concerned about this aspect is the Arab subjects, excluding the Saudis. The reason is that they are frequently replaced with Saudis when available. For the non-Arabs, they mostly work with foreign management in joint venture companies and therefore guarantee their jobs, or work as highly skilled labour who can not be easily replaced. In general the Saudis exhibit less satisfaction with their jobs as a whole.

The most prominent feature of the comparisons between the four sectors is that subjects of the government sector are less satisfied than the other groups in almost all aspects. They are particularly most dissatisfied with the job content in addition to pay and chance of promotion. The opposite group to them is that of the manufacturing sector. The aspects that government's subjects are mostly satisfied with are work hours and job security. For overall job satisfaction they are the group that is least satisfied with their jobs while subjects of the manufacturing sector are the most satisfied.

In view of the findings of this investigation, results may not lend support to the idea presented above that most important aspects are the ones subjects are least satisfied with. Unfortunately, the investigation of satisfaction was not held in conjunction with investigating the respondent's intentions regarding the items with what he is least satisfied. For this deficiency the responses exhibited by respondents can mean the lack of that aspect in their jobs. That is, these results are taken as description of their jobs which is consistent with results reported in the above two subsections. Thus, managers working in the government sector are associated with jobs which lack enrichment, are administratively centralised, and provide less competitive financial advantages. Although satisfaction with certain individual aspects of the job is not taken as a perfect indicator of work orientations, dissatisfaction with the overall job displayed by subjects of the government sector may point to their feelings towards work in general.

9.5.4 Identifying Sector Preference

The purpose of this subsection is to further extend the investigation into locating job preferences amongst subjects. In the previous subsections the comparisons involved work rewards from which many jobs can be identified. In this subsection, however, the choices will be focused to include four major sources of employments, namely, government organisations, semi-private organisations, private organisations and self-employment in which the respondent is the sole owner and manager of the business. From these employments, respondents were asked to indicate their most favourable one by a straight forward hypothetical question which reads "suppose you were given the chance again, what kind of organisation would you prefer to work for?"

It is expected of this question to serve two purposes. First, being similar to the procedure followed in the previous subsections but more focused, it is intended from this question to ascertain the consistency of the responses in previous subsections, and second to isolate the sector preference from influential factors that intervene when actual decisions are made. Therefore, respondents are free to choose the sector that is favourable to them without any restriction.

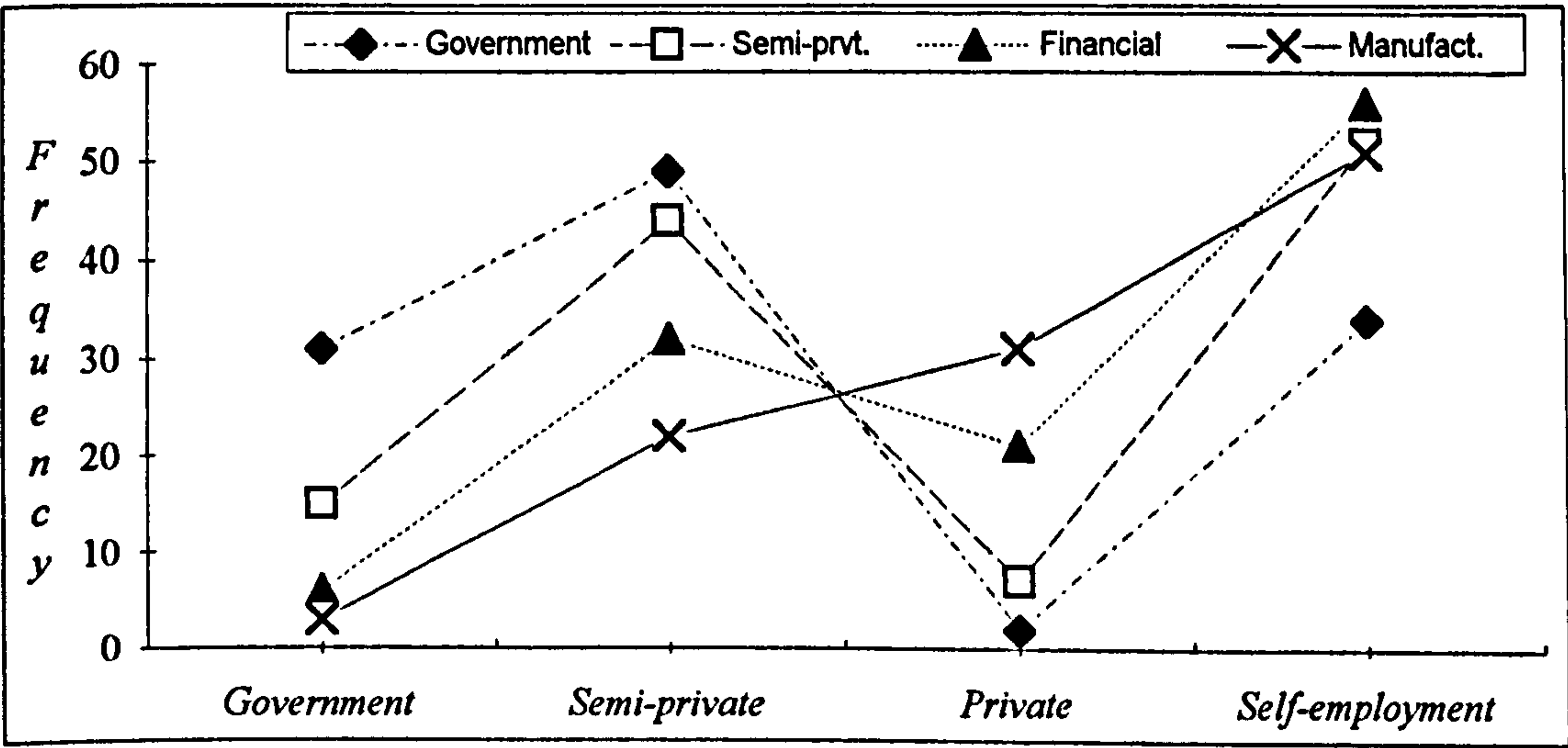
Based on their voluntary decisions, it is expected that those who favour a specific kind of employment should have some common grounds with each other. The general result of this question is depicted in Figure 9.2 at the beginning of the chapter. In it, self-employment was designated the most favourable choice, followed by semi-private sector. In Figure 9.3 below the figures were reduced to present the answers of subjects of each single sector. Looking at the Figure in question reveals the variations between the questioned sectors which apparently have different patterns. The variations noticed between the different groups is supported by a highly significant statistical test ($\chi^2 = 87.46$, DF 9, $\alpha .0000$).

Subjects of both the financial and manufacturing sectors displayed a relatively similar patterns, in which government choice was least favourable with hardly more than 5% at best. Except for the government managers, close to 50% of each of the other groups valued working for themselves as the highest preference. Unlike the other managers who are less enthusiastic to work for private organisations, the second preference for managers of the manufacturing sector was working for such organisations. An explanation for this might lie in the fact that most of these managers, who are currently working for private organisations, are expatriates who on the one hand have different work orientations, interests and goals from the Saudis, and on the other have a more mature industrial culture than the Saudis. Meanwhile, the Saudis

have shown a markedly alienated attitude towards private organisations, which is evidently represented by less than 6% of the semi-private managers, and, worse, less than 2% of the government managers favour working for such organisations.

As consistent with previous results, the government managers seem to have different interests, and hence different patterns from the other groups. In addition to showing less preference to self-employment, which is not a characteristic of “high achievers”, and far less preference to employment in private organisations than other managers, over 26% of the government managers exhibited an interest in government occupations that is more than twice of their nearest successive group. This shows that a sizeable group of government managers, knowing all the demands and rewards of the different jobs in different organisations, have particular needs that can only be fulfilled

Figure 9.3
Preferences for employment type by subjects of the four sectors.



$\chi^2 = 87.46$

Df = 9

$\alpha = 0.0000$

within government organisations.

The considerable number of the government managers who favour the semi-private organisations, although these organisations are to an extent government-owned, may hold more positive attitudes towards work than the ones who would still choose to work for government organisations, and would prefer their earnings to be tied to their performance. In the meantime this preference could also be taken as a manifestation of dissatisfaction with some rewards of their jobs. Indeed their overall job satisfaction scores indicate that is the case. Comparing job satisfaction scores of these two groups, i.e. the government managers who still prefer to work for the government sector and those who prefer to work for the semi-private sector, indicate that the latter are significantly less satisfied with their jobs than the former (Means 30.96, 33.97 respectively, $t = 2.30$, DF. 78, $\alpha .024$).

In spite of the fact that the argument above was based primarily on an hypothetical question, it in fact gave a plausible account for the managers' interests and priorities. Before discussing this conclusion, let us review the hypothetical question. It can be argued that choices based on hypothetical situations may be one fulfilling wishful desires, and choices might not be undertaken in reality. In hypothetical situations individuals are not constrained by factors which need to be seriously considered when making choices. Individuals react only to most attractive choices whether or not they can be actualised. In other words their choices can be interpreted as a reflection of their inner needs or desires. Since this applies to all groups in this study, the differences between the groups is considered a result of actual different needs. The responses of the subjects were not taken literally in this analysis, rather, the differences between the groups were examined as indicators of their preferences.

Owing to the results discussed above one can assume the validity of differences in preferences pointed out by subjects of the different sectors.

9.6 Overview

This chapter began with more elaboration on the instruments used in this study. The consistency of each subscale was tested using the two reliability test formulas, Cronbach's alpha and Spearman-Brown split-half reliabilities. This was followed by a general presentation of all results acquired in this study.

The two management levels, middle and lower levels, were compared and contrasted. Results revealed no significant differences in respect of the chief factors of the study. The differences acquired, however, were all position-related ones which were expected and not relevant to the purpose of the study.

The main purpose of this chapter is to identify differences among sample subjects in work attitudes, priorities and orientations from which tentative conclusions can be drawn. A brief account of culture and the meaning of work was first presented. In it, the capacity of cultures to influence perception of work was outlined, and factors which play significant parts in deciding work commitment were indicated.

Throughout history, societies have given different meanings to work ranging from total repulsion to work to the modern advanced industrial societies in which work is viewed as self-fulfilling and a cause of prosperity.

Interest in the effect of the wider society on work perception was started by the Weber's (1904) thesis "The Protestant Work Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism". This thesis became known as the social action approach. The social action theory

relates what goes on in the work place to the individual and his or her social context. Recent studies emphasise the ability of traditional societies to form industrial cultures by transforming certain elements within them.

Assessing work attitudes of the sample using the "lottery question" revealed highly positive work attitudes held by all groups. Amongst the factors found to be deciding work attitudes are age, rural-urban rearing, and education. Amongst the sectors, government managers were found to hold relatively but insignificantly less positive attitudes to work. The "lottery question" gives a rough account of work attitude in general. More accurate and precise methods are used subsequently in the analysis.

With regard to the assessment of job orientations which are closely related to the above investigation, four approaches were undertaken. Firstly, general importance of work rewards was examined between the groups of sectors. The government managers displayed a different pattern from the one displayed by the other groups. They viewed 'having pleasant work mates' and 'fewer hours to work' as most important rewards in the job, whereas 'nature of work' and 'promotion' were classified as the least important rewards of the job. In general, each sector's subjects highly valued the work rewards that characterise their specific sector.

The second approach was concerned with work goals and priorities of respondents when selecting their current jobs. Responses indicated the actual work interests of the subjects. Again government managers, unlike the others, indicated that their central life interests were in their social life rather than at the workplace.

In the third approach job satisfaction was examined on the basis that feelings of workers about their job aspects would be another way of expressing the importance

of these aspects to them. Results showed that Saudis were less satisfied with most of the job aspects and with the job as a whole. The same finding was reported for the government managers. Dissatisfaction with the job as a whole may be indicative of negative attitude to work.

To verify the above findings a fourth approach was followed. This approach demanded that subjects indicate their preferred sector. Findings show that subjects of the private sector showed a tendency not to favour the government sector which was fairly favoured by the government managers themselves. Except for the government managers, other managers demonstrated a strong desire to form their own businesses.

A conclusion arrived at within the framework of this investigation is that the decisions made by individuals to work for a specific organisation are ones that are based on rational calculations, which satisfy their most inner psychological needs.

CHAPTER TEN

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA PERTAINING TO *n* ACHIEVEMENT

- 1. *Variables Relating to *n* Achievement***
 - 2. *Interaction Effect of Variables Accounting for
Variance in *n* Achievement***
 - 3. *Review of Variables in the Model***
 - 4. *Predicting *n* Achievement from Perception of
Work Rewards***
 - 5. *Discriminating High and Low Achievers by Job
Characteristics***
-

CHAPTER X

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA PERTAINING TO *n* ACHIEVEMENT

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is devoted to the analysis and interpretation of the results of the main concept of the study, i.e. the *n* Achievement. Although the evolution and development of this psychological need are not the prime concern of the study, determining its relation to other variables can help us have a better understanding of the effect this may have on an individuals' behaviour. It should also be possible to establish some sort of cause-and-effect relationships with some of these variables. That is, some variables can be shown to be the cause of developing this need rather than to be the result of it.

The chapter begins by examining individual relationships between the *n* Achievement on the one hand and other variables on the other. Results of the univariate tests with which *n* Achievement has a significant relationships will be reported. A multivariate statistical test will then be used to determine the variables that account for most of the variance in *n* Achievement (the dependent variable), and at the same time control for the overall error rate. Following this, most of the independent variables which account for some variance in the dependent variable will be discussed in separate sections.

In the last two sections some predictive measures will be applied first to establish if high and low achievers significantly differ from each other in terms of their perception of work rewards, and secondly to determine if the jobs they hold have specific characteristics for each group and if that is consistent with characteristics proposed in the theoretical side of the concept.

10.1 Variables Relating to the *n* Achievement

The achievement motivation is first examined against all variables. In theory some variables have been suggested to have relationship with the Achievement motivation. There are, however, some reasons to believe that some other variables may also have an association with this variable. Therefore, these variables have been introduced in this study for the purpose of exploring the nature of their relation to this concept.

The examining of the individual variables summarised in Table 10.1 resulted in finding fifteen variables which have a significant relationship with *n* Achievement on a bivariate level. Different types of statistical tests were applied to the different variables investigated depending on the type of their data. Most of the findings indicated a highly significant relationships.

The variables reported in Table 10.1 are classified into three categories. The first which is termed *Personal* variables is for those which describe the personal and demographic characteristics of the respondent, e.g., education, nationality, etc. In respect of respondents' education, two groups have been found to deviate significantly from the others. Individuals with elementary education (the lowest group) scored the least, while those with vocational and technical education scored the highest. Area of speciality also has an effect on *n* achievement scores. Managers majoring in business

related studies (e.g., business administration, economic, accounting, etc.) showed high achievement scores compared to those majoring in sciences, and social science studies, whereas subjects majoring in agriculture scored the lowest.

Subjects were also asked to state if they have had any education abroad. That is, outside their country of origin. The result of this enquiry indicates that subjects who

Table 10.1: Summery of individual variables with which n Achievement has significant relationships.

VARIABLES	TEST	VALUE	DF.	α
<i>Personal variables</i>				
Respondent's education	One-way Anova	6.20	463	0.000
Area of speciality (Five areas)	One-way Anova	2.962	463	0.019
Have studied abroad	t - test	2.91	461	0.004
Nationality *	One-way Anova	16.68	464	0.000
Religion ♦	t - test	-4.25	463	0.000
Father's education	One-way Anova	7.51	462	0.000
Family size (from low to high)	Pearson r	-0.135		0.002
Province ☆	One-way Anova	3.37	464	0.035
Regions ★	One-way Anova	5.93	336	0.003
<i>Career-related variables</i>				
Type of sector	One-way Anova	7.82	464	0.000
Length of service with organisation	Pearson r	-0.111		0.017
Have worked with other organisation(s)	t - test	4.99	463	0.000
Sector Preference⊙	One-way Anova	6.44	455	0.000
Have had training	t - test	1.90	463	0.048
<i>Personality variables</i>				
n Affiliation	Pearson r	-0.168		0.000

* Nationality groups are: 1= Saudis, 2= Arabs, and 3= Others.
♦ Muslims vs. non-Muslims.
☆ The different provinces of Saudi Arabia in which subjects are working.
★ The different regions of Saudi Arabia in which subjects spent most of their early life.
⊙ Subjects' choice of favourite sector (four sectors).

Note: Provinces and Regions mean the same thing, but the two terms are used to distinguish between the two uses.

have been totally or partially educated in countries other than their own have scored higher than those who have never been educated abroad.

The nationality variable was classified to make three different groups. The Saudis formed one group, the second group was formed by the remaining Arabs, and the third group was made up of the remaining subjects. Examining the different nationality groups revealed a statistically significant difference with Saudis scoring the lowest followed by the remaining Arabs. The other nationalities scored the highest.

With such results one must suspect that some specific elements within the social structure of subjects' cultures may be responsible for forming peoples' *n* Achievement. Unfortunately, the study was not set to comprehensively investigate the effect of social aspects on *n* Achievement. Nevertheless, some social factors investigated in the study have been found to have some influence on the achievement motive scores.

One of the social factors included in this study was religion. In the theoretical part of this study it was indicated that religion is a chief factor around which the theory of Weber's work ethic centres, and which is given, to a lesser extent, a similar but less direct role in McClelland's *n* Achievement theory. Nevertheless, recent works failed to show any strong association between religion and work orientations (c.f. Furnham, 1990a; Kim, 1977; MOW, 1987; and Ray, 1982). However, investigating how one perceives the role of religion on directing ones day to day work-related behaviours is not part of the present study. The only enquiry referring to religion was a statement directly asking respondents to state their religion.

The religion variable in this study consists of two groups. One group represents Muslim subjects (441 respondents), and the other represents the non-

Muslims (five religions or 'sects' represented by 22 respondents). Although a significant difference between the two groups prevailed with non-Muslim scoring higher, interpretation should be made only after other social and cultural variables are considered together. Failing to do so may result in mistakenly attributing an effect to a factor that might be representing some other social or cultural factors.

Education of respondents' parents is thought to be one of the important factors deciding how children are raised, and therefore the level of their *n* Achievement. Asking for mother's education may be perceived by many subjects as a little too intruding a question, therefore it was thought sufficient to enquire only about father's education. Primarily the result of this variable supports the hypothesis that the higher the father's education the higher the child's *n* Achievement score.

Another social factor, that is thought to be related to *n* Achievement, is the family size. It relates here, as detailed in the discussion in Chapter seven, to the family from which the respondent came (or in which he lived his early life), i.e., parents, brothers, sisters, etc., but not wife and children. The result of this variable indicates a negative relationship between the two variables. The larger the family a respondent belongs to the lower his achievement score.

The last two variables, which should also be clarified, are Provinces and Regions. The term Provinces refers to the three provinces of Saudi Arabia from which subjects are drawn, or in which their organisations are located. The three provinces are the Central, Eastern and Western provinces. Findings of this variable show subjects of the Central province to score significantly lower than subjects of the other provinces.

The other term is Regions which is used here to denote the origins of the respondents. That is, the different regions of Saudi Arabia in which they spent most of

their childhood. This may apply particularly to the Saudi subjects. The reason it is included in the investigation is that the different Saudi regions have partially different cultures and, more importantly, have experienced different developmental stages.

The achievement motive is mainly developed in early childhood, and so the family norms and practices are important determinants of the motive. Furthermore, education is likely to be one regulating factor in child rearing practices. Since some of the regions had in recent years the privilege of more formal and better education systems than others, these regions should produce more individuals with such a motive. The findings indicate that individuals who were nurtured in the Central and the other regions of Saudi Arabia have scored significantly lower than the Eastern and Western regions.

The second class or category of variables are the *career-related* ones. It includes five variables along which individuals have a different score of achievement. First is the sector type. Amongst the different sectors, the government sector subjects have scored the least. Second, tenure with organisation has a negative correlation with achievement. That is, individuals who served longer with their current organisations scored lower than those with shorter services. Third, subjects who have worked with other organisations have higher achievement scores than those who have no previous experience with other organisations. Fourth, amongst the sector preferred, subjects who prefer to work for the government sector scored the least. The final variable in this category compares those who have training against those who have not. Between the two, individuals with no training scored lower than the other group.

The final category pertains to the *personality* variables examined in this study. Only *n* Affiliation has a significant negative relationship with *n* Achievement. This

means that the higher the individual scores on one motive the lower the same individual scores on the other motive.

10.2 Interaction Effect of Variables Accounting for Variance in *n* Achievement

In this section a multivariate statistical technique will be applied to investigate the relationship between *n* Achievement as a dependent variable and other variables which account for some of its variance. This is an extension to the analysis discussed in the previous section in which some of the variables with which *n* Achievement has relative association were reviewed. The purpose of this procedure is to accurately assess the effect of each variable while controlling for the other variables, and at the same time control for the overall error rate (Hair *et. al.*, 1992).

It is well known fact in the behavioural sciences that a relationship between two given variables may not provide a causal explanation for the relationship. Rushing to determine the cause and effect of a simple relationship without further examination would be a serious error, because the correlation could well be the result of a third factor, or even a spurious one (Pagano, 1986). Likewise, the bivariate relationships between the variables discussed in the above section may in fact be a result of mediating variables. Therefore, it is necessary to apply a certain form of multivariate technique to appropriately account for the complexity of such a psychological phenomena. The technique needed to be applied here has first to account for the different type of data these variables have, and second be able to assess the effect of each variable while controlling for the effect of the others.

The capacity of multiple regression to meet the criteria spelled out above, and enable the use of a metric dependent variable, and an unspecified number of metric and

(possibly by creating indicator variables) non-metric independent variables, made it a plausible candidate to be used for this analysis. It is also the most common and *“probably the single most useful form of multivariate method, analyzes the common and separate influences of two or more independent variables on a dependent variable”* (Kerlinger, 1986: 138). The predictive power of the test was not in fact of paramount importance at this point. However, it is useful to assess the contribution of every single variable to the overall variation.

10.2.1 Variables in the Model

It has been pointed out, in several places in this study, that it is not the aim of the study to anticipate all variables that form the achievement motivation. It is the aim, however, to assess its effect on organisational behaviours, and, at the same time, point to some of the variables thought influential in creating such a motive. The variables entered in the model, (as shown in Table 10.2) can be classified into three groups personal, career-related, and personality variables. Since the aim is to explore the variables that can explain any of the variation in the dependent variable, most of the variables of this study were included. Variables of categorical nature had to be indicator coded to be suitable for use in regression equation. The creation of indicator variables (or dummy variables) requires in each indicator variable one group to be coded 1 if it meets certain specifications, and 0 to be given for the remaining groups, with the comparison group taking the value of 0 all the time. Table 10.3 lists the indicator variables used in the final regression model.

Table 10.2: List of the variables entered in the stepwise regression equation with *n* Achievement as the dependent variable.

VARIABLES	
<i>Organisational Variables:</i>	
1- Sectors	2- Management level.
3- Years of experience	4- Training programmes
5- Sector preference.	6- Attitude towards work.
7- Monthly income.	
<i>Personal Variables:</i>	
1- Marital status.	2- Number of children
3- Family size.	4- Age.
5- Nationality	6- Religion.
7- Education.	8- Speciality.
9- Foreign education.	10- Father's education
11- Rural-Urban origin	
<i>Personality Variables:</i>	
1- Need for Affiliation	2- Job Satisfaction
3- Locus of Control	

These variables were entered using the forward stepwise method. In such a method, which is the most commonly used method (Norusis, 1990b), the variable that explains the greatest amount of error in the dependent variable will enter first; the variable that explains the greatest amount of error in conjunction with the first will enter second, and so on. Thus, the variable that explains the greatest amount of variance unexplained by the variables already in the equation enters the equation in each step (Nie *et al.*, 1975). The stepwise method has the merit of recomputing the regression equation after each step, and examining the partial *F* value for the original variables in the model and remove the variable that no longer makes a significant contribution (Hair *et. al.*, 1992). To control for the combinatorial effect of two or more variables which can not be detected using the stepwise method, regression of some subsets of variables suspected of having a combined effect was run and no substantial

Table 10.3: Description of indicator variables used in the regression model for the *n* Achievement.

VARIABLES	Description of indicator variables	
Nationality	<i>Saudis</i>	Saudi subjects compared to non-Arabs.
	<i>Arabs</i>	Arab subjects (excluding Saudis) compared to non-Arabs.
Sectors	<i>Sector 1</i>	Subjects of the government sector compared to manufacturing sector.
	<i>Sector 2</i>	Subjects of the semi-private sector compared to manufacturing sector.
	<i>Sector 3</i>	Subjects of the financial sector compared to manufacturing sector.
Regions	<i>Region 1</i>	Subjects reared in the Saudi central region compared to other subjects.
	<i>Region 2</i>	Subjects reared in the Saudi western region compared to other subjects.
	<i>Region 3</i>	Subjects reared in the Saudi eastern region, compared to other subjects.
Sector preference	<i>Preference 1</i>	Subjects prefer to work in the government sector compared to private sector.
	<i>Preference 2</i>	Subjects prefer to work in the semi-private sector compared to private sector.

combinatorial effect was observed. One major problem of multiple regression that needs to be carefully considered is multicollinearity amongst independent variables.

10.2.2 Results of the Regression Model

Practically, the dependent variable (*n* Achievement) is considered the function of a vector of personal and organisational characteristics which are regressed against it to assess the predictive power of each variable and to assess how much the model can explain of the dependent variable variance. In equation term, thus:

$$A_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots \beta_k X_k + \varepsilon_i$$

Where

- A_i is the predicted n Achievement value of individual, i .
- β_0 is the constant term independent of predictors.
- $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots \beta_k$ are the changes in implicit value associated with variables 1, 2, ... and k .
- $X_1, X_2, \dots X_k$ are the units of independent variables 1, 2, and k .
- ε is the error term.

The results summarised in Table 10.4 list the variables found to have an effect on the achievement motivation. Not all outcomes of the model are easy to interpret. Rather, some variables displayed unexpected results. For instance, monthly income has manifested a significant negative relationship with the dependent variable in the multivariate analysis, while in fact, as seen in Table 10.1, it showed no relationship at the bivariate level. This, one can argue, might be a representation of some other factors. It could also be interpreted within the context of employment position; the higher the position the less of an achiever the manager is, although there is no theoretical support for this position. Furthermore, this was not supported by the test of the dichotomous management level, which represents employment position, examined in the previous chapter.

By contrast, some other variables showed significant differences at the bivariate level, but when combined with other variables in the multivariate analysis they failed to maintain similar results. It is likely that they have been explained by some other variables, examples of this are respondent's education, religion, and location of organisations in the different provinces of Saudi Arabia from which subjects were

drawn. Religion has seemingly been explained by nationality, and location of organisations has most likely been explained by sectors.

It should be mentioned that in the analytical process the statistical significance of variables entered at the beginning of the analysis decreases as more variables are added to the model. The *F* test of the model is highly significant ($F= 11.451$, $P<0.001$), but one can note that the R^2 is relatively small given the number of variables entered in the equation, which means that all the variables explain only 30% of the variance in the

Table 10.4: Regression analysis results for personal and organisational variables with *n* Achievement as the dependent variable.

VARIABLE *	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Saudis	-1.234	.386	-.249	-3.20	.001
Arabs	-1.300	.417	-.229	-3.12	.002
Father's Education (from low to high)	.155	.075	.098	2.06	.039
n Affiliation (from low to high)	-.209	.047	-.195	-4.47	.000
Sector 1	-.578	.271	-.104	-2.36	.000
Managers worked with other organisations	.696	.202	.156	3.44	.000
Region 1	-.627	.242	-.115	-2.59	.009
Monthly income (from low to high)	-.322	.071	-.222	-4.54	.000
Sector 2	.754	.246	.151	3.06	.002
Managers educated abroad	.459	.210	.104	2.18	.029
Sector 3	.474	.246	.093	2.42	.033
Preference 1	-.600	.351	-.103	-1.97	.041
Family size (from low to high)	-.057	.022	-.091	-2.06	.045
(Constant)	28.146	.782		35.98	.000
Multiple R				.559	
R square				.313	
Adjusted R square				.295	
Standard error				1.969	
F = 11.451					
Signif F = 0.000					

* For a description of the indicator variables refer to Table 10.3.

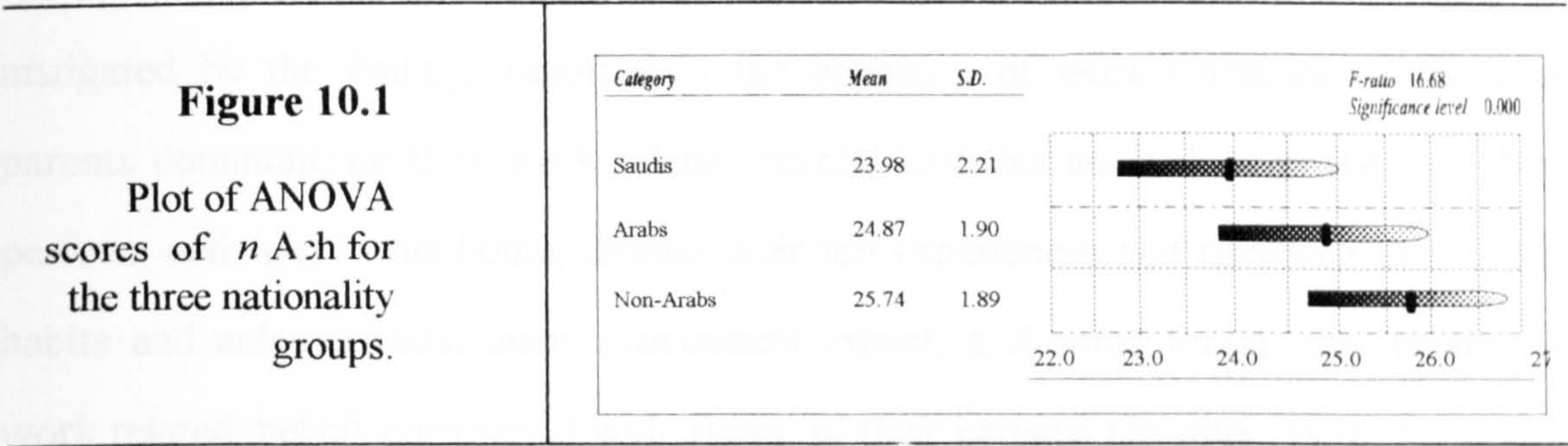
dependent variable. This, as typical of psychological variables and as pointed out above, can be explained by the fact that there are many other variables not covered in this study which are the source of the motive and can account for most of the variance in it.

10.3 Review of Variables in the Model

In this section some of the variables resulting from the regression analysis will be individually discussed. As shown in Table 10.4, the variables that have been expected to have some sort of relationship with *n* Achievement are; nationality (or what should be called 'culture' as it represents clusters of nations with a valid representation of only one nationality, namely, the Saudis), father's education, *n* Affiliation, previous experience with other organisations, rearing in different part of Saudi Arabia, monthly income, sectors, foreign education, sector preference, and family size.

10.3.1 Cultures

The nationality variable, as discussed above, represent three groups, namely, Saudis, the remaining Arabs, and others. Representing individual countries apart from Saudi Arabia is not possible in this study. The analysis of variance finding depicted in Figure 10.1 shows that the three groups are significantly different from each other with the Saudis scoring the lowest of the groups followed by other Arabs group, whereas the non-Arabs scoring the highest. However, the regression analysis table (Table 10.4) indicates that the Saudis and the remaining Arabs have very similar results compared to non-Arabs when examined in conjunction with other variables. Therefore, subjects should be classified into two groups; namely, Arabs and non-Arabs. That is, Arabic and non-Arabic cultures. In addition, some of the variables in Table 10.4 point to social and cultural differences, such as father's education and family size.



A point which should be mentioned here is that the Saudi group includes all subjects working in the government sector, compared to the other sectors, they have substantially low achievement scores. This point will be elaborated in the section concerned with sectors.

The findings of this variable clearly indicate that cultural differences between the two groups exist with non-Arabs being more achievement striving individuals. Unfortunately, this study falls short of investigating the cultural aspects that may be responsible for the evolution and development of the motive in the individuals.

In spite of the clear indication of differences within the two groups, one should be cautious in interpreting such results where the sample, particularly the non-Saudis, is a captive one. It is evident throughout this dissertation that the non-Saudi subjects are under-represented in many of the categories. For instance, over 88% of the non-Arab subjects work for the private sector, 0%, and less than 6% of the subjects of the government and semi-private sectors, respectively, are non-Saudis. Results would be more valid if similar studies were available different countries.

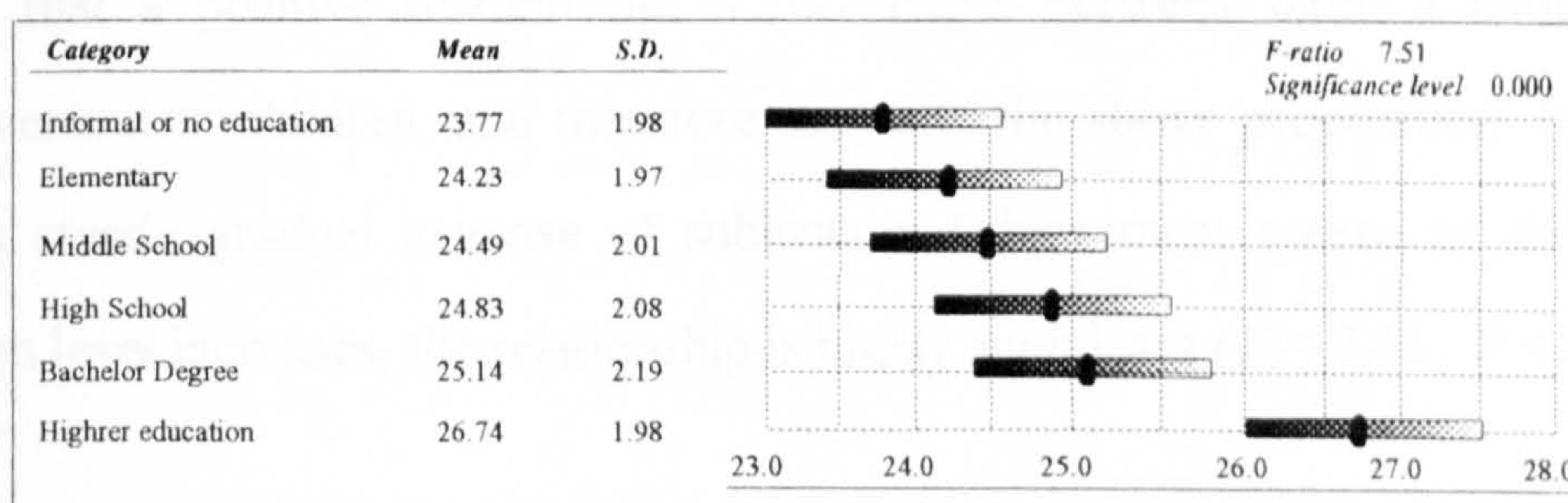
10.3.2 Father’s Education

The idea of investigating the relationship between parents’ personal and socio-economic characteristics and the achievement motivation of their children, was

instigated by the findings reported in the literature of work orientations. Because parents communicate their work related beliefs, attitudes and values in the way they perform activities in the home, discuss their job experiences and reinforce their work habits and achievements, many researchers expect, and some found, that children's work related beliefs correspond with those of their parents' (Feather, 1978; Furnham, 1987; and Wijting *et al.*, 1978). In particular, Argyle and Robinson (1962) suggest that children acquire a high *n* Achievement by identifying with their achievement-oriented parents. That is to say, children's *n* Achievement is affected by their parents' demographic and psychographic characteristics.

Figure 10.2

*Plot of ANOVA results of *n* Ach for father's education.*



This investigation did not set out to verify these findings. Rather, it was inspired by them to examine the effect of those personal characteristics which have received less attention. The education level of individuals and achievement motivation was examined in several studies, and no significant relationships were found. No studies have been found which report on the effect of parents' education level.

It is the belief of the researcher that parents' education would have some effect on children's *n* Achievement on the grounds that, first *n* achievement is accepted to be developed in early childhood through child rearing, hence parents' characteristics

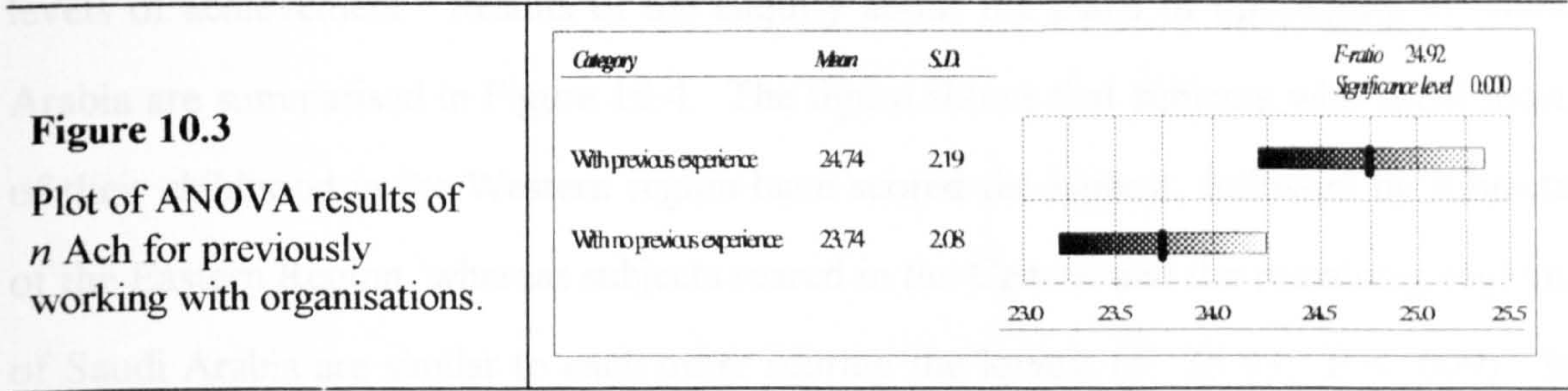
must determine to a certain extent the development of this motive. Second, some of the studies mentioned above show that characteristics of parents of children with high *n* Achievement are more descriptive of educated individuals than illiterate. Parents of high *n* Achievement children were reported to set more realistic and attainable goals for their children, encourage high standard performance, stress self-reliance, and value education (McClelland, 1961; and Winterbottom, 1958). In another study Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) found fathers of the high achiever to be much less authoritarian than fathers of the low achievers. These descriptions may describe educated persons, and therefore parents of high *n* Achievement children more educated than parents of low *n* Achievement children.

Findings of this variable (only father's education) in the present study clearly indicate that a positive relationship in fact exists between father's education and *n* Achievement in children, and therefore supports the above proposition. Figure 10.2 shows a steady gradual increase of subjects *n* Achievement scores as their fathers' education level increases, the relationship is highly significant ($F = 7.51$, $P < 0.001$).

10.3.3 *Inter-organisation Mobility*

This variable, or which has been called as previous experience with other organisations, or experience with previous organisation(s), distinguishes respondents who have worked with other organisations and those who have not. The interest here was to examine if these subjects differ in terms of their *n* Achievement. It is expected that subjects who have moved between different organisations are manifesting their perception of lack of opportunity to achieve more personal goals in their previous organisations, and therefore moving to organisations where high standard goals can be attained. Literature of the concept contains a wealth of research on occupational

mobility. Several studies can be cited to indicate that upward occupational mobility and career success within the organisation are related to high *n* Achievement (Andrews, 1967; Crockett, 1960, 1962, Gould, 1980; Littig and Yeracaris, 1965; McClelland, 1965c; and Varga, 1976).



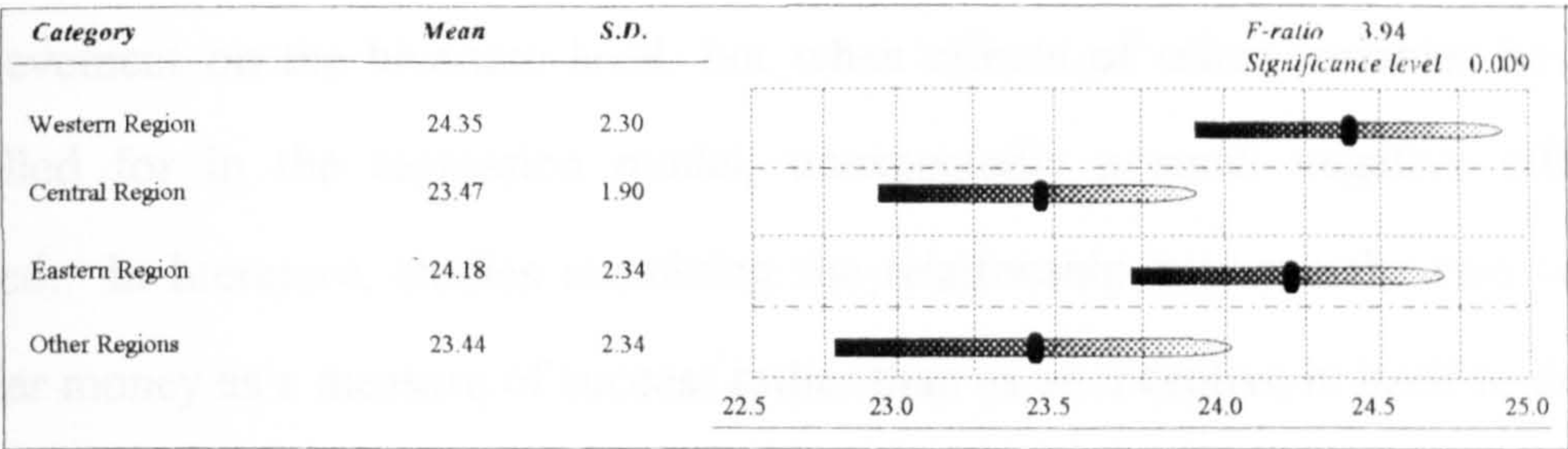
Moving between organisations has not received the same attention. However, one study found that engineers, accountants, and middle managers who are high in *n* Achievement exhibited greater labour turnover than those who are low in *n* Achievement (Hines, 1973). Results of the present study show similar findings to the latter study. The results show a great variation between the two groups, namely, those who have previous experience with other organisation(s) and those who started their careers with the present one ($t = 4.99, P < 0.001$). These results may suggest that high *n* Achievement managers are more willing to quit their jobs if they no longer present the challenge they need, and search for those which may present new opportunities to set higher standard personal goals and work hard towards their attainment. It also indicates that they can take the initiative to set their own destiny and not accept whatever is there. This proposition is indicative of strong internal locus of control which will be discussed in the next chapter. On the other hand low *n* Achievement managers are more prone to accept and adapt to any situation in their jobs.

10.3.4 Regions of Saudi Arabia

Achievement scores have been found to be different depending on the Saudi regions where subjects were reared. As emphasised above, due to cultural differences among the three main regions in Saudi Arabia, they should produce subjects with different levels of achievement. Results of the enquiry about the place of upbringing in Saudi Arabia are summarised in Figure 10.4. The figure shows that subjects who spent most of their childhood in the Western region have scored the highest, followed by subjects of the Eastern Region, whereas subjects reared in the Central and the remaining regions of Saudi Arabia are similar to each other scoring the lowest ($F = 35.93$, $P < .009$). It should be noted here that these groups may include only the Saudi subjects.

Up to the recent few decades the Saudi society had enjoyed a traditional simple way of life. Economically it had relied on either animal herding, farming or basic trading. Individuals were mostly illiterate which is typical of traditional societies. The Western region has been different, for many centuries, because it is the centre of Islamic civilisation. It has always enjoyed formal government, though it has been mostly ruled by remote central Islamic empires. Unlike other parts of the modern Saudi Arabia, the Western region was ruled in recent centuries by the Ottoman empire which gave it considerable attention. In addition, this region has maintained links with other cultures because hundreds of thousands visit Mecca every year for the purpose of pilgrimage. This was a cause for development and prosperity as a result of inter-societal trades. As expected, education, though fundamentally based on religion-related teachings, was greatly valued amongst people of the Western region as evident by the presence of private formal education which was founded and regulated long before the introduction of educational institutions by the current government (Al-Shamikh, 1973). Data about fathers' education in this study also point to this fact.

Figure 10.4
Plot of ANOVA results of n Ach for regions of Saudi Arabia.



Although the Eastern region was also ruled by the Ottomans for a considerable time, it has not understandably received similar attention as the Western region. On the other hand, it has been different from the other regions because it is an oil-rich region. It has accommodated well developed foreign oil companies for about sixty years. The existence of these companies has created special norms and culture amongst the small native population and the workers and employees who came from all corners of the country. The newly developed culture greatly regulated people's life styles, and largely affected how people value work and education. These values are in evidence today in the Eastern region's inhabitants willingness to accept long-working day jobs, and manual work.

The aforementioned reasons were behind the belief of the researcher that subjects of these two regions are expected to hold more positive views on industrial type of work than those of the remaining regions, and therefore may have higher *n* Achievement scores. As depicted in Figure 10.4 this seems to be the case, but one can never be sure that the score differences can be attributed mainly to the above explanations. However, if we believe that culture and parent's education, as described above, have any relevance, we should be prepared to accept that this is a valid explanation for the different results of these two regions.

10.3.5 Income

As mentioned above, monthly income has no significant relationship with *n* Achievement on the bivariate level, but when effects of other variables have been controlled for in the regression model, unexpectedly a small negative effect has emerged. In literature, studies examining the relationship between the two variables consider money as a measure of success rather than as an incentive in itself to do better (Atkinson, 1958; Douvan, 1956; McClelland, 1987). Similarly, in this study a positive relationship was expected to be found since subjects in the different organisations receive different incomes with the government organisations paying the least. However, the resulting effect of income on *n* Achievement would most likely represent some unmeasured factors. If income in this study acts as a feedback of performance, the relationship should be positive. The factor most associated with income is job position, those in higher positions, or who work for large organisations usually obtain higher incomes. From this perspective it could be argued that the interaction between *n* Achievement and managerial position might be a result of *n* Power effect. Research has indicated that general managers and top executives are more concerned with managing other people than doing things themselves and excelling with their own performance. As a result of this top managers are higher in *n* Power whereas lower managers or functional managers are higher in *n* Achievement (McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982). Although management position has been intentionally measured by categorising managers as middle or lower managers, monthly income might have provided a better scale for managerial position in which small differences can be detected. In this study top management was intended to be excluded, but in some organisations, particularly the small ones, a line was difficult to be drawn between such management levels.

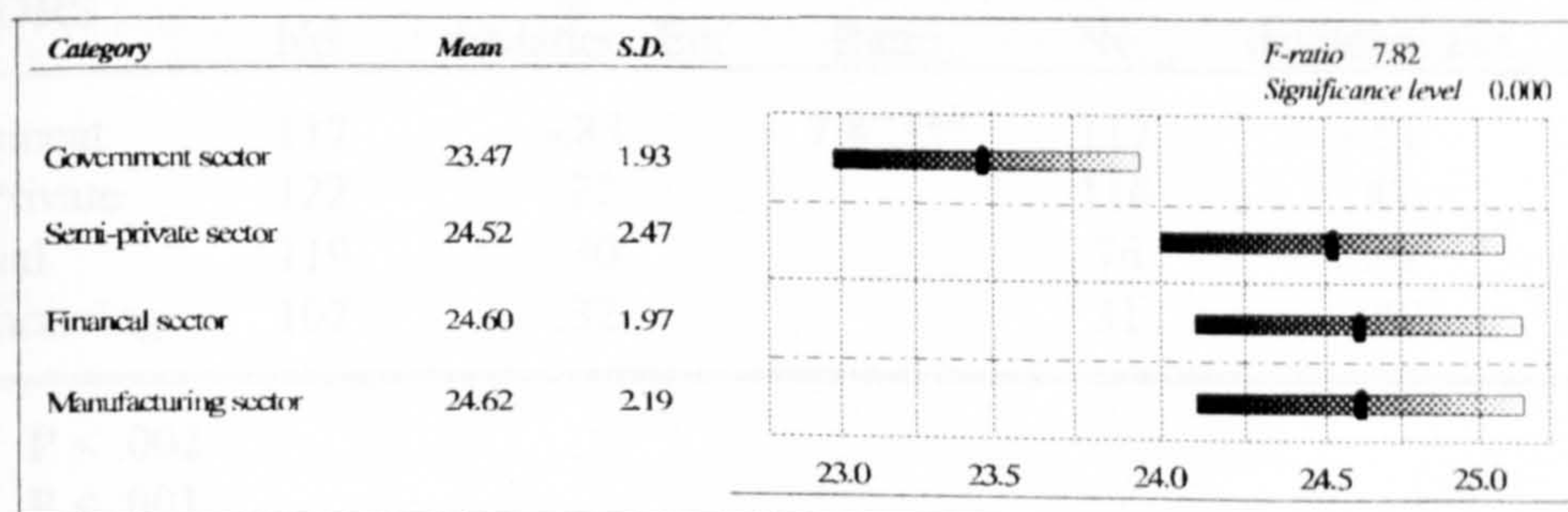
10.3.6 Type of Sector

The factor with which we are most concerned, and to which the chief hypothesis of this study addressed is the relationship between the formation of the achievement motive and working in a particular organisation. This hypothesis was stated as “Managers who are more achievement oriented are more likely to work in private or semi-private organisations rather than in government organisations.” The study intends to examine if such a proposition, which is suggested in the literature (cf. McClelland, 1961), is applicable to Saudi subjects.

Of interest to this study is the fact that the Saudi subjects have priority of employment in the private sector, particularly in the manufacturing sector. Given all the financial advantages and privileges provided to private sector employees, turning down such an offer ought to be driven by strong social and/or psychological motives. The achievement motive of which work ethic forms a part is taken in this study as the backbone to explain such a phenomenon.

In order to verify the hypothesis, an analysis of variance test was conducted. The results depicted in Figure 10.5 indicate that a highly significant relationship between the two variables exists (F 7.82, $P < 0.000$). The significant differences are

Figure 10.5: Plot of ANOVA results of n Ach for the four sectors, with means and standard deviations.



This finding can be justified by the fact that work in manufacturing organisations is demanding and requires strong commitment and belief in work. The few Saudis working in such organisations (17% of its managers) may not have positive work attitudes, rather they are there mainly for two reasons. Firstly, government policy requires factories to fill a given percentage of its positions with Saudis. And because Saudis in general have less interest in manufacturing organisations, those working in such organisations are not under pressure of redundancy. Secondly, these organisations offer better incomes than the government organisations. Therefore, for those with an instrumental orientation to work, whose prime concern is money, this sector is the ideal one.

Although the government sector is different from the other three sectors, which have similar scores for the total sample, the variation of the sector variable for the Saudis was between government and manufacturing sectors on the one hand, and semi-private and financial sectors on the other. If a subject belongs to one of the latter two sectors, the standard regression coefficient increases by either 0.15 or 0.09 respectively, depending on the type of sector to which he belongs. Whereas if he belongs to the government sector the standard regression coefficient increases by -0.104 (Table 10.4). The reason behind the variation between the manufacturing and the government sectors in the regression equation is due to the elimination of the effect of the nationality factor.

The question which arises now however is that: are managers of the government sector low achievers because they work for the government, or do they work for the government because they are low achievers, and why does the government attract the low achievers?

To establish a cause-and-effect relationship is rather difficult. However, based on theories and rationales presented in the theoretical part of this study, the stand adopted here is that individuals who value work unfavourably are tempted into the government sector because it provides jobs that are undemanding with less work commitment. For this reason, choice of sector is treated here as the dependent variable that is determined by a number of factors amongst which is *n* Achievement. It is further maintained that the achievement motivation is largely formed in early life and upon this many career-related decisions in later life are based. Therefore, as concluded in sections 9.5 and 9.5.2, the decision made by an individual to join a specific organisation is a rational one that is based on careful calculations made within psychological, social and cultural frameworks (a further analysis for the sector variable will be dealt with in the following chapter).

Interaction of Age and Sector for the Saudi Managers:

The age variable was not found to have a linear relation with the achievement motivation when tested for the whole sample in the regression equation. There is however some concern that it may have some effect, especially when age varies across the different sectors. For this reason it is decided to test the interaction effect of the latter two variables, i.e. age and sector, for the Saudi subjects alone.

First, the mean scores of *n* Achievement are displayed across the six age groups for the total Saudi sample and for each sector. Observing the total scores across the age groups in Table 10.6 indicate that the groups have different means suggesting a unique pattern with the youngest managers scoring the highest. The two groups between the ages of 36 and 40, and over 50 years score the lowest. Although One-way analysis of variance resulted in insignificant statistical outcome ($F= 1.31$, $P= 0.257$), the

Least Significant Difference test indicated a difference between the youngest group and the group between the ages of 36 and 40 years.

Table 10.6: *n* Achievement scores of the different age groups for the Saudi sample classified by sector (means).

Age groups	Sector				Total
	Govt.	Semi-prvt.	Financial	Manufact.	
Under 30 yrs	23.98	25.50	25.42	23.61	24.52
30 - 35 yrs	23.64	24.58	24.02	22.38	24.00
36 - 40 yrs	23.42	23.60	23.97	23.84	23.63
41 - 45 yrs	21.72	25.52	24.39	24.21	24.02
46 - 50 yrs	23.76	24.43	24.37	23.08	24.02
Over 50 yrs	24.91	22.65	20.31	24.87	23.44
Total	23.47	24.45	24.28	23.41	23.98

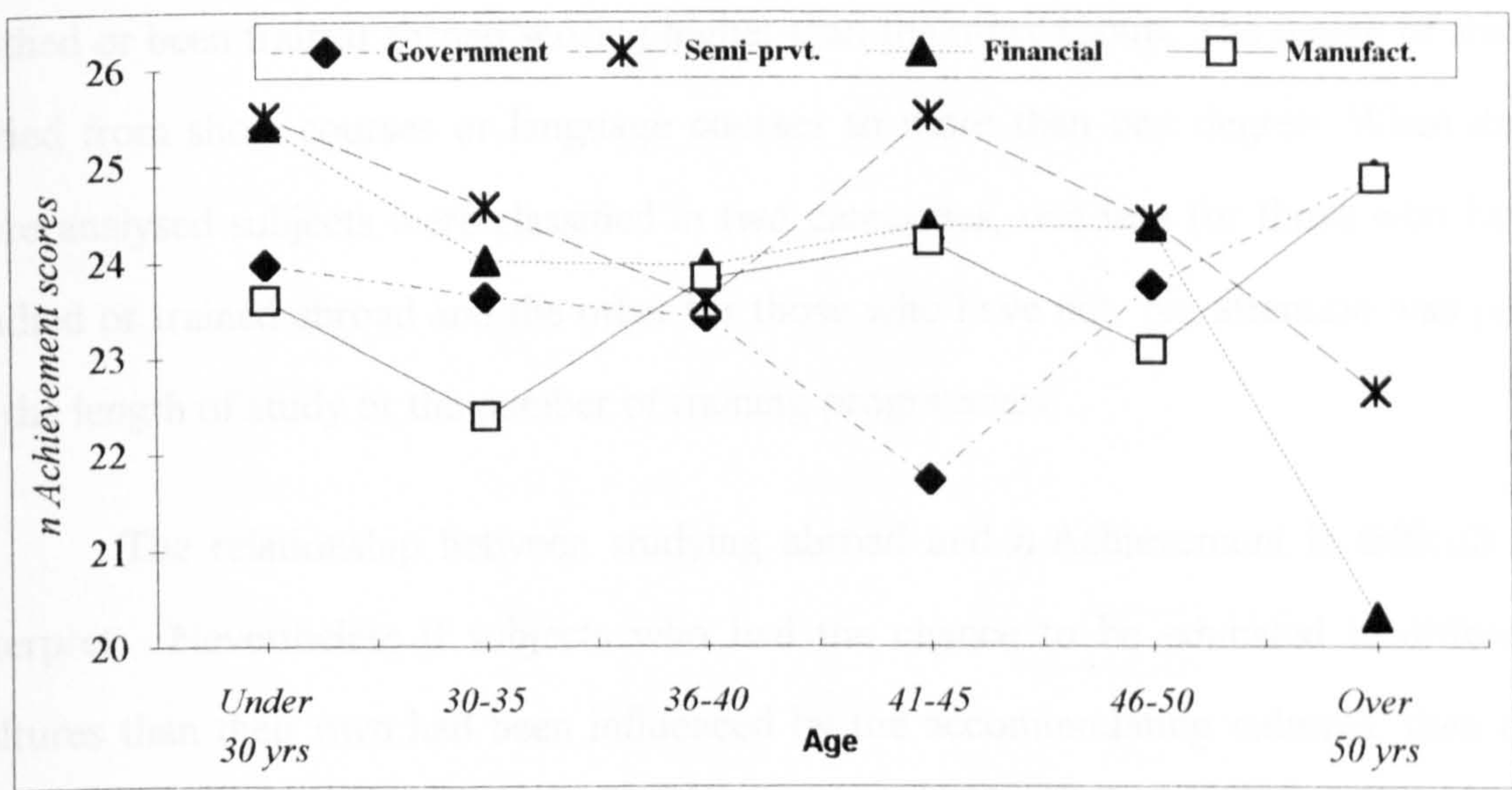
Displaying the mean scores across the six age groups for each sector, as seen in the table above, gives no specific suggestion that age has a similar pattern across the different sectors. However, the four sectors can be categorised to form two relatively

Table 10.7: Summary table of Analysis of Variance for main effects and two way interaction of age and sector variables for the Saudi sample with *n* Achievement as the dependent variable.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of <i>F</i>
Main Effects	41.63	8	5.20	1.21	.292
Age	30.94	5	6.19	1.44	.210
Sector	16.24	3	5.41	1.26	.288
2-Way Interactions	171.18	15	11.41	2.66	.001
Age Sector	171.18	15	11.41	2.66	.001
Explained	292.310	23	12.709	2.956	.000
Residual	1354.213	315	4.299		
Total	1646.523	338	4.871		

similar groups. That is, the government and manufacturing sectors on the one hand and the semi-private and financial sectors on the other. For this reason the interaction of the age and sector variables is tested to find out if a combined effect exists. In Table 10.7 below an Analysis of Variance is conducted for the two variables. The main effect of each variable is statistically insignificant, but the two variables combined have a relation to achievement scores.

Figure 10.6: *Interaction effect of age and sector of the Saudi managers for the four sectors.*



The interaction effect means that the achievement motivation differs depending on the combination of both the age of the manager and the sector to which he belongs. That is, two managers of the same age may have different achievement scores depending on their sectors. To observe this diagrammatically the mean scores of the four sectors plotted in Figure 10.6. It can be seen in the figure that for the semi-private and

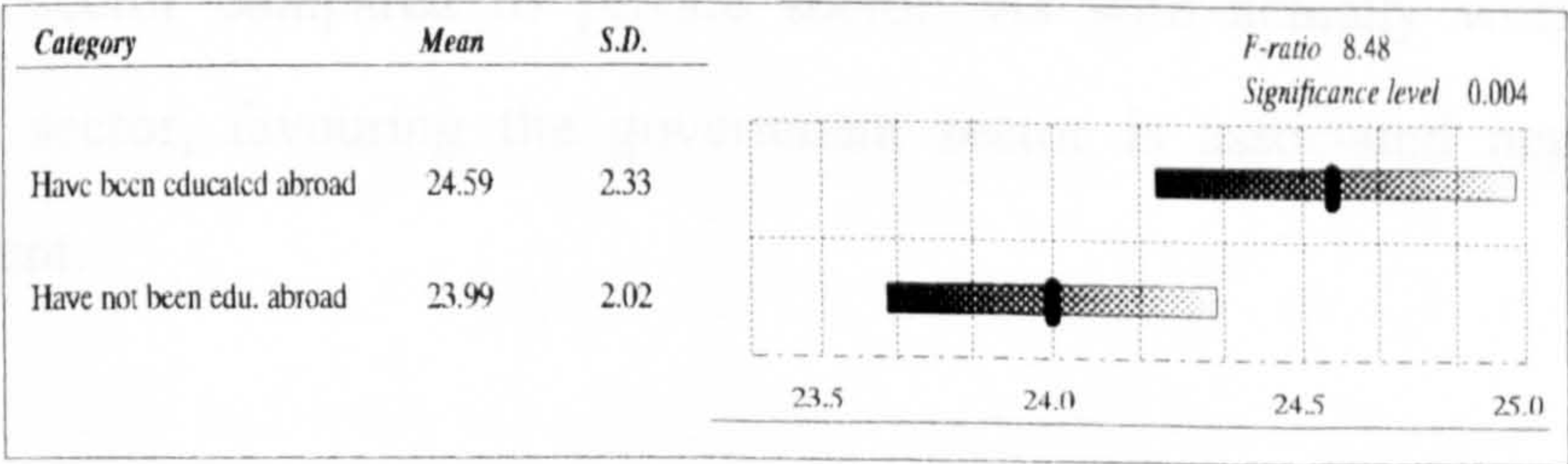
the financial sectors the older managers are less achievement oriented, whereas younger managers are highly achievement oriented. For managers of the government and manufacturing sectors older managers are more achievement oriented. It is interesting to note that managers of the government and semi-private sectors have almost opposite results to each other, with the group between the ages of 41 and 45 years scoring the highest for the semi-private sector and the lowest for the government sector.

10.3.7 Education Abroad

One striking finding as shown in Figure 10.7 is the difference between subjects who have studied or have been trained abroad and those who have not, with those who have studied or been trained abroad scoring higher than the other group. The length of study varied from short courses or language courses to more than one degree. When data were analysed subjects were classified in two categories, one was for those who have studied or trained abroad and the other for those who have not. No attention was paid to the length of study or the number of training programmes.

The relationship between studying abroad and *n* Achievement is difficult to interpret. Nevertheless if subjects who had the chance to be educated in different cultures than their own had been influenced by the accommodating cultures, then the results would lend support to the role of culture and education in introducing new

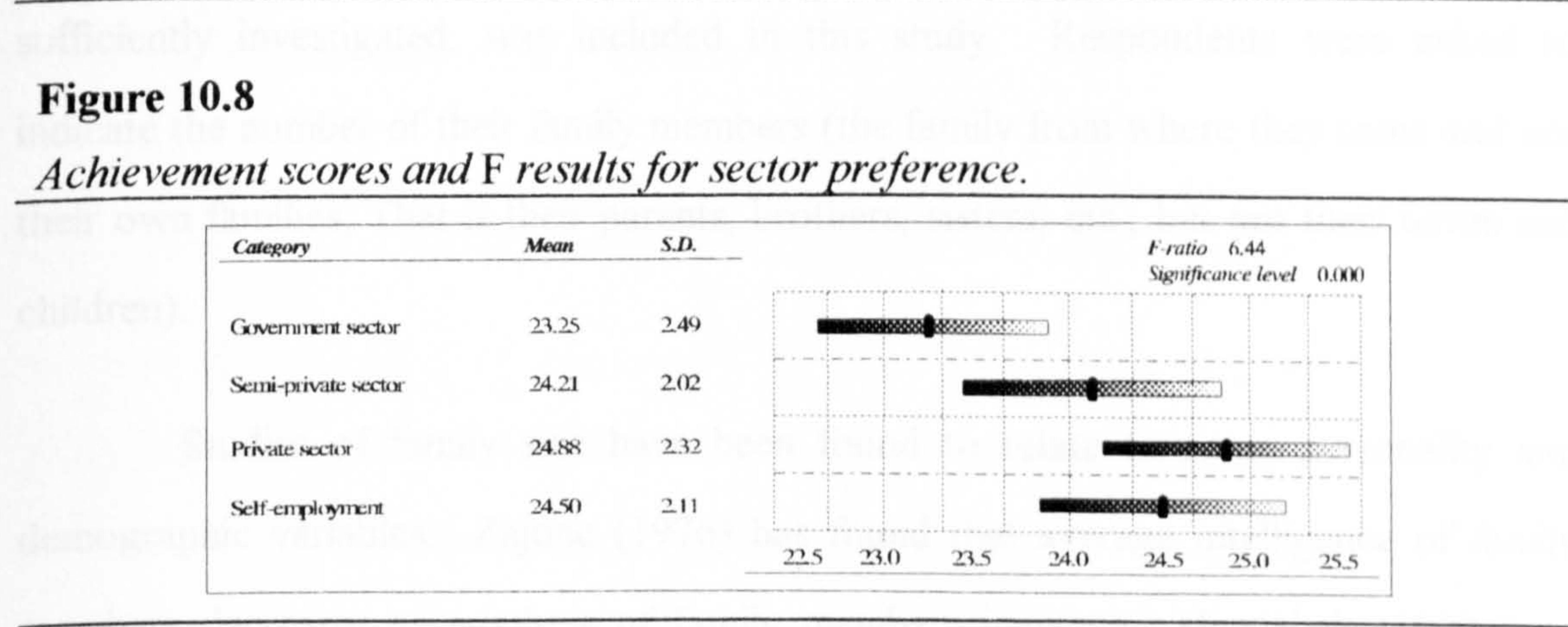
Figure 10.7
Achievement scores and Anova results for subjects who have been educated abroad.



perspectives on work perception a view that was emphasised in the discussions above. It could also very well be that those who studied abroad have some common characteristics amongst themselves and their willingness to take ventures and further their education abroad is a result of being high achievers.

10.3.8 Preference for Government sector

It was concluded in the previous chapter that a preference for a specific sector by subjects would indicate their real inclination and not a manifestation of wish fulfilment or dissatisfaction with all or part of the job. In this concern those who favour working for the government sector, as depicted in Figure 10.8, score significantly lower than those who favour the other sectors.



By using this variable in the regression analysis, Table 10.4, to predict n Achievement, our prediction will further increase by -.103 if subjects belong to the government sector compared to private sector. As with actually working for the government sector, favouring the government sector is associated negatively with n Achievement.

10.3.9 Family Size

In search for exploratory variables for the achievement motive development some family structure factors have been suggested. Amongst these factors are birth order (Atkinson & Miller, 1956; Dubno *et al.*, 1969; Moore & Cox, 1990; Sampson, 1962; Sampson and Hancock, 1967; and Warren, 1966), family size (Rosen, 1961), and family ties (Veroff *et al.*, 1960). Birth order has been repeatedly investigated and a number of findings have been established. In respect of achievement motivation first born and only children generally tend to be highly motivated and achievement oriented (c.f. Moore and Cox, 1990), although one study reported that they have been found to be no different than later born children (Dubno *et al.*, 1969). In this study a decision was made not to investigate this variable as many personal questions might deter respondents from completing the questionnaire. However, family size, a variable not sufficiently investigated, was included in this study. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of their family members (the family from where they came and not their own families; That is their parents, brothers, sisters, etc., but not their wives and children).

Studies of family size have been found to relate to some personality and demographic variables. Zajonc (1976) has found that average intelligence of family members decreases as numbers of family members increase. Hanushek (1992) and Hauser and Sewell (1985) report a negative relation between family size and educational attainment. Scholastic achievement is highest for smaller families, and the average attainment decreases as the family size increases.

Small family size provides children with advantages such as; more democratic fathers, better planning and organisation of family matters, enough time to educate children at home, and more money to meet children's needs (Lamb, 1976). These

provisions would suggest that children of small families as related to child rearing tend to have higher achievement motivation than those from large families. Of the few studies concerned with family size, one comprehensive study testing this claim was carried out by Rosen (1961). Along with family size, other demographic variables were examined in that study. These variables are; social class, mother's age and ordinal position of child. Findings concerning family size indicate an inverse relationship between family size and *n* Achievement, but the relationship was mediated with the other three demographic variables particularly the social class. Findings of the present study support Rosen's (1961) findings in that family size is found to be negatively related to *n* Achievement. That is, the smaller the family size the higher the *n* Achievement score. It might be worth mentioning that the average family size was highest for the Saudi nationals (10.12 persons), followed by the remaining Arabs (10.5), and 7.6 persons for the non-Arabs.

10.4 Predicting *n* Achievement from Perception of Work rewards

The findings pertaining to importance of work rewards to the sample subjects (discussed in the previous chapter, section 9.5.1) emphasised that subjects value the eleven work rewards dealt with in this study differently. The main dimension along which respondents' perception of the aspects can be grouped is sectors. Subjects of the different sectors, as expected, viewed these aspects differently depending on the characteristics of each sector. It was always the government sector that largely deviates from the other three groups. It is the intention in this section to make further use of the data and investigate their potential predictability in respect to *n* Achievement.

To do this, two extreme groups of subjects were formed along the *n* Achievement scale. An arbitrary decision was made to consider the upper 30% of the

total sample as high achievers and form one group. At the other extreme, the lower 30% of subjects are considered low achievers and formulate the other group. Ranking of work rewards for the two groups is tested to see if a difference exists between them. Student t-tests are applied for this purpose. In Table 10.8 means of the rankings of the

Table 10.8: *t* Scores between highest 30% and lowest 30% subjects on *n* Achievement scale (the smaller the mean the more important the aspect is).

Work rewards	Means		<i>t</i> Values*	Prob.
	Low <i>n</i> Ach. No. =137	High <i>n</i> Ach. No. = 139		
Nature Of Work	3.01	3.42	-1.28	.203
Good Income	4.70	3.39	4.08	.000
Pleasant Co-workers	5.52	6.33	-2.59	.010
Fringe Benefits	6.63	5.76	2.73	.007
Promotion	6.15	5.40	2.15	.032
Secure Job	5.03	6.27	-3.18	.002
Autonomy	6.57	6.14	1.29	.197
Good Working Conditions	5.45	6.53	-3.43	.001
Less Work Hours	9.19	9.39	-.64	.523
Status Of Job	7.50	6.99	1.44	.152
Recognition By Superiors	5.85	6.23	-1.07	.286

* Degrees of freedom = 274

eleven work rewards for each group are listed. Results of t-test and their probabilities are listed along the side for each aspect. We should remember here from the discussion provided in Chapter nine, that the lower the mean the more important the aspect is.

Figures in the table in view reveal that high and low achievers significantly differ along six aspects, viz., income, co-workers, fringe benefits, promotion, job security, and working conditions. Reading carefully into the figures one can note that variables related to financial gains, namely; income, fringe benefits and promotion, are

valued highly by high achievers. By contrast, low achieved subjects placed greater value than high achievers on having pleasant work mates, job security and good working conditions. These outcomes are in agreement with descriptions of high and low achievers reported in the literature.

It is necessary now to apply a multivariate technique to measure concurrently the effects of the above variables and, at the same time, examine the validity of the tests reported above. An advantage of multivariate techniques is that they examine the effect of each variable while controlling for the others in a way which prevents highly correlated independent variables from given misleading results.

The technique thought to best suit the present data is logistic regression, or Logit analysis. Logit analysis has the merits of being insensitive to multivariate normality and equal variance-covariance matrices across the groups. Like multiple regression, Logit analysis has straightforward statistical tests, and ability to incorporate nonlinear effects (Hair *et al.*, 1992). In addition, it has the advantage over normal multiple regression in that the dependent variable is not required to be metric. Rather, as typical of many phenomena in nature the dependent variable is dichotomous; that is, it has two categories. By using logit analysis all we need to know is whether an event occurred or not. The function of this technique is to estimate the probability that the event will occur or not. If the predicted probability is greater than .50, then the prediction is yes, otherwise it is no. In equation form the logistic regression model can be written thus:

$$\text{Prob (event)} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Z}}$$

where Z is the linear combination

$$Z = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 +.....+B_nX_n$$

Where

B_0 is the constant term

$B_1 B_2 ...B_n$ are the estimated coefficients for measuring the changes in the ratio of the probabilities (the odd ratio) for the independent variables

$X_1 X_2 ...X_n$ are the number of units of the independent variables.

Table 10.9 summarises the results of the logistic regression model. The column headed **B** displays logistic regression coefficients of each independent variable. Their standard errors are listed in the column labelled **S.E.**, followed by the **Wald** statistics. The significance level of Wald statistics is shown in the column labelled **Sig.** If significant, it means that they are significantly different from 0. In Table 10.9

Table 10.9: Results of logit analysis for prediction of work rewards preference comparing high and low achievers.

Variables Remained in the Equation After Last Step						
Work rewards	B	S. E.	Wald*	Sig	R	Exp(B)
Nature Of Work	.1277	.053	5.782	.016	.0994	1.136
Good Income	-.1222	.054	5.647	.017	-.0976	.885
Pleasant Co-workers	.1084	.052	4.342	.037	.0782	1.115
Secure Job	.1706	.044	14.984	.000	.1842	1.186
Good Working Conditions	.1527	.052	8.792	.003	.1332	1.165
(Constant)	-2.4188	.704	11.819	.000		
Model chi-square = 43.52 Df = 5 Sig.= 0000						
Goodness of Fit = 275.61 Df = 270 Sig.= 3942						
Percent of Cases Correctly Classified: 67.39%						

* Degrees of freedom = 1

variables entered into the equation are all significantly different from zero. The column labelled **R** provides the partial correlation between the dependent variable and each of the independent variables, and **Exp (B)** represents the expected regression coefficients. The other parameters provided can help assess the goodness of fit of the model. For instance, the percent of cases correctly classified indicate that 67.39% of the cases are correctly classified as either high or low achievers. The significance of the model's chi-square allows us to reject the null hypothesis that the coefficients for all of the terms in the model are 0. The large observed significance level of the Goodness of Fit indicates that this model does not differ significantly from the "perfect" model.

Examining the variables selected by the stepwise method in the model presented in Table 10.9 reveals that five variables can be used to predict if a person can be classified as a high or low achiever from his or her work reward preference. Compared to the results exhibited in Table 10.8, one variable was added to the results of Logit analysis and two were ousted. After controlling for intercorrelation between the independent variables "nature of work" was found to differentiate between high and low achievers, and therefore was added to the model. In this context, the low achievers perceive nature of work as an important factor when evaluating their jobs. The two variables which were dropped must have been highly correlated with some other independent variables, apparently "income", with which they share the same sign and may measure the same thing. The other four variables, i.e., income, co-workers, job security and work conditions, as seen in Table 10.8, differentiated between high and low achievers. Unlike the other variables, income has a negative sign which means that high achievers have a smaller mean than low achievers which in turn means that high achievers perceive income more importantly than low achievers, whereas low achievers value the other variables more importantly than high achievers.

10.5 Discriminating high and low achievers by job characteristics

In this section the intention is to examine if high achievers, as contrasted with low achievers, hold jobs with specific characteristics that are different from jobs held by low achievers. It is reported in the theoretical part of this study that high achievers in general tend to seek the task where the level of difficulty is moderate (Atkinson, 1957), prefer tasks that give immediate concrete feedback as one proceeds in performing a task (McClelland, 1987), and prefer to claim personal responsibility over the work they are performing (McClelland, 1961). Based on the belief that high achievers have different personality characteristics from low achievers, it is assumed that the jobs they hold should also conform to such differences. On this basis respondents were asked to evaluate or describe their jobs along eight dimensions. The response required was to mark on a scale of seven points the degree to which the respondent thinks that characteristic can describe his job. The eight characteristics are; the extent of work

Table 10.10:
t-test scores of job characteristics between high and low achievers.

Characteristics	Means		<i>t</i> Values*	Prob.
	Low <i>n</i> Ach. No. =137	High <i>n</i> ch. No. = 139		
Challenge of job	4.09	4.76	-3.50	.001
Extent of using one's skills	4.60	4.98	-2.13	.034
Significance of job	4.30	4.82	-2.72	.007
Autonomy	4.22	4.59	-2.26	.024
Feedback from job	4.84	5.13	-1.75	.081
Variety of job	5.46	5.76	-2.00	.047
Working with others	5.98	5.88	.80	.427
Extent of making friends	6.10	6.15	-0.67	.501

* Degrees of freedom = 276

with others, autonomy in the job, work variety, using one's skills, significance of job, feedback from work, making friends at work, and challenge of work.

As done in the previous section, response of high achievers (the highest 30% along the *n* Achievement scale) and low achievers (the lowest 30%) were compared using student t-test. The results summarised in Table 10.10 show that high achievers have higher means than low achievers along all characteristics, and significant along all but three characteristics, namely; feedback from work, extent of working with others and making friends at the work place.

Again, a multivariate test was needed to handle all variables simultaneously. The technique thought to satisfy these requirements is multiple Discriminant Analysis. This method has widespread application with the primary objective of identifying the group to which an object belongs (Hair, *et al.*, 1992). (for an extensive review and interpretation of Discriminant Function Analysis refer to the next chapter, section 11.3).

Discriminant analysis involves deriving the linear combination of the independent variables that will discriminate best between the *a priori* defined groups. This is accomplished by maximising the between-group variance relative to the within-group variance. In equation form:

$$Z = W_1X_1 + W_2X_2 + W_3X_3 + \dots + W_nX_n$$

Where

Z	=	Discriminant score
W	=	Discriminant weights
X	=	Independent variables

The test was run including all the variables entered using stepwise method. Table 10.11 indicates that high and low achievers can be classified along five variables out of the eight entered. The most discriminating variable is found to be the “amount

Table 10.11: Summary of interpretative measures of the discriminant function for job characteristics with *n* Achievement as the dependent variable.

Canonical Discriminant Function								
Func	Eigen-value	% of Variance Fun	% of Variance Cum	Canonical Corr	After Func.	Wilk's Lambda	Chi-square	DF Sig
1*	.0568	100.00	100.00	.2318	0	.9463	20.355	5 .001

Discriminant function coefficients and loadings, F ratios and Wilk's Lambda of the predictive variables [⊙]					
VARIABLES ^(a)	Disc. Func. Coefficients ^(b)		Disc. Func. Loading ^(c)		Wilk's Lambda after last step analysis
	Func 1	Func 1	Func 1	Univariate F Ratio	Wilk's Lambda Signif.
Challenge of job	.9198		.8564	15.45	.9600 .0001
Extent of using one's skills	NI		.5034	3.926	NI NI
Significance of job	.3053		.4435	4.145	.9490 .0007
Autonomy	NI		.3849	2.448	NI NI
Feedback from job	.2982		.3138	2.075	.9517 .0004
Variety of job	-.2716		.2328	1.142	.9463 .0011
Working with others	-.2681		-.1733	.6328	.9562 .0002
Extent of making friends	NI		.1055	.4539	NI NI

* marks the 1 canonical discriminant functions in the analysis.

(a) Variables ordered by size of correlation within function

(b) Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

(c) Structure Matrix: Pooled-within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and canonical discriminant functions.

⊙ NI= not selected by the stepwise method, and therefore, not included in the analysis

of Challenge found in the job”, followed by “Significance of the job”. Although “Feedback” was not found to be significant on bivariate level, it is found here to be efficiently discriminating between the two groups, i.e. high and low achievers.

In Table 10.11 the *Canonical Discriminant Function* is calculated and the function is statistically significant as measured by Chi-square statistic. This indicate that the model itself is valid. The column headed *Discriminant Function Loadings* in the lower part of the table can determine the ranking of these variables in terms of their discriminating power. For those variables which have high values but not included in the analysis, they have collinearity with the variables already included in the model

Table 10.12:
Group centroids of high and low achievers and their classification matrix.

Canonical Discriminant Functions evaluated at Group Means (Group Centroids)			
Group	Discriminant Function Centroids		
	Func. 1		
1- Subjects with low Achievement scores	-.298		
2- Subjects with high Achievement scores	.298		

Classification Results of Sample			
Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership	
		Low achievers	High achievers
Group 1 Low achievers	139	90 64.7%	49 35.3%
Group 2 High achievers	139	50 36.0%	89 64.0%

Percent of “grouped” cases correctly classified: 64.39%

which resulted in reducing the additional discriminating power they could provide. Thus, they were not included in the analysis. Although the variable “Working with others” has lower means than, for example, “Extent of using one’s skills”, it provides more substantial source of discrimination.

Table 10.12 can further illustrate the findings. The upper part of the table displays the group centroids which represent the means of the individual discriminant function for each group. The lower part exhibits a classification matrix for group membership based on each respondent’s score. The cases correctly classified are 179, or (64.4%).

From these findings it is possible to conclude that based on job characteristics subjects can be fairly successfully classified to either high or low achievers. The high achievers have jobs that can be classified as; more challenging, more significant, give consistent immediate feedback, have a variety of tasks, and provide less opportunity to work with others.

10.6 Overview

This chapter has been devoted to the analysis and interpretation of results of the *n* Achievement. In it, relations between this concept and other variables used in this study have been examined. The chapter started with examining these relationships on an individual basis using bivariate statistical techniques. Fifteen variables, which can be classified as personal, career and personality variables, have been found to relate to *n* Achievement. Multiple regression was used to determine the variables which account for some of the variance in *n* Achievement, ten variables showed some effect after controlling for collinearity amongst the variables.

A brief discussion was provided explaining the relationship between *n* Achievement and each variable which resulted from the regression model. Although some of these relationships were unexpected, all variables posed to explain the variance in the dependent variable are in line with most findings reported in the concept's literature. As proposed in this study subjects of the different sectors were found to have varying achievement scores with subjects of the government sector scoring the least. Unlike other managers, managers of the government sector have the least experience outside their sector, a variable that is discovered to substantially differentiate between high and low achievers. In respect of cultures, Arabs were found to score lower than non-Arabs a result which suggests that *n* Achievement is complicated and might be affected by industrialisation and other cultural and social factors. Some of the social factors examined in this study and found to relate to *n* Achievement are parents' education and family size. Fathers' education is noticed to have a positive relationship, whereas family size has a negative one. A variable closely related to this is studying abroad. Respondents who have been taught or trained in countries other than their own are more achievement oriented than those who have not. As suggested, studying abroad can be a result of the individual being a high achiever rather than a cause of this motive.

Regarding the Saudi subjects, those who have been reared in the Eastern or Western regions of Saudi Arabia have a greater chance of being high achiever than those brought up in the Central and the other regions. Discussions on the suspected reasons were readily advanced. It was also found that subjects who currently come from the Central region scored less than subjects from the Eastern and Western regions.

In the last two sections, it was possible to establish that high as opposed to low achievers can be predicted by first using their perception of work rewards, and

second by using data about their job characteristics. Amongst eleven of the work rewards investigated five were capable to distinguishing between high and low achievers. Except for income, low achievers valued the other four more importantly than high achievers. Pertaining to job characteristics high achievers can be described as having jobs that are categorised as more challenging, more significant, give concrete feedback, have a variety of tasks, and provide less opportunity to work with others.

The general findings of this chapter are largely consistent with empirical findings already reported in literature of the concept. However, other results reported here support hypotheses proposed in this study which are suggested by sound arguments about the nature of this concept. By the same token, some proposed expectations failed to materialise.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA PERTAINING TO *n* AFFILIATION, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND PREDICTABILITY OF SECTOR TYPE

- 1. *Findings of *n* Affiliation***
 - 2. *Findings of Locus of Control***
 - 3. *Predicting Sector Type From Sample Characteristics***
-

CHAPTER XI

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA PERTAINING TO *n* AFFILIATION, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND PREDICTABILITY OF SECTOR TYPE

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, which is the last in the analysis, three key topics will be discussed. The first relates to findings of *n* Affiliation. Similar guidelines to the ones used with *n* Achievement in the previous chapter will be followed here. From variables used in the study a comprehensive regression analysis is undertaken using a stepwise method to include only those which contribute to the variation of the independent variable. A brief account will be given to discuss the relationship between Affiliation and independent variables. A special consideration will be lent to the relationship between *n* Affiliation and *n* Achievement.

In the second part Locus of Control will be examined. Locus of control was not found in this study to associate with work-related orientations. This is inconsistent with many findings reported in literature. In this part variables to which locus of control relates will be considered.

The last topic deals extensively with differences between the four sectors. Three predictive measures will be applied, each one handling a set of variables. The first examines the discriminatory power of importance of work rewards of the four sectors. It will be established from perception of job aspect whether type of sector can

be identified or not. The second relates to the career-related variables, examples of which are experience and training. The final consideration is concerned with the demographic and psychological variables.

11.1 Findings of *n* Affiliation

A brief account is given here about the need for affiliation (*n* Affiliation). This need forms one part of the trichotomy of needs of McClelland's human motivation. The other two needs are *n* Achievement and *n* Power (McClelland, 1961, 1975, 1979; McClelland *et al.*, 1953; McClelland & Burnham, 1976; and McClelland & Winter, 1969). Individuals with high *n* Affiliation "...generally have a greater need to be liked and approved of" (McClelland, 1987: 96). They can also be described as co-operative and like to work in groups as opposed to work by themselves. In general, subjects with a strong *n* Affiliation act whenever possible to avoid competitive situations, and to avoid conflict situations where they have to disagree with others. Instead, they tend to go along with the opinions of a stranger who disagrees with them so long as the stranger is attractive (Burdic & Burnes, 1958). They are also found to make more telephone calls, write more letters, visit friends, join social clubs, and therefore learn social relations more quickly. Relevant to this study, subjects with high *n* Affiliation do not make good managers as managers usually have to make difficult decisions which sometimes hurt other people's feelings. They, however, can make good integrative managers as employee relations managers or public relation managers (McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982). Managers in general are either high in *n* Achievement at the middle management level, or high in *n* Power at the executive level, but not in *n* Affiliation (Harrell and Stahl, 1981).

The analysis method used in this section is closely similar to the one used with the *n* Achievement. It differs, however, from it in that a number of multiple analyses based on sets of variables are not conducted. Instead, one multivariate analysis involving variables of different orientations, which are thought to contribute to the difference in the dependent variable, is processed. The multivariate technique used here is again multiple regression. As with the *n* Achievement, variables included in this

Table 11.1: Regression analysis results for personal and organisational variables with *n* Affiliation as a dependent variable★.

VARIABLE	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Indicator variable for Arabs , excluding Saudis, compared to non-Arabs	2.254	.352	.429	6.412	.000
Indicator variable for Saudis , compared to non-Arabs	1.279	.332	.279	3.856	.000
<i>n</i> Achievement	-.224	.041	-.241	-5.438	.000
Importance of high paying job	.110	.034	.147	3.255	.001
Importance of less work hours	-.125	.035	-.163	-3.613	.000
Number of subordinate	.006	.002	.156	3.683	.000
Need for jobs require multi-skills	-.196	.058	-.150	-3.378	.000
Number of children	.148	.045	.141	3.255	.001
Need for significant job	.249	.068	.159	3.674	.000
Need for jobs permit to deal with others	.158	.076	.091	2.053	.040
Need for challenging jobs	-.163	.053	-.133	-3.102	.002
Managers with previous experience in other organisations	-.672	.201	-.163	-3.345	.000
Education	-.170	.062	-.119	-2.761	.006
Junior managers (vs. middle managers)	.449	.181	.109	2.483	.013
Subjects of government sector	.564	.229	.119	2.455	.014
Importance of friendly co-workers	-.076	.035	-.096	-2.211	.027
(Constant)	19.002	1.478		12.856	.000
Multiple R	.545				
R Square	.298				
Adjusted R Square	.271				
Standard Error	1.752				
F =	11.303				
	P < .0000				

★ Statistics are based on all variables entered in the stepwise regression method equation.

model, shown in Table 11.1, explain only around 30% of the variance in the dependent variable. A similar interpretation to the one given for *n* Achievement may apply here. The variables investigated here are considered by no means to be the ones responsible for the development of this motive. Instead, outcomes of most of these variables are the result of *n* Affiliation which has been developed long before one assumes a career.

The variables entered in the regression analysis equation and listed in Table 11.1 can be classified into four categories. These are; psychological, demographic, organisational, and job-describing variables. In the following sections each category of these will be discussed separately.

11.1.1 Psychological Variables (n Achievement)

It is accepted that preference for a particular job is a direct result of the effect of psychological mechanisms that drive individuals to different jobs which harmonise with each single personality.

Amongst the variables investigated here there is only one psychological disposition included in the equation and found to strongly relate to the *n* Affiliation, namely, the need for achievement. The relationship between the two needs is found here to be negative. This proved to be consistent with findings of studies concerned with these needs (e.g. Hardy, 1957; Mischel, 1961; Stahl & Harrell, 1982; Steers & Braunstein, 1976). Heckhausen (1967) also reports that in general *n* Achievement and *n* Affiliation are negatively correlated. This does not necessarily mean that a person with high *n* Affiliation ought to be low in *n* Achievement. He or she may very well be high or low in both. Nor does it mean high achievers are always better than high affiliative people. Although high achievers are more likely to do better in most situations, high affiliative individuals, given their characteristics as presented earlier, do

better where affiliation incentives are aroused, especially at tasks where co-operation, warmth and friendliness are imperative (French, 1955). This proved true even for a characteristic that is held to be a virtue of high achievers such as recalling interrupted tasks. Although it is accepted that subjects high in *n* Achievement recall more interrupted tasks than subjects low in *n* Achievement, Atkinson and Raphelson (1956) demonstrated that when achievement cues were minimised and affiliation cues were aroused, the recall of interrupted tasks was no longer associated with high *n* Achievement, but with high *n* Affiliation. In another experiment French (1958b) found that subjects high in *n* Affiliation performed better than those high in *n* Achievement when feedback was based on affiliation incentives.

11.1.2 Demographic Variables

There are three demographic variables found to discriminate between subjects in terms of their *n* Affiliation. These three variables are; nationality, number of children, and education. Below, a brief account is given for each one.

As far as nationality is concerned results were as expected. It was expected that Arab subjects would score higher on the affiliation scale than the others believing the Arabs are more affiliative people given their characteristics detailed in the section describing the Arabs (Chapter five). In an earlier study Yasin and Stahl (1990) have reported that Arab managers, as compared to western managers, are high in *n* Affiliation instead of *r* Power. In the present study the non-Arabs scored the lowest (\bar{X} 9.69 SD. 2.2). Compared to the Saudis, the other Arabs scored significantly higher (\bar{X} 10.88, SD. 1.9; \bar{X} 12.00, SD. 3.07, respectively). *F* value for the three groups is 21.22, $P < .001$.

The number of children of respondents is found to be positively correlated with *n* Affiliation. It follows from the belief that highly affiliative people are more socially oriented and like to be in groups, it is assumed that they would like to have bigger families than those with low *n* Affiliation. This is no surprise, respondents with high *n* Affiliation have come themselves from big families.

In respect of education, results show that the higher the education the lower the *n* Affiliation. Studies reviewed here have not considered the relationship between *n* Affiliation and education. Research into the origins of the *n* Affiliation has been inconclusive although the mother's praise of her child as a technique of socialisation at the age of five was consistently reported to be significantly associated with intimacy at adulthood (McClelland and Pilon, 1983). However, McClelland (1987) suggests that it is the relationship of the parents to the children that would shape the affiliative motives rather than any particular techniques they employed. Giving such a lack of empirical studies to investigate the affiliative motives, the effect of education on *n* Affiliation in this study can be explained by the assumption that more educated people are more objective when conducting things as they are less affected by peoples' emotions.

11.1.3 Organisational Variables

Four variables which can be classified as organisational variables have contributed to the explanation of some of the variance of the *n* Affiliation. These variables can be listed as: sector, management level, number of subordinates, and inter-organisational mobility (or having worked with other organisations).

Regarding the four sectors involved in this study, one particular sector was found to be significantly associated with high *n* Affiliation. As expected, subjects of the government sector manifested a greater *n* Affiliation than subjects of the other sectors.

This finding is negatively correlated, and in line, with findings of their *n* Achievement. For those subjects who portray high *n* Achievement, low *n* Affiliation as research indicates is expected of them and vice versa. Subjects of the government sector have displayed this tendency in many ways, *n* Affiliation scores are one of them. The consistency here suggests that the social context of the workplace plays a crucial role in determining work orientation of these individuals.

The affiliative motive can be manifested by many subjects of the government sector in two ways. The first is displayed in the way employees of the government sector behave socially in the workplace. It is not unusual in these offices to find a number of employees gathering in one office and discussing work-unrelated issues or reading newspapers. The second affiliative behaviour is giving favours at the workplace. It is also a common practice that many employees would do others favours (e.g. speeding up the process of particular procedures for a given person at the expense of others, for merely knowing that person or someone who knows him) without necessarily expecting important things, at least in the immediate future, in return.

n Affiliation is also found here to vary at different management levels. Junior managers or lower managers are found to have higher *n* Affiliation than middle managers. On theoretical grounds one can expect lower managers to be more affiliative than middle managers. Lower managers on average have to deal with workers and other staff on a day to day basis. It is they who are responsible for ensuring that the shop floor work is appropriately carried out. Therefore, they need to deal with workers most likely in a friendly manner in order to win their support and co-operation. Results of relations between management level and *n* Affiliation proved to be consistent with findings reported in literature. Whilst corporate executives (top management) are characterised by a higher *n* Power and lower *n* Affiliation than other managers

(McClelland, 1970; Stahl & Harrell, 1982), other managers are characterised by high *n* Power and high *n* Achievement (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). Studies relevant to *n* Affiliation and managers have been mainly concerned with examining this need in relation to other needs, but not between management levels (Stahl, 1983). In this study, however, lower level managers, although having similar *n* Achievement scores, showed significantly higher *n* Affiliation scores compared to middle level managers. A similar finding was observed in respect of the number of subordinates. That is the higher number of subordinates the higher the *n* Affiliation.

Number of subordinates (or people supervised) is normally positively associated with the *n* Power (c.f. McClelland, 1975; and Stahl and Harrell, 1982). Individuals with high *n* Power in general like to control others. Thus, the more people controlled the more they satisfy this need. The connection between *n* Affiliation and managers is emphasised by McClelland and Boyatzis (1982) in the fact that they found managers with high *n* Affiliation to, most likely, not make it to the top, and to not make good managers as they, at times, make unpopular decisions which may hurt the feelings of others including their subordinates. Unfortunately, *n* Power has not been included in this study so an appropriate comparison can be made between the scores of the three needs. In spite of this, results of *n* Affiliation in relation to management level and number of subordinates can be explained in terms of a co-operative rather than an authoritative style of management. Lower level managers, as compared to top managers, made decisions more related to the tasks their subordinates carry out and not to the status of the subordinates themselves. Thus co-operation is much needed rather than compliance and submission in order to successfully accomplish productive ends. Therefore *n* Affiliation needs to be high in order to effectively achieve these goals. The

same thing can be said with regard to a number of subordinates. That is, the larger the number of employees supervised, the higher the need for n Affiliation.

The final organisational variable considered here is 'having previously joined other organisations' or what should be called 'inter-organisational mobility'. Managers who decided to leave their organisations and join other organisations are more achievement oriented, as seen in the previous chapter, and by the same token are expected to have lower n Affiliation than those who never left their initial organisations. As expected, this appears to be the case. The result of this variable can validate the findings of n Achievement in respect of experience with other organisations, and it can be explained by stressing the fact that managers who moved to other organisations care less for the relations they developed in their previous organisations either with colleagues or clients. Had these managers had high n Affiliation, moving to different organisations might have been more difficult.

11.1.4 Job-related Variables

The remaining seven variables are taken from two sets; the first is importance of work rewards, and the second is job characteristics. From the importance of work rewards list three were included in the regression equation displayed in Table 11.1. These work rewards are; importance of high paying jobs, less work hours, and friendly co-workers.

The signs of these three variables indicate the opposite results; that is, if the sign is negative it correlates positively with the dependent variable because perception of work rewards is rated in a way that the smaller the mean the more important the aspect is.

For all three variables results came out, as expected, in line with *n* Achievement outcomes. As *n* Achievement and *n* Affiliation are negatively correlated, choices of individuals with high *n* Affiliation came out as the inverse of high achievers' choices. Individuals with high *n* Achievement, it should be remembered from the previous chapter, placed a great importance on having high paying jobs as this would indicate how successful they are (Atkinson, 1958; Douvan, 1956; and McClelland, 1987), whereas individuals high in *n* Affiliation would not rate this factor important, and would rely on other factors more important to them which are more likely to satisfy their need.

Less work hours are also seen as an important aspect by individuals with high *n* Affiliation. This is consistent with the results of high *n* Achievement individuals. Normally it would be expected that people with high *n* Affiliation would have less work commitment and a high valuation of social environment. Thus, less work hours would provide more social interaction outside the work environment, and therefore is more highly valued by them than by those with low *n* Affiliation. An inverse finding was obtained with *n* Achievement. The high achievers were not much concerned with work hours so long as their job satisfies other more important needs.

The third variable is preference for friendly co-workers. With a smaller mean for high *n* Affiliation than for low *n* Affiliation subjects, this meant that having friendly colleagues at the workplace is highly valued by individuals high in *n* Affiliation. Naturally, it would be expected of these particular individuals to prefer to work in a socially friendly surroundings, whereas those low *n* Affiliation people would be more task-oriented than people-oriented. Therefore the task-oriented individuals would concentrate on the work they do and pay less attention to the social surroundings. By

contrast, individuals high in *n* Affiliation, would interact more with each other at the workplace at the expense of work efficiency.

The second set of variables which relate to job characteristics are different from work rewards discussed above in the way they were rated. As pointed out previously, eight job characteristics were rated in a way that the higher the mean, the more of that characteristic in the job. From this set of variables four were found to differentiate between high and low *n* Affiliation subjects. These variables are: skill variety, task significance, dealing with others, and job challenge.

The negative relationship between *n* Affiliation and skill variety indicates that those with high *n* Affiliation have jobs that are routine and with similar tasks which require limited skills from employees. Relatedly, a similar relationship is evident in respect of job challenge. The same individuals described their jobs as not challenging, which is another description of skill variety. By contrast to high affiliative subjects, high achievers described their jobs as more challenging and requiring a high level of personal skills. These two variables are amongst the core dimensions of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) and can be classified as job content dimensions.

From different perspective managers high in *n* Affiliation described their jobs as significant in that they have a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, and they are required to work closely with other people in carrying out the work activities. It can be interpreted given these findings that subjects high in *n* Affiliation would seek jobs that win them the respect and approval of others, and ones that give them the ultimate interpersonal interaction. For this reason, these two variables can be classified as interpersonal dimensions.

The specific conclusion derived from these findings is that individuals high in *n* Affiliation do not pay much attention to the content of the job as long as it provides them with ample interaction with others within the workplace or in the external environment. The significance of the job is judged by its capacity to create and maintain interpersonal networks outside the workplace. If the job is perceived important by others or if it is significant to other peoples' lives and work, then a certain degree of recognition by and relationship with others is guaranteed. These findings are parallel to what is reported in the literature of this concept (e.g. Boyatzis, 1972; Lundy, 1981; and McClelland, 1975).

It could be justified from the similarities between these results and results reported in the literature of this concept, that the measure used to test *n* Affiliation has yielded results which can serve, at least roughly, as a concurrent validity for the scale used.

11.2 Findings of Locus of Control

The inclusion of this factor in this study was largely inspired by the findings reported in literature which suggest that locus of control is an influential factor in determining people's work behaviours (Furnham, 1987; Mirels and Garrett, 1971; MacDonald, 1972; and Waters *et al.*, 1975), and internal locus of control is particularly associated with *n* Achievement (Bar-Tal & Bar-Zohar, 1977), (for a detailed review of this construct see Chapter four, section 4.5).

As locus of control is believed to be largely influenced by social and religious values, the intention in this study is to highlight the distinctiveness of the *n* Achievement and locus of control constructs and examine whether culture, especially religion, has a bearing on this concept. It has to be admitted that the relationship

between locus of control and culture is not comprehensively examined in the present study. Nevertheless some important cultural aspects are considered, particularly whether Arabs display a more fatalistic outlook than non-Arabs as demonstrated by some researchers. (c.f. Mansfield, 1982; Patai, 1973 and Rodinson, 1974).

Some other variables were specifically investigated as they were expected to be associated with locus of control, either as suggested by empirical research or as they appear to relate to the concept in view of sound theories and arguments. In spite of this scrutiny, attempts have failed to establish any relationships other than the ones stated above. Examples of the variables investigated are religion, education, father's education and age. In particular, religion is considered to be a strong candidate to directly affect the development of locus of control as the literature suggests. It is most likely due to under-representation of non-Islamic religions that a valid comparison is not feasible in this study. Likewise, father's education was thought to be a main determining factor in deciding locus of control in children as parents values are induced through parental practices and teachings.

With respect to age no significant finding was observed although a noticeable difference was evident between subjects over 45 years of age (mean 16.8) and the rest of the sample (mean 16.28) with the oldest group being more internal (it should be noted that in this study high scores are used to present the internal end of the locus of control scale). Empirical research concerning the relationship between perceived control and ageing remains inconsistent. However a tentative conclusion can be drawn suggesting that the relationship of attributions of control to age should be curvilinear over the life course, with young adults not having yet fully developed their attributional systems, and with older adults having diminished control or voluntarily relinquishing control (Brim, 1974; Rodin, 1987). Support for the curvilinear relationship stems also

from other studies. In comparison to college-aged adults, middle-aged and older adults have generally been found to be more internal (Lachman, 1985; Siegler & Gatz, 1985). On the other hand, several studies have found decreases in internality in adults in their 60s and older (Cicirelli, 1980; Rychman & Malikiosi, 1975). The results of the present study can, in part, support this.

As concerning *n* Achievement and locus of control the analysis has failed to locate any significant relationship between the two, notwithstanding the fact that some studies have reported positive correlation between *n* Achievement and internal locus of control (Bar-Tal & Bar-Zohar, 1977; Lefcort, 1982; and Lessing, 1969). In another study Pandy & Tewary (1979) have reported a positive association between being an entrepreneur and internal locus of control.

Table 11.2: Summary table for Analysis of Covariance for main effects with Locus of Control as the dependent variable.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of <i>F</i>
Main Effects	275.166	8	34.396	6.856	.000
Sector	57.666	3	19.222	3.832	.010
Studying abroad	30.271	1	30.271	6.034	.014
Working with other orgs.	32.808	1	32.808	6.540	.011
Nationality	21.352	2	10.676	2.128	.120
Job satisfaction (Covariance)	133.070	1	133.070	26.525	.000
Explained	366.182	15	24.412	4.991	.000
Residual	2186.582	447	4.892		
Total	2552.765	462	5.525		

After deciding the variables with which locus of control has a relationship Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was chosen to run a multivariate test. The advantage of ANCOVA to include metric and non-metric independent variables along

with a metric dependent variable made this technique most suitable for the given data (Hair *et al.*, 1992). Of the five independent variables four are non-metric (categorical) while only job satisfaction is metric which was entered in the equation as a covariate, while the others as main effects. Below, separate discussions for each independent variable are given.

11.2.1 Nationality

On the bivariate level, locus of control is found to be significantly different across the three levels of the nationality variable (Saudis, the remaining Arabs, and non-Arabs with means of 16.16, 17.04 and 16.67 respectively) with the Saudis scoring significantly lower than the remaining Arabs but not significantly lower than the non-Arabs. ($F=5.14$, $\alpha 0.006$).

The result of ANCOVA displayed in Table 11.2 shows that the model is significant by looking at the “explained” statistic. The other statistics in the table point to the effect of these individual variables on locus of control except for the nationality variable which exhibited a substantial decrease in level of significance to reach $\alpha 0.12$ after controlling the effect of other variables when tested simultaneously. Because Arabic and Islamic cultures are suggested to be fatalistic, the Arab subjects were expected to clearly portray this picture as compared to non-Arabs.

This study has failed to locate any significant discrepancies between the three national (or cultural) groups, even though most of the work on social backgrounds points to a relationship between locus of control, ethnicity and socio-economic status. Research indicates that blacks and lower-social status are more external than whites and middle or upper-social status (Battle and Rotter, 1963). Scott and Phelan (1969) compared whites, blacks and Mexican-Americans. The whites were significantly more

internal than the other groups. In another study Hsieh *et al.* (1969) compared Anglo-American, American-born subjects of which at least one parent had been born in China, and a group of subjects from Hong Kong. They found the Anglo-American to be the most internal and the Hong Kong to be the most external. A similar study comparing Anglo-Americans, Spanish-Americans and American Indians reveals that Anglo-Americans exhibited the greatest internality. Comparing social classes Gruen and Ottinger (1969) found that greater internality was associated more often with middle-class than with lower-class backgrounds. The evidence for fatalistic and external control beliefs displayed by minorities and lower-social classes is evident. (For studies on this matter see for example, Gurin & Gurin, 1976; Lachman, 1985; and Phares, 1976).

The common thread that runs through these groups, i.e. minorities and lower-social class, according to Phares is that they “have relatively little access to significant power, social mobility, opportunity, or material advantages [which results in manifesting] relatively higher external scores” (1976:159). Regarding cultures at large research frequently indicates that Eastern cultures are more likely to endorse fatalistic and external control beliefs than Western cultures (Chiu, 1991; Cook & Chi, 1985; Grabb, 1982; Hsieh *et al.*, 1969; Mirowsky, 1984; Peng, 1993; Smith *et al.*, 1984; and Weisz *et al.*, 1984).

Lefcourt (1982) explains the development of external locus of control thus:

... an attentive, responsive, critical, and contingent milieu is a precursor of the development of an internal locus of control. Likewise, ..., the less responsive and less opportune milieu surrounding the poor, the ostracised and the deprived creates a climate of fatalism and helplessness that is reflected in the scores that individuals obtain on

locus of control measures. Lower socioeconomic status, membership in designated minority groups, and nonvoluntary quasi-incarceration share commonality in affording minimal contingency between quality of effort and quality of reward, and in operating more external control expectations.

(p.146)

At this point, it can be said that the effect of nationality variable in this study has been explained by some other variables, notably sector type, education abroad or previous experience with other organisations.

11.2.2 Job Satisfaction

The variable found to most strongly correlate with locus of control is job satisfaction. The relationship is a positive one ($r = .26$, $\alpha 0.000$) which means the more internally controlled the individual is the more he is satisfied with his job (normally, locus of control is coded in a way that high scores indicate external locus of control, in this study it is coded the opposite). In literature, research of this construct has a general tendency to support this proposition. To cite a few Gemmill & Heisler (1972), Kimmons and Greenhaus (1976), Mitchel *et al.* (1975), Oliver (1983), Organ and Green (1974) and Sims and Keller (1976) have reported that higher job satisfaction is found amongst internally oriented subjects than their externally oriented colleagues. Similarly Dailey (1980) and Knoop (1981) reported that internal locus of control employees perceived their jobs to be more enriched than did their external counterparts.

Most studies reported here have assessed job satisfaction by either examining several dimensions of job characteristics, or using these dimensions as moderators between locus of control and job satisfaction. The relationship between internality and job satisfaction demonstrated by these studies can be explained by the fact that internally oriented subjects perceive their jobs as having more autonomy, feedback,

variety and significance than externals (Dailey, 1980, Kimmons and Greenhaus, 1976, Knoop, 1981; and Frost and Wilson, 1983).

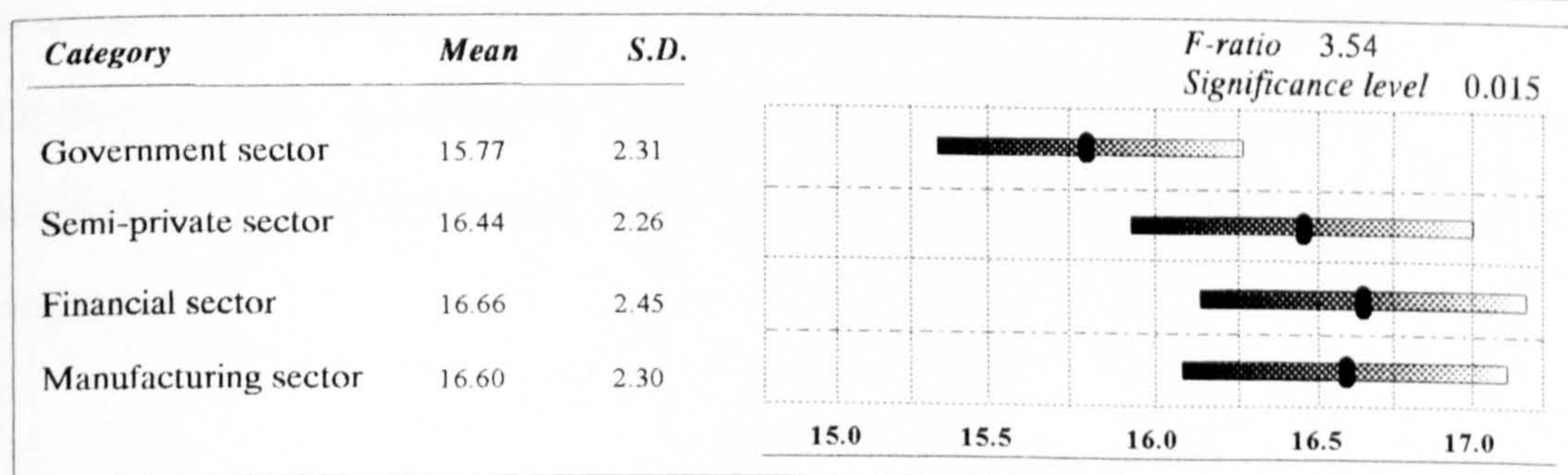
To further elaborate, it could be said that managers with high internal control report higher job satisfaction than the externally controlled because they can translate the belief into actions aimed at improving their environment. This is accomplished by their ability when confronted by stressful situations at work to initiate attempts at improving the situation, and reduce the stress they face. As internal locus of control is negatively associated with job stress (Gemmill & Heisler, 1972), satisfaction is experienced with less stress jobs.

11.2.3 Sector Type

This and the following two variables have, in most cases, accounted for most of the discrepancies between subjects of this study. In particular, respondents can better be classified on these three variables than on their culture or nationality differences. With respect to sector type it is evident that subjects of the government sector have again proven to be different from all other sectors involved in this study. As Figure 11.1

Figure 11.1

Analysis of variance of locus of control for the four sectors with means and standard deviations.



shows, scores of government sector managers are significantly different from those of the others' pointing towards the external end of locus of control scale.

It has been illustrated earlier, internal locus of control positively correlates with *n* Achievement, and so it should be expected that those who scored high on the *n* achievement scale should score towards the internal pole of the locus of control scale. Following Gemmill and Heisler's (1972) analogy, it is logical to deduce from these results that managers with an external outlook would accept the situations in which they are and make little efforts to improve them. This means that the relation between effort, performance and outcome is less conspicuous to them than to internally controlled managers. Typically, the workplace where effort-outcome connection is less obvious is the government organisations as opposed to other organisations investigated in this study. Although the relationship between organisation type and locus of control has received little attention, the outcomes arrived at in this study support earlier results reported by Frantz (1980) which indicate that public sector employment is associated with external locus of control.

11.2.4 Education Abroad

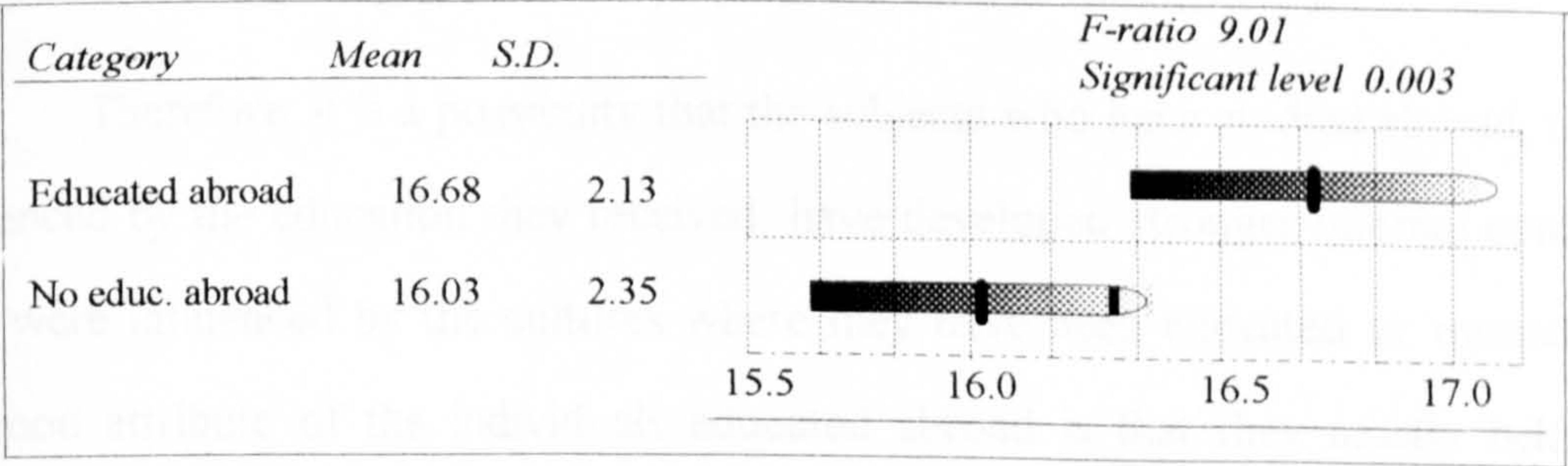
Surprisingly this variable has consistently contributed far more than expected of it to the variation amongst the subjects of this study. It is however very difficult to precisely assess if the effect is due to education or training, to the different cultures in which subjects have studied or trained, or to something else. Whatever the underlying causes the two groups, as exhibited in Figure 11.2 below, show a significant difference between them with those who were trained or educated abroad being more internally controlled.

If we take the result of this variable as representing education or training outside countries of origin of the subjects and not something else, the effect then could be attributed to either education or culture. The education level of respondents in this study did not exhibit any bearing on locus of control, and neither did the father's education. Likewise, national or cultural differences did not contribute to the perception of control.

In spite of this, research shows that education and culture have a determining effect on locus of control. Research relating to education has not been exhaustive and conclusive. However, some studies report a positive relationship between education and internal locus of control (e.g. Gurin and Gurin, 1976; Wiehe, 1987). With respect to cultural and socioeconomic differences in relation to locus of control, their effect has been well documented in literature (as illustrated above in section 11.2.1).

Although some evidence suggests that locus of control is a personality disposition that is relatively stable and is shaped at early stages of life, it can also be viewed as a somewhat narrow expectancy arising out of the immediate situation (Lefcourt, 1982 and Phares, 1976).

Figure 11.2
Analysis of variance of locus of control for education abroad, with means and standard deviations



Some studies investigating the role of child rearing on forming locus of control in children can be cited. Chance (1965), for instance, found internal locus of control to be associated with early independence training, mother's education, and a less controlling mother. Similar results concerning parental behaviour and child rearing were reported by other studies (e.g. Crandall, 1973; Katkovsky *et al.*, 1967; Davis and Phares, 1969; Johnson and Kilmann, 1975; Nowick; and Segal, 1974; and Shore, 1967).

Despite the evidence reported above, locus of control can not be taken as a stable attribute that is determined only by the broad attitudes of parents. These factors are only the beginning, other factors are needed to define the direction of either an external or internal locus of control in individuals. Causal attribution is seen by many as a continuous process that is mainly determined by the contingencies between the behaviour and reinforcements. Lefcourt, for example, asserts that "*... people change in their customary causal attributions if they encounter experiences that meaningfully alter the contingencies between their acts and perceived outcomes*" (1982:166).

Research indicates that locus of control can be altered throughout the life cycle by a variety of environmental forces. Age, as demonstrated above, is one major factor along which locus of control is perceived differently (also see Weisz and Stipek, 1982). Other forces are; the conditions that affect a subject's certainty that control can be exerted; world or national events; special training programmes; and a variety of therapeutic techniques (Pnares, 1976). (also see Gatz & Karel, 1993).

Therefore, it is a possibility that the subjects who have studied abroad, though influenced by the education they received, have developed stronger internal control as they were influenced by the cultures where they have been educated or trained. One common attribute of the individuals educated abroad is that they mostly belong to

cultures which can be described as traditional, and have studied in more developed countries which place a high value on personal achievements and output.

An alternative and more plausible interpretation is that those who studied abroad are in fact internally controlled before they decided to pursue their education abroad. Taking into account that internals are more confident and more able to deal with reality (Rotter, 1966), believe in their abilities to achieve their goals and cope with potentially threatening situations (Phares, 1976), seek more information (Davis and Phares, 1967), and are more effective, hopeful, and resilient who do not take defeats as final (Lefcourt, 1982) (for other characteristics, irrelevant to this point; see Lachman and Burack, 1993), it can be justified to presume that internally controlled individuals would take the chance to pursue difficult but attainable goals, and would take the initiative to try new and uncertain methods (which are in a way features of high achievers). Studying abroad can be considered as an adventurous challenge with uncertain outcomes. Consequently, they would be motivated to take the challenge and further their education in foreign countries. Therefore it is quite reasonable to assume that these individuals are primarily internally controlled and their choice to further their education in other countries is a result of this characteristic.

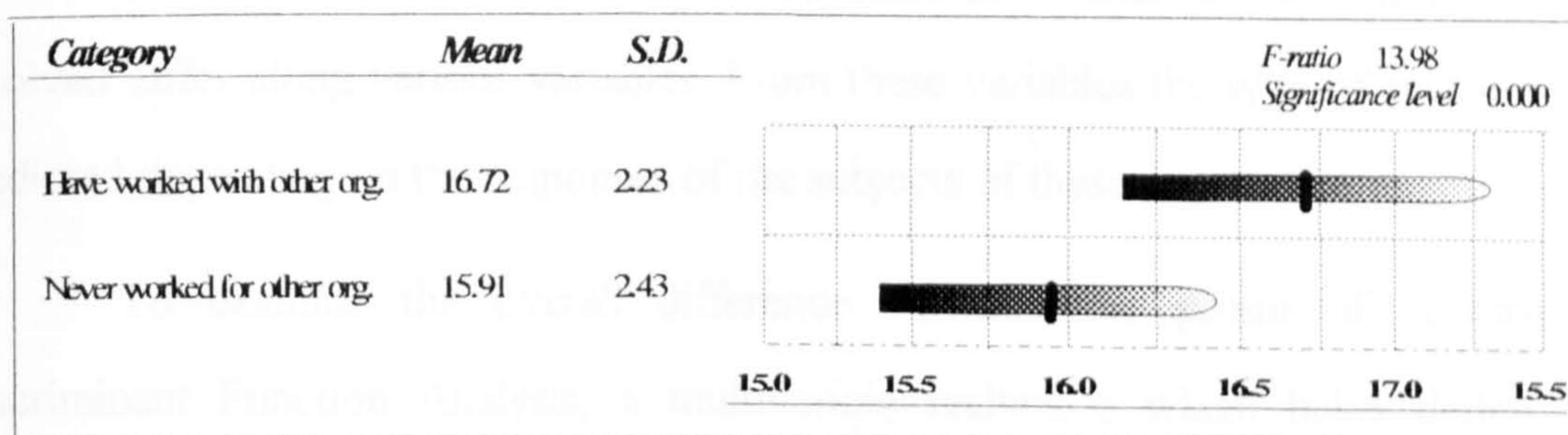
11.2.5 Inter-organisational Mobility

Evidently this variable manifests a big discriminating power between internal and external locus of control as well as in other psychological variables such as *n* Achievement, *n* Affiliation and job satisfaction. Results depicted in Figure 11.3 understandably show that subjects who have worked with other organisations exhibited a tendency to more internality than those who started their careers with their current organisations

The results herein can be explicated in the light of three concepts, namely, job commitment, job satisfaction and tenure. It would seem logical that internals would make difficult decisions by quitting jobs that are not fulfilling their needs, whereas externals would hesitate in doing so because they perceive a weak association between their performance and outcome, and that membership in an organisation is a matter of chance or fate, (Luthans *et al.*, 1987).

Figure 11.3

Analysis of variance of locus of control for previous work with other organisations with means and standard deviations.



To elaborate further, internal locus of control is positively correlated with job satisfaction (as demonstrated earlier), and job commitment (Luthans *et al.*, 1987; and Spector, 1982, 1986). When jobs are not fulfilling employees' needs, employees get less satisfied with their jobs. At this point internally controlled subjects would be more likely to quit these dissatisfying jobs, though externals would show a greater intention to quit but not actually make the decision (Keller, 1984; and Spector & Michaels, 1986). The potential for internals to change when dissatisfied with their jobs is determined by the characteristics spelled out in the previous section.

11.3 Predicting Sector Type From Sample Characteristics

This part is devoted to the testing of the predictive power of the variables considered in this study to discriminate between the different sectors. The variables fall into three categories. The first involves perception of the eleven work rewards. The second relates to the career-related variables which include training, experience and job satisfaction. The third is concerned with demographic and psychological variables, e.g., age, nationality, education, etc., including the three personality variables, namely, *n* Achievement, *n* Affiliation and locus of control.

This section will also examine the assumption that subjects of the sectors involved differ along various variables. From these variables the type of sector can be predicted depending on the responses of the subjects of these sectors.

To examine the overall difference between the group of sectors, the Discriminant Function Analysis, a multivariate technique which helps define how different groups are, will be used for the three analyses. The basic mechanism of this technique is to derive the linear combination of a set of independent variables which discriminate between predefined groups by creating functions which produce maximally different group scores. It is understood that Discriminant Function Analysis is the most suitable technique to be used with these data because it has the advantage of using a categorical dependent variable (which in this case has more than two categories), and it can identify the group to which an object (e.g. person) belongs.

11.3.1 Predicting sector type from perception of work rewards

It should be remembered from sections 9.5.1 and 10.4 that perception of work rewards refers to a statement asking subjects to indicate how important eleven aspects of jobs

are to them. In section (9.5.1) a full account was advanced elaborating the differences between subjects of the four sectors. Similar F -test values to the ones reported in Table 9.11 in respect of the said work rewards are shown in Table 11.4.

From Table 9.11 it is apparent that subjects of the different sectors differ significantly along six of the eleven aspects. Also in section 9.5.1 the perception of subjects of those facets was thoroughly dealt with. However, in this section a multivariate technique is conducted, ignoring the nature of the differences between the individual sectors as this has been dealt with in that section, in order to pinpoint the exact power each aspect has in discriminating between the sectors, and taking into account the effect of the other aspects simultaneously.

The technique used here is the Discriminant Function Analysis (DFA). This technique involves enormous calculations and parameters to be read in order to determine if the model is valid. At this point interpretation of the resulting statistics can be justified. The method used here to enter independent variables is the stepwise method where one variable is entered at each step. The variable entered in the model at each step is the one with the highest univariate F ratio calculated after the last step. As they can be entered, they can also be removed if the F ratio falls below the criteria level as a result of collinearity with other variables already in the model. The stepwise procedure is used here because the objective of this analysis is to determine which variables are most efficient in discriminating between sectors in respect of the given work rewards.

To test the model's significance we should first look at the discriminant function(s) on Table 11.3 headed *Canonical Discriminant Functions*. Since we have four groups there are three discriminant functions of which the first two are highly statistically significant, and the third is a little over the acceptable level of significance.

To evaluate the model it suffices to consider the first discriminant function which always has the largest between-groups variability, whereas the remaining functions have successively less between-groups variability (Norusis, 1990b).

The significance of each function is a significance measure for its Wilk's Lambda which means that smaller Wilk's Lambda values are associated with functions that have much variability between groups and little variability within groups. Because the first function is significant, then the model itself is significant which means that the null hypothesis, which states that there is no difference between the populations from which the samples are drawn, can be rejected.

It should be noted at this point that even though Wilk's Lambda may be statistically significant, it provides little information about the effectiveness of the discriminant function in classification. Therefore reading other statistics is imperative in order to examine the effectiveness of the model. To validate the functions several measures can be read. First, classification matrices in Table 11.3 should be looked at. Results show that the percentage of cases correctly classified (hit ratio) is 44.6 for the analysis sample, and 45.6 for the holdout sample. Although the figures seem relatively low, they are in fact effective. This can be determined by the test of (maximum chance) which can be attained if all the observations are assigned to the group with the highest probability of occurrence. That is, 26.4% (83 cases) for the analysis sample of the government group, and 31% (34 cases) for the holdout sample.

Another test to examine the accuracy of classification matrix is Press's Q which in formula form can be written as:

$$\text{Press's } Q = \frac{[N - (n \cdot k)]^2}{N(k - 1)}$$

Where

N	=	Total sample size
n	=	Number of observations correctly classified
k	=	Number of groups

Table 11.3: Results of stepwise discriminant analysis for perception of work rewards with sector as the dependent variable.

Canonical Discriminant Functions									
Func	Eige- nvalue	Func	% of Variance Cum	Canonical Corr	After Func	Wilk's Lambda	Chi square	DF	Sig
					0	.7629	80.77	21	.0000
1*	.1989	68.53	68.5	.4073	1	.9147	26.63	12	.0087
2*	.0548	18.87	87.4	.2279	2	.9647	10.71	5	.0573
3*	.0365	12.60	100	.1878					

Classification Results for Analysis Sample					
Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership			
		Governt.	Semi-Prvt.	Finan.	Manuf.
Group 1 Government	83	39 47.0%	14 16.9%	16 19.3%	14 16.9%
Group 2 Semi-Private	72	17 23.6%	27 37.5%	17 23.6%	11 15.3%
Group 3 Financial	80	12 15.0%	13 16.3%	41 51.3%	14 17.5%
Group 4 Manufact.	70	11 15.7%	16 22.9%	14 20.0%	29 41.4%
Total cases		305	Cases correctly classified: 136		
			Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 44.59%		

Classification Results for Holdout Sample		
Total cases	158	cases correctly classified: 72
		Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 45.57%

* marks the 3 canonical discriminant functions in the analysis.

The Press's Q value for the analysis sample is 62.43, and 35.65 for the holdout sample. Compared with the critical value of 11.34 at a .01 significance level, the discriminant analysis can confidently be described as predicting group membership better than chance for the two samples.

The objective of the holdout sample, or what is referred to as the validation sample, stems from the need to test the validity of the derived discriminant function. This is achieved by developing the discriminant function from the analysis sample, and testing its validity using the holdout sample. If the individuals used in developing the classification matrix are the same as those used in computing the function a possibility of upward bias may occur in the prediction accuracy of the discriminant function (Hair *et al.*, 1992).

The results of the discriminant analysis for job aspect perception are presented in Table 11.4. The first part of the table consists of four interpretative measures which are considered the most accurate measures. These measures are the rotated discriminant loadings, univariate *F* ratio, potency index, and Wilk's Lambda. Other less important measures which include discriminant weights, structure matrix and rotated transformation and weights are displayed in Table 11.1 (in Appendix D). The column headed univariate *F* ratio in Table 11.4 indicates the *F* values of the individual independent variables in respect of the group means of the dependent variable before discriminant analysis is processed. *F* values may indicate that differences between the group means exist, but some independent variables may not necessarily have big discriminant powers even though their values are significant. They may have collinearity with other variables. By the same token, some variables may have small *F* values but may be included in the final model for the same reason.

The three columns headed *Rotated Discriminant Loadings* indicate the contribution of each independent variable to each discriminant function. The Wilk's Lambda values represent the Wilk's Lambda of the model after the corresponding variable has been entered. The size of Lambda value indicates the discriminant power of the corresponding variable. The variable with the biggest Lambda is entered first, followed by the next bigger value, and so on. Hence, this means the Lambda value

Table 11.4: Summary of interpretative measures of the discriminant function for the perception of work rewards with sector as the dependent variable❖.

VARIABLES	Rotated Discriminant Loadings			Univariate	Potency	Wilk's Lambda
	Func 1	Func 2	Func 3	F Ratio	Index	after each step*
Relations in wkplc.	.501	.075	-.050	4.211(b)	.145	.86758(a)
Fringe Benefit	-.189	-.272	.773	2.962(c)	.102	.81018(a)
Promotion	-.121	.124	-.054	.487(d)	.017	.77129(a)
Autonomy	-.140	.802	-.127	4.745(b)	.163	.83493(a)
Work Conditions	-.037	-.046	.131	.844(d)	.003	.76293(a)
Work Hours	.722	-.298	-.073	10.049(a)	.345	.90896(a)
Recognition	.209	.481	.024	1.835(d)	.063	.77980(a)
Nature of Work	-.362	.001	-.226	3.911(b)	.119	NI
Pay	-.334	-.292	-.096	4.190(b)	.087	NI
Job Security	-.086	-.310	-.080	.342(d)	.023	NI
Job Status	-.086	-.160	-.248	.825(d)	.025	NI

Canonical Discriminant Functions evaluated at Group Means (Group Centroids)

Group	Discriminant Function Centroids		
	Func 1	Func 2	Func 3
1- Government	-.68236	.00962	-.20495
2- Semi-Private	.25596	.16226	-.23590
3- Financial.	.17712	.20341	.30270
4- Manufacturing.	.34339	-.41078	.13972

❖ Variables ordered by inclusion in the model.
* NI= not included in the analysis
a P < 0.001
b P < 0.01
c P < 0.05
d Not significant

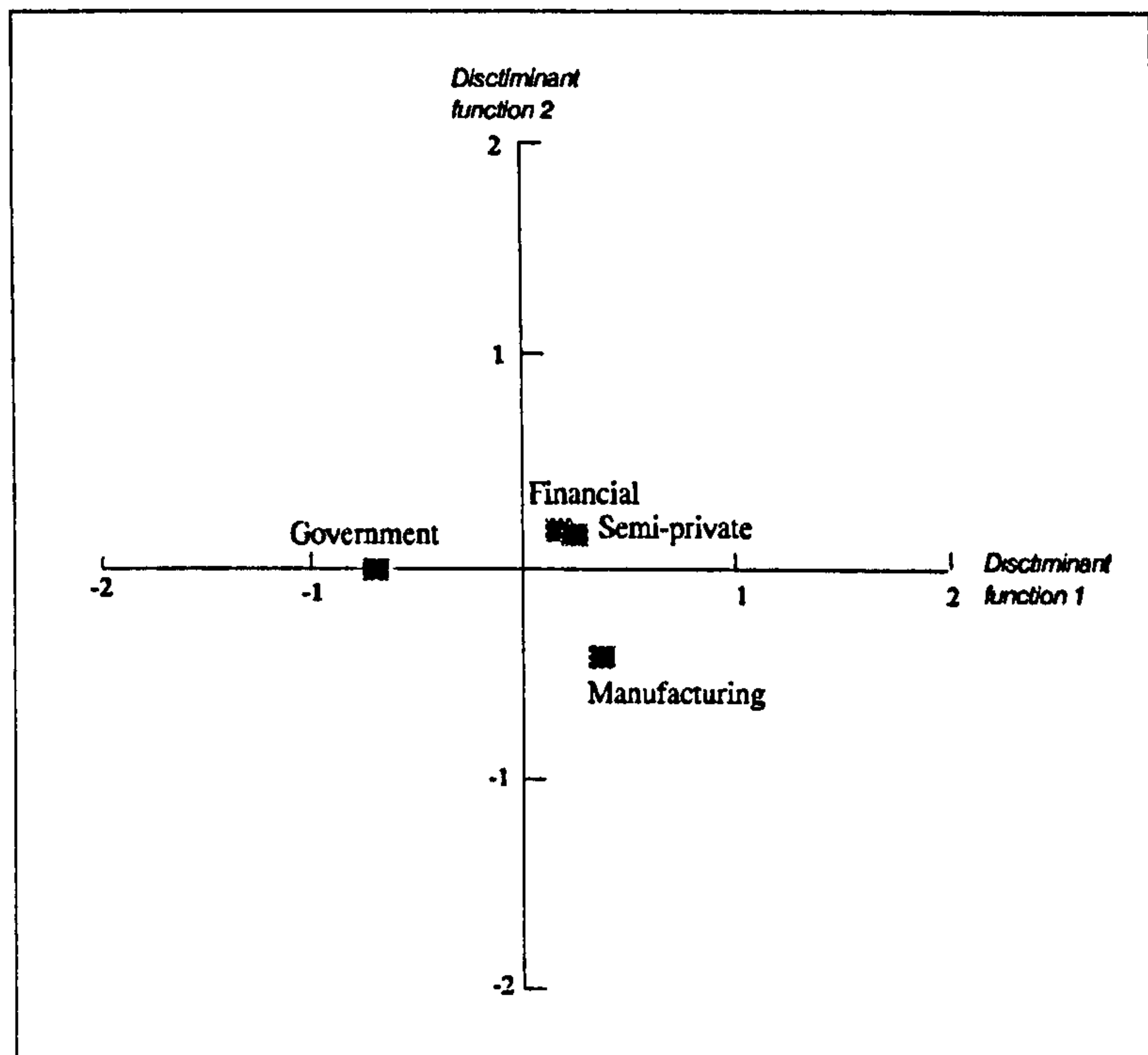
decreases with the increase of variables in the model, which in turn means the more variables in the model the stronger the discrimination between the groups is.

As noted above small Wilk's Lambda values indicate functions with more variability between groups than within groups. The corresponding significance level indicates the F level of significance for the model after that specific variable has been entered in the model. It can be noticed from the same table that some variables have not been included in the analysis. Although some of these variables initially have significant F values then were not included because their F values after the other variables have been entered in the model were too small to be eligible for inclusion.

The column entitled *Potency Index* is a composite measure of the discriminatory power of a predictor variable when more than one discriminant function is estimated, and upon which predictions can be compared. The values of the potency index are largely parallel to those of F values. The potency index is the sum of potency values for each function. In turn, potency values can be calculated by multiplying the relative eigenvalue by the corresponding squared loading.

Another indication for the discriminant power is the group centroids (means). The lower part of Table 11.4 shows the group centroids of each group, i.e. sectors, for each function taking into account all variables entered in the model. As depicted in Figure 11.4 in which only the first two functions are used, the government sector shows a big deviation from the other sectors along function one, while the manufacturing sector deviates from the other sectors along function two.

Figure 11.4
*Plot of sector means
(group centroids) the
perception of work
rewards using the
first two discriminant
functions.*



Also from Table 11.4, it can be pointed out that of the eleven variables used in the analysis only seven portray a discriminating power between the four sectors. The F results from Table 11.4 compared with the Wilk's Lambda values in the same table indicate that there are three variables which showed insignificant differences at the bivariate level, namely; promotion, work conditions and recognition, and can in fact discriminate between the groups when other variables were simultaneously considered. Whereas two variables which were highly significant on the bivariate level have failed at the multivariate level to manifest any difference between the sectors; these variables are nature of work and salary. For a detailed consideration of which job aspect is associated with what sector, the reader is instructed to refer to section (9.5.1).

11.3.2 Predictive Power of Career-related Variables

In this section the same guidelines adopted in the previous one are followed. First a series of bivariate tests between sectors as a dependent variable and several career-

related variables is examined. This is followed by an implementation of a Multiple Discriminant Analysis technique for the purpose of diagnosing the variables which can discriminate between the sectors involved in this study. Further, it will be decided with which sector each variable is most associated.

From the organisational variables nine were selected to be used in this model. These variables were believed to contribute in varying degrees to the discrimination

Table 11.5: Results of stepwise discriminant analysis for career-related variables with sector as the dependent variable.

Canonical Discriminant Functions									
Func	Eige- nvalue	Func	% of Variance Cum	Canonical Corr	After Func	Wilk's Lambda	Chi square	DF	Sig
					0	.4522	235.30	27	.0000
1*	.5912	61.68	61.68	.6095	1	.7195	97.59	16	.0000
2*	.2892	30.18	91.86	.4737	2	.9277	22.26	7	.0023
3*	.0780	8.14	100.0	.2690					

Classification Results for Analysis Sample					
Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership			
		Governt.	Semi-Prvt.	Finan.	Manuf.
Group 1 Government	82	61 74.4%	2 2.4%	4 4.9%	15 18.3%
Group 2 Semi-Private	73	6 8.2%	38 52.1%	21 28.8%	8 11.0%
Group 3 Financial	79	12 15.2%	15 19.0%	38 48.1%	14 17.7%
Group 4 Manufact.	70	13 18.6%	2 2.9%	15 21.4%	40 57.1%
Total cases		304	cases correctly classified: 177		
			Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 58.22%		

* marks the 3 canonical discriminant functions in the analysis.

between the four sectors. The nine variables selected are: management level, number of subordinates, tenure with present organisation, training or education abroad, working with other organisations, salary, job satisfaction, training, and amount of training with organisation.

To start with, univariate F tests were carried out between the dependent variable, i.e. sectors, and each independent variable prior to the multivariate analysis. The column headed Univariate F Ratio in the summary of interpretative measures in Table 11.6 summarises these results. Although all variables are statistically significant at the level of .01 or less (except for management level and training) there are three variables marked by highly significant discriminating power between the groups, viz. working with other organisations, salary, and amount of training with organisation.

Examining the three discriminant functions in Table 11.5, under the title *Canonical Discriminant Function*, which are statistically significant at alpha level of .01 or less reveals that the model itself is significant. In the same table the functions can be considered valid given that the cases correctly classified are 177 (Or 58.2%) for the analysis sample, and 93 (58.9%) for the holdout sample. The classification can be considered valid after testing it against some other criteria. The test of maximum chance for the analysis sample is 27%, and the holdout sample is 31.5%, these are less than the cases correctly classified for both samples. Press's Q also indicates that the classification is accurate for both samples. The Press's Q value for the analysis sample is 178.96, and for the holdout sample is 96.6. Comparing observed Press's Q values with the critical value of 11.34 at a .01 level of significance, leads to the conclusion that the discriminant analysis can confidently be considered valid.

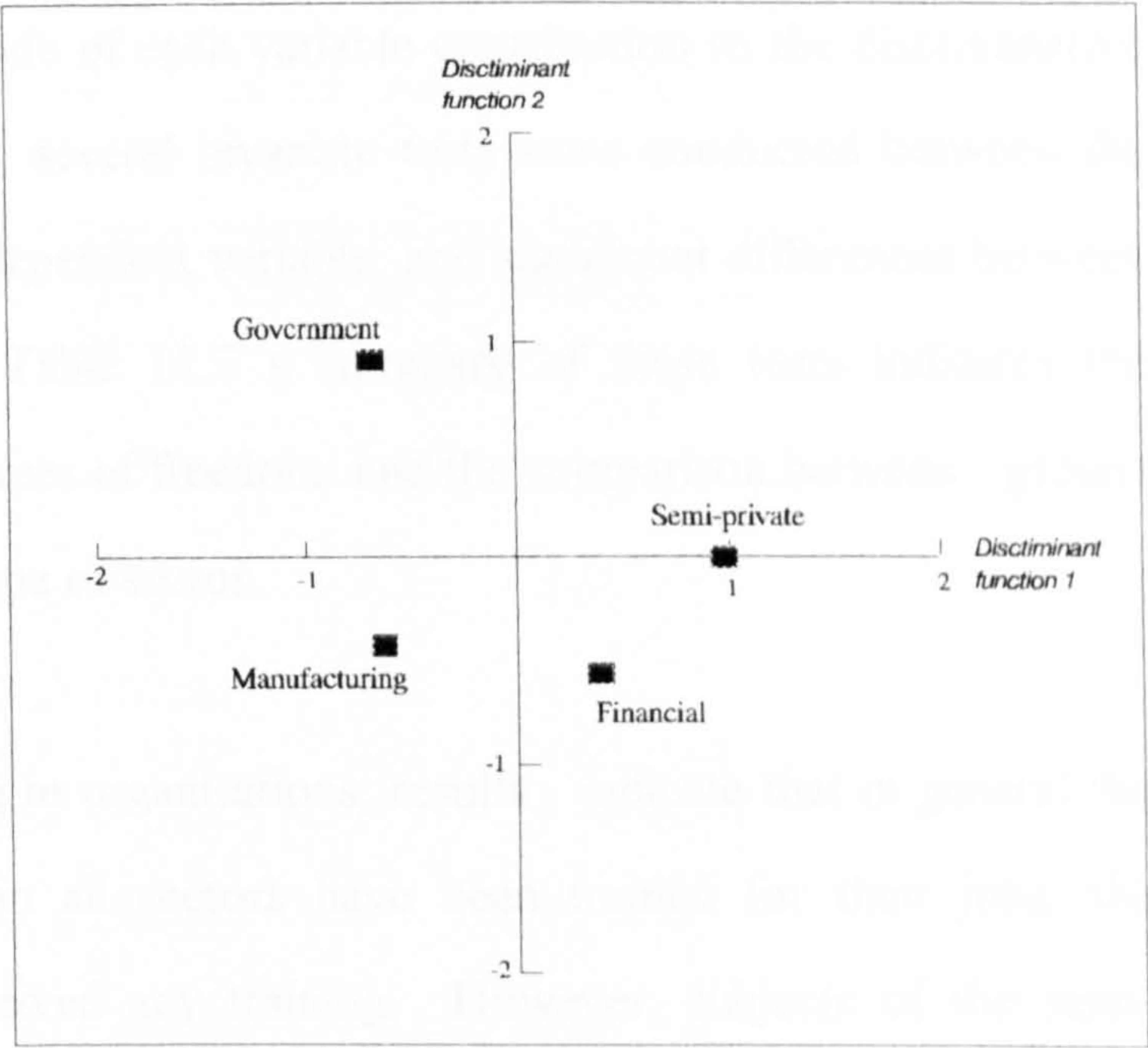
Table 11.6: Summary of interpretative measures of the discriminant function for the career-related variables with sector as the dependent variable❶.

VARIABLES	Rotated Discriminant Loadings			Univariate F Ratio	Potency Index	Wilk's Lambda after each step
	Func 1	Func 2	Func 3			
Amount of training with organisation	.776	.249	-.017	24.876(a)	.260	.80080(a)
Previous experience	.133	.786	.284	23.945(a)	.249	.64347(a)
No. of subordinates	-.347	.015	-.170	6.759(a)	.071	.59399(a)
Income	.372	-.434	-.018	18.529(a)	.193	.53901(a)
Mngmt. level	.064	-.183	.491	3.571(c)	.037	.50921(a)
Job satisfaction	.053	-.135	-.018	6.719(a)	.070	.48649(a)
Training abroad	-.434	-.038	.448	9.416(a)	.098	.47193(a)
Tenure with org.	.125	.376	.069	4.715(b)	.049	.46006(a)
Training	-.234	-.043	-.186	3.292(c)	.034	.45222(a)
Canonical Discriminant Functions evaluated at Group Means (Group Centroids)						
Group	Discriminant Function Centroids					
	Func 1	Func 2	Func 3			
1- Government	-.67048	.91030	.28161			
2- Semi-Private	.99352	-.02581	-.09206			
3- Financial.	.33274	-.55490	.30685			
4- Manufacturing.	-.62620	-.41319	-.58018			

❶ Variables ordered by inclusion in the model.
a P < 0.001
b P < 0.01
c P < 0.05

The summary of interpretative measures in Table 11.6 reveals that all variables selected in the model have been included in the analysis using the stepwise method. That is, all variables have been found to predict the four types of sectors. The rotated discriminant loadings indicate the function to which each variable is mostly associated. It suffices for a variable to qualify as a discriminating variable if it can discriminate at least one group from the rest. It is for this reason that many variables are included in the discriminant analysis model

Figure 11.5
*Plot of group centroids
for the career-related
variables using the first
two functions.*



The Wilk’s Lambda values can facilitate our understanding of which variables are important in the model although the corresponding Lambda value to each independent variable represents the Wilk’s Lambda of the model after entering that very variable in the model. For instance, it is correct in this context to say that the Lambda value of the model is .452 which is the Lambda value corresponding to the last variable entered in the model, i.e. training. The potency index also gives a better idea of how discriminating the variables are. Although there is some agreement between *F* values and potency values, the latter is more accurate against which independent variables can be compared.

Taking into account all variables included in the analysis group centroids are calculated (this is achieved by evaluating canonical discriminant functions at group means), the differences between the four groups (sectors) are presented in Table 11.6 and graphically depicted in Figure 11.5.

To evaluate the magnitude of each variable contribution to the discriminative power between the four sectors, several bivariate tests were conducted between the dependent variables and each independent variable, and significant differences between groups were pointed out. In Table 11.7 a summary of these tests indicates the techniques used, test values, degrees of freedom and the comparison between groups of the dependent variables, i.e. type of sector.

With respect to training in organisations, results indicate that in general the majority of employees (87%) in all sectors have been trained for their jobs, the remaining 13% have never received any training. However, subjects of the semi-private sector have frequently reported that they received training more than the others (93.5%), whereas, surprisingly enough, employees of the manufacturing sector have received the least training (only 78%). It should be expected of managers of the manufacturing sector to be the highest trained managers due to their sector's competence and uncertainty.

In line with this, the number of training programmes with current organisations reported by subjects of the different sectors indicates that managers of the semi-private sectors are the most trained managers compared with the others. On average these managers have attended 8.2 training programmes which is significantly different from those reported by the other managers. This is followed by the financial sector with an average of 4.9, and the government sector with an average of 2.6. By contrast, managers of the manufacturing sector have received significantly fewer numbers of training programmes with their current organisations (average of 1.6). Although these results are consistent with those reported above, they can partly be explained by other factors such as inter-organisational mobility and length of experience with

Table 11.7: Results of bivariate tests for the career-related variables with sectors as the dependent variable^(a).

VARIABLES	Test	Test Value	Df. ^(b)	Significance Between Groups ^(c)
Had training	χ^2	13.04*	3	4 and all.
Education abroad	χ^2	51.26**	3	1 & all, and 2 & all.
No. of training programmes with organisation	F	34.42**	3	4 & 3, 4 & 2, 1 & 3, 1 & 2 and 2 & 3.
Management level	χ^2	16.16**	3	3 & all.
No. of subordinate	F	4.72*	3	4 & 3, and 4 & 2.
Income	F	33.46**	3	1 & all, and 2 & 4.
Have worked with other organisations	χ^2	99.81**	3	1 and all.
Years of experience with organisation	F	7.88**	3	1 & 4, 1 & 3, 2 & 4, and 2 & 3.
Overall job satisfaction	F	7.28**	3	4 & 1, and 4 & 3.

(a) The four groups are: 1= Government, 2= Semi-private, 3= Financial, and 4= manufacturing sector.

(b) For F -tests, the number represents the between groups degrees of freedom.

(c) The test used for multiple comparisons between means in ANOVA is TUKEY's *Honestly Significant Difference* at specified alpha of 0.05.

* $P < .01$

** $P < .001$

organisations. Irrespective of that, this variable is taken to be the most predictive variable of the different sectors.

Training or education abroad is considered here as a career-related variable because most employers, especially the government and the semi-private sectors, send their employees abroad for job-related training, or further or especial education. The average of the total sample trained abroad is 50%, but the difference rests in two sectors. Yet again the semi-private sector has more managers who have received training or education abroad than any other sector (72%), whereas only 27% of the government managers have been trained or educated abroad.

The second most discriminating variable is the previous work with other organisations. This variable has repeatedly been responsible for most of the discrepancy between sample subjects. The four groups display a remarkable variation amongst themselves starting with only 21% of government managers with previous experience at other organisations increasing sharply to end with 82% for the manufacturing sector, the other two sectors report 50%, and 71% for the semi-private and finance sectors respectively.

Consistent with these results, tenure with current organisation shows an inverse relationship with having previously worked for other organisations. Because 82% of the manufacturing sector's managers have worked for other organisations, these managers have the lowest number of years with their present organisations. By the same token, managers of the government sector show the largest tenure with their organisations.

Although the number of subordinates has not played a major role so far in determining managerial behaviour, it manifests a strong discriminating power between managers of the different sectors. As shown in Table 11.7, it significantly distinguishes between managers of the manufacturing sector on the one hand and the others on the other (except those of the government sector). The average manager in the manufacturing sector supervises, directly or indirectly, an average of 39.2 employees. Government managers supervise on average 34.7 employees. Managers of the semi-private and financial sectors have the least number of subordinates of 18.4 and 15.9 respectively.

It is expected, from analysis presented in Chapter 8, that salary would assume a great deal of discriminating power between the sectors. In particular, between the government sector on the one hand and the others on the other. From the univariate

F values shown in Table 11.6 it has the third highest F value. Table 11.7 shows that the government sector pays substantially the lowest (also refer to Table 6. 10).

Although management level has all along been an insignificant variable in respect of other organisational variables concerned in this study, it displays here a small predictive power between the sectors under review. The difference here is shown to be between the financial and manufacturing sectors. The former has 66% lower level managers, whereas the latter has 40%. The difference can possibly be attributed to the long hierarchical structure of the financial organisation with its small sections and bank branches, where in manufacturing organisations lower level managers are those who work on the shop floor immediately supervising and communicating with their subordinates.

The final variable in this model is job satisfaction. This variable is not a strong discriminator between all sectors, nevertheless the significant difference was between the manufacturing sector's managers (scoring the highest, 35.7), and the government and financial sectors where the former scoring the lowest of all (31.9).

11.3.3 Predictive Power of Demographic and Psychological Variables

This last section deals with some of the demographic and psychological variables for the purpose of examining their predictive power. Although the relationship between some of the predictor variables, especially the psychological variables, and the dependent variable have been considered elsewhere in this thesis, it is thought more appropriate to treat as many variables as possible in order to enhance the predictability of the model.

Table 11.8 Results of stepwise discriminant analysis for demographic and psychological variables with sector as the dependent variable.

Canonical Discriminant Functions

Func	Eige- nvalue	% of Variance		Canonical Corr	After Func	Wilk's Lambda	Chi square	DF	Sig
		Func	Cum						
					0	.5006	203.77	21	.0000
1*	.7851	87.05	87.05	.6632	1	.8937	33.11	12	.0009
2*	.0936	10.38	97.42	.2925	2	.9773	6.76	5	.2390
3*	.0232	2.58	100.0	.1507					

Classification Results for Analysis Sample

Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership			
		Governt.	Semi-Prvt.	Finan.	Manuf.
Group 1 Government	83	71 85.5%	10 12.0%	2 2.4%	0 00%
Group 2 Semi-Private	71	34 47.9%	27 38.0%	4 5.6%	6 8.5%
Group 3 Financial	78	23 29.5%	19 24.4%	8 10.3%	28 35.9%
Group 4 Manufact.	70	9 12.9%	7 10.0%	3 4.3%	51 72.9%
Total cases		302	cases correctly classified: 157		
		Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 51.99%			

Classification Results for Holdout Sample

Total cases		157	cases correctly classified: 74	
		Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 47.13%		

* marks the 3 canonical discriminant functions in the analysis.

As before, an eleven-variable set is processed administering the same technique and using the same procedure. The variables selected for this analysis as specified in Table 11.9 are nationality, number of children, religion, level of education, father's education, family size, marital status, age, n Achievement, n Affiliation, and

locus of control. The statistical technique used here is multiple discriminant function analysis.

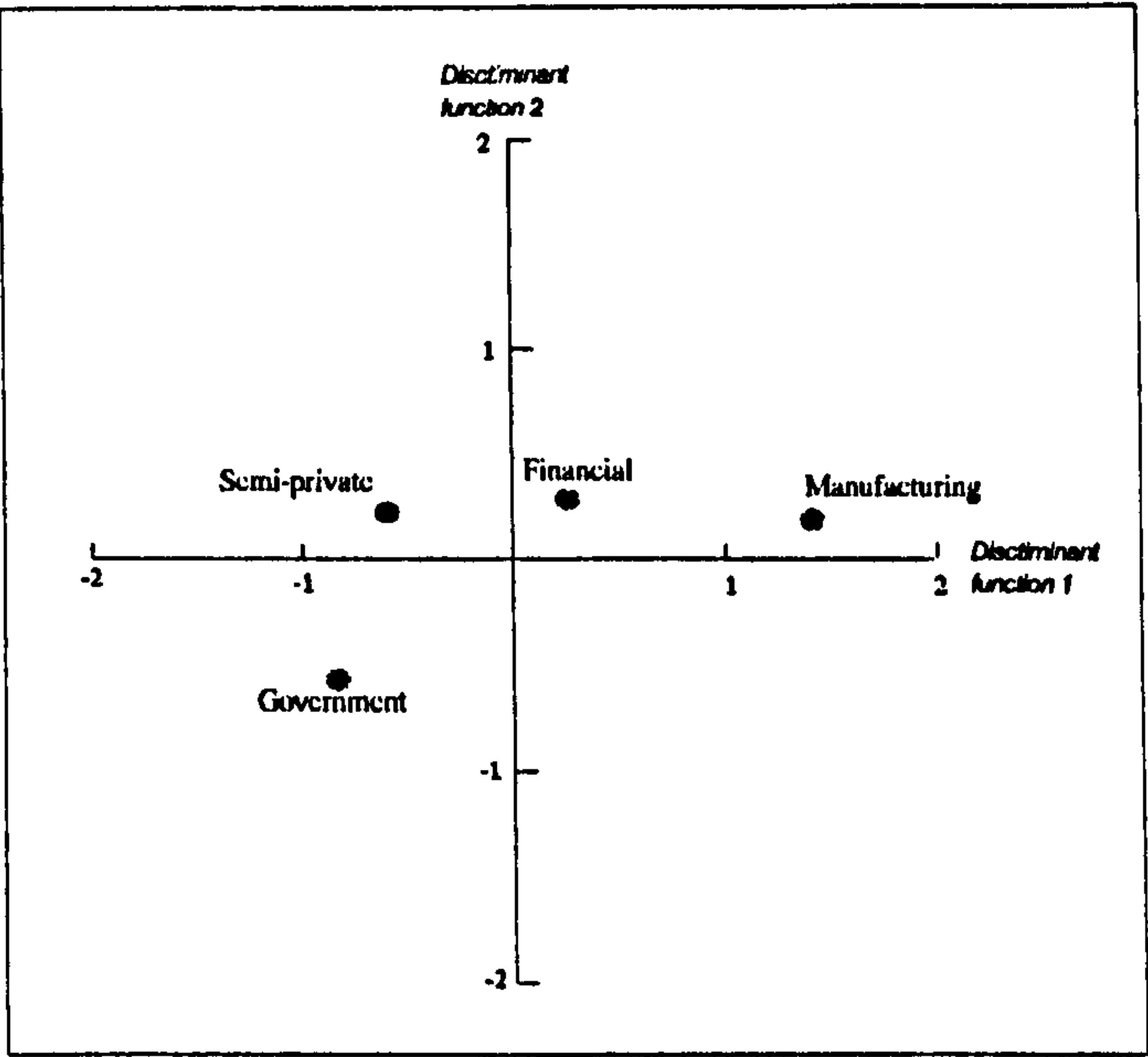
From the same table the bivariate test results between the dependent variable and each independent variable can be examined. The column entitled Univariate *F* Ratio in Table 11.9 indicates the varying degrees each independent variable can contribute to the variation between the groups of the dependent variable, i.e. sectors. It clearly shows that nationality (Saudis vs others) can substantially distinguish between the four sectors ($F = 66, P < .001$), followed by father’s education and religion. On the other hand the level of education of the sample subjects and their marital status have the least ability to differentiate between the groups.

For the multivariate test, Table 11.8 should be consulted to examine the effectiveness of the model. The significance of the model is derived from the significance of the discriminant functions. Looking at the section entitled *Canonical Discriminant Function* in the table reveals that the first two discriminant functions are highly significant, whereas the third is below the significance level. This means the first two functions contribute substantially to group differences but not the third. Under the column labelled *Percent of Variance* the first function explains 87% of the between-groups variability. Meanwhile function 3 accounts only for 2.6% of the variability. Because there is at least one significant function the model can be considered valid.

Reviewing classification results in the same table reveals that a hit ratio of the cases correctly classified for the analysis sample is 52% (or 157 cases) which, though it seems low, is reasonably accurate, whereas the hit ratio for the hold out sample is 47% (74 cases) (for the classification table for the hold out sample refer to Table 11.6 in Appendix D). Comparing results of the classification tables to the maximum chance

values which are 27.5% for the analysis sample and 31% for the holdout sample supports the validity of the classification. Also comparing the calculated values of Press's Q for the analysis sample which is 117.3 and 41 for the holdout sample to the critical value of 11.34 at significant level of .01 points to the accuracy of the classification analysis.

Figure 11.6
Plot of discriminant functions at group centroids for the demographic and psychological variables using the first two functions.



Despite the classification analysis accuracy reported above, it is apparent that these results are less accurate than the calculations reported in the previous two sections. Reviewing the classification matrices in Table 11.8 (and 11.6 in Appendix D) points to the tendency of the model to classify subjects to two main groups, namely, government and semi-private sectors as one group, and financial and manufacturing sectors as another group. In particular, the model has failed to classify members of the financial sector as a separate entity. That is, based on the characteristics used to derive this model members of these two groups (i.e. the two private sectors) have a lot of common attributes amongst themselves. Such an outcome should not be surprising if

we realise that from discriminant loadings in Table 11.9 the variables most contributing to the function loadings are those which distinguish mainly between two groups. Examples of these variables are nationality, religion, and *n* Achievement.

It can be shown from the same table that amongst the eleven variables entered in the model only seven were able to discriminate between the sectors. The other four

Table 11.9: Summary of interpretative measures of the discriminant function for the demographic and psychological variables with sector as the dependent variable❖.

VARIABLES	Rotated Discriminant Loadings			Univariate <i>F</i> Ratio	Potency Index	Wilk's Lambda after each step*
	Func 1	Func 2	Func 3			
Nationality (Saudis vs. others)	.940	.045	.071	66.198(a)	.741	.59928(a)
Father's education	.225	.789	.231	17.495(a)	.196	.54951(a)
Religion	-.378	.049	.558	10.847(a)	.121	.53825(a)
<i>n</i> Achievement	.044	.529	.144	5.029(b)	.056	.52700(a)
No. of children	-.121	-.065	-.657	2.869(c)	.032	.51764(a)
<i>n</i> Affiliation	-.127	-.176	-.038	2.390(d)	.027	.50804(a)
Locus of control	.001	.408	.021	2.260(d)	.025	.50062(a)
Age	.299	-.029	-.290	6.754(a)	.073	NI
Family size	-.148	-.168	-.057	3.085(c)	.032	NI
Marital status	.000	-.051	-.160	.152(d)	.002	NI
Level of education	.112	-.175	.005	.732(d)	.023	NI

Canonical Discriminant Functions evaluated at Group Means (Group Centroids)

Group (sector)	Discriminant Function Centroids		
	Func 1	Func 2	Func 3
1- Government	-.84402	-.58456	-.06205
2- Semi-Private	-.62290	.21702	-.09890
3- Financial	.24138	.28624	.28477
4- Manufacturing	1.35470	.15715	-.14484

❖ Variables ordered by inclusion in the model.
* NI= not included in the analysis
a *P* < 0.001
b *P* < 0.01
c *P* < 0.05
d Not significant

have failed to distinguish between sectors when concurrently examined with other variables although two of them were significantly related to sectors when examined separately, namely; age and family size.

Also in Table 11.9 the three columns labelled Univariate *F* Ratio, Wilk’s Lambda, and Potency index indicate the relative association between the dependent and independent variables. In particular Wilk’s Lambda is arranged from highest to lowest with the highest entered first in the model followed by second highest and so on. In this respect the higher the Lambda value the stronger the relationship between the dependent and the corresponding variables. A reproduction of the bivariate tests between these seven variables and sectors is presented in Table 11.10 to illustrate with what sector each variable is most associated.

Table 11.10: Results of bivariate tests for the demographic and psychological variables with sectors as the dependent variable^(a).

Variables	Test	Test value	Df. ^(b)	Significance Between Groups ^(c)
Nationality (Saudis vs non-Saudis).	χ^2	181.76**	3	1 & 3, 1 & 4, and 2 & 4.
No. of children	<i>F</i>	3.83**	3	1 & 3, and 2 & 3.
Religion (Muslims vs. others)	χ^2	52.94***	3	1 & 3, and 2 & 3.
Father’s education	<i>F</i>	21.42***	3	1 and all.
n Achievement	<i>F</i>	7.82***	3	1 & 2, and 1 & 3.
Locus of Control	<i>F</i>	3.54*	3	3 & 1, and 4 & 1.
n Affiliation	<i>F</i>	3.04*	3	1 & 3.

(a) The four groups are: 1= Government, 2= Semi-private, 3= Financial, and 4= manufacturing sector.

(b) For *F* -tests, the number represents the between groups degrees of freedom.

(c) The test used for multiple comparisons between means in ANOVA is TUKEY’s *Honestly Significant Difference* at specified alpha of 0.05.

* P< .05 ** P< .01 *** P< .001

The descriptive analysis presented in Chapter eight (under section 8.2.1), that nationality, which is divided here as Saudis versus others, can draw a distinctive line between sectors, especially in regard to the government and manufacturing sectors, where the government sector, as exhibited in Table 8.1, is totally Saudis. Only 29% of posts are occupied by Saudis in the manufacturing sector. The semi-private sector also overwhelmingly employs Saudis (94%), whereas in the financial sector Saudis occupy 64% of the jobs.

The father's education (see under section 8.3.3) is also found to substantially discriminate between subjects of the different sectors. In particular, as depicted in Table 11.10, between government managers on the one hand and the other managers on the other hand. The fathers of the Saudi managers were disadvantaged with much less education vis-a-vis their counterparts.

Although non-Muslims are under-represented in this study, this variable is also found to be capable of predicting sectors. Of the 24 non-Muslim subjects 87% work for the manufacturing sector, where virtually none works in the government sector, and only one works for the semi-private sector. Similarly, a large number of children are associated with subjects in the government and semi-private sectors. Subjects of the financial sector have significantly less children than those in the latter two sectors.

In respect of the three psychological variables, Table 11.10 reveals that for *n* Achievement only the government sector is significantly lower than all the other three. Regarding *n* Affiliation subjects of the government sector scored higher than the rest of the groups but statistically different from the financial sector which portrays the lowest scores. For locus of control, managers of the government sector scored lower than all the remaining groups indicating their externality. For detailed discussions

involving these three aspects and sector type, the reader is instructed to refer to their respective sections (sections 10.3.6 for *n* Achievement, 11.1 for *n* Affiliation, and 11.2 for locus of control).

11.4 Overview

The purpose of this chapter was threefold. First to present and interpret results concerning the *n* Affiliation concept. Second to present and interpret findings belonging to the concept of locus of control. The third aim was to examine the power of three sets of variables to predict which sector an individual may belong to knowing some of his attributes.

The part concerning *n* Affiliation was analysed following the same procedure implemented when analysing *n* Achievement except that all variables were entered in the same model instead of several models. To start with, a brief review of the literature was given. As reported in literature *n* Affiliation is found to be negatively related to *n* Achievement. In relation to demographic variables *n* Affiliation was found to be different amongst nationalities with the non-Arabs scoring the lowest. While education was found to negatively correlate with *n* Affiliation, the number of children was found to be positively associated. In relation to organisational variables *n* Affiliation showed a strong positive association with the government sector. Subjects of this sector manifested a greater *n* Affiliation than those of the other sectors. Management level was also found to be important in determining *n* Affiliation. Consistent with other findings, this study found that lower level managers are significantly higher in *n* Affiliation than middle level managers. In accordance with the type of supervision needed from them, lower level managers need to be higher in *n* Affiliation than *n* Power in order to succeed with their subordinates. As explained, the number of subordinates

were shown to be positively associated with *n* Affiliation. The final organisational variable is having worked for other organisations. This variable was found to contribute greatly to most of the behaviour investigated in this study. Subjects with previous experience with other organisations are lower in *n* Affiliation than those who never left organisations of their initial employment.

Another set of variables are job-related variables. The seven job-related variables can be classified as work rewards and characteristics. The relation between these variables and *n* Affiliation point to the fact that individuals high in *n* Affiliation do not pay much attention to the content of the job as long as it provides them with an ample interaction with others at the workplace or in the external environment.

The second part of this chapter is concerned with findings of locus of control. Multivariate testing indicated only four variables associated with locus of control. Although cultural variables, such as nationality and religion, were expected to be chief determining factors, insignificant relationships were derived. The variable found to strongly affect locus of control was job satisfaction. The positive relationship is generally supported by research findings of this concept. Once again, external locus of control is found here to be associated with the government sector. Having worked with other organisations is not surprisingly found to be associated with more internal locus of control. Similarly, education abroad is also found to relate to internal locus of control.

The third part in this chapter is devoted to determine the ability of the studied variables to indicate to what sector an individual might belong when a profile of these variables or some of them is available. The variables involved are divided to three sets. The first set is perception of work rewards. In this concern subjects were asked to rank some work rewards according to their importance to them. From eleven aspects used

in this investigation seven showed an ability to identify subjects of the different four sectors. These facets relate to relations in the workplace, promotion, autonomy, work condition and work hours.

The second set of variables involve career-related variables. Nine variables were entered in a discriminant function model for the same purpose as the previous analysis. All nine variables portrayed a discriminating ability between the four sectors. These variables relate mostly to training and experience, but the variable which most identified subjects of the four sectors was “having worked with other organisations”.

The third and final group of variables can be classified as demographic and psychological variables. These include some characteristics of the sampled subjects such as their nationality, religion, education, age, etc., along with the main three psychological concept in this study, viz., *n* Achievement, *n* Affiliation, and locus of control. Eleven variables were entered, and seven were found to predict the type of sector to which a person may belong. The four variables which failed to discriminate between the different subjects (although two of them were statistically significant at the bivariate analysis level) are age, marital status, family size and education.

PART FIVE

CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER TWELVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

- 1. *The Situation and the Thesis Proposed***
 - 2. *Theoretical Framework and the Approach Chosen***
 - 3. *Objectives and Design of the Study***
 - 4. *Summary of the Empirical Findings***
 - 5. *Discussion and Conclusions***
 - 6. *Implications***
 - 7. *Recommendations for Future Research***
-

CHAPTER XII

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the social and psychological factors responsible for forming the basic concept of work in individuals, and the effect of these factors on their selection of employment type. The investigation was developed in two parallel strands. The first was concerned with establishing general information about the subject's work attitudes, and attempting to identify their work orientations and classify them into clearly defined categories. The second and more important strand was to examine their *n* Achievement and its relationship with the employment type. Employment type was defined as occupations in three different sectors.

In this chapter, the prime objective is to present the study's problem, proposition, methodology, and the analysis of its data in a summarised and concise form. A separate section will be designated to discuss the findings that emerged in the study and to highlight the conclusions and the theoretical implications that can be derived from it. Finally, a short list of recommendations for future research is suggested.

12.1 The Situation and the Thesis Proposed

The social and economic changes that have been taking place in the course of the last few decades in Saudi Arabia are enormous by any standard. One of the major factors contributing to these immense and swift changes is the revenue generated from oil, in particular following the oil price increase in the mid seventies. As a way of absorbing the huge incomes into the economy and diversifying from oil, economic programmes have been introduced to encourage industrialisation.

One major problem that is experienced not only by the manufacturing industry, but also by the private sector as a whole including the service industry is the alienation of Saudi workers from working in this sector. At a time when the private sector is still experiencing heavy reliance on foreign experience and a foreign workforce, the government sector is increasingly in demand by Saudis. Notwithstanding the fact that Saudis white-collar workers, particularly managers, are offered better incomes and fringe benefits by private organisations than by government organisations.

This alienation from employment in the private sector does not harmonise with the spirit of the present development stage of the country. In particular, when industrialisation has been adopted as the way to modernise and diversify the country's economy. Therefore, it is the objective of this study to investigate the underlying causes of the estrangement of many from private sector employment.

12.2 Theoretical Framework and the Approach Chosen

The research problem will be better understood if it is tackled from a wide perspective where underlying assumptions are investigated. The conceptual standpoint adopted here is that since work in the private sector demands a more rigorous and committed

attitude to work than working in the government sector, then answers to the research problem must be found in the general work perception of individuals. The effect of cultures is considered since different cultures assign different meanings to work. History shows that different civilisations, cultures and societies have maintained different outlooks to the question of work (Watson, 1987).

Socio-cultural factors can be shown to have a substantial effect on national economic development and prosperity. In particular, they have been designated as responsible for the failure of many programmes advanced by international organisations and national governments to help developing countries overcome their economic and social backwardness. A factor of importance is the negative perception of work created by the absence of social values that extol the virtues of hard work (Bocock, 1971; Turner, 1974a, 1974b; and Zureik, 1978).

Different schools of thought have applied themselves to the understanding of industrial behaviour. Each has approached this issue from a specific perspective, and accordingly has a specific interpretation. The Organisational Psychology approach is largely restricted to the individual's needs, the job content and the work environment itself. This accordingly can limit the understanding of work behaviour to individual and specific group differences in particular work situations.

The social action approach is another approach to understanding industrial behaviour. This approach, which was proposed by Weber (1904) early this century in his work ethic theory, advocates that what goes on within work is the product of both the individual and the social values they bring from the wider society.

The issue of work ethic is no longer confined to sociologists. The first psychological analysis of the issue was first attempted by McClelland *et al.* (1953). But

it was McClelland's later work which has given this construct a psychological dimension by making it an individual difference variable and yet ascribing its aetiology to socio-cultural specificity. McClelland closely linked it to economic growth through the key notion of achievement motivation, or the need for achievement (*n* Achievement). He maintains that although work ethic exists on a socio-cultural level, the specific individual work belief system is developed in childhood through the means of child rearing. The work ethic of the individual, therefore, is his or her *n* Achievement.

Other psychology research related to work ethic has attempted to measure it as a coherent, bi-polar belief system. Amongst the many measures of this construct and most commonly used is the Protestant Work Ethic (PWE) scale developed by Mirels and Garrett (1971). Another concept closely related to work ethic is the study of work values. The most significant work in this respect is the development of the Survey of Work Values (SWV) scale by Wollack *et al.* (1971).

A review of the literature has led one to accept that McClelland's *n* Achievement theory would provide the appropriate theoretical approach to the issue of hard work. It would be possible to identify the relationship between the individual differences amongst managers and their employment choice. At the same time, it would be possible to provide a plausible explanation for their differences within their cultural framework.

12.3 Objectives and Design of the Study

This study was motivated by the lack of knowledge about work-related behaviour in the private sector in Saudi Arabia, and of studies which relate to the issue of work

ethic and values. There appears to be only one comparative study which relates to work beliefs of managers in Saudi Arabia and Iraq (Ali & Al-Shakhis, 1989). The present study represents an attempt to close this gap. It is also intended to help economic planners and managers not only in recruiting and allocating employees, but also in putting down more realistic and attainable plans for the development of the private sector.

The specific objectives of the study were:

- I. To give a picture about the personal and social characteristics of the managers working in the different sectors in Saudi Arabia.
- II. To investigate their work attitude and determine whether the differences that may emerge can be related to their personal and social characteristics.
- III. To identify their work orientations, and examine whether these orientations relate to their personal characteristics.
- IV. To identify similarities or differences that may emerge between Saudis, Arabs and managers of the developing and developed countries in terms of their: Achievement and Affiliation motives, locus of control, and job satisfaction.
- V. To examine whether middle and lower managers differ in terms of their *n* Achievement and *n* Affiliation.
- VI. To determine whether differences in work orientations and *n* Achievement can lead subjects to different economic sectors.

VII. To examine whether high achievers have different attitudes to work, or hold jobs that have specific characteristics, and to investigate whether they are more satisfied than low achievers.

VIII. To determine whether there are any inter-relationships between Achievement motivation, locus of control and religion; and to assess whether sector preference can be predicted by knowing the manager's demographic, social, or personality characteristics.

For a full account of all questions and hypotheses the reader is advised to consult Chapter six.

The subjects used in this study were white-collar workers. Blue-collar workers were ruled out as subjects for two reasons. First, there are not enough comparable blue-collar jobs in the government sector, and not enough Saudi blue-collar workers in the private sector. Secondly, there is a problem of communication with blue-collar workers as they are often illiterate or poorly educated. In addition, in Saudi Arabia, they speak different languages as they come from all corners of the globe. For these reasons, the decision was made to include only managers as the sample subjects. Furthermore, managers provide the best grounds for comparison since they perform, more or less, similar tasks regardless of where they work. It was also recognised that most studies deal with entrepreneurial occupations of which managerial occupations constitute a part. To control for the job role and to examine whether different managers differ in terms of their needs two strata of management were included. These were middle and lower level management.

Three regions, out of the total five in the country, were selected to provide the appropriate locale for the field investigation because they account for over 90% of the

industries and manpower. The largest city in each of these regions was chosen for its capacity to provide access to all kinds of establishments. Early efforts to establish industrial firms started here and the overwhelming majority of such organisations are found within the outskirts of these cities.

The chosen device by which data were collected was a self-administered questionnaire. This particular research method has the advantages of collecting a wide range of data simultaneously, and producing a high response rate with a minimum of time, effort and cost compared to other procedures.

The measure of *n* Achievement used by D.C. McClelland was the projective test of the TAT. For some considerations detailed in Chapters two and three the present author is convinced that objective measures can be used with McClelland's trichotomy needs. Cassidy and Lynn (1989) has devised a multi-dimensional questionnaire of *n* Achievement. This was used in this study because it is comprehensive and straight forward. Other measures comprising of *n* Affiliation, Locus of Control, Job Satisfaction, and Job Characteristics were adapted from other studies, and a number of other items were devised by the author testing general work attitudes and demographic and social characteristics of the sample subjects.

The result of the survey was a pool of 466 usable questionnaires completed by middle and lower level managers from organisations which can be classified into three sectors; the government, the semi-private, and the private sectors. Two subsectors were selected from the private sector, the financial and the manufacturing subsectors. The two subsectors are called sectors for convenience. Therefore, the total number of sectors referred to in this study is four. The rationale behind the inclusion of the

financial sector is that this sector can approximate to the work in the government sector which is largely clerical work.

12.4 Summary of the Empirical Findings

The analyses of the data were carried out in four chapters (8, 9, 10 and 11). Chapter eight considered the characteristics of the sample. Chapter nine was concerned with the concept of culture, work attitudes, and work orientations of the sample. The construct of *n* Achievement was investigated in Chapter ten. In chapter eleven the results of *n* Affiliation and locus of control, were used to validate the foregoing findings. The aims and findings of each chapter are presented separately below. This is followed by a general discussion of the findings and implications emerging from the study.

CHAPTER 8: THE SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

OBJECTIVE:

In this chapter the aim was to provide a profile of the sample subjects. The analysis was undertaken by stratifying the sample along three dimensions. These are demographic, socio-economic and organisational dimensions. It is intended by given a detailed description of the sample to create smaller homogeneous subsamples and hence to locate whether this stratification is responsible for the variations between them with respect to the other variables under investigation.

FINDINGS:

- The number of subjects in the four sectors are as follows: 117 from the government sector; 123 from the semi-private sector; 118 from the financial sector; and 107 from the manufacturing sector.

- The subjects came from 22 different countries which can be classified into four groups and sometimes five. Classification on the basis of individual nations was not possible due to the large number of nations involved, and many of them are represented only by a few individuals (in many cases by only one subject). The only nation that is legitimately represented is Saudi Arabia. The other subjects are classified roughly into three other groups. The Saudi group constitutes the largest (340 subjects). The other Arabs (83 S's.) are combined in one group. Subjects of developing countries form one group (29 S's.) while those from the developed countries form another (13 S's.). Due to the small size of the latter two groups are treated in most cases as one.
- Subjects of the government sector are all Saudis, while Saudis account for 94% of the semi-private sector and 64% of the financial sector. They are poorly represented in the manufacturing sector being only 29% of the total of that sector.
- The Saudi managers can be described as young, well-educated but less experienced than any of the other groups. Non-Arab managers are the most qualified of all the managers.
- Managers in the government sector are the youngest of the sample, whereas managers the manufacturing sector are the oldest and the most qualified.
- Western managers are the oldest with the highest qualifications.
- With regard to social status, the managers sampled are predominantly married (94%), 94% of the married have children. The Arab subjects including the Saudis

generally come from large families. As far as the Saudis are concerned, they come from families where 50% of the fathers are either illiterate or informally educated.

- The Saudi subjects have shown a considerable stability in their present organisations. Over 60% of them started their career with the same organisations, 92% of the non-Saudi managers have started their careers with other organisations. Over half of the Arabs including the Saudis have spent 10 years or more with the present organisations.
- Western managers receive the highest salaries averaging over SR 15,000, next were the Saudi managers. The government sector provides the lowest incomes, with an average of a little over seven thousand Saudi Riyals, whereas the semi-private sector pays the highest salaries with average of over SR 12,000.

CHAPTER 9: *MANAGERS' WORK ATTITUDES AND ORIENTATIONS*

OBJECTIVE:

The purpose of this chapter is two fold. The beginning of the chapter was devoted to assessing the reliability of the instruments used in the study, and presenting the overall results of the data collected. The main body of the chapter was devoted to investigating the general work attitudes and orientations of the managers involved. In the first part it is intended to give an idea, at least a rough one, of the general work perception of the sample, and to indicate whether discrepancies between the groups can be established in that regard. In the second part, work orientations were assessed using several measures which include identifying the importance of work rewards as seen by respondents, the important factors considered when making a decision to take a job, and assessing the differences in satisfaction with these job aspects. The final part attempts to shed some

light on the precise preference for a particular sector as a source of employment designated by the respondents concerned, which may in turn enhance our understanding of respondents' work orientations.

FINDINGS:

- Regarding the instruments' reliability results (Table 9.1), the split-half reliability for the *n* Achievement subscales ranged from 0.56 for the Excellence subscale to 0.71 for Acquisitiveness. And similar results for Alpha reliability were obtained. The results reported here show a close resemblance to the ones obtained in the original study. The split-half reliability for the total *n* Achievement scale is 0.82.

Alpha reliability for the other scales (Table 9.3) are as follows: *n* Affiliation 0.49; Locus of Control 0.70; and Job Satisfaction 0.81. Reliability results reported here can be considered relatively high except for that of *n* Affiliation, they are also similar to those of the original studies including that of the *n* Affiliation scale.

- Findings appropriate to the general perception of work (Figure 9.1), which was measured initially by the "lottery question" (Morse and Weiss, 1955), indicated that 87.5% of the total sample chose to continue to work even though the financial motivator has been removed from work.

The same variable was not found to be different among the nationality or sector groups. However age was found to relate to work attitudes. Subjects at either ends of the age spectrum (i.e. under 35 and over 45 years of age) are more likely to have positive attitudes to work than the others. Also subjects who were reared in either big cities or the country side showed more positive attitudes than those were reared in towns. Education is the third variable that accounts for some of the variability in the

work attitudes dimension. It was found that those with higher education hold more positive attitudes to work.

When the choice of 'continue to work' was subdivided further into two choices. The Saudis, the government managers, and those with less education displayed a greater interest to continue working in their current jobs, whereas the others preferred to induce some changes to their work situations.

- The main findings of this chapter relate to the assessment of work orientations of the subjects involved. The achievement of this goal was pursued through four approaches each one is a continuation of the other. The four approaches tap the following dimensions; a) importance of work rewards, b) priorities when selecting the present job, c) satisfaction with specific job aspects, and d) preferred sector as a source of employment.
- Work rewards considered important for the total sample (Table 9.5) were topped by 'nature of work' and 'income', at the other end of the list came 'status of job' and 'work hours'.

Comparing the sectors (Table 9.10), the government sector has shown a different pattern from the other sectors. It differs from them along four work rewards; nature of work, pay, co-workers and work hours. Nature of work and pay were perceived by government managers less importantly than they were perceived by the other managers. However, having pleasant work mates and less work hours are valued highly by them. Fringe benefits were more valuable to managers of the semi-private sector than the others.

Autonomy was highly ranked by subjects of the manufacturing sector as compared to subjects of the other sectors. On the other hand, job security was less important to them. As having 70% of its workforce as expatriate, securing a job indefinitely in the manufacturing sector was not considered the utmost priority.

- Findings relevant to the factors mostly considered when seeking the present job (they were measured by asking subjects to list the three most important factors sought) for the total sample (Table 9.4) show that financial rewards are the most considered factors followed by 'job status'. At the end of the list comes 'no other choice was available' preceded by 'job security'.

Regarding differences between the four sectors (Table 9.12), the government again has a unique pattern. For subjects of the private and semi-private sectors financial benefit was the most considered factor when contemplating an employment. The factor the government managers are most concerned about is the family residence. The first priority of these managers is to work in the city where the family lives. The factor 'assigned to the job' was an alternative repeatedly reported by government managers. It indicates that they may have had few alternatives to choose from when deciding to work for the government.

It is interesting to note that factors such as promotion and nature of work which are central to work life are the factors least considered among the government managers. Comparing these findings with those reported above, i.e. importance of work rewards, indicates that the factors considered by employees when making actual employment decisions are still the same factors regarded important by the same individuals after working for many years in the same job.

- Results relevant to job satisfaction (Table 9.14) indicated that the Saudis in general are less satisfied with most of job aspects especially those intrinsic aspects relevant to job performance which include responsibility, freedom at work, recognition for good work, and using one's abilities.

With regard to sectors, the government managers are less satisfied than the other groups in almost all aspects. They are particularly most dissatisfied with the job content in addition to pay and chance of promotion. The aspects that government's subjects are mostly satisfied with are work hours and job security. For overall job satisfaction they are the group that is least satisfied with their jobs while subjects of the manufacturing sector are the most satisfied.

- As concerning sector preference, respondents were presented with a question asking them to indicate the type of sector most favoured by them to work in if they were to making the decision again. The sector choice for the sample as a whole (Figure 9.2) is headed by self-employment as the most preferred employment source, followed by the semi-private sector. The government choice was the last option.

Comparing responses of subjects of the four sectors (Figure 9.3) shows that the financial and manufacturing sectors displayed relatively similar patterns to each other, in which the government choice was least favoured with hardly more than 5%. Except for the government managers, close to 50% of each of the other groups valued working for themselves as the highest preference. At the time where the second choice of managers of the manufacturing sector was private organisations, the other managers showed a general alienation from such organisations. However for the manufacturing sector's managers the government was the least preferred.

The Saudi managers displayed a remarkable estrangement from private organisations. Less than 6% of the Saudis working for the semi-private sector, and less than 2% of government managers preferred to work for such organisations. On the other hand 26% of the government managers chose the government sector as yet their favourite source of employment, which is a figure that is twice the number of their nearest successive group.

CHAPTER 10: DATA RELEVANT TO *n* ACHIEVEMENT

OBJECTIVE:

Chapter ten analyses and interprets the relationships that may emerge between the concept of *n* Achievement and other variables investigated in the study. Personal and socio-cultural variables were examined on the basis that they may to a certain extent be responsible for the development of this concept. Organisational variables on the other hand are largely taken as the product of this motive bearing in mind the assumption that *n* Achievement can partly determine work behaviour. More specifically the hypothesis that *n* Achievement can be different among managers depending on the type of organisation they work in. In addition, the possibility that cultural factors, particularly religion, can determine the strength of this motive is examined.

FINDINGS:

Initial examining of *n* Achievement (Table 10.1) has resulted in finding fifteen variables to have a significant relationship with it on a bivariate level. The need for assessing the effect of each variable while controlling for effect of the other variables, and at the same time control for the overall error rate, has dictated the implementation of a multivariate technique. For this reason multiple regression was selected.

- The multiple regression analysis (table 10.4) has resulted in naming eleven variables that account for some of the variation in the dependent variable, i.e. *n* Achievement. Some of the resultant variables did not have a relationship with the dependent variable at the bivariate level. By contrast, other variables which initially showed some relation with *n* Achievement, e.g. respondents' education, religion and provinces from which subjects were selected, were not included in the regression equation. The effect of religion pointed by some studies reviewed in literature has inspired the investigation of religion in this study. The initial effect of these variables, which have been ousted in the regression equation, has been probably explained by some other variables.
- One of the prominent findings of *n* Achievement was the differences between cultures. Subjects were classified into three nationality clusters, namely, Saudis, Arabs (excluding Saudis) and non-Arabs. The Saudis scored the lowest on *n* Achievement scale, the other Arabs scored very similar to the Saudis. In contrast the non-Arabs scored the highest of the groups.
- Findings appropriate to father's education indicate that this variable has a strong positive relationship with *n* Achievement. That is the higher the father's education the higher the achievement score of children. In fact, this variable was found to be one of the powerful predictors of *n* Achievement.
- Subjects who changed their initial organisations throughout their career life were found to have stronger *n* Achievement than those who started their careers with their present organisations.

- Results relevant to the regions of Saudi Arabia where subjects (mostly Saudis) spent childhood reveal that subjects who spent most of their childhood in the Western region have scored the highest on the *n* Achievement scale, followed by subjects of the Eastern region, whereas subjects reared in the remaining regions score the lowest.
- It was expected that a positive correlation between income and *n* Achievement would emerge as literature relating to the two variables suggests. The findings of this study however point to a small negative relationship between them.
- Regarding the main hypothesis of the study, the relationship between *n* Achievement and sector, managers of the government sector show low achievement strivings as compared to managers of the other sectors. Examining the results for the Saudis alone indicated that managers in the manufacturing sector have similar results to those of the government sector.
- Subjects who favour working for the government sector scored significantly lower than those favouring any of the other sectors.
- One surprising finding was the difference between those who have studied or have been trained in a country other than their country of origin and those have not. The *n* Achievement scores between the two groups was statistically highly significant.
- The last variable resulted from the regression equation was related to the family size. Findings point to a negative relationship between family size and *n* Achievement. That is, the smaller the family to which the respondent belong the higher his *n* Achievement score.

- Examining the capacity to predict *n* Achievement of subjects from their index of importance of work rewards (discussed in chapter 9), two groups of different *n* Achievement level were formed on the basis of their *n* Achievement scores, one includes high achievers and the other includes low achievers. Initial exploration has resulted in showing that they differ along six aspects. These are; income, co-workers, fringe benefits, promotion, job security and working conditions.

Introducing a multivariate technique to measure their effect concurrently has resulted in dropping two variables, i.e. fringe benefits and promotion, and adding one, namely, nature of work. The ability of these five variables to predict the achievement level of the individual stems from their strong connection with *n* Achievement. The only variable, among these five, which is considered important by high achievers is income, the others were seen as important by low achievers.

- A similar procedure to the one above was applied with job characteristics. Eight job characteristics were included here. From these eight only five were able to discriminate between high and low achievers. The achievers hold jobs that can be describe as more challenging, more significant, give constant and immediate feedback, have various tasks and provide less opportunity to work with other people.

CHAPTER 11: *FINDINGS OF *n* AFFILIATION, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND PREDICTION OF SECTOR TYPE*

OBJECTIVE:

The aim of chapter eleven was to investigate the other need of McClelland's theory, that is the *n* Affiliation. Its relationship with other variables was closely inspected, and special attention was paid to its connection with the *n* Achievement. The other concept investigated was locus of control (LOC). The suggested determination of this concept

of many work behaviours has instigated this study to examine if it might mediate the relationship between *n* Achievement and employment type. The last part of the chapter was devoted to examine if sector type can be predicted by knowing the outcomes of the other variables.

FINDINGS:

When talking about individuals with high *n* Affiliation we usually mean those who have a greater need to be liked and approved of, and who like to work within groups. The process of assessing the relationships between *n* Affiliation and other independent variables involved an implementation of multiple regression analysis. The result is a model with 16 entries. These entries can be classified into four categories. viz., psychological, demographic, organisational, and job-describing categories.

- The psychological category includes only *n* Achievement. These two needs have been found to be negatively correlated with each other. Those individuals with high *n* Achievement are more likely to be low in *n* Affiliation. Although a number of studies reported similar findings to the one reported here, some other studies also reported positive relationships.
- The demographic category consists of three variables. These variables are; nationality, number of children and education.

In considering the issue of nationality (or what is referred to as 'culture') the Arab subjects scored higher than non-Arabs on the *n* Affiliation scale indicating, as expected, that they are more affiliation-oriented people. Compared to the Saudis, the Arabs scored significantly higher.

The Arab subjects have in general more children than non-Arabs, and they themselves came from large families. Not surprisingly, the number of children is also correlated positively with *n* Affiliation a finding supported by the belief that highly affiliative people are more socially oriented.

Individuals with high *n* Affiliation are found to be less educated than low affiliative individuals. It seems that highly educated people are less affected by others' feelings.

- The organisational variables found to relate to *n* Affiliation in one way or another were; sector type, management level, number of subordinate and previous experience with other organisations.

In respect of the sector type and *n* Affiliation, subjects of the government sector displayed significantly greater *n* Affiliation than subjects of the other sectors. Outcomes of this need with respect to sectors are negatively correlated with that of *n* Achievement. The affiliative motive varies at different management levels within the same organisation. Junior managers or lower level managers are found to have higher *n* Affiliation than middle managers. On theoretical grounds one can expect lower managers to be more affiliative than middle managers. Lower level managers on the average have to deal with workers and other staff on a day to day basis. This is more accurately emphasised by the positive correlation found in this study between *n* Affiliation and number of subordinates.

Another intriguing relationship observed was in reference to those with previous experience in other organisations. Managers who decided to leave their initial organisations and join other organisations are more achievement oriented, as seen in the

previous chapter, and found to have lower *n* Affiliation than those who never left their initial organisations.

- The job-related variables included two sets of variables. From importance of work rewards three variables were associated with *n* Affiliation, and four variables can be classified as job characteristics.

The work rewards considered important by high affiliative managers are less work hours, and friendly co-workers. On the other hand they perceived income as a less important aspect of the job. All these findings are opposite to those of high achievers.

- With respect to job characteristics, four characteristics can describe jobs of high affiliative managers. These variables are: skill variety, task significance, dealing with others, and job challenge.

The negative relationship between *n* Affiliation and skill variety indicates that those with high *n* Affiliation have jobs that are routine and with similar tasks which require limited skills from employees. A similar relationship is evident in respect of job challenge. The same individuals described their jobs as not challenging, which is another description of skill variety. From a different perspective managers high in *n* Affiliation described their jobs as significant having substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, and require them to work closely with other people in carrying out the work activities.

- Initial analysis of locus of control has singled out five variables to be related to this construct. These variables are: type of sector, studying abroad, working previously with

other organisations, nationality, and job satisfaction. With the implication of a multivariate technique nationality has failed to yield a significant association with locus of control.

- The variable that is found to be strongly connected with the concept under review is job satisfaction. The relationship is positive in the direction of internal locus of control indicating that the more internally controlled the individual is the more he is satisfied with his job.
- With respect to sector type it was found that subjects of the government sector have again proven to be different from all other sectors involved in this study. Scores of government managers are significantly different from those of the others' pointing towards the external end of the locus of control scale.
- An intriguing finding encountered in this analysis was between subjects who have had any education or training abroad and those have not. Those who have been educated or trained abroad are significantly more internal than the others.
- In respect of inter-organisational mobility (previous experience with other organisations), findings indicate that managers who have worked initially in organisations other than their current ones are more internally controlled than those who have never left the organisations where they have started their careers.

The final part is intended to classify sectors on the basis of the variables used in this study. This procedure is conducted on three levels. In the first one the importance of work rewards were used to classify or predict to which sector a person may belong. In the second, career-related variables were used. The last part examined a

set of variables which were concerned with demographic and psychological characteristics.

Using discriminant function analysis, seven work rewards out of the eleven investigated were found to discriminate between the four sectors. These variables are; relations in the workplace, fringe benefits, promotion, autonomy, working conditions, work hours, and recognition for doing a good job. Results show that the government sector displayed a substantial deviation from the other sectors, followed by the manufacturing sector.

From the career-related variables nine were selected to be included in the analysis. Results of the discriminant analysis revealed that all variables used in the analysis have been found to contribute in varying degrees to the discrimination between the four sectors. The variables used here are; training, number of training programmes with present organisation, training or education abroad, previous experience with other organisations, number of subordinates, income, management level, length of service with present organisation, and job satisfaction. The most discriminating variables in the model are training, education or training abroad, and number of subordinates.

The last discriminating test pertains to demographic and psychological variables. Eleven variables were selected for the analysis. From these variables only seven were found to discriminate between the four sectors. These variables are; nationality, number of children, religion, father's education, *n* Achievement, *n* Affiliation, and locus of control. The most discriminating variables between the sectors are; nationality, father's education and religion.

12.5 Discussion and Conclusions

The effect of culture on work perception is repeatedly emphasised in literature. Traditional cultures have been reported to portray a less favourite picture than well-developed ones. Culture can be broadly defined as “*the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another*” (Hofstede, 1984: 21). The word ‘culture’ is nowadays used in literature to indicate individual nations. In this study, the use of this word did not follow a precise guideline. The subjects involved did not fall into well defined cultural categories. However, at many stages of the analysis cultures are defined as either Arabic or non-Arabic.

In accordance with what a traditional society can be characterised as the Arabs, and in particular the Saudis, show clear signs of belonging to such a society. Based on the socio-cultural differences the Arab subjects normally came from large families which reflects the need to have a large number of children as a source of pride and financial security. Although this is facilitated in some cases by polygamy, the large number of children can provide a ready source of cheap labour that is needed in farming, herding or any other basic economic activities. In spite of the cultural changes that are occurring in the Arab world nowadays, and in support of this argument, the Arab subjects themselves also have marginally more children than the non-Arab subjects. Another manifestation of traditionality was evident in the education of the subjects’ fathers. In particular, fathers of the Saudi subjects showed a markedly low level of educational attainment (with over 50% with informal or no education). This reflects that the generation gap amongst Saudis is by no means small.

Evidently the cultural picture depicted above which forms the background of the Saudis has greatly shaped and coloured their work attitudes and behaviour. The question of how the Saudis fundamentally perceive the basic concept of work is

reflected by their answers to the non-financial commitment to work question in which they did not differ significantly when compared to other subjects of this study and of other studies. They predominantly prefer to work even if they did not have to gain any financial rewards in return. This is derived from the basic value of work mainly endorsed in their culture by religion. If the problem concerned here were to examine whether the Saudi culture, motivated by religion, encouraged and inspired people to basically work and earn their money, then countless verses and sayings from religious sources could be cited to indicate the effect of Islam on how people positively value the central issue of work.

However, the question at hand assesses how the Saudis subscribe to a specific new type of systematic work life that demands particular kind of commitment which conflicts with some of their social engagements and cultural obligations. Moreover, the question is extended to detect whether the Saudis differ among themselves in submitting to this work life, and if so on what basis these differences can be categorised. More specifically the investigation was instigated by the apparent alienation from systematic work life which requires social restructuring but offers more earnings and prosperity.

The investigation of adaptation to a systematic work life is also followed through locating people's work orientations and need for achievement. The first line of investigation was pursued through identifying their perception of work rewards, goals and priorities when selecting jobs, satisfaction with job aspects and preference for sector type. In respect of importance of work rewards, the subjects involved differ along five aspects in terms of their culture. On the one hand the Saudis perceived two specific aspects to be more important than the others. These are having pleasant work mates and secure jobs. As compared to the Saudis, the non-Arab subjects are more

concerned with working conditions, autonomy and promotion. Concerning goals and priorities the Saudis similarly differ from the other subjects along two dimensions. The first is that work environment was mentioned less frequently than the others as one of the important priorities of work. The other is that they chose their occupations on the basis of their family (or relatives) residence. Although the Saudis stated (as measured by job satisfaction) that their jobs in general lack responsibility, freedom, recognition for good work and using one's abilities, they portrayed a special preference for working in their current organisations. In fact 60% of them still work in the same organisations where they started their career life.

The second line of enquiry of commitment to work was followed through examining the *n* Achievement and locus of control of the respondents. The overall picture in terms of culture shows that within the Arabic culture individuals as determined in this study by the *n* Achievement scores are relatively less committed to hard work, and more people-oriented as determined by their *n* Affiliation scores, than the non-Arab subjects. Although the relationship found between locus of control and culture was not significant, a cautious link between them can be established with those less committed to work being more externally controlled.

Findings appropriate to culture indicate that many of the Saudis are more concerned about the social environment of the workplace. The job content did not much matter for many of them as long as their occupations give them the opportunity to work in the same city where their families or relatives live and provide them with the minimum involvement with work. Another factor that was considered important to many of the Saudis is job security. This factor points to the wish to have a settled and consistent life that encompasses little change and lacks dynamism. As long as a sufficient monthly income is guaranteed, which satisfies the most necessary needs, then

work life is accepted as long as it allows for the fulfilment of other social and familial obligations. This view can also be detected through the preference for working in organisations whose jobs would allow for meeting these conditions, that is government organisations. Such a view of work indicates that many of the Saudis have an instrumental orientation to work in that they see work as a means to attain specific goal for the purpose of fulfilling some other more important goals external to the work situation. For this particular group the central life interest lies outside work surroundings, in their social environments. The alienation from work was not only reflected by their orientations to work, but also by their *n* Affiliation and *n* Achievement. The high *n* Affiliation of the Saudis portrayed, and the other Arab subjects, reflects that these individuals are more people oriented than the non-Arabs. Also the *n* Achievement, which indicates commitment to hard work for the sake of work itself and strivings for a standard of excellence, reflects an Arabic culture is more likely to produce people that are more committed to their social surroundings outside the workplace than would the non-Arabic culture. This can partially be attributed to the external outlook the Arabs in general portray in determining the outcomes of their behaviour.

In the part of the non-Arabs, they are more concerned about the way their tasks are conducted. They have repeatedly shown that factors such as work conditions, autonomy, promotion and financial rewards, etc., are more important than having good workmates, secure jobs or fewer work hours. Work seemed important in itself and the way to go about performing the tasks is essential as it reflects the intention of tying one's effort to and assuming responsibility for the end results. This group views work in terms of a terminal, or what Goldthorpe *et al.*, (1968) call democratic orientation. Their work involvement is also reflected by their *n* Achievement scores.

It is emphasised here that the cultural discrepancies are not mutually exclusive. The results overlap and the representation of the sample subjects is not even across the different sectors. For one thing, the non-Saudis are not represented in the government sector whose managers are evidently different from the others across most of the key variables examined in this study. Secondly, within the Saudis a difference was observed along those variables in accordance with the sector to which they belong. Nevertheless, cultural differences are evident and they prevailed even amongst the Saudis themselves. It was demonstrated that the Saudi subcultures have produced people with different perceptions to work.

- Despite the fact some cultural variations have been encountered amongst the subjects. The substantial and indisputable differences were identified between managers of the government sector on the one hand and managers of the other three sectors on the other. However, some less important and less intense differences were also detected between the latter three sectors.

The government managers were unique in several ways. To start with, they expressed their view of the basic idea of work in slightly more negatively, but not significantly so, than the others. Many of them indicated that if they did not have to work, or if work lost financial meaning, they would stop working promptly.

When assessing work orientations, the government managers identify with occupations that offer a better social environment, as exhibited by the importance of good work mates, and less work hours which leaves enough time to engage in other external activities. The preference for such work rewards and the manifestation of less concern with pay and nature of work, as opposed to preference for financial rewards by

the semi-private managers and autonomy by manufacturing managers, points to less commitment, and probably apathy, to work. Feelings of this kind can be further diagnosed through the goals and priorities government managers assign as important when selecting their present jobs. Their highest consideration was to have occupations near their families' residence, be that in the same city or in the case of big cities in the same area. In the case of the other managers their first consideration when selecting their present jobs was the financial rewards of the job. The feelings towards work can also be traced through the expression of satisfaction with the job itself or its components. Unlike the other managers government managers expressed dissatisfaction almost with all aspects, except those of work hours and job security, and more importantly they are the group that is least satisfied with the job as a whole. Such manifestation of dissatisfaction with their jobs can be considered as reflection of apathetic feelings towards work.

Another and equally important sign that government managers perceive work less favourably than other managers is their *n* Achievement. High *n* Achievement means high attachment to work, high sense of competitiveness and working against a standard of excellence. The low scores of *n* Achievement demonstrated by government managers suggest the opposite. This was also indicated by their reluctance to select self-employment as a favourite source of occupation, which is a particular sign of low *n* Achievement.

The Saudi managers working in the manufacturing sector showed similar work views to those of the government managers. This unexpected finding can be justified by the fact that work in manufacturing organisations is demanding and requires strong commitment and belief in work. This particular sector attracts very few Saudis due to its working conditions. The few Saudis working in such organisations (17% of its

managers) may not have positive work attitudes, rather they are there mainly for two reasons. Firstly, government policy requires factories to fill a given percentage of its positions with Saudis, and because Saudis have less interest in manufacturing organisations they are not under pressure of redundancy. The second reason is that these organisations offer better incomes than the government organisations. Therefore, for those with an instrumental orientation to work, whose prime concern is money, this sector is the ideal one.

The empirical evidence presented thus far in respect of work orientations and *n* Achievement, reveals that the managers in the sample seem to view their work in a discernible and consistent fashion with the government managers diverging from the others. The views exhibited by the government managers to the issue of work can apparently be explicated in purely instrumental terms in which work plays a marginal role in life, only as a means to support one's family and satisfy other obligations.

In some studies where the orientation for work was instrumental (for example, Blackburn & Mann, 1979; Cotgrove, 1965; Ingham, 1970; and Prandy *et al.*, 1982), the main concern in work was for external rewards; primarily money, whereas in this study money was not quoted to be the prime concern by government managers. To explain this deviation, it is important to keep in mind that government managers did not pinpoint income as unimportant, rather; compared to other factors money was seen as less important. In addition, to them the income the government sector offers is sufficient enough not to pursue other jobs while other advantages are only available in government organisations.

From stressing their wish to continue in the same jobs, designating government organisations as their preferred source of employment, and from their

actual continuance with their initial employers (78% of them), one is led to conclude that government managers join their organisations on the basis of careful calculations and weighing of options available to them. Their purposive decisions are apparently motivated by characteristics of jobs in government organisations such as less stringent work, high job security, reasonable incomes, less work hours, and generous holidays.

The evidence presented thus far that the government sector is the most appropriate employer designated by many of the government managers points to the unmistakable effect of culture on forming their attitudes to work. Their central life interest lies anywhere but work. To them work is important only as a source of income to meet the necessary needs, and to spent sometime of the day. Therefore apathy, absenteeism, lateness, withdrawal from the work environment and other negative work behaviours are more likely to be reported in such organisations.

The development of such attitudes is more likely to be a result of some social values that encourage people to keep their kinship strong by making regular visits as a token of care and togetherness. The result of this is highly affiliative people as indicated by their *n* Affiliation scores. In addition attitudes to socialisation are also influenced by misconceptions of fate. The basic idea of fate or predestination in Islam is the pre-knowledge of peoples' destinations by God given that they have the free will to determine their behaviour. Many people however mistakenly understand that whatever you do will lead only to one result, that is the one previously determined. Therefore, there is no need to do more than necessary if there is only one possible outcome. Managers of the government sector displayed a highly external view in terms of determining the outcomes of their behaviours.

Although the subjects of this study have sustained consistent results across many variables on the scales of *n* Achievement and locus of control, these two dimensions have failed to directly associate with each other. Chief among the common variables related to both dimensions is inter-organisation mobility. The subjects who ceased to work with their initial employer and moved to other organisations have expectedly scored highly on the internal direction of the scale of locus of control. They were also found to be high achievers. Other variables which can more appropriately be defined as indicative of *n* Achievement rather than determinant of it are father's education and family size. Low *n* Achievement is associated with low education of fathers and a large size of the family in which the person was brought up. These findings support the notion that *n* Achievement is largely developed in childhood.

In terms of *n* Achievement and jobs, high achievers are associated with jobs which provide high incomes and other financial benefits, less opportunity to work with others, and high level of challenge.

12.6 Implications

Having discussed the main findings of the study and attempted to give a meaningful explanations to their similarities and/or differences between the levels of the categories, the aim now is to try to provide an account of the wider implications of the study in understanding the industrial behaviour in work situations in the Saudi organisations.

- The role organisations play in contributing to the success of the national economy is evident and need not be emphasised. Some organisational structures however are more effective than others in achieving the end result of efficient performance and product be it in service or manufacturing. In this study the emphasis centres around the

accentuation of individuals' work orientations and behaviours, and the possibility of associating certain occupations and organisations with these orientations.

From the findings of this study there was sufficient evidence to indicate that less efficient organisations are associated with specific kinds of orientations to work. That is the personnel working in these organisations have less interest in the work they perform. For this reason efficient work and successful results are not expected of such organisations. These organisations only belong within government sector which is currently undertaking a major role in running the economy. If the intention in the near future is to have a competent economy for the country a bigger and more meaningful role should be given to the competitive organisations in the private sector. The government role should be confined to providing a powerful regulating authority.

- The findings also hinted to the existence of more task-oriented Saudi managers in large well-structured organisations as opposed to small firms. For this reason it could be beneficial that some kind of arrangement, which could be initiated and safe guarded by the government, to the establishment of fewer but bigger and more efficient companies as opposed to small and less efficient companies.
- The adaptation process in underdeveloped cultures to a new industrial culture is determined to a large extent by elements of the host culture. It takes more than time for cultural changes to establish themselves. Therefore, a systematic scheme should be adopted by the authorities to help speed up the process of change and give more positive results. Implementation of such a scheme would help a great deal in improving the situation in Saudi Arabia.

- For managers, results of this study would hopefully assist in giving an idea that assessing individuals' work perception would improve the prediction of their potential effectiveness. Personnel managers can use such devices to help in their recruitment procedures to assess applicants' potential and suitability, and on this basis put the right person in the right place.

12.7 Recommendations for Future Research

In bringing this study to an end, it is hoped that it has adequately answered the questions it set out to answer. At the same time, it is also hoped that it has raised some intriguing questions that can be treated as a foundation for future research. It would be gratifying to know that the work in this study affords other researchers some insight about the researched issue and helps them avoid similar drawbacks and limitations inherent of this study. To help achieve these ends some recommendations for future research are advanced as follows:

- 1) It could be useful to investigate McClelland's trichotomy needs theory. That is using *n* Achievement, *n* Affiliation and *n* Power with managers in different levels in the same sector to indicate what need is associated with each management level regarding the Saudi managers. The same investigation can be extended to include different sectors for the purpose of comparing and contrasting the possibility of having managers with different needs at different levels in different sectors.
- 2) A similar study can be used with blue-collar workers in different sectors. Due care should be taken in the process of sampling as to the divergence of nationalities and languages. Special attention should be given to the representation of the Saudi blue-collar workers in the private sector.

3) The same methodological process used in this study can be implemented in other cultures. Valid comparisons can then be made with the results of this study. Only with such studies can the validity of the method and device used in this study be negated or confirmed.

4) In separate studies comprehensive investigations into the effect of cultural factors on the development of work orientations, *n* Achievement, *n* Affiliation, *n* Power and locus of control can help introduce positive cultural values and changes as to the need of the nation depending on into developmental stage.

APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A
THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir,

This questionnaire is part of a research I'm undertaking for a doctoral degree at Glasgow University. It investigates some managerial attitudes and motivation in different sectors of the Saudi economy.

In this respect, would you kindly take some of your valuable time and fill in this questionnaire. Your honest and complete answers are very essential to the success of this project and will be greatly appreciated.

It is to note that there is no right nor wrong answers, therefore you are expected to describe your feelings as they are. Although you may find some similarities between some of the statements, they are in fact very different, so please answer them all.

Let me assure you that your answers will be dealt with in great confidentiality. The overall statistical results will be reported and no reference to individual responses will be made.

Please allow me to thank you in advance for your personal cooperation and consideration.

The Researcher

Abdullah Al-Gheraibi
Glasgow University
Glasgow, Scotland.
United Kingdom

PART ONE

In this section, we would like to know some information about your organisation, your job, and yourself as they are very important when analysing the data that you provide.

I- PLEASE TELL US ABOUT YOUR JOB AND YOUR ORGANISATION:

1. Is this organisation a:

- ☐ a- Government organisation (ministry or govt. office)
- ☐ b- Semi-private organisation (mixed, public & private)
- ☐ c- Private organisation (100% national capital)
- ☐ d- private organisation (joint venture)

2. What is your organisation’s principal function or Product?

.....

3. Level of management you belong to?

- ☐ (a) middle (department manager)
- ☐ (b) junior (section manager or supervisor)

4. How many employees are there under your supervision?

.....

5. How many years of experience do you have?

With this organisation..... years

With other organisations..... years

6. a- Have you been enrolled in any training program(s)?

Yes [] No []

If yes, how many training programs have attended?

with this organisation.....

with other organisations.....

b-Have you had any training outside the kingdom?

Yes [] No []

7. Have you worked in an organisation other than this one?

Yes [] No []

If yes :

1- What kind of organisation was it ?

- ☐ a- Government organisation (ministry or government office)
- ☐ b- Semi-private organisation (mixed, public & private)
- ☐ c- Private organisation (as an employee)
- ☐ d- Self-employment

2- What were the main reasons for leaving your previous organisation?

.....
.....
.....

8. What were the three major factors that made you choose this job (e.g. pay, near home , benefits, etc...)?

.....
.....
.....

9. If you were given the chance again, what kind of organisation would you prefer to work for?

- ☐ a- Government organisation (ministry or government office)
- ☐ b- Semi-private organisation (mixed, public & private)
- ☐ c- Private organisation (national)
- ☐ d- Private organisation (joint venture)
- ☐ e- Self-employment

Why? please give reason(s)

.....
.....
.....
.....

10. Please rank the following items from 1 to 11 according to their importance to you. Give No.1 to the most important factor, No.11 to the least important, (please note that two items can not be ranked the same).
- ☐ a) Nature of work (the work itself which is interesting and liked by you)
 - ☐ b) Good pay
 - ☐ c) Pleasant co-workers (who are good to you)
 - ☐ d) Fringe benefits (vacation, pension, housing, etc...)
 - ☐ e) Promotion and career development
 - ☐ f) Job security (the assurance of keeping the job)
 - ☐ G) Autonomy (the opportunity of making your work-related decisions)
 - ☐ h) Pleasant working conditions (clean and nice environment)
 - ☐ i) Working hours (the opportunity of having as few working hours as possible)
 - ☐ j) Status of the job (the opportunity to be respected by others by having this job)
 - ☐ k) Recognition by superiors for a job well done.

11. Suppose that you inherited or won a prize of a large sum of money and could live comfortably for the rest of your life without working; would you then:
- ☐ a) Stop working
 - ☐ b) Continue to work in the same job
 - ☐ c) Continue to work but with some changes

If your answer is (a or b); Why would you stop (or continue) working?
.....
.....
.....

If your answer is (c); What are the changes?
.....
.....
.....

II - PLEASE TELL US ABOUT YOUR BACKGROUND:

1. a- Your marital status:

Single [] Married [] Other []

b- If you have children, how many are they?

.....

2. Size of family you came from (parents, sisters, brothers, etc...)

.....

3. Please indicate your age group:

<input type="checkbox"/> a) under 25 years	<input type="checkbox"/> (b) 25 - 30 years
<input type="checkbox"/> b) 30 - 35 years	<input type="checkbox"/> (d) 35 - 40 years
<input type="checkbox"/> e) 40 - 45 years	<input type="checkbox"/> (f) 45 - 50 years
<input type="checkbox"/> g) over 50 years	

4. Your nationality:

.....

5. Your religion:

Muslim []
Other [] Please specify.....

6. Where have you spent most of the first 18 years of your life?

☐ a- in a big city
☐ b- in a town
☐ a- in a rural area or a village

7. I- Your level of education :

- ☐ a) Primary school
- ☐ b) Middle school
- ☐ c) High school
- ☐ d) Vocational institute
- ☐ e) Bachelor degree
- ☐ f) Master degree
- ☐ g) Ph.D.
- ☐ h) Other, please specify

II- Area of study (specialisation)

.....

8. If you have had any degree from a country other than your own country, what degree and which country?

Degree	Country
.....
.....
.....

9. What is your fathers' level of education?

- ☐ a) No formal education
- ☐ b) Elementary
- ☐ c) Middle school
- ☐ d) Secondary
- ☐ e) Other, please specify

10. What is your average monthly income?

- ☐ a) Below 4,000 Saudi Riyals
- ☐ b) 4,001 - 7,000 SR
- ☐ c) 7,001 - 10,000 SR
- ☐ d) 10,001 - 13,000 SR
- ☐ e) 13,001 - 16,000 SR
- ☐ f) 16,000 - 20,000 SR
- ☐ g) Over 20,000 SR

PART TWO

In this part, you'll find some general statements. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one of the five choices provided.
(Please respond to all statements although you might find different statement asking the same thing).

- 1 means Strongly Disagree (SD)
- 2 means Disagree (D)
- 3 means Neutral (N)
- 4 means Agree (A)
- 5 means Strongly Agree (SA)

	<u>SD</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>SA</u>
1- People who fail at a job have usually not tried hard enough	1	2	3	4	5
2- If there is an opportunity to earn money, I am usually there	1	2	3	4	5
3- I think I would enjoy having authority over other people	1	2	3	4	5
4- I hate to see bad workmanship	1	2	3	4	5
5- I try harder when I'm in competition with other people	1	2	3	4	5
6- I would like an important job where people looked up to me	1	2	3	4	5
7- I would rather do something at which I feel confident and relaxed than something which is challenging and difficult	1	2	3	4	5
8- When I have a choice, I try to work in a group instead of by myself	1	2	3	4	5
9- Our society would have fewer problems if people had less leisure time	1	2	3	4	5
10- I would be willing to work for a salary that was below average if the job was pleasant	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>SD</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>SA</u>
11- If given the chance I would make a good leader of people	1	2	3	4	5
12- Part of the satisfaction on doing something comes from seeing how good the finished product looks....	1	2	3	4	5
13- It annoys me when other people perform better than I do	1	2	3	4	5
14- I would rather learn easy fun games than difficult thought games	1	2	3	4	5
15- I pay a good deal of attention to the feelings of others at work	1	2	3	4	5
16- The kind of work I like is the one that pays top salary for top performance	1	2	3	4	5
17- I think I am usually a leader in my group	1	2	3	4	5
18- It is no use playing a game when you are playing with someone as good as yourself	1	2	3	4	5
19- I judge my performance on whether I do better than others rather than on just getting a good result	1	2	3	4	5
20- People should have more leisure time to spend in relaxation	1	2	3	4	5
21- I want to be an important person in the community	1	2	3	4	5
22- If I'm not good at something I would rather keep struggling to master it than move on to something I may be good at	1	2	3	4	5
23- As long as I'm paid for my work, I don't mind working while others are having fun.....	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>SD</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>SA</u>
24- I enjoy planning things and deciding what other people should do	1	2	3	4	5
25- I prefer to do my own work and let others do theirs	1	2	3	4	5
26- If I get a good result, it doesn't matter if others do better	1	2	3	4	5
27- Any man who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding	1	2	3	4	5
28- I frequently think about what I might do to earn a great deal of money	1	2	3	4	5
29- I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of skill	1	2	3	4	5
30- I like to give orders and get things going	1	2	3	4	5
31- I find satisfaction in working as well as I can	1	2	3	4	5
32- Hard work offers little guarantee of success	1	2	3	4	5
33- I like to be admired for my achievements	1	2	3	4	5
34- I more often attempt tasks that I am not sure I can do than tasks I know I can do	1	2	3	4	5
35- It is important to me to make lots of money	1	2	3	4	5
36- Life would be more meaningful if we had more leisure time.....	1	2	3	4	5
37- I dislike being the centre of attention	1	2	3	4	5
38- I express my disagreements with others openly.....	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>SD</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>SA</u>
39- The man who can approach an unpleasant task with enthusiasm is the man who gets ahead	1	2	3	4	5
40- I find satisfaction in exceeding my previous performance even if I don't outperform others	1	2	3	4	5
41- I like to have people come to me for advice	1	2	3	4	5
42- To be a real success I feel I have to do better than everyone I come up against	1	2	3	4	5
43- When a group I belong to plans an activity I would rather direct it my self than just help out and have someone else organise it	1	2	3	4	5
44- If one works hard enough he is likely to make a good life for himself	1	2	3	4	5
45- I find myself talking to those around me about non-business related matters.....	1	2	3	4	5
46- I feel like giving up quickly when things go wrong	1	2	3	4	5
47- There is satisfaction in a job well done	1	2	3	4	5
48- I find satisfaction in having influence over others because of my position in the community	1	2	3	4	5
49- It is important to me to perform better than others on a task	1	2	3	4	5
50- A distaste for hard work usually reflects a weakness of character	1	2	3	4	5

PART THREE

I- Below are several aspects of a job. We would like to know the **degree of your satisfaction** with these aspects. Please indicate your degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction by **circling one of the five choices provided**.

1 means Strongly Dissatisfied(SD)						
2 means Dissatisfied(D)						
3 means Neutral(N)						
4 means Satisfied (S)						
5 means Strongly Satisfied (SS)						
		<u>SD</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>SS</u>
1-	The freedom to choose your own method of working	1	2	3	4	5
2-	The recognition you get for good work	1	2	3	4	5
3-	The amount of responsibility you are given	1	2	3	4	5
4-	Your rate of pay	1	2	3	4	5
5-	Your opportunity to use your abilities	1	2	3	4	5
6-	Your chance of promotion	1	2	3	4	5
7-	The attention paid to suggestions you make	1	2	3	4	5
8-	Your hours of work	1	2	3	4	5
9-	The amount of variety in your job	1	2	3	4	5
10-	Your job security	1	2	3	4	5
11-	Now, taking everything into consideration, how do you feel about your job as a whole?	1	2	3	4	5

II- Each of the following items consists of two statements, a and b. Please choose the statement (a or b) that you most agree with by ticking the space provided in front of it. (Although you may not agree totally with either statement, you must choose one).

1. ☐ a) Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
☐ b) People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
2. ☐ a) In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
☐ b) Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognised no matter how hard he tries
3. ☐ a) Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
☐ b) Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
4. ☐ a) No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
☐ b) People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
5. ☐ a) Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
☐ b) Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
6. ☐ a) When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
☐ b) It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
7. ☐ a) In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
☐ b) Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
8. ☐ a) Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
☐ b) Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
9. ☐ a) In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
☐ b) Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

10. ___ a) What happens to me is my own doing.
___ b) Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
11. ___ a) Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
___ b) It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
12. ___ a) People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
___ b) There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.

III- The statements below present some characteristics of a job. On a scale of 1 to 7, please indicate how much of this characteristic is available in your job by entering a number between 1 and 7 in the box against the item [].

(No.1 means very little , no.7 means very much).

very little				moderate				very much
1	2	3		4	5	6		7

A. The extent that your job requires you to work closely with other people (either clients, or people in related jobs in your own organisation)..... []								
B. The amount of autonomy in your job (the extent that your job permits you to decide on your own how to go about the work)..... []								
C. The extent that your job requires you to do many different things at work. []								

- D. The extent that your job requires you
touse a variety of your skills and talents..... []
- E. The significance or importance of your
job (the extent that the result of your
work likely to significantly affect the
lives or well-being of other people)..... []
- F. The extent that you find out how well
you are doing on the job as you are working..... []
- G. The extent that your job permits you
to make good friendships with others. .. []
- H. The amount of challenge that your
job presents. []

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Are there any comments or suggestions?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

APPENDIX B

An Historical Evolution of the Achievement Concept

An Historical Evolution of the Achievement Concept

The concept of “achievement”, as is currently understood, was first introduced over a hundred years ago. In his *Principles of Psychology*, William James 1890, the prominent psychologist, has emphasised the importance of achievement strivings by postulating that a person’s self-regard is determined by the achievement of self-imposed goals which leads to feelings of well-being and elation, whereas the failure to achieve these goals brings humiliation and frustrations.

The study of goal setting and the ways individuals go about achieving these goals has also attracted the interest of researchers of different theoretical affiliations (e.g. sociologists, theologians). Max Weber, an eminent sociologist and theologian, whose views had a great influence on McClelland’s theory of achievement motivation and economic development, argues that the hard work of individuals seeking self-gratification, leading to national economic development, can be attributed to a combination of cultural and religious values.

In his *The Protestant Ethics and the Spirit of Capitalism*, Weber (1905) claims that the Protestant reformation movements, especially, Calvinism and Lutheranism, have significantly influenced economic development through endorsing and promoting the practice of such virtues as thrift, prudence, sobriety and zealous devotion to hard work.

Ach, N. (1910, in Heckhausen, 1967), a German psychologist, has studied the devotion and determination of individuals towards specific goals or tasks. He defined the achievement related behaviours of his laboratory subjects as a ‘determining tendency’.

The modern construct of the achievement motive is essentially based on the work and theory of Henry Murray. Murray (1938) and his associates at the Harvard Psychological Clinic, have studied some personality aspects. In a study carried out on 50 college men, and outlined in detail in his book *Explorations in Personality*, he has identified twenty manifest needs. Among these needs is the need for achievement, which he characterises as a basic and universal dimension of personality.

The researcher with which the concept of achievement motivation is most associated is David McClelland, who devoted much of his research to investigating the complexities associated with the concept and its ramifications. It is, therefore, not surprising to find that the name most often cited in research on and work related to the issue of achievement motivation is that of McClelland.

McClelland (1951; 1955, McClelland *et al.*, 1953) influenced heavily by Murray's need system and Freud's psychoanalytic school of motivation, devoted his early research to developing a general theory of achievement motivation in which the individual's behaviours are affected by the expectation of goals that have not happened yet. But, more recently (1961), and inspired by Weber's analysis, he investigated the relationships between work ethic, individual's achievement striving and national economic growth, and more specifically the issues of entrepreneurial and managerial behaviour (McClelland & Winter, 1969). Atkinson, an early colleague of McClelland's, has taken the matter a little further by postulating that approaching an achievement-related setting is not only motivated by the achievement motive or tendencies to approach success but also to avoid failure. These motivational tendencies determine at the end if a person will approach or avoid an achievement task. In his understanding of motivational operations (1964), he emphasises the role of individual differences and considers the personality structure, which is affected by personal

variations, environment and experience, as a determining factor of fundamental behaviours.

In his decision theory (also known as task difficulty theory), Atkinson (1957) presented a formal model of risk-taking in which he assumes that from the choices available the person chooses the one with the highest expected utility. Expected utility is the value of success or outcome, multiplied by the expectancy or probability of success.

More recently, Heckhausen (1967) developed a two-motive theory that shares a common denominator with Atkinson's theory, and in which he designates his motives as "Hope of Success" and "Fear of Failure".

Like Atkinson, Heckhausen emphasises the role of individual differences which must exist in any given situation and which are considered as variables that influence the behaviour of the individual.

From this perspective, Heckhausen considers competition in relation to a standard of excellence as relative to the interaction of achievement-oriented person-environment relationship. With regard to the importance of the situation role in determining the strength of motivation in different people, he argues that "*motivation is not to be understood as a final causal element as it may be in common-sense psychology; rather the term refers to the interaction dynamic of many factors in a given person-environment relationship involving goal-directed experience and behaviour*" (Heckhausen 1967: 2).

As a situational psychologist, Heckhausen conceives of motivation as the interleaving of a wide range of elements operating within a particular person-environment context, and not as the ultimate determining factor. This contrasts with

McClelland's view of motivation, which is based on learned inner drives and assigns little importance to the situational context.

In support of Heckhausen's situational theory, a cultural perspective of achievement motivation was presented by Martin Maehr (1974). Criticising McClelland's approach for placing a considerable weight on personality in determining achievement behaviour, Maehr argues that achievement behaviour is determined by a variety of idiosyncratic situational and contextual factors, by social expectations, norms, task definitions and social cues (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980).

Although McClelland is undoubtedly the researcher most closely identified with the study of culture and achievement motivation, he places little emphasis on cultural differences and treats achievement as a stable personality trait. This is criticised by Maehr (1974, 1978) who, like Heckhausen, emphasises the role of situational factors and believes that cultures attribute different meanings to the same goals. People should, therefore, be understood in their own terms. Maehr and Nicholls claim that *"without such understanding, researchers run the risk of comparing behavioural patterns which on the surface seem quite similar but which in fact hold quite different meanings because of the varying purposes they serve"* (1980: 227).

APPENDIX C

The Measurement of Achievement Motivation

The Measurement of Achievement Motivation

3.1 Projective Measures of *n* Achievement

Unsatisfied with Murray's questionnaire, McClelland has developed a version of the Thematic Apperception Test specially designed to measure *n* Achievement. His measure was fully discussed in Chapter three. The search for a better technique to measure the motive continued and several projective tests were designed. In this section, some of the most used projective tests are discussed.

3.1.1 Heckhausen's version of TAT

In line with his theory of "Hope of Success" (HS) and "Fear of Failure" (FF), which considers these two tendencies as separate dimensions, Heckhausen (1967) has developed a projective measure based on McClelland's Thematic Apperception Test.

Heckhausen's theory of measure development is based on the interest of the negative aspect of *n* Achievement found in the work of many researchers (Atkinson, 1958; Reitman & Williams, 1961). In support of the dichotomous achievement motive, Cooper and Howell (1961) have concluded that avoidance of failure is an independent dimension and not the obverse of success-seeking tendency.

The normal scoring of *n* Achievement, Heckhausen (1967) argues, as measured by McClelland's TAT does not differentiate between the tendencies to achieve success and to avoid failure. This has led to attempts to separate tendencies of Hope of Success and Fear of Failure as a way to assess the failure-oriented aspect of achievement motivation via content analysis. But little success has been achieved, the result is that failure tendency is often measured by the use of different anxiety

questionnaires (e.g. “Test Anxiety Questionnaire” (TAQ) Mandler & Sarason, 1952; “Manifest Anxiety Questionnaire” (MAQ) Taylor, 1953; and “Achievement Anxiety Test” (AAT) Alpert & Haber, 1960).

Another reason behind Heckhausen’s development of a new measure is his belief that for a projective measure to be interindividually highly discriminative it has to be applied under neutral test conditions and it has to have pictures of moderate achievement cue value (Heckhausen, 1967).

He went on to suggest that the achievement-oriented arousal should apply only to the picture content and not to instructions, and it should be moderate because extremely strong arousal may activate defences and avoidance tendencies. In justification of this, he reports that “If the arousal is too intense (i.e. if the subject is pressed for achievement from all sides), individual differences in the characteristic discrepancy between normal and actual states are levelled out which means favouring intraindividual variance, based on the situation, at the expense of interindividual variance, based on normal evaluative dispositions” (p12).

The Heckhausen’s new measure consists of two dimensions: Hope of Success (HS), and Fear of Failure (FF) represented in a series of six pictures. From these two dimensions four separate measures are yielded: HS motivation, FF motivation, the difference between the two (HS - FF, or the net hope score), and the total or combined motivation (which is the sum of the two).

3.1.2 Other projective measures

In an attempt to overcome the ambiguity of the responses created by the very ambiguous pictures of the TAT, French (1958) has developed a motive measurement that is more structured than the TAT. Her technique, which is called “French Test of

Insight" (FTI), is a combination of McClelland's carefully-constructed system of scoring and Sherreffs' projective technique called "The Intuition Questionnaire" in which the subjects are asked to respond to ten short statements of behaviour of an hypothetical person by describing the characteristics and motives of this character in a short statement on each item.

In preference for verbal stimuli rather than pictorial stimuli, French (1958) argues that *"... verbal material is considerably easier to manipulate to obtain the desired degree of specificity or ambiguity ... [the test is based on the assumption that] ... individuals with needs will tend to interpret the behaviour of others in terms of those needs, and further, that interpretations of people who expect to be successful will be in goal oriented terms and those of individuals who fear failure will be in defensive terms"* (p243).

The statements collected from subjects are then content analysed in a constructive way that is similar to McClelland's *n* Ach measure. Validation studies confirm a good agreement between the TAT and FTI methods.

It was Atkinson (1958) who first used anxiety questionnaires as a means of measuring achievement-avoidance or fear of failure, an avoidance motive that is measured by the absence of achievement imagery in stories told in McClelland's TAT. The method arrived at by Atkinson is called "Resultant Achievement Motivation" (RAM), which is derived by subtracting scores on Test Anxiety Questionnaire (TAQ) developed by Mandler and Sarason (1952) from *n* Achievement scores. Subjects who obtain scores above the median in *n* Achievement and below the median in TAQ are classified as achievement oriented, whereas subjects obtain scores below the median in *n* Achievement and above the median in TAQ are considered to be oriented toward avoiding achievement.

Another projective test specifically designed to overcome the difficulties caused by the verbal nature of the TAT is the Graphic Expression test, sometimes referred to as “Doodle test”, developed by Aronson (1958). One disadvantage of the TAT, which instigated the development of this test, is that it cannot be applied to young children or illiterate people because it requires the writing of stories. This is the reason why Winterbottom (1958) was unable to assess *n* Achievement in children under 8 years of age in her study of determining the causal relationship between child independence training and *n* Achievement. Another reason for choosing expressive behaviours as a basis for developing an alternative method of measuring *n* Achievement is that cross-culture studies are more feasible using such a method which overcomes the difficulties of different semantics and meanings in different cultures or the inhibition of achievement-oriented verbal responses by anxiety. Ancient civilisations which have left no written material but arts and drawings can have the advantage of being examined by this graphic test. This test has also the capacity to overcome the validity problem of the TAT caused by its verbal nature. A further advantage of this approach is that it allows underlying personality structure to be better indicated by expressive behaviours which are more unconscious than story telling.

All the advantages cited above notwithstanding, the Graphic Expression test has proved of minimal use, primarily because, as McClelland (1987) maintains, the test lacks “face validity”, in that it has no meaning in itself.

The idea of the test is that a basic abstract design consisting of scribble patterns is exposed to the subjects for 1.3 seconds and then the subjects are asked to reproduce it on a blank paper in two minutes. Since the exposure is very short, what the subjects draw represents their drawing tendencies. The drawings are then coded against an objective scoring system.

The test found that high achievers drew single unattached and discrete lines, and left small margins at the bottom of the page. Their drawing pattern was of diagonal S shaped, and involved less multiwave lines, whereas low achievers' drawing pattern was fuzzier and more overlaid.

The Graphic Test was found to be less sensitive than the picture-story exercise to the test administration situation and less influenced by the latest state of the subject (Lundy, 1981). Although its internal consistency is low, it correlates with other *n* Achievement measures (e.g. TAT), and it apparently measures what TAT measures regardless of their correlations with *n* Achievement behaviour. McClelland (1958a) found the test reasonably adequate, it showed internal consistency, mean increases in determinant scores with age, and no relationship to IQ. He also found it (1961) to correlate better than the verbal measure with theoretical behavioural correlates of *n* Achievement in a cross-national study involving different test administrators in different countries.

In an attempt to make projective tests more objective as a way of controlling reliability problems, Hurley (1955) has adopted a new technique of implementing and scoring the TAT. His measure is called the Iowa Picture Interpretation Test (IPIT) and consists of 10 pictures of the TAT projected in a certain sequence on a screen for one minute each. Each subject is provided with a booklet containing ten pages with one page for each picture, and each page has four alternatives randomly arranged. Each alternative is composed of a single statement involving one of the four themes, sometimes interpreted as motives and sometimes as habits (McClelland, 1958a). These themes are; Achievement Imagery (AI), Insecuring (I), Blandness (B), and Hostility (H). The instructions are to rank order the alternatives on the basis of how well they describe what is happening in the picture.

Like Hurley (1957), Johnston (1957) considers the IPIT as an objective measure because respondents make deliberate conscious choices amongst alternatives previously prepared. The fact that this measure is consciously reported under voluntary control of inner states, the subject tries to give answers like the ones he or she gave last time which makes tests like this one more reliable than unconscious projective tests. In spite of this the test (form O) was not found to have high predictive capacity, internal consistency, and reliability. These reasons forced Johnston (1957) to revise it by adding additional pictures (14 pictures) from the TAT (form RK) and devising an alternative method of scoring the IPIT. The alternative method of scoring is rating the alternatives on a scale of 5-point (Form RT). The IPIT is found to correlate with anxiety scales (Williams, 1955), and with various performance measures, e.g. addition (Johnston, 1957; Williams, 1955), verbal learning (Hurley, 1955), and maze learning (Johnston, 1955). Form RK obtained the highest significant correlations than forms RT and O, and was found to be the best single predictor of criterion performance although its stability and internal consistency is low for female groups. Correlation with *n* Achievement score by story content analysis was found to be very low and not significant (McClelland, 1955a).

The problem with multiple-choice tests, McClelland & Pilon (1983) argue, is that the conscious cognitive, evaluative component is more strongly present in a process of picking a choice among alternatives than in a spontaneous response to a picture. This cognitive, evaluative component is not part of the motive system in which a person gets satisfied by thinking about or doing things better, rather, it is part of the value system by which a person values achievement. The result is that the multiple-choice method has some predictive value for goal-setting behaviour, but not for other well-known achievement motivation characteristics. As McClelland opposes any

method of measuring *n* Achievement other than content analysis of fantasies, in one of his early writings he (1955a) particularly objects to the method of multiple-choice, claiming that “if the *n* Achievement score [score of story content analysis] is measuring anything, that something is not likely to be measured by any simple set of choice-type items” (p38). This is not necessarily true as many researchers have come up with valid results of various methods of *n* Achievement tests, as shown in several places in this section.

Amongst the various attempts at establishing a standard measure of *n* Achievement is Knapp’s (1958) study of the relationship between colour preference and *n* Achievement. The result of his effort to standardise an *n* Achievement measure was a weakly founded index of aesthetic preference which he calls “Tartan Test”. His test consists of photographic reproductions of 30 Scottish tartans of which the subject is asked to allocate into six groups according to their preferences. The categorisation yielded a rough preference of blue colour by high achievers and red colour by low achievers. The highest correlation obtained with TAT was .18. He attributed the preference of the colours to their “perceptual properties” of which blue is classified as “soft” and found more in nature and preferred as a “ground” colour, whereas red is “hard”, bright and preferred as a “figure” colour. Those who prefer blue colour, Knapp explains, prefer a “passive” environment in which they are the active, manipulative figures.

With a loose interpretation of this sort, it is not very likely that this measure test would prove helpful to scholars in the field of motivation, especially achievement motivation. Indeed, no other study is reported in the literature to have relied on this test.

Still another index was presented by Morgan (1964). His occupational index was based on Atkinson's theory that *n* Achievement is a combination of achievement strength and incentive value of success, which determines the subjective value of success at a particular task. It is also based on the results of other studies which indicated a tendency for groups known to be high in Achievement motive to assign a substantially higher reward value to difficult tasks. Although this index is meant to be a projective *n* Achievement measure that makes respondents express their feelings freely without appearing to do so, it could in fact be regarded as an occupational evaluator.

3.2 *Objective Measures of Achievement Motivation*

As with projective techniques, this part will be devoted to reviewing objective techniques including most specific *n* Achievement questionnaires and those which are part of comprehensive personality inventories. It is thought important to thoroughly investigate a broad range of *n* Achievement measures as this issue is a very significant concern, especially to those interested in this area. Therefore, a presentation of some of the most quoted tests will be provided. A list of over 40 different-type measures of *n* Achievement which we have identified in published and unpublished literature is produced in Table 3.1. Table 3.2 presents anxiety scales that are used as measures of fear of failure variable in achievement motivation (main sources of these lists are: Fineman, 1975a, 1977; Johnson, 1990; and Weinstein, 1969).

This part considers the different instruments developed to measure *n* Achievement since the beginning of its introduction as a personality variable. The scales were classified in accordance with how the construct of the motive was perceived and the technique used in administering the instrument. Some of the scales constitute part of more comprehensive personality inventories. Others were developed

in a way that utilises advantages of both projective and objective techniques like the sentence completion tests. During the nineteen sixties the pattern was towards short unitary achievement questionnaires. From 1970 onwards the concept of multidimensionality has come to the fore and many instruments were developed (the multifactorial techniques are discussed in Chapter three). More recently, instruments were taking the form of multiple-work choice and decision making.

3.2.1 *Early Developments of n Achievement Questionnaires*

As has been mentioned, attempts at constructing an *n Achievement* questionnaire had started as early as the development of the modern concept itself. The earliest of all was undertaken by Murray (1938) when he developed a comprehensive manifest need inventory in which he included a 10-item *n Achievement* questionnaire. The period following this has witnessed a major setback for the use of questionnaires. TAT was the predominant method along with other projective techniques.

From a different approach, de Charms *et al.* (1955) constructed a nine-item questionnaire. Although it is based upon the work of Murray, it was designed to assess the value placed on the achieved activities instead of extracting a score of achievement tendencies. This, however, is the reason their test is called (*v Ach*).

3.2.2 *Achievement as Part of More Comprehensive Personality Inventories*

Some *n Achievement* scales come as parts of more comprehensive personality inventories. Examples of this are the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (Gough, 1957). Amongst the 18 scales contained in this inventory, two pertain to achievement motivation. One is a 32-item 'achievement via independence (CPI Ai)', and the other is a 37-item 'achievement via conformance (CPI Ac)', the CPI consists of 480 items in

total. Skolnik (1966) found the CPI Ai to correlate significantly with TAT with a women sample, whereas the CPI Ac correlates significantly with a men sample. In general CPI Ai and CPI Ac were found to have low insignificant relationships with other *n* Achievement measures except for the CPI Ac which was found to be significantly correlated with the Achievement Risk Preference Scale (ARPS) at 0.01 alpha (Weinstein, 1969). (For more details refer to Table 3.3).

Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) developed by Edwards (1954) is another comprehensive personality inventory which consists of 15 need scales, one of which is *n* Achievement. Achievement need is represented by nine statements. The statements for each need were paired with statements from the other needs that had similar average social desirability ratings. Each pair of needs is compared twice resulting in 210 paired items plus fifteen repeated pairs as an indication of subjects' response consistency. The EPPS is widely used and its *n* Achievement scale was found to be a good predictive of academic achievement. In general, the EPPS as a whole has an average reliability of 0.73 (Mann, 1958), and as reported in the manual, a median of 0.79 of all needs. The EPPS Achievement scale has a very low correlation with the TAT, in some cases negative correlations were reported. Likewise, similar results were found when compared to other *n* Achievement tests (cf. Fineman, 1977).

Gough (1955) has also developed another comprehensive personality inventory named the Adjective Check List (ACL). This inventory, however, differs from the CPI in its technique and capacity. 24 scores are used in this scale in which a new technique is implemented. As the name implies, a list of items containing a pair of adjectives each are presented to subjects who are asked to choose the adjectives that most describe them. Although this test is very simple to administer, few studies treated it as an efficient measure. Fineman (1977) cited a study by Gough and Heilbrun (1965)

in which they found out its relationship with two other *n* Achievement measures, their studies yielded very low correlations with the EPPS and CPI Ai, whereas they found it to correlate significantly with the CPI Ac. Using the same technique, Lindgren (1976) developed a two-dimensioned scale. He adopted the ACL's *n* Achievement and *n* Affiliation scales' adjectives. The result is a 30-pair-adjective scale measuring need achievement and need affiliation named the (N ach-N aff). Each pair of adjectives contains an *n* Achievement adjective and an *n* Affiliation adjective. Lindgren found the scale to correlate significantly with the GPA of a male group sample. In another study, this scale was found to differentiate between sexes where men scored higher than women and found that people in business would be more achievement-orientated than students (Smither and Lindgren, 1978). The adjective technique was also used in the Ghiselli's (1971) Self-Description Inventory (SDI) in which he also assessed *n* Achievement amongst other personality aspects but with a different approach.

The Personality Research Form (PRF) (Jackson, 1974) is another long personality assessment questionnaire in which achievement forms a variable along with 21 other variables making 440 statements. A shorter form or a standard edition of the PRF consists of 15 scales and 300 statements. Fineman (1977) cited only one study correlating the PRF with other personality measures. That study (Edwards *et al.*, 1972) found the achievement scales of the PRF and the EPPS to significantly correlate with each other.

TABLE 3.1

List of *n* Achievement measures reviewed in literature.

Source	<i>n</i> Ach Measures	Type*	Number of Items	Dimensions
Murray (1983)	Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ)	2	600 Full-Scale 10 <i>n</i> Ach	44 Personality variables
McClelland <i>et al.</i> (1953)	Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)	1	4 pictures	
Winterbottom (1953, 1958)	Verbal Story Cues (VSC)	1	2 sets of 4 verbal cues (for children	
Edwards (1954)	Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS)	2	225 Full-Scale <i>n</i> Ach 28 pairs	15 need scales
de Charms <i>et al.</i> (1955)	Value Achievement Measure (v Ach)	3	9 items	
Hurley (1955)	Iowa Picture Interpretation Test (IPIT)	4	10 pictures	
Gough (1955)	Adjective Check List (ACL)	3	24 Scores	
Gough (1957)	California Personality Inventory (CPI)	2	480 Full-Scale 32 CPI Ai 27 CPI Ac	18 variables. Ach via Independence Ach via Conformance
French (1958)	French Test of Insight (FTI)	1	10 Statements	
Aronson (1958)	Graphic Expression Test (Doodles)	1	1 scribble graph	
Knapp (1958)	Aesthetic Preference Test (Tartan)	1	30 Tartans	
Melville (1959)	Doll Play Analysis (doll-play)	1	A doll's house (for children)	Seven variable, two of which are: Work routine, and Achievement
Alpert & Haber (1960)	Achievement Anxiety Test (AAT)	3	2 scales 19 items	Facilitating Anxiety Scale Debilitating Anxiety Scale

TABLE 3.1: Continued...

<i>Source</i>	<i>n Ach Measures</i>	<i>Type*</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>	<i>Dimensions</i>
O'Connor and Atkinson (1962)	Achievement Risk Preference Scale (ARPS)	3		Approach of success Avoidance of failure
Argyle and Robinson (1962)	Robinson Achievement Measure (Q Ach)	3	15 items	Hope of Success or Fear of Failure
Zuckerman <i>et al.</i> (1964)	Sensation-Seeking Scale (SSS)	3		
Morgan (1964)	Occupation Index	4	9 Occupations	
Mukherjee (1965)	Sentence Completion Test (SCT)	3	50 3-item choices	
Myers (1965)	Myers' Achievement Motivation Scale (MAMS)	3		
Williams (1965)	Job Preference Inventory (JPI)	3		
Sherwood (1966)	Sherwood Achievement Scale (SAS)	3	3 items only	Competitiveness, Accomplishment, Goal difficulty
McReynolds and Guevara (1969)	Success-Failure Inventory (SFI)	3	22	Success, and Failure
Heckhausen (1967)	Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)	1	6 pictures	Hope of Success (HS) Fear of Failure (FF)
Jackson (1967, 1974)	The Personality Research Form-E (PRF-E)	2	440 items	22 Personality traits
Hendrick and Tiffin (1967)	Achievement Motivation Questionnaire	3		
Costello (1967)	Costello's Achievement Motivation Scale (CAMS)	3	24 items	A need to do well (10 items) A need to be a success (14 items)
Entwistle (1968)	Aberdeen Academic Motivation Inventory (AAMI)	3	24 items	Academic achievement
Lynn (1969)	Lynn's Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (LAMQ)	3	8 items	

TABLE 3.1: Continued...

<i>Source</i>	<i>n Ach Measures</i>	<i>Type*</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>	<i>Dimensions</i>
Mehrabian (1968, 1969)	Mehrabian's Achievement Scale (MAS)	3	2 scales	Male's achievement Female's Achievement
Hermans (1970)	Hermans' Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (HAMQ)	3	92 Multiple-choice items	Aspiration level, Risk-taking behaviour, Upward mobility, Persistence, Task tension, Time perception, Time perspective, partner choice, Recognition behaviour, and Achievement behaviour
Ghiselli (1971)	Self-Description Inventory (SDI)	2	64 pairs of adjectives	13 personality traits
Smith (1973)	Smith's Achievement Motivation Measure (SAMM)	3	17 true-false items	
Fineman (1975)	Work Preference Questionnaire (WPQ)	3	24 forced-choice pairs of statements	Hypothetical Organisation and hypothetical boss
Steers and Braunstein (1976)	Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ)	2	5 items	<i>n</i> Ach, <i>n</i> Aff, <i>n</i> Dom and <i>n</i> Autonomy
Lindgren (1976)	<i>n</i> Achievement and <i>n</i> Affiliation Scale (<i>n</i> ach - <i>n</i> aff)	3	30 forced-choice pairs of adjectives	<i>n</i> Achievement and <i>n</i> Affiliation
Schmalt, 1976 (in Heckhausen <i>et al.</i> , 1985)	Schmalt's Achievement Motivational Grid (LMG)	4	18 Pictures (for children)	Hope of success Fear of failure
Helmreich and Spence (1978)	Work and Family Orientation Inventory (WOFO)	3	19 items	Work orientation, mastery, and competitiveness
Ray (1979)	Ray's Achievement Motivation Measure (RAMM)	3	14 items	
Harrell & Stahl (1981), and Stahl & Harrell, (1982)	The Job Choice Exercise (JCE)	3	30 three-need-choice items	<i>n</i> Achievement, <i>n</i> Affiliation, and <i>n</i> Power

TABLE 3.1: Continued...

Source	<i>n Ach Measures</i>	Type*	Number of Items	Dimensions
Miner (1985)	Miner Sentence Completion Scale-Form T (MSCS-Form T)	1	40 Sentences 5 Subscales	Self-achievement, avoiding risks, feedback of results, personal innovation, and planning for the future
Tziner and Elizur (1985)	Achievement Motive Questionnaire (AMQI)	3	18 items 6 dimensions	Uncertainty, Task-difficulty, Responsibility, Calculated risk, Problem-solving, and Need to succeed
Cassidy (1988); Cassidy and Lynn, (1989)	Cassidy's Multi-factorial Achievement Questionnaire (CMAQ)	3	49 items 7 factors	Work ethic, Acquisitiveness, Dominance, Excellence, Competitiveness, Status Aspiration And Mastery

- * Classification of measure types:
1. Projective measures.
 2. Multi-personality-trait inventories of which achievement is a subscale or a dimension.
 3. Objective measures totally devoted to achievement motivation or, in some cases, its dimensions.
 4. Projective measures that have objective ways of scoring

TABLE 3.2
Anxiety questionnaires used to measure avoidance of failure as an *n ach* variable.

Abbreviation	Test Title	Source
TAQ	Test Anxiety Questionnaire	Mandler and Sarason (1952)
MAS	Manifest Anxiety Scale	Taylor (1953)
AAT	Achievement Anxiety Test	Alpert and Haber (1960)
TASC (for children)	Test Anxiety Scale for Children	Sarason <i>et al.</i> (1964)
CMAS (for children)	Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale	Castaneda <i>et al.</i> (1956)

3.2.3 Sentence Completion Tests

The Miner Sentence Completion Scale - Task Form (MSCS-Form T) (Miner, 1985) is a projective test based on completing eight sentences for each of the five subscales one of which is self-achievement. Unlike the (MSCS-Form T), the Mukherjee's Sentence Completion Test (SCT) is not, as the name may imply, based on completing sentences. Rather, it has fifty items each comprising three choices one of which scores for *n* Achievement. The subject is asked to choose the one that he/she most identifies with, and the one that he/she least identifies with (Mukherjee, 1965). In this study, Mukherjee found SCT to significantly correlate with *n* Achievement.

3.2.4 Short Unitary *n* Achievement Questionnaire

The period from 1965 thereafter has witnessed extensive activities of developing *n* Achievement measures. During this period most researchers of the area have been led to believe that the concept is a unitary conscious one that can be measured by direct and short questionnaires. An example of this is the Lynn's Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (LAMQ) (Lynn, 1969). Lynn constructed a questionnaire of eight items which was validated on groups of managers, students, entrepreneurs and university professors. The test has been administered and validated in many countries (other than its original country: Britain), namely, Turkey, Brazil, Saudi Arabia, Afghanistan, and Japan (Melikian *et al.*, 1971; Iwawaki and Lynn, 1973). Hines (1973) studied the relationship between LAMQ and the TAT and found that they were significantly correlated in two samples. Smith's Quick Measure of Achievement Motivation (SAMM) (Smith, 1973) was designed to satisfy the need for a "*simple, British and objective measure of achievement motivation*" (p.138). Although a mention of Lynn's LAMQ as a simple, British and objective *n* Achievement measure was not made nor a

criticism of it, Smith came up with a 17-item measure which measures achievement motivation (10 items), and carelessness (7 items). He found the test to have a high face validity and to significantly correlate with the TAT (0.48). The series of producing quick measures is marked by Ray's Quick Measure of Achievement Motivation (RAMM) (Ray, 1979) in which the tendency of cross-culture validity is salient. This fourteen-question test was developed and validated in Australia and is claimed to be reliable in Britain and South Africa. It has been found to have a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.68 which indicates a satisfactory internal consistency. A very short form of *n* Achievement measure was developed by Sherwood (1966). The Sherwood Achievement Scale (SAS) contains only three items pertaining to competitiveness, accomplishment, and goal difficulty.

3.2.5 *Male-Female Scales*

A more often cited measure of *n* Achievement was developed in a more demanding time when Achievement motivation research reached its climax. Mehrabian (1968) constructed two male and female scales. The revised versions of the Mehrabian Achievement Scale (MAS) consisted of 26 items each (Mehrabian, 1969). The male scale was found to inversely correlate with test anxiety measured by (TAQ), with neuroticism, and with dogmatism. Both scales had low correlation with social desirability and correlated significantly with two other achievement scales, namely, the Bass Task Orientation Scale (TOS) r 0.20, and the Jackson Achievement Scale (PRF) r 0.62 for the male scale, and correlation of 0.30 and 0.37 with the two scales respectively for the female scale (Mehrabian, 1969). Mehrabian (1968) had also studied the relationship between his scales and the TAT and had found inconsistent results. The male scale correlated significantly with the TAT, whereas the female scale,

although low, insignificantly inversely correlated with the TAT (i.e. r 0.28 and r -0.11 respectively). The construction of the MAS has won the applause of McClelland as its items “were taken from achievement motivation theory and do not deal as openly with achievement values as those in the early Murray schedule and its later derivatives” (1987: 216). Nevertheless, he disapproves of its use as it, he argues, correlates significantly with measures of social desirability “...indicating that it is not a pure measure of motive strength. Thus, there is little justification for using it as a substitute for the fantasy n Achievement score” (p.217).

3.2.6 Work Choice (Decision-Making) Questionnaires

The Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire (WOFQ) (Helmreich and Spence, 1978) is yet another form of scales which broke the achievement motive into a number of factors. It also can be counted amongst the instruments of need for achievement that are concerned with the work preference and orientation which, amongst other things, can characterise the kind of work preferred by the individual and can indicate the source of his or her aspiration. The second part of this instrument is devoted to obtaining the respondent's educational aspirations in addition to the relative importance of work versus marriage as anticipated source of life satisfaction. It also inquires about the extrinsic goals such as pay, prestige, and job advancement for oneself and one's spouse, and that is how the instrument got its name. The first part, however, contains the main questionnaire items of achievement-related activities which, by factor analysis, are classified into the three factors of Work orientation, Mastery, and Competitiveness which in total have 19 items. This instrument appeared to have a good internal consistency and obtained consistent results in studies between different sexes and professions (Spence and Helmreich, 1983).

TABLE 3.3

Correlations amongst different *n* Achievement measures

<i>Study</i>	<i>Sample</i>	<i>Measures</i>	<i>Correlation</i>
Himelstein <i>et al.</i> (1958)	77 Air Force Academy males	TAT-FTI	-0.07
Hofman (1965)	112 high school males		0.17
Shaw (1961)	18 high school male achievers		0.25
	20 high school male underachievers		0.09
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males		0.08
Knapp (1958)	68 college	TAT-Tartan	0.18+
Aronson (1958)	26 college males	TAT-Graphic	0.27
	18 college males		0.51*
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males		-0.01
Atkinson and Litwin (1960)	47 college males	TAT-EPPS	-0.05
Himelstein <i>et al.</i> (1958)	298 Air Force Academy males		0.00
Hofman (1965)	112 high school males		0.20
Marlowe (1959)	44 college males		-0.05
Shaw (1961)	18 high school male achievers		0.12
	20 high school male underachievers		-0.93
Bendig (1959)	244 college (136 male, 108 female)		0.11
Birney (in Atkinson, 1958, p.38)	300		0.00
Melikian (1958)	69 college (50 males, 19 females)		0.16
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males		0.10
Grant <i>et al.</i> (1967)	148 managers		0.20's*
Morrison (in de Charms <i>et al.</i> , 1955, p.421)	College females	TAT-vAch	0.09
de Charms <i>et al.</i> (1955)	78 college males		0.23*
Sherwood (1966)	37 college males	TAT-SAS	0.40*
	80 college males		0.42**
	30 college females		0.29

Table 3.3: Continued...

<i>Study</i>	<i>Sample</i>	<i>Measures</i>	<i>Correlation</i>
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males		0.07
Hines (1973)	42 college and church 52 college and church	TAT-LAMQ	0.32* 0.35*
Smith (1973)	89 males	TAT-SAMM	0.48**
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males	TAT-CPI Ai	0.05
Skolnik (1966)	41 boys 41 men 43 girls 43 women		0.01 0.28 0.23 0.39**
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males	TAT-CPI Ac	0.07
Skolnik (1966)	41 boys 41 men 43 girls 43 women		0.09 0.42** 0.32* 0.18
Hermans (1970)	30 college males 31 college males	TAT-HAMQ	0.13 0.20
Mehrabian (1968)	108 college males 109 college females	TAT-MAS	0.28** -0.11
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males	TAT-ARPS	-0.14*
Himelstein <i>et al.</i> (1968)	77 Air Force Academy males	FTI-EPPS	0.02
Hofman (1965)	112 high school males		0.17
Shaw (1961)	18 high school male achievers 20 high school male under- achievers		0.51* 0.26
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males		0.00
Gough & Heilbrun (1965, p.22)	100 males	CPI Ac-ACL CPI Ac-ACL	0.30** -0.01
Gough & Heilbrun (1965, p.14)	90 college	EPPS-ACL	0.01
Edwards <i>et al.</i> (1972)	218 college (109 Ms, 109 Fs)	EPPS-PRF	0.25**
Mukherjee (1965)	58 college mixed	SCT-vAch	0.44**
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males	EPPS-CPI Ac	-0.12
Gough (1964, p.37)	45 males		0.04
Weinstein (1969)	76-179 college males	EPPS-CPA Ai	0.01

Table 3.3: Continued...

Study	Sample	Measures	Correlation
Gough (1964, p.37)	45 males		0.19
Barnette (1961)	176 college mixed	IPIT-CPI Ai	0.09
Mehrabian (1969)	114 college males	PRF-MAS	0.62**
	98 college females		0.37**
Weinstein (1969)	176-179 college males	FTI-ARPS	-0.08
		FTI-Graphic	0.05
		FTI-SAS	0.10
		FTI-CPI Ac	0.04
		FTI-CPI Ai	-0.07
		Graphic-CPI Ac	-0.07
		Graphic-CPI Ai	-0.03
		Graphic-ARPS	-0.06
		Graphic-SAS	-0.05
		EPPS-ARPS	-0.04
		EPPS-SAS	0.11
		ARPS-CPI Ac	0.23*
		ARPS-CPI Ai	0.17
		ARPS-SAS	0.18
		SAS-CPI Ac	0.04
		SAS-CPI Ai	-0.04

* P<0.05; ** P<0.01
+ This is the highest reported r with blue preferences

Main source: S. Fineman (1977).

The behavioural decision-making theory modelling approach, which can be attributed to the Brunswick lens model (Brunswick, 1952), was utilised in producing *n* Achievement measures in many studies. The basic rationale behind using this approach is that it focuses on the subject’s actual decision-making behaviour, rather than the subject’s self-reports of their behaviour. Based on their choices, their motives and sources of aspiration can be identified. Works of Hoffman (1960) suggest the possibility of studying personality issues via mathematical models of decision-making behaviours, whilst Mitchell and Beach (1977), and Vroom (1964) emphasised the

possibility of inferring individual's motives by observing the choices he or she makes (Stahl and Harrell, 1982). Although the advantage often mentioned in using this approach is to examine the actual decisions subjects make, measures built on this approach were, in fact, exercises that present hypothetical situations from which subjects choose. This, to me, does not totally isolate, as in other multiple-choice forms, the effect of social desirability. Therefore, such instruments do not substantially differ from other objective ones in respect to their validity.

Fineman (1975), in his Work Preference Questionnaire (WPQ), asks respondents to forcefully choose either statement of each pair. The 24 forced-choice pairs refer to hypothetical organisation (11 pairs) and boss (13 pairs), one statement of each pair pertains to achievement motivation. Brown (1972) used a simplified decision-making exercise to examine real-life decision situations and found no substantial difference between them. This, probably, could justify the use of hypothetical job choice, but to Fineman there were other reasons for developing such an instrument. One of which is the lack of a measure that is standardised on British managerial populations. He stresses the need for a short and good for industrial use questionnaire that can be used with different types of managers. Susceptibility to social desirability and low reliability and validity were also major reasons for constructing this questionnaire. Fineman, one must admit, succeeded in meeting most of these deficiencies in the development of his WPQ scale which reached an internal consistency of 0.68 with British managerial populations. This short questionnaire (takes 15-20 minutes to complete) proved to be controlled against social desirability, as indicated by a correlation of -0.01 with the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale.

Using the same hypothetical job choice approach, Harrell and Stahl (1981) designed a measure that measures McClelland's three needs of achievement (*n* Ach),

power (n Pow) and affiliation (n Aff). In the new version of the Job Choice Exercise (JCE) Stahl and Harrell (1982) modified their method of $3 \times 3 \times 3$ (making 27) hypothetical jobs to $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$ (making 24) plus six more jobs which are not used in the computation, but merely used as a warm-up exercise. In addition to decision A in each job (which asks the subject to indicate the attractiveness of a given job) the *Further Information* and *Decision B* (which give more information about the same job and requires the subject to indicate the level of effort that would be exerted to get this job done) were added to test propositions about Vroom's model and unintentionally served as distracters to respondents, which explains why they were, although they complicated it, left permanently in the scale. Cue levels were also changed from three (very often, fairly often, and rarely) to two (very high [95%] and very low [5%]). The scale showed good internal consistency of average 0.77 and test-retest of 0.82 which indicate a high reliability, and it was found to be free of social desirability bias but convergent and discriminant validities were not strong. Another disadvantage of the SCE, besides its low validity, is the repetition, although with different cue levels, of the eight hypothetical jobs three times each which may escalate the respondent's boredom.

APPENDIX D



Table 9.1: Results of Job satisfaction and Job characteristics for all sample (means).

Satisfaction with		Job characteristics	
Freedom at work	3.50	Working with others	4.88
Recognition of work well done	3.29	Autonomy in job	4.38
Responsibility	3.46	Variety of work	4.70
Pay	3.09	Use of one's skills	4.79
Use of one's ability	3.25	Significance of job	4.72
Promotion chances	2.64	Feedbak from work	4.99
Suggestions given	3.35	Making Friendship	4.64
Hours of work	3.59	Amount of challenge	4.38
Task variety	3.62		
Job security	3.85		
Ovrall job satisfaction	33.62		

Table 9.2: Preferences for employment type by subjects of the four sectors.

	Government	Semi-private	Private	Self-employment
Government	31	49	2	34
Semi-prvt.	15	44	7	52
Financial	6	32	21	56
Manufacturing.	3	22	31	51
$\chi^2 = 87.46$ Df = 9 $\alpha = 0.0000$				

Table 11.1

Discriminant function results of importance of work rewards. Weights, Structure Matrix and Rotated Coefficients.

Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Relations in wkplc.	.665	.343	.098
Fringe Benefit	.512	.140	1.137
Promotion	.210	.471	-.057
Autonomy	-.016	.929	.180
Work Conditions	.189	.118	.475
Work Hours	.874	.105	-.271
Recognition	.481	.492	.374

Sructure Matrix:
Pooled-within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and canonical discriminant functions (variables ordered by size of correlation within function)

	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Work Hours	.688*	-.197	-.322
Relations in wkplc.	.445*	.142	-.202
Nature of Work	-.413*	-.040	-.099
Promotion	-.146*	.108	-.003
Autonomy	-.265	.790*	-.015
Recognition	.149	.503*	-.008
Pay	-.311	-.331*	-.006
Job Security	-.071	-.316*	-.073
Fringe Benefit	.106	-.321	.770
Job Status	-.143	-.161	-.221
Work Conditions	.014	-.055	.133

Varimax Rotation Transformation Matrix

	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
% Variance	61.97	19.49	18.54
Function 1	.9385	-.1149	.3257
Function 2	.1329	.9905	-.0337
Function 3	-.3187	.0749	.9448

Rotated Standardised Discriminant Function Coefficients (Variables ordered by size of coefficient within function).

	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Work Hours	.921*	-.018	.025
Relations in Wkplc.	.638*	.271	.297
Autonomy	.051	.938*	.136
Promotion	.275	.438*	.001
Fringe Benefit	.137	.164	1.236*
Work Conditions	.041	.131	.506*
Recognition	.398	.458	.495*

Table 11.2: Classification Results for Holdout Sample for importance of work rewards.

<i>Actual Group</i>	No. of Cases	Predicted Group Membership			
		Governt.	Semi-Prvt.	Finan.	Manuf.
Group 1 Government	33	14 42.4%	3 9.1%	7 21.2%	9 27.3%
Group 2 Semi-Private	49	6 12.2%	21 42.9%	12 24.5%	10 20.4%
Group 3 Financial	39	5 12.8%	8 20.5%	17 43.6%	9 23.1%
Group 4 Manufacturing	37	4 10.8%	8 21.6%	5 13.5%	20 54.1%

Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 45.57%
Number of cases correctly classified: 72

Table 11.4: Classification Results for Holdout Sample for career-related variables.

Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership			
		Governt.	Semi-Prvt.	Finan.	Manuf.
Group 1 Government	33	31 93.9%	0 0%	1 3.0%	1 3.0%
Group 2 Semi-Private	50	5 10.0%	25 50.0%	17 34.0%	3 6.0%
Group 3 Financial	39	6 15.4%	6 15.4%	16 41.0%	11 28.2%
Group 4 Manufact.	36	6 16.7%	4 11.1%	5 13.9%	21 58.3%

Total cases 158 cases correctly classified: 93
Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 58.86%

Table 11.3

Discriminant function results of career-related variables. Weights, structure matrix and rotated coefficients.

<i>Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients</i>			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Mngmt. level	.368	.079	.553
No. of subordinates	-.393	-.190	.198
Tenure with org.	-.246	.166	-.139
Training abroad	-.205	-.007	.616
Previous experience	-.381	.623	-.093
Income	.556	-.058	.467
Job satisfaction	.053	-.338	-.526
Training	.054	-.142	-.462
Amount of training with org.	.060	.429	-.219

Structure Matrix: <i>Pooled-within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and canonical discriminant functions (variables ordered by size of correlation within function)</i>			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Income	.552*	-.133	.072
No. of subordinates	-.291*	-.245	-.070
Previous experience	-.338	.768*	-.108
Amount of training with org.	.504	.561*	-.308
Tenure with org.	-.109	.366*	-.125
Training	-.164	-.238*	-.088
Training abroad	-.351	-.031	.515*
Mngmt. level	.140	.136	.491*
Job satisfaction	.138	-.360	-.486*

<i>Varimax Rotation Transformation Matrix</i>			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
% Variance	50.47	36.27	13.26
Function 1	.8285	-.5591	-.0310
Function 2	.5031	.7189	.4797
Function 3	-.2459	-.4130	.8769

<i>Rotated Standardised Discriminant Function Coefficients (Variables ordered by size of coefficient within function).</i>			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Amount of training with org.	.764*	.065	-.005
No. of subordinates	-.471*	.002	.094
Previous experience	.021	.698*	.228
Income	.316	-.545*	.364
Tenure with org.	-.087	.313*	-.034
Job satisfaction	.003	-.055	-.625*
Training abroad	-.325	-.144	.544*
Mngmt. level	.209	-.378	.511*
Training	.087	.059	-.475*

Table 11.5

Discriminant function results of personal variables. Weights, structure matrix and rotated coefficients.

<i>Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients</i>			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Nationality (Saudis v others)	.872	-.250	-.333
No. of children	-.117	-.154	.742
Religion	-.109	.485	-.576
Father's education	.291	.588	.489
<i>n</i> Achievement	-.071	.518	-.091
Locus of control	-.033	.409	.085
<i>n</i> Affiliation	-.218	.037	-.068

Structure Matrix: <i>Pooled-within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and canonical discriminant functions (variables ordered by size of correlation within function)</i>			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Nationality (Saudis v others)	.921*	-.171	-.120
Age	.279*	-.188	.247
Family size	-.186*	-.135	.015
<i>n</i> Affiliation	-.168*	-.142	-.005
Education	.154*	.134	.038
Father's education	.420	.601*	.434
<i>n</i> Achievement	.181	.519*	.014
Locus of control	.107	.384*	.099
No. of children	-.140	-.227	.616*
Religion	-.348	.307	-.491*
Social status	-.014	-.095	.138*

<i>Varimax Rotation Transformation Matrix</i>			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
% Variance	81.87	14.85	3.28
Function 1	.9658	.2589	.0085
Function 2	-.2494	.9207	.3002
Function 3	-.0699	.2921	-.9538

<i>Rotated Standardised Discriminant Function Coefficients (Variables ordered by size of coefficient within function).</i>			
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Nationality (Saudis v others)	.928*	-.102	.250
<i>n</i> Affiliation	-.216*	-.042	.074
Father's education	.100	.759*	-.287
<i>n</i> Achievement	-.191	.432*	.242
Locus of control	-.140	.393*	.042
No. of children	-.126	.044	-.754*
Religion	-.186	.251	.695*

Table 11.6: C² Results for Holdout Sample for demographic variables.

Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership			
		Governt.	Semi-Prvt.	Finan.	Manuf.
Group 1 Government	33	24 72.7%	7 21.2%	2 6.1%	0 0%
Group 2 Semi-Private	49	19 38.8%	25 51.0%	4 8.2%	1 2.0%
Group 3 Financial	39	14 35.9%	8 20.5%	7 17.9%	10 25.6%
Group 4 Manufact.	36	8 22.2%	4 11.1%	6 16.7%	18 50.0%
Total cases 157		cases correctly classified: 74			
		Percent of “grouped” cases correctly classified: 47.13%			

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