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WORKING IN MINISTRIES OR PUBLIC
ORGANIZATIONS IN SAUDI ARABIA:
A STUDY OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND
JOB SATISFACTION OF THE SAUDI
ARABIAN MIDDLE MANAGERS

ABDUL HAMID AHMED DIYAB

Thesis Submitted for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
at the University of Kent at Canterbury

1987

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my
daughter Saja for her sacrifices
and love during my study in Great Britain.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to express his gratitude and appreciation to his supervisors Dr. W.I. Jenkins, and Mr. Michael Gilbert for their support, encouragement and supervision throughout the writing of this thesis. Special thanks are also extended to my wife, Hafsa for her patience, encouragement and dedication, and to Mr. Liaquat Ali for his efforts in typing this thesis. Above all, the author is grateful to God without whose guidance this thesis could not have been accomplished.

ABSTRACT

Career development and job satisfaction studies carried out in developing countries are very limited in number. Saudi Arabia is one of those developing countries which appeared on the political scene quite recently, but striving hard to develop its human resources due to its heavy dependence on expatriate labour to initiate and execute its development plans. The genesis of the study began when General Civil Service Bureau officials noticed a large movement of employees from ministries to other sectors (i.e. public organizations and the private sector). The purpose of this dissertation is to examine and analyze the factors behind this movement and relate this to the studies of career development and job satisfaction. The position of government organizations in Saudi Arabia is rather unique. Most of their employees are drawn from Universities due to the regulations of the GCSB of compelling them to work in ministries for a period equivalent to that spent in their University education until graduation. This situation has prevented such graduates from choosing their own occupations and seem to hinder their career development. As a consequence, this study, not only analyzes career development and job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia, but

job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia, but also makes a comprehensive evaluation of economic, social and organizational environments which seem to have an effect of the occupational choice of the Saudis. We take the assumption that the ideology of free occupational choice is not properly applied in Saudi Arabia due to some cultural variables (e.g. nepotism and strong family ties). Hence, this thesis will develop a definition of the concept of occupational choice and career development and the process of personnel flow and the ways in which such movement can be influenced within the Saudi context. The study will be primarily concerned with middle managers in two types of organization - government ministries and public organizations. This will hopefully give a profile of the Saudi situation as far as occupational choice, career development and job satisfaction are concerned.

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INTRODUCTION

Saudi Arabia is one of the fastest growing countries in the world. The more the country grows, the more it needs people to run and handle its projects. In Saudi Arabia, as in most countries, projects are being undertaken by either public sector, the private sector, or both. Since Saudi Arabia is a developing country, there is a low level of private sector investment in the development process, therefore most of the large projects are undertaken by government.

Before the discovery of oil, the Saudi Arabian economy mainly depended on revenues from pilgrims and agriculture. The number of government organizations (Ministries) was few, and job opportunities were very limited. Public organizations did not exist at that time. Here public organizations are defined as those organizations which are semi-autonomous that have some financial and administrative independence and are not totally controlled by government.

The whole situation has changed after the discovery of oil in 1938. Oil revenues have become the main source of income of the country. Due to the fact that Saudi Arabia is one of the largest oil producers in the world, and because oil revenues are huge, the economy of the country as a whole has flourished.

During that period the number of Ministries has grown in number and many public organizations have been established. Examples of these public organizations are - Saudia: Saudi Arabian Airline Corporation; SAMA: Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency; and most recently the General Ports Authority. The number of jobs available has expanded rapidly. However, it has proved increasingly difficult to fill these positions, especially since many of them appear to demand qualified professional personnel. Competition among organizations (both public and private) became very sharp which made it easy for prospective employees to be particular in choosing the type of organization they would like to join.

The position of government organizations (i.e. Ministries) is rather unique. Most of their employees are drawn from University graduates. Since education in Saudi Arabia is free, any Saudi citizen who joins universities either locally or abroad, with government paying for his educational expenses, is required to work for government Ministries after graduation for as long as he spent in his studies until graduation.¹ By doing this, the government limits the employment opportunities for university graduates to work either in the private sector or even for public organizations.

The system of management and the overall organizational climate in Ministries is different from either public organizations or the private sector. In addition, fringe benefits and pay seem to be better in public organizations and the private sector than in Ministries, especially in middle management positions (these issues are developed in Chapter 2). This has created a problem of employees being more attracted to work for public organizations and the private sector, rather than for Ministries, an issue which has limited the ability of Ministries to initiate and execute their own development plans and further has also affected to a large extent the national Development Plans initiated by the government of Saudi Arabia. Due to the fact that university graduates are required to work for Ministries for one year for each year of foreign or local schooling the government has paid for, and since fringe benefits and pay seem to be better both in public organizations and the private sector, a problem has emerged where employees in Ministries (especially in middle management) seem to be less satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts in public organizations. It is this issue that constitutes the major focus of this study.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research is to identify and explore in detail the general attitudes of university students toward the policies of the General Civil Services Bureau (GCSB) of not releasing them after graduation, and to examine the reasons behind what has become a large scale movement (especially of middle managers) from Ministries to public organizations. The research will be focused on two types of organization - government organizations represented by different Ministries, and public organizations such as Saudi Arabian Airlines, Petromin.... etc. The study will consist of two parts: (a) theoretical and (b) practical. In the first part, there will be a detailed coverage of the literature concerning career development together with an examination of the effect of particular variables on the general job satisfaction of employees. Such variables include organizational structure, pay and fringe benefits, authority and the overall organizational climate. In addition, the system of government of Saudi Arabia, the structure of its workforce, the development of the GCSB and the civil service system together with the nature of the labour market in Saudi Arabia will be discussed and analyzed.

In the second part of the project, questionnaires will be designed and distributed to university senior students, and personally administered to middle managers in both Ministries and public organizations in Saudi Arabia. The aim of this work will be to identify students' attitudes towards the policies of the GCSB in addition to examining what middle managers think of their current jobs and the types of jobs they aspire. Further, it will attempt to discover the reasons behind any preferences to work in one type of organization rather than the other.

The final part of the research will involve analysis of the data and will attempt to relate this to the theoretical literature discussed in Part One. On the strength of this it is hoped to make appropriate recommendations.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This thesis does not attempt to provide a general survey of the labour market in Saudi Arabia, nor does it claim to offer a quantitative assessment of the dynamics of that market. The thesis instead tries to concentrate on one aspect of the labour market in Saudi Arabia, that of civilian employees. The genesis of the study has been the large movement of civilian

employees formerly working in Ministries to public organizations and the private sector especially during the late 70's and early 80's. This study therefore attempts to examine and explore the characteristics of the structure of the labour market in Saudi Arabia - that is, job and location preferences of the Saudi civilian employees, and the social, economic and information constraints on labour mobility.

Primarily, the thesis will consist of eight chapters. Chapter 1 discusses Saudi Arabia, its traditions, customs, economy, and education. This provides an essential ground to what follows. Chapter 2 will discuss and examine the types of organization (i.e. Ministries and public organizations) existing in Saudi Arabia. The emphasis will be directed toward structure, pay and fringe benefits, and the general organizational climate of both types of organization. Chapter 3 will examine the development of the civil service and the General Civil Service Bureau (GCSB) which is responsible for recruiting, placing and planning all matters related to civilian employees. It will also examine the nature of the labour market in Saudi Arabia and the influence on this of the huge influx of expatriates into the country. Chapter 4 presents a survey of career development theories and job

satisfaction studies and attempts to find out whether there exists a relationship between career choice and job satisfaction. Chapter 5 undertakes a critical examination of research methodologies others have used to explore career development and job satisfaction. This chapter will consider the strengths and weaknesses of such methodologies, it will also examine the methodology of this particular research including the design of questionnaires, and the general problems which faced the researcher when gathering data in Saudi Arabia. Chapter 6 presents the attitudes and perceptions of the Saudi senior university students concerning the mechanisms of the labour market, and examines their preferences and attitudes towards the policies of the GCSB. Chapter 7 examines the attitudes of the main sample of this thesis, i.e. Saudi middle managers in two types of organisation in particular as regards to pay and fringe benefits, and their general satisfaction with their jobs and careers. Chapter 8 evaluates the results of the study and seeks to make appropriate recommendations for policy and future research.

1. In Ramadhan of 1405 (corresponding to June 1985) the Council of Ministers made it possible for university graduates to join either the private sector or the public sector. However, nothing has officially been declared by the General Civil Service Bureau at the time of the writing of this thesis.

CHAPTER 1SAUDI ARABIA: ITS EMERGENCE
TRADITION AND DEVELOPMENT

Before studying the features of Ministries, and public organizations in Saudi Arabia, it seems important to give an idea about the country - its geography, education, economy, and some aspects of its culture.

1.1 SAUDI ARABIA - GEOGRAPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia encompasses about four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula covering an area of about 865,000 square miles, most of which is uninhabited desert with little or no annual rainfall. Geographically, Saudi Arabia contains nine distinct regions. First, the gulf coastal region stretches from Kuwait to the United Arab Emirates and consists of shallow coast, salt flats, and flat gravel plains. The second region, called the Dahna, is an 800 mile long strip of desert arching across the west side of Arabia from the Great Nafud to the Empty Quarter. The Dahna is separated from the coast by the third region, a 100 mile wide plain of hard rock known as the Sumnian

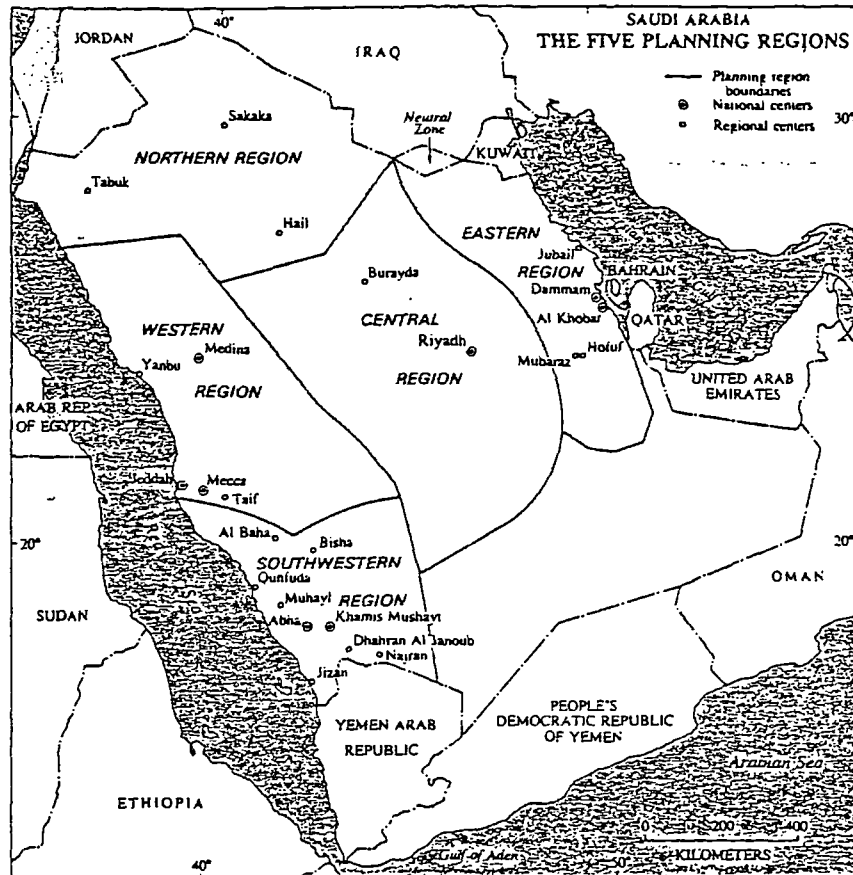


Figure 1: Map of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Source: Saudis in Transition: The Challenges of a Changing Labour Market, Ismail A. Sirageldin, et al, 1984.

plateau. The escarpment area engulfing the Najd is the fourth geographic region in Saudi Arabia and the 500 mile long Tuwaiq escarpment is the longest in the region. The fifth region, a vast expanse of gravel and rock plains, extends from the Great Nafud Desert in the north to the border of Jordan and Iraq. This area cuts across three countries and makes up a part of what is known as Syrian Desert.

The great sand areas constitute the sixth geographical region. These encompass hundreds of thousands of square miles and include such legendary deserts as the Great Nafud in the north and the Empty Quarter in the south. The western mountains and the central plateau immediately to the east of these mountains are the seventh and eighth geographic regions. To the south of these two regions lie the mountains of Southern Arabia which separate Saudi Arabia from the two Yemens and the Dhufari region of Oman; these mountains comprise the ninth region (see Figure 1). These regions vary in elevation from 3,000 feet in the central plateau to more than 10,000 feet in the highest parts of the south. (Nakhleh, 1975, p. 5).

Saudi Arabia is divided administratively into five provinces,¹ each being headed by a governor or Amir, and most of whom are members of the Royal Family.

The five provinces of Saudi Arabia are:

- a. Central Province (Najd), main cities: Riyadh, which is the national capital and the centre of all government activities; Unayza, Burayda, Al-Majma'a and Al-Kharj.
- b. Western Province (Hejaz), main cities: Jeddah, the foremost seaport and commercial and diplomatic capital of the Kingdom,² Makkah, the holiest city of Moslems, and Taif, a major tourist resort, major agricultural centre and summer time seat of government.
- c. Eastern Province (Al-Hasa), main cities: Dammam, a major seaport and industrial centre; Al-Khobar, a residential and commercial centre; Dhahran, the centre of operation of the province's oil fields and the site of international airport serving the eastern province of Saudi Arabia; Al-Qatif, and Al-Hafouf.
- d. Northern Province, main cities: Medina, the house of prophet Mohammad and the second most important and holiest city of Moslems; and Tabuk.
- e. Southern Province (Asir), main cities: Abha and Khamis Mushait.

1.2 THE HISTORICAL EMERGENCE OF SAUDI ARABIA

Saudi Arabia is considered by all Moslems as the holiest land on earth. It is where Makkah, the house of God, and Medina, the house of prophet Mohammad are located. Since all Moslems regard Saudi Arabia as the defender of the holiest cities; its ruling elites must apply Islamic regulations domestically as well as internationally. In early days, after the founding and spread of Islam in Arabia, government remained a highly localised function depending on individual leadership qualities and involving changing tribal or settlement alliances. The origins of the contemporary Saudi State lies in the eighteenth century. In the latter part of that century, an Islamic teacher, Mohammad Ibin Abdal-Wahhab emerged. He offered a vision of policy based exclusively on Islamic religion's holy book - the Koran. His message stressed the need to return to the basic teachings of the Koran. Mohammad Ibin Abdal-Wahhab allied himself with Mohammad bin Saud, an able and ambitious warrior who was based in the settlement of Deriya near present-day Riyadh. Within the Saud-Wahhab alliance a working relationship was established in which Mohammad bin Saud committed himself to a jihad or holy war, on behalf of Wahhabi objectives; in return Mohammad bin Saud was recognized

as imam of the true faith (i.e. a religious leader) and secular leader of the movement. The Saud-Wahhabi alliance formed in the eighteenth century remains the basis of the dynasty that rules Saudi Arabia today.

The combination of religious zealotry and able military and political leadership by the Saud and Wahhab families led to a rapid expansion of the movement which believers refer to as Wahhabism. By 1811 Wahhabism established its dominance in the whole of Najd and Al-Hasa regions and its followers gained control of Makkah, Medina and Jeddah in the west. Their armies also operated as far north as Aleppo and as far east as Iraq. The Ottoman government, alarmed at the growth of the movement, sent an Egyptian army to re-establish Ottoman control over the area that had fallen. In 1817 the Egyptian army captured the Key Wahhab settlement and destroyed the settlement of Deriya, the base of Wahhabism; but within two decades the Saud family had re-established a base in Riyadh close to the destroyed settlement of Deriya and regained effective control over the central Najd area.

From 1830 to the end of the century, disagreement within the Saud family permitted the Rashid family from Hayil to gain control over much of the central and eastern areas of Arabia. In 1890, the

Rashid captured Riyadh and defeated the Saud family. The latter went into voluntary exile, first to Bahrain, then to Qatar, and finally to Kuwait. In 1902 the Saud family re-established their base in central Arabia as a result of a daring raid led by twenty-two year old Abdulaziz bin Saud. This resulted in the recapture of Riyadh. It was this event that shaped modern history of Saudi Arabia. In the subsequent half century Abdulaziz defeated his northern adversaries, the Rashids. At the outbreak of World War I, bin Saud's domain was extended to the Arabian Gulf when he captured Al-Hasa region, on the eastern border of the country, from the Turks in 1913. The capture of Al-Hasa brought bin Saud into close contact with the British Empire which had been watching the development in Arabia for the last decade. Britain was not interested in engaging itself in tribal quarrels because Arabia was too poor to interest the British as a colony; the only interest they had was the protection of their route to India.

The British government's active support of Sharif Hussein of the Hejaz, who was a descendant of Prophet Mohammad, encouraged him to declare himself King of all the Arabs in 1916. In 1917, bin Saud successfully won the chief of the oasis of Khurma, on the north-

eastern tip of Arabia, to his side. Under the command of his son Faisal, the predecessor of King Khalid, bin Saud sent a force of tribesmen to capture Asir. By 1920, all Arabia but the Hejaz was brought under the control of bin Saud. By 1925 bin Saud has conquered the Hejaz and the rest of the Asir and driven the Hashemites into exile. With the collapse of the British supported Hashemite government in Hejaz, Abdulaziz attained his main territorial objectives. He then began to consolidate his position by eliminating what he considered as the major abuses in the administration of Haj that had occurred during the Hashemite regime, for example corruption, absence of law and order, etc. He also sought to avoid actions that would serve as an excuse for the British or other powers to challenge his authority within his newly won territory. In this, he was successful and in negotiations with the British he gained de facto recognition of his conquests.

In 1932 the three principal areas of Al-Hasa, the Najd, and Hejaz were combined to form the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Abdulaziz bin Saud was declared King.³

1.3 DEMOGRAPHY

Saudi Arabia is basically a tribally-based community. For centuries, the pattern of political loyalty in this community was hierarchical, with authority focused on the Sheikh or tribal chieftain.

Over the last fifty years and even for the present day there is no reliable data on the population of Saudi Arabia. The population estimates fluctuate between 9 million and 6 million. In a recent article, 'The Economist' gives a population figure of about 9 million which includes 2 million foreigners brought into the country to man the expanding economy, (The Economist, Feb. 19, 1983, p. 26). These widely varying figures are likely to make any economic development plan unreliable. As some officials have observed, the problem of making an accurate population count is complicated by the fact that perhaps one-third⁴ of the population are shepherds who live nomadic lives, moving from one place to another in search of water and green grass. In addition to this, no accurate census of foreigners present in Saudi Arabia exists.

Some statistics suggest that their numbers are about twice those of the Saudi population; other statistical data suggests that foreigners are equal or perhaps fewer than the Saudis in number.⁵ The latter

data seems more probable. Nevertheless, whatever the exact figure might be, Saudi Arabia's qualitative and quantitative weaknesses in collecting and analysing demographic data have seriously constrained the formulation and implementation of economic policies (see discussion on Economy, 1.5 below). This is particularly important since Saudi Arabia's small population cannot sustain wide-ranging industrial and agricultural growth, hence any expansion in the economy must depend on the importation of foreign labour (Al-Neaim, 1980). The reason behind this manpower deficiency in Saudi Arabia is attributable to the relatively small population of the country, further the majority of the population is illiterate. It was for this reason that the Saudi Arabian planners concentrated on education as the main source of supplying the country with qualified manpower in the Third and Fourth Development Plans of the country (further on this see 1.4 below). Despite the government endeavours to solve the problems of employment, there are still great difficulties in filling positions, especially technical, in many crucial areas of employment. This could be attributed to the low motivation of the Saudis, who did not desire manual and technical work, therefore, they limited their

participation to military, quasi military, and government administration.

1.4 EDUCATION

According to Islamic teachings, education is the right of the people and therefore this should be positively encouraged by Islamic governments. Since the principles of Saudi Arabian government are based on Islamic teachings, education has been given great emphasis despite the fact that there have been cultural difficulties concerning the education of girls and young women. Since the early 1960's the main obstacles to better and wider education were these. (Sparrow, 1970, p. 73).

- (i) Conservative elements in the country (especially family heads who were strongly religious but illiterate) were basically opposed to general public education, believing that it would only lead to unrest and dissatisfaction.
- (ii) The same elements were resolutely opposed to the education of girls because they believe that education corrupts women and thus turns their minds from their primary duty of being good wives and mothers.
- (iii) Saudi teachers except at University level were

poorly qualified.⁶ This meant that educational standards could not rise until the teachers themselves were better trained.

- (iv) Nearly half the nation who were nomadic and bedouin have for centuries opposed all forms of state 'interference'. By and large, they were disinclined even to recognise national frontiers, though they recognised their ancient grazing areas wherever these might be. They refused to accept any form of identification and notices and since they lacked a permanent place of residence, they were a difficult problem for governments to deal with, especially since they usually failed to respond to bureaucratic contracts.⁷

In the mid 1960's, the above mentioned difficulties led King Faisal to adopt the following measures. (Sparrow, 1970, p. 74):

- a. The bedouins were made the subject of extensive plans to induce them to participate more fully in the general life of the nation (e.g. creation of permanent settlements, urbanisation programmes, etc.).⁸
- b. The standards of teacher training, especially at the elementary level, were constantly raised.

c. The conservative elements that had tried to obstruct all education were gradually persuaded to withdraw their opposition although they made a last stand on a narrow front by opposing the education of women. In this matter the late King Faisal then took a decisive step of entrusting some of the major opponents of the government policy with female education. Finding themselves charged with the duty of initiating action in this area, the latter capitulated and began to co-operate.⁹

Nowadays, almost all educational facilities, at whatever level, are available to men and women alike. The government's objective is to provide free education to all nationals of school-going age. To popularise education, the government has granted liberal financial assistance in the form of grants to the students. The total number of students enrolled in the term 1980/81 is 1,528,431, excluding those enrolled in vocational training centres, technical schools and institutions run by Ministries other than the Ministry of Education, (Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency, 1981, p. 85). This can be compared with an approximate figure of 250,000 a decade ago and a much lower number in the earlier periods.

In particular, higher education has experienced remarkable progress. There are now seven universities and nine girls colleges in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia with total enrolled students of 54,397 in 1980/81 (see Table 1-1). This figure can be compared with four universities and probably three girls colleges 10 years ago. As was mentioned earlier, all students graduating either from local universities or abroad are required to work for the government for each year of schooling the government has paid for. This constitutes important manpower resource of government organizations.

1.5 THE ECONOMY

The Saudi Arabian economy can be viewed as falling into two main sectors: (a) a highly capital intensive oil sector, and (b) a labour intensive non-oil sector. Saudi Arabia's economy is centered on the production of oil. The discovery of oil in Saudi Arabia needs some elaboration. In 1933 an oil concession was granted, for an initial payment of £ 30,000 to Standard Oil of California. The Company discovered the first commercially exploitable field in 1938 and exported the first oil in 1939. The Second World War inhibited the company from pressing ahead of

TABLE 1-1

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE
KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

	Students			Teaching Staff		
	1399-00 1979-80	1400-01 1980-81	Incr- ease %	1399-00 1979-80	1400-01* 1980-81	Incr- ease %
<u>Institutions^a</u>						
Riyadh University ^b	13,124	14,238	8.5	1,321	1,644	24.5
King Abdulaziz University	19,287	21,745	12.7	1,206	1,424	18.1
University of Petro- leum and Minerals ^c	2,794	3,054	9.3	552	621	12.5
King Faisal University	1,158	1,430	23.5	385	505	31.2
Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud University	5,919	5,870	-0.8	507	692	36.5
Islamic University	2,271	2,739	20.6	239	350	46.5
Girls College	<u>3,437</u>	<u>5,321</u>	<u>54.8</u>	<u>576</u>	<u>710</u>	<u>23.3</u>
	47,990	54,397	13.4	4,786	5,946	24.2

* Islamic Hijra dates.

Source: Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (Annual Report, 1981, p. 91).

- a. Not include Umul Qura University in Makkah.
- b. Renamed King Saud University.
- c. Renamed King Fahad Univesity.

production facilities. It was, therefore, not until the late 1940's that substantial quantities of oil were being exported from Saudi Arabia and substantial revenues were being received.

Despite the influx of oil revenues from the late 1940's extensive development expenditure is a comparatively recent phenomenon. The limited sums allocated to development projects in the late 1950's and the 1960's were not of such a nature as to transform the economy. It is only since the oil price rises of 1973-74 brought vastly increased resources into the Saudi treasury that a fundamental transformation of the economy has been attempted. The Second and Third Five Year Plans (1976-80 and 1980-85 respectively) have laid the framework for this transformation - in the industrial, agricultural and service sectors. The key element in the programme is constituted by the construction of a massive petrochemical industry, based on two 'growth poles' Jubail in the Eastern province and Yanbu in the Western province. Whatever may be the case, the distinctive features of the Saudi economy can be summarised as follows, (Nabti, 1980, p. 23):

- (i) The dominance of the oil sector: crude oil production and refining accounted for 86.6 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 1975 and

about 3 percent of the total labour force were employed in this sector.

- (ii) In 1975, the amount of construction, transport and trade relative to other productive sectors accounted for about 67 percent of non-oil GDP.
- (iii) The agriculture sector holds a relatively low position in GDP formulation - about 0.8 percent of GDP and 5 percent of total non-oil GDP, although 40 to 50 percent of the total labour force are engaged in agricultural activities.
- (iv) The manufacturing sector has minor status and is dominated by the oil sector. In 1971 non-oil manufacturing accounted for about 6 percent of non-oil GDP and about 2 percent of total GDP. During the same year employment in this sector was reported to be about 13,000 workers. The largest enterprises in this sector are concentrated in petroleum and chemicals. Most of these operations are capital intensive offering limited employment opportunities.

Recognising the dangers in depending on oil as the main source of income, Saudi Arabian policy makers are trying to diversify the economy. In 1970 they initiated national Development Plans which were intended to transform the country from a traditional feudal economy into a modern industrial state.

Effective economic planning and industrial development began with the creation of the General Petroleum and Minerals Organization (Petromin) in 1962, (Nakhleh, 1975, p. 14). Petromin was designed as an independent government agency to administer and coordinate petroleum and mineral projects, to import essential raw material, and to conduct studies on every aspect of petroleum and mineral operations. Petromin's diversified approach, which included not only industrial, but also to a limited extent agricultural development, can be seen in the numerous projects which have come into being since 1962. Three of the major projects that have been initiated by Petromin have already started production. A steel rolling mill at Jeddah began production in 1968 with an annual capacity of 45,000 tons of bars and steel sheets. Another Petromin project is Jeddah Oil Refinery, which also started production in 1968 with an initial capacity of 12,000 barrels per day. A

third Petromin project was the establishment of SAFCO: Saudi Arabian Fertilizer Company which became operational in 1969, (SAMA: Annual Report, 1970/71, pp. 62-65).

Generally speaking, from 1962 to 1970 the Saudi government and Petromin laid the foundation for the rapid economic growth of the last 10 years. Starting in 1970, the government of Saudi Arabia initiated the First National Development Plan. This operated over the period 1970 to 1975. During this time, almost every sector of the economy developed rapidly, especially small to medium range industries, construction, communications and transportation networks. The general objectives of the First Five-Year Plan aimed "to increase the productive capacity, living standards and welfare of the people of Saudi Arabia, while providing for national security and maintaining economic and social stability along the path of development." (Guidelines for Development Plan '70-75' p. 4). The plan had specific objectives that included increasing the rate of growth of the economy, in order to reduce the dependence on oil as the main source of national income, and to raise the standard of living of all Saudi nationals.

The Second Five-Year Plan (1975-1980, p.4) aimed at achieving the development goals which were expressed broadly as follows:

- a. To maintain the religious and moral values of Islam.
- b. To assure the defence and internal security of the Kingdom.
- c. To maintain a high rate of economic growth by developing economic resources, maximising earning from oil over the long term, and conserving depletable resources.
- d. To reduce economic dependence on exports of crude oil.
- e. To develop human resources by educating and training, and raising health standards.
- f. To increase the well being of all groups within the society and foster social stability under circumstances of rapid social change.
- g. To develop the physical infrastructure to support the achievement of the above goals.

From the above it is apparent that diversification and industrialisation were the major targets of the Second Development Plan (e.g. the establishment of modern industrial estates in Jubail in the Eastern Province and Yanbu in the west side of Saudi Arabia). This has

been emphasized in the Third Five-Year Plan (1980-1985, p. 16) which:

"has a deliberate limitation on the future growth of the total numbers of foreign manpower. Instead, it concentrates on maximising the utilisation of domestic and foreign skilled manpower, through emphasising capital intensive development in hydro-carbon and other manufacturing industries, in agriculture, and in mining. This will accelerate diversification which is one of the dominant structural objectives of the whole economic development process."

As can be seen from the discussion of the Development Plans above, the recent sudden wealth of the Kingdom was accompanied by a commitment of the government to rapid economic development. However, the main problem of executing these Development Plans appeared to have been the shortage of well-qualified and trained manpower. Saudi Arabia's national workforce is relatively small, with almost half the population (women) not effectively participating in the economic development for cultural and religious reasons (in spite of the education progress mentioned earlier). In addition (as we have seen) the majority of nationals are inadequately educated. Despite the fact that

accurate figures are difficult to obtain, it is estimated that no more than 10 percent of the entire Saudi labour force, probably close to 1 million people, have completed their primary education, (Kauerhase, 1975, p. 128). Consequently, the economy depends heavily on expatriate labour, both quantitatively and qualitatively. Non-nationals tend to dominate the construction and manufacturing sectors, whereas nationals work mainly in agriculture, or in services, mostly in government or quasi-government employment, (Nakhleh, 1975, p. 161).

The lack of adequately educated and trained manpower has given rise to these potentially serious situations:

- (i) Many of the Civil Service positions remained unfilled.
- (ii) Approximately 50 to 75 percent of the positions requiring advanced degrees and/or training are staffed by non-Saudis (e.g. Petro-chemicals; Computer...).
- (iii) Many Saudis are unable to enter the work force due to lack of training in employable skills (e.g. Bedouins and similar groups).

After introducing the major features of Saudi Arabia, it seems appropriate to examine further some

aspects of the Saudi culture which are thought to shape the general attitudes of the Saudi society so that a general profile can be developed.

1.6 SOME ASPECTS OF THE SAUDI CULTURE

In spite of the economic changes which are being brought about in Saudi Arabia today, the country is still faithful to its tradition. It is a land of contrasts, in its national environment and in its response to the recent technological changes. Changes that in other countries have been spread out over several generations are being accomplished in a few short years. Diesel trucks and jet planes are replacing the camel caravans, but the camel has not yet been discarded. Modern architecture and broad tree-lined avenues are replacing mudbrick houses on twisting streets, but mudbrick buildings are still evident. Nomads are beginning to drive from place to place, but it is common to see a pick-up truck or Mercedes parked beside a traditional tent, (Successful Transition into Saudi Arabia, Saudi Arabian Airlines, 1977, p. 18). Any person will probably be surprised at the country's modern appearance especially the larger cities like Jeddah, Riyadh, and Dammam. Although the oil money is rapidly changing the face of Saudi Arabia, and the

traditional life-style is being challenged by the impact of Western technological change, the country remains conservative and tends to be faithful to its orthodox interpretation of Islam and true to its cultural heritage.

Thus the following few pages intend to examine some of the important culture points that seem to affect and influence the behaviour of the Saudis.

1.6.1 The Religion of Islam

The impact of Islam on the culture and society of the Middle East and particularly on Saudi Arabia cannot be overstated. It is the source of all activities of the government and it is an all embracing way of life affecting Muslim and non-Muslim alike. Islam, the faith of more than 600 million people, is a religion of total submission to the will of God. According to Muslims, elements of their religion, were revealed through a line of prophets, but the full and final revelation was given to prophet Mohammed and later embodied in written form as the Holy Koran. In Islam, there are no priests, or ministers or congregations like those in Christian churches. The religious concept is one of direct relationship between the individual and God. The importance of the religion of Islam to the Muslim world and especially to Saudi

Arabia, since it is the guardian of the holy cities of Makkah and Al-Medina, stems from the fact that:

- (i) Five duties are prescribed for all Muslims - profession of faith, prayer, almsgiving, fasting, and pilgrimage to Makkah. Each duty is described in the Holy Koran, and further elaborated on by the Sunna, i.e. the sayings and practices of prophet Mohammad, and has been amplified and refined by legally appointed religious scholars through the ages. These duties are still strictly followed in Saudi Arabia and thus have a pervasive influence on Saudi attitudes, feelings, and behaviour.
- (ii) The constitution and legal system of Saudi Arabia are based on Islamic law called the Shariah. This tells the believer how to live righteously, and the community at large how to conduct its affairs, spiritual and temporal. There is no secular law as such in Saudi Arabia.
- (iii) Although many of the old teachings are being interpreted a little more liberally today in line with the requirement of modernization, the orthodox ties remain important, and in any conflict between religious and political considerations of principles, those of religion usually take preference.

Hence, for Saudi Arabians, it is not only the importance of Islam as a major source of social values and norms that complete the institutionalization of Islamic doctrine and teaching, but also its effect as the source of all legal and political acts that perpetuates and enforce such an institutionalization. One expert on Arab culture made this clear when he pointed out that religion is the fundamental motivating force in most aspects of Arab culture and has its say in particularly every act and moment in life. It is a complete civilisation by itself, it is interested even in the most ordinary act of the individual. That is the observance of the traditional forms of rites, whether of the official or popular kind, as an integral part of everyday life. Therefore, the Saudi system is permeated with religion which holds supreme sway over the great majority of the population, (Al-Awaji, 1971, p. 68).

1.6.2 The Effect of the Family

The family is the strongest unifying force after Islam. An Arab is usually known by the family to which he belongs, and his loyalty and duty to his family are greater than any other social obligation. The individual is responsible for the well-being of his family

and if he fails in his role he is regarded as a disreputable character but does not lose his membership of the family. He carries out his acts in terms of his family and therefore his behaviour in various life situations is mainly an expression of his family patterns. Moreover, a Western observer once wrote "... it becomes evident that an individual derives both status and role entirely from the position of his family and from his position within the family. The greater part of his activities are related to some degree within those of other members of his group," (Davis, 1949, p. 249).

If this is to indicate anything, it seems to demonstrate that all relations in Saudi Arabia are tied to Islamic regulations and family considerations. The following few pages will take a closer look at the Saudi Arabian culture, in particular essential customs, norms and practices which reflect the cultural system of the society.

1.6.3 Essential Customs and Norms of the Saudi Arabian Society

(a) The Concept of Fatalism:

One of the most important characteristics of Saudi life is fatalism which means that whatever happens to anybody is "God's will" and hence there is

little a person can do to change the course of events.¹⁰ This stems from the fact that all Muslims believe that God controls all workings of the universe and when he creates human beings, their destiny, happiness, and misery is already assigned. This does not mean that man or woman should not exert effort and find out about opportunities in life, it rather means anybody should accept what God has assigned to him or her despite the fact that he or she have their own deterministic behaviour.

Unfortunately, fatalistic attitudes have produced negative consequences towards creativity, authority, and the utility of time. This point has been further elaborated by Al-Awaji (pp. 76-77) when he notes ".... 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 or she simply tends to accept his family's prerogatives, his superior's authority 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. He values and seeks the approval from his fellow-men, for he lives in a society where the familial group is the basic social

unit, and the individual finds it hard to survive socially if he chooses to go his own way. And, as he submits to the power of his group, he gives up his own personal freedom. Furthermore, accustomed to accepting his father's patriarchal authority within the family, the individual transfers the same patterns of obedience to the environment of his job in which he displays almost full submission to his superior. Thus, from the socialization process which requires that the child should pay full respect to his fathers and elders, the individual begins to shape his own conception of authority in general." The concept of accepting the authority seems to have its roots in the concept of fatalism which generally shape the expectation of the individual from his work.

(b) Saudis Attitudes Towards Time:

The misconception by individuals of the actual meaning of fatalism has produced negative consequences. One of which is the passive attitude toward the use of time. Saudis do not seem to budget their time in the same way as the Western societies do. Time is a much more flexible commodity in the Arab world. This has resulted in the fact that work does not appear to have

the same intrinsic high value as the Western society. Thus, most work activities are taken as a leisurely pace. Saudis generally try to avoid long tiresome working hours. They also do not like to be 'hurried' in performing their working duties as "haste comes from the Devil" according to an ancient Arab proverb, and it is therefore avoided. Most of the Saudis live a very simple life as a result of their non-materialistic attitudes. The traditional pattern of living can be said to be routine-oriented. People in general accept the status quo of things and the individual becomes accustomed to not exceeding his community expectations. Elaborating on this point, Al-Awaji (1971, p. 77) argues ".... time is valued as important only to the extent that the socially sanctioned responsibilities are fulfilled. In other words, people are not internally motivated toward achievement but rather the maintenance of the status quo."

Hence, the Saudi belief in predistination, particularly in daily life, can make attempts of planned change futile. Being bound by the predetermined will of God, the Saudi's find it difficult to commit themselves to any given course of action. This is reflected in the Saudis frequent recourse of the Arabic expression "Insha Allah" which means "if God wills". The

negative attitude of the Saudis toward time has also been noticed by Holden (1966, p. 123) who commented that ".... 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."

Such a feeling of inevitability is seldom consciously perceived. Rather, it appears to the subconscious view of the order of things. This is not to imply that the Saudis take no responsibility for their actions. They sincerely believe that no matter how much they personally want something to take place and work hard to make it happen, it will not happen if 'God is not willing'. Insha Allah then is a cultural reflex. A person will find it less irritating if he translates it or interprets it to mean "if possible" or "if all goes well", or "I hope so". It is often a yet with a safety valve. Despite this, the negative attitude toward time has seriously affected the

execution of tactic plans. The Saudis feel that the time frame of any plan should be loose, they feel no pressure from deadlines. A Saudi plan usually indicates directions and provides priorities, with revision expected along the way. In Western countries, planning is generally synonymous with budgeting, goals, values and priorities that cannot be monetized seem not to exist. On the other hand, the Saudis partly because of their extra-ordinary oil income and non-materialistic attitudes, seldom bother to match up proposed projects and available money very closely, (Montgomery, 1980, p. 159).

(c) The Importance of the Group:

As was seen above, the family in Saudi Arabia constitutes a major element in the society. The Arab is known by the family to which he belongs. As a consequence, the Arab community is a collection of groups rather than of individuals. For all the Arabs mutual cooperation between families and groups is imperative. The interest of the individual is normally subordinated to those in the family, from the binding traditional principles of loyalty and responsibility as well as for the sake of convenience and mutual

advantage. In return for this loyalty and services, the individual receives family support and security, and above all self-fulfillment, for kinship is in many cases, a powerful source of prestige and social status. This predominance of the social and collective attitude over the individual has its roots in the powerful impact and control of tradition and religion. This point has been elaborated further by Montgomery (1980, p. 155) when he said: "... a Saudi identifies with his group and his community far more directly and intensely than is common in the West. The communal strength may emanate from a shared bedouin legacy and language, espousal of the same ideals and assertion of identical Islamic solidarities. All of these attributes provide an impressive commonality of fundamentals based primarily upon the belief that the Saudis are guardians of Islamic traditions and language."

Due to these Islamic codes of conduct, an individual becomes more concerned with how to avoid the disapproval or condemnation of his particular group and the community at large than the fulfilling of his own self interest, and because of the strong family assertions, personal relationships have become the centre of all the individual's obligations and responsibilities. As a consequence of this, the Arab is not

used to being impartial and objective in assessing jobs, or distributing benefits. To take care first of one's own people, irrespective of merit, or order priority, is his duty. This commitment to serving one's own relatives has resulted in nepotism, corruption, and irrational administrative policies and actions in Saudi Arabia, (Al-Awaji, 1971, p. 79). Therefore, it may be expected that many Saudis are hired not because they possess necessary job skills, but rather because they are part of management's extended family structure. In such cases the hiring decision is not related to the construction of a job for which someone is to be selected, but rather the opposite. Thus, despite the fact that this problem seems to be decreasing at the present time, it still constitutes a major problem facing employers in Saudi Arabia and seemingly affecting the career development and satisfaction of organizational members. (This issue is developed later).

1.7 CONCLUSION

Saudi Arabia was a tribal community. The origins of the contemporary Saudi State lie in the early eighteenth century. As a result of the alliance between Mohammad Ibin Abdul Wahhab (a religious leader), and Mohammad Ibin Saud (an ambitious warrior), Saudi Arabia started to appear on the political scene. The

alliance resulted in the adoption of the Wahabi teachings which were based on the teachings of the Holy Koran, and more importantly resulted in assigning Ibin Saud as a political figure ruling Saudi Arabia. The alliance has also resulted in the unification of different parts of Saudi Arabia by Ibin Saud after whom the country was named.

The extension of the system of government organization was brought about by the initiation of oil production. This new sector of the economy made necessary new forms of administration, and the expansion of infrastructure and services which followed from the receipt of oil revenues in turn required a more elaborate administrative system (details of the establishment of government ministries will be the subject of Chapter 2) The influx of oil revenues especially after the rises of prices in 1973-74 has resulted in a more planned economy.

Accordingly, diversification of the economy was sought in order to decrease the dependence on oil revenues, this has resulted in the establishment of two huge industrial complexes in Jubail and Yanbu. In order to maintain these complexes and similar projects, the country needs well-qualified personnel. Unfortunately, Saudi Arabia is faced with sharp

shortage of well qualified people to man its own economy, an issue which resulted on the importation of large number of expatriates. An analysis of the Saudi labour market will be given in Chapter 3.

The forces of traditionalism and modernism can be seen working together in Saudi Arabia. In spite of making serious efforts to industrialise the country, Saudi Arabia is still faithful to the religion of Islam and remains to a large extent a conservative monarchy. The strict adherence to the religion has seriously affected the attitudes of the Saudis toward many aspects of their lives. The cooperation between families and the assistance of next of kin has become imperative - an issue which has resulted in nepotism and corruption and irrational forms of administrative policies (these issues are developed in the subsequent chapters).

The following chapter will examine the organizational contexts of both Saudi government and public organizations.

NOTES ON CHAPTER 1

1. In 1932, when Saudi Arabia emerged as a political entity, there were only three main provinces: Central, Eastern, and Western; Northern and Southern provinces were added recently.
2. The government of Saudi Arabia was planning to transfer all foreign embassies to the capital Riyadh by the end of 1985. This has already been accomplished.
3. For more elaboration on the point, see John Philby: "Saudi Arabia", New York: Praeger, 1955.
4. Some writers have estimated the Bedouins as constituting nearly half the population, (see for example J. Jerald Sparrow: "Modern Saudi Arabia", McGraw Hill, 1970, p. 3).
5. The problem is complicated since not all foreigners are in productive occupations.
6. At that period (during the 60's and 70's) many teachers especially in elementary schools came from neighbouring Arab countries, especially Egypt, i.e. they were not Saudi nationals.

7. Since the increasing urbanisation of the 1970's Bedouins do not constitute as substantial a proportion of the population as they used to.
8. For more details on this point, see for example H. Al Said: "The Transition from a Tribal Society to a Nation State", in R. El-Mallakh Saudi Arabia: Energy, Developmental Planning and Industrialisation, 1982, pp. 99-105.
9. The reason for this is not certain, but seems likely to be linked to the superior authority of the King. It is of importance to note that the agency responsible for girls education is the general Presidency of Girls Education and not the Ministry of Education. The former is normally headed by religious people.
10. F. Muna in his book: The Arab Executive, elaborated on the concept of fatalism. He did not agree completely with the notion that Arabs are fatalistic in the sense that they have no deterministic behaviour. This is a result of a misconception of the true meaning of fatalism (see pp. 93-98 of his book).

CHAPTER 2THE ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT: A
COMPARISON OF MINISTRIES AND
PUBLIC AGENCIES IN SAUDI ARABIA2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Saudi Arabia, as in most countries of the world, there are two major economically active sectors: the public sector and the private sector. The public sector in Saudi Arabia can be divided into two main groups of organizations - Ministries which are institutions completely run and supervised by government; and public organizations which can be identified as being semi-autonomous, have some financial and administrative independence, and are not totally controlled by government. This freedom of action of public organizations, even though it is relative, has given the general public an impression that public organizations are better organised, less routine-oriented, and more attractive to work for. The following few pages will explore these issues in both types of organization in Saudi Arabia.

2.2 THE NATURE OF GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC
AGENCIES IN SAUDI ARABIA2.2.1 The System of Government

Saudi Arabia, as we have seen earlier, is a conservative monarchy ruled by a King whose authority

rests on the support of the Royal Family together with that of an influential body of religious scholars and tribal groups.

The constitutional basis of government is lodged in Islamic law. Saudi religious conservatism and support for a strict adherence to the faith are based on the Wahhabi movement (see previous chapter). Therefore, Islam influences all aspects of Saudi life, not simply as a state religion but also since it is the very basis of the state. The Koran, the holy book of Moslems, is more than a holy book of Islamic religion, it is all encompassing social, political and economic code by which all Saudi Arabians live. Hence, Islamic religion can be viewed as a crucial constituent of Saudi Arabia's value system.

Administratively, the legislative and executive powers in Saudi Arabia are combined and vested in the Council of Ministers headed by the King himself. The Council of Ministers was founded in late 1953. It consists of a president (the King), Vice President, ministers in charge of various Ministries, and ministers without portfolio in addition to Royal Councilors. The main functions of the Council of Ministers can be summarised as follows, (Kauerhase, 1975,p.31):

"It will lay down policy of the state with respect to internal and foreign affairs, finance the economy, education, defence, and all public affairs, and shall see the execution thereof. It possesses regulatory authority and administrative authority. It is final authority for financial affairs and for all matters connected with the previous Ministries of the state and all other government departments, and shall decide what measures should be taken in those matters. Treaties and international agreements shall not be considered effective until approved by the Council. The decisions of the Council of Ministers are final except for those which require the issuing of a Royal Decree or order in accordance with the provisions of those regulations."

From this one can infer that control over economic, administrative and social policies rests with the King and the Council of Ministers. Power is therefore highly centralised. Decisions are taken in the Council of Ministers and following this only ministers themselves have the right to execute them. It can be generally assumed that in ruler dominated administrative systems, such as the case of Saudi Arabia, there is a tendency toward a heavy concentration of authority

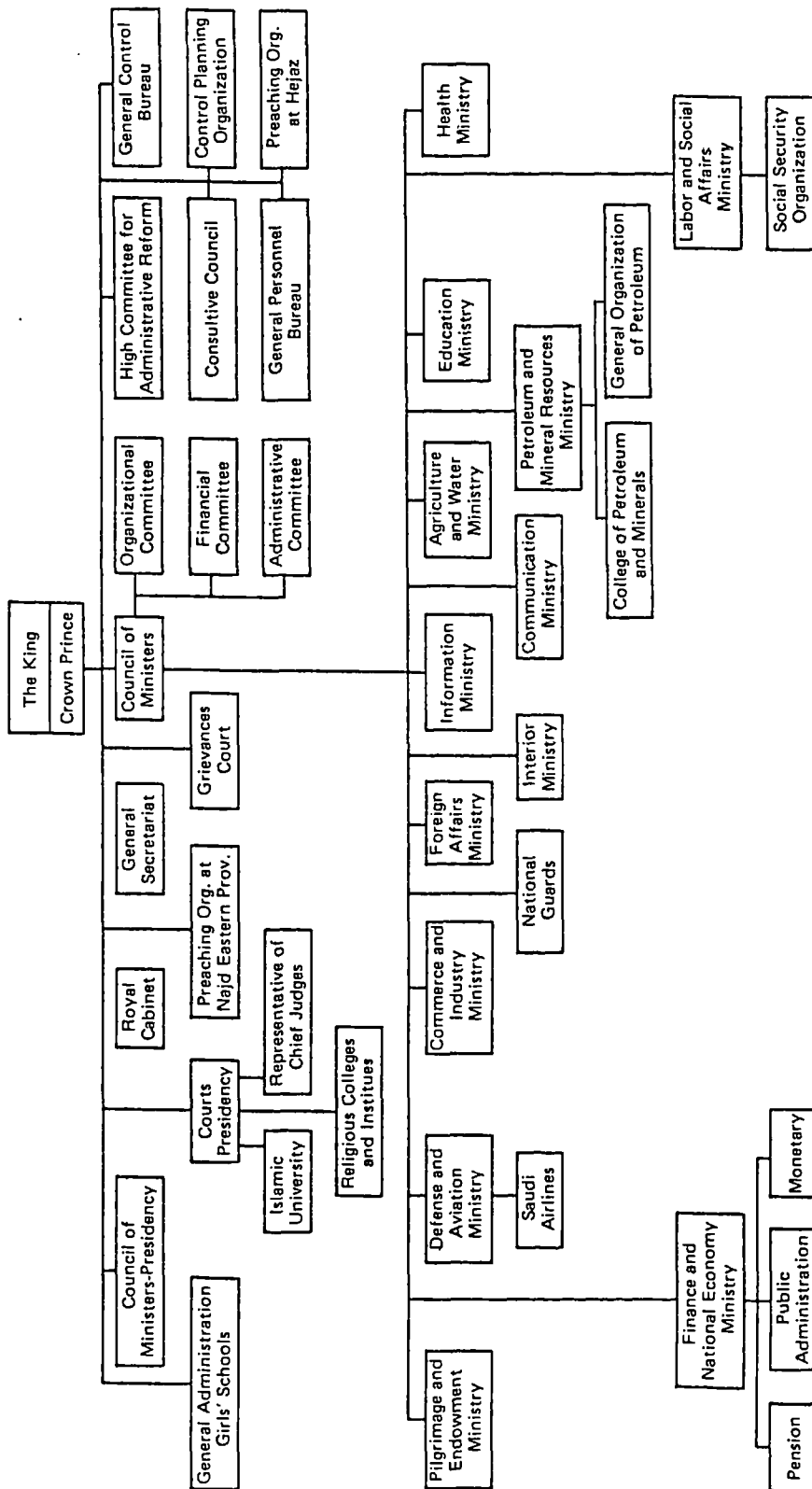


Figure 2. Governmental organization in the year 1964-1965 -- Source: Sateg (1965, p. 19).

at the top of administrative hierarchies and diffusion of authority below. Coordination is achieved by direct supervision and intervention by those at the top in the day-to-day affairs of those at the lowest levels. Authority is not readily delegated nor is individual responsibility readily accepted. There is little standardization of skills or work processes. This is accompanied by a tendency toward a careless mismatching of job requirements and skills. Planning takes a back seat to crisis management. The style of administration may not seem effective from a Western perspective but it is predictable especially in a stable political environment such as Saudi Arabia. Accordingly, the Saudi government organizations found the classical Weberian model as the most suitable to run its operations.¹ On the grounds of the principles of Weberian model, government organizational structure was designed. Figure 2 shows the Saudi government organizational structure.

It is apparent from this organizational chart that there are 14 ministeries.² These are headed by a Minister whose power in relation to his Ministry can be viewed as similar to the power of the King in relation to the Council of Ministers. Within the Ministry, the Minister has the final say in financial

and administrative matters. A degree of centralization and hierarchical authority therefore characterises almost every government organization in Saudi Arabia. This situation almost paralyses the normal functioning of government agencies and creates many organizational problems such as resistance to change and an acute sensitivity to criticism. These issues have been mentioned in the Second Development Plan (1975-1980, p. 571) of Saudi Arabia:

"The rapid increase in the budgetary allocation of economic and social development over the period of the first five-year plan has severely strained the capacity of the government administrative system, which was already encumbered by over-centralization and not enough delegation of managerial, financial and personnel authorities to executive level."

Having discussed the system of government of Saudi Arabia, we now turn to a more specific issue of the organization of the government through the Cabinet.

2.2.2 The Cabinet

Given the huge oil revenues, the government has taken decisions to increase services. As stated above, the Saudi Cabinet consisted of 14 Ministers represented

in the Council of Ministers. The new Cabinet formed in October 1975 increased the number of Ministries from fourteen to twenty. This was the largest Cabinet in the Kingdom's history. A significant and interesting part of this re-organization was that out of the twenty-three Ministers appointed, eight of them held a Doctor of Philosophy degree from either the United States or British universities. Three others have a Master's degree from abroad, (Al-Farsy, 1980, p. 98). This was a sharp departure from previous practice where Ministers rarely had academic qualifications and were appointed in a traditional manner. It was hoped that the inclusion of new, well-trained young Ministers in the Council would further enhance its performance and quality. In addition to the twenty Ministers, a Royal Decree appointed three more Ministers without portfolio as members of the Council of Ministers. In appointing a Minister of State, a Royal Decree must explicitly indicate that the appointed Minister is a member of the Council of Ministers, otherwise he is automatically excluded.

The fourteen Ministries which existed before the recent expansion were as follows:

Defence.	Finance and National Economy.
Foreign Affairs.	Petroleum and Mineral Resources.

Health.	Labour and Social Affairs.
Interior.	Pilgrimage and Endowments.
Communication.	Justice.
Agriculture.	Information.
Education.	Commerce and Industry.

The new Cabinet of October 1975 established six new Ministries. These Ministries are:

Housing and Public Works.
Municipal and Rural Affairs.
Higher Education.
Industry and Power.
Telegraph, Post and Telephone.
Planning.

Most of these activities had been previously conducted in larger Ministries, but it was decided to give them a separate identity, hence indicating a higher priority. In addition to the above 20 Ministries, there are thirty independent departments and public enterprises (see Figure 2). The General Service Bureau, the Department of Intelligence, and the Grievance Bureau are examples of the independent departments. On the other hand, the Saudi Arabian Airlines, the Institute of Public Administration, the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency and the Agricultural Bank are examples of the public enterprises.

The difference between the public enterprises and the independent departments is that the former are attached to a Ministry. They are run by an executive board composed of several members headed by a Minister or Deputy Minister and the Director General of the enterprise itself. The public enterprises have their own rules and regulations concerning personnel matters.³ They also have certain discretion in making budgetary decisions.

Unlike public enterprises, the independent departments have more autonomy. Further their heads report directly to the Prime Minister rather than Council of Ministers. In addition to their autonomy, the heads of these organizations have the same administrative authority as any Minister, (Shadukhi, 1981, p. 16). Both public enterprises and independent departments have different recruitment mechanisms than Ministries. Their members are not supplied by the Civil Service Bureau (CSB).

On the other hand, the agency responsible for supplying the Ministries with employees is the Civil Service Bureau. The first Civil Service Bureau was established in 1939. In the early days it was basically a book-keeping agency, keeping files on all Civil Service employees. It was affiliated to the Ministry

of finance until 1958 but in that year it was moved to the Council of Ministers. In 1977 the Civil Service Council gave the Civil Service Bureau the authority to plan, execute, direct and control all matters relating to the Civil Service in Saudi Arabia (these issues are developed in Chapter 3). Since then, the main tasks of the Civil Service Bureau have been as follows,

(Al-Neaim, 1980, p. 46):

1. Control the enforcement of the laws and enforce by-laws and decisions in the various areas of Civil Service.
2. Undertake research and studies in the Civil Service, especially in the areas of classification, compensation and the like.
3. Offer opinions about Civil Service Departments.
4. Propose laws and by-laws and present them to the Council of Civil Service.
5. Establish rules and procedures for employment selection.
6. Classify positions and propose compensation (wages, salaries and fringe benefits).
7. Carry out other functions in areas of Civil Service such as filing, cooperation with personnel in Ministries and agencies, arbitration,... etc.

From the above mentioned points it is clear that one organization - Civil Service Bureau (CBS) is responsible for implementing all rules and regulations of the Civil Service code and supervising all civilian government employees. It can also be seen from the above discussion that:

1. Clear pattern of change in government functions, objectives have been accompanied by changes in structures, especially of Ministries.
2. This has resulted in increased demands with regard to personnel policy in particular recruitment and staffing of Ministries.
3. The responsibilities for this has fallen to CSB which has itself evolved.

In the next few pages we will explore how the CSB deals with changing task and responsibilities.

2.2.3 Selection and Pay of Government Employees

Before selecting a person for a government position, the CSB is required to insure that the applicant meets certain requirements, (Tharor, 1979). The applicant must be a Saudi, not less than 17 years of age, of good character and not convicted of a crime, and have the required qualifications. The required

qualifications include academic diplomas, training, vocational or technical certificates, and any other personal characteristics required for the nature of the job, (e.g. appearance, intelligence, etc.).

The newly selected employee is placed in one of six general categories, (Tharor, 1979, p. 77):

1. Special positions,
2. Diplomatic positions,
3. Teaching positions,
4. Technical positions,
5. Management and Administrative positions, and
6. Vocational (Manual) positions.

Based on the applicant's qualifications, a grade and a salary are then decided. To ensure fairness and equality in pay, the government has issued a pay scale to be employed to any Saudi joining government agencies, (see Table 2-1).

Generally speaking, the applicant's education qualifications and experience (seniority) are important factors in deciding grade level and pay. For example, to qualify for grade 6, the applicant must possess a secondary diploma and 12 years of experience or a high school diploma and 6 years of experience, or, a college degree. Applicants with Master's degree with

TABLE 2-1

THE RECENT MONTHLY PAY SCALE OF CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYEES (IN SAUDI RIYALS)*

Grade	Monthly Pay Scale (Saudi Riyals)															Yearly Increase	Transp. Allow. (Monthly)
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10							
1	1500	1600	1700	1800	1900	2000	2100	2200	2300	2400	2400	100	400				
2	1825	1945	2065	2195	2305	2425	2545	2665	2785	2905	2905	120	400				
3	2210	2350	2490	2630	2770	2910	3050	3190	3330	3470	3470	140	400				
4	2655	2825	2995	3165	3335	3505	3675	3845	4015	4185	4185	170	400				
5	3190	3290	3590	3790	3990	4190	4390	4590	4790	4990	4990	200	400				
6	3815	4045	4275	4505	4735	4965	5195	5425	5655	5885	5885	230	600				
7	4530	4800	5070	5340	5610	5880	6150	6420	6690	6960	6960	270	600				
8	5285	5595	5905	6215	6525	6835	7145	7455	7765	8075	8075	310	600				
9	6240	6590	6940	7290	7640	7990	8340	8690	9040	9390	9390	350	600				
10	7000	7380	7760	8140	8520	8900	9280	9660	10040	10420	10420	380	600				
11	8165	8565	8965	9365	9765	10165	10565	10965	11365	-	-	400	600				
12	9390	9820	10250	10680	11110	11950	11970	12400	-	-	-	430	600				
13	10705	11160	11615	12070	12525	12980	13435	-	-	-	-	455	600				
14	12095	12620	13145	13670	14195	14720	-	-	-	-	-	525	600				
15	15000	15650	16300	16950	17600	-	-	-	-	-	-	650	-				

* 1 = 6.015 Saudi Riyals as of August, 1987.

Source: Employee Manual, 1981, p. 13.

no experience could enter in grade 8 and persons holding a Ph.D can enter in grade 9 and above, depending on experience.

2.2.4 General Problems of Government Agencies

While the development of government agencies of which the CSB is an example, have contributed to the strengthening of public administration in Saudi Arabia, there remain a number of obstacles that are thought to limit the efficient functioning of these organizations. As Othman Al-Ahmad (1980, p. 210) notes:

1. The present organization of government Ministries is not adequate to meet the demands currently made on them. They are not adequately staffed with qualified people and seem to be authoritarian.
2. The administrative procedures are lengthy and complicated due to the highly centralised decision making process (see above). This may be a result of the shortage of qualified personnel.
3. A large number of the jobs (about 50%) remain vacant and there is a continuous movement of personnel out of government agencies (see Table

2-2). The main reason for this could be attributable to the better pay and incentives outside government organizations.

4. Leadership and supervision are thought to be incompetent, most of the leaders have reached their current positions through seniority, (i.e. length of service).
5. The government agencies suffer from a shortage of specialised employees such as qualified managers, accountants and engineers. There seems to be no congruency between government plans and education.
6. Due to recent competition with the private sector, government jobs do not seem as attractive as they used to be to Saudis.
7. The recent and sudden boom of Saudi economy during the late 1970's has resulted in many government employees opening their own private business despite the illegality of this. This has seriously limited their contribution in their jobs.

From the above and from other reports (see for example Shadukhi, 1981) appears to draw some tentative conclusions on the problems of government Ministries:

TABLE 2-2

ALLOCATED JOBS AND NUMBER
OF SAUDIS HOLDING POSITIONS
FOR THE LAST TEN FISCAL YEARS

Fiscal Year	Allocated Jobs	Employed Saudis	Percent Employed	Percent Vacancies
1970-1971	79870	52844	66	34
1971-1972	96781	58863	61	39
1972-1973	116115	67779	58	42
1973-1974	131754	73330	56	44
1974-1975	142940	81917	57	43
1975-1976	167846	87673	52	48
1976-1977	188288	88070	46	54
1977-1978	196931	98447	49	51
1978-1979	223150	105703	46	54
1979-1980	244556	107697	44	56

Source: Othman I. Al-Ahmad, 1980, p. 210.

- (i) Saudi Ministries appear to possess tall organizational structures with a narrow span of control and power centred at the top of the hierarchy, (see Figure 3).
- (ii) With such structures, there appears to be very poor and distorted communication. This is true in part because the narrower the span of control, the more the organizational levels, and the more the organizational levels, the less the managers know of what is happening in the bottom of the hierarchy.
- (iii) Participation in decision-making is likely to be low due to the highly centralised power structure. Most top managers in Ministries have reached their positions through seniority, therefore, most of them feel traditionally associated with power. They feel that delegation of authority is a degradation of their ability to manage.
- (iv) Pay is not competitive, especially in comparison with the private sector or even the public organizations (this issue is developed in more detail later)..

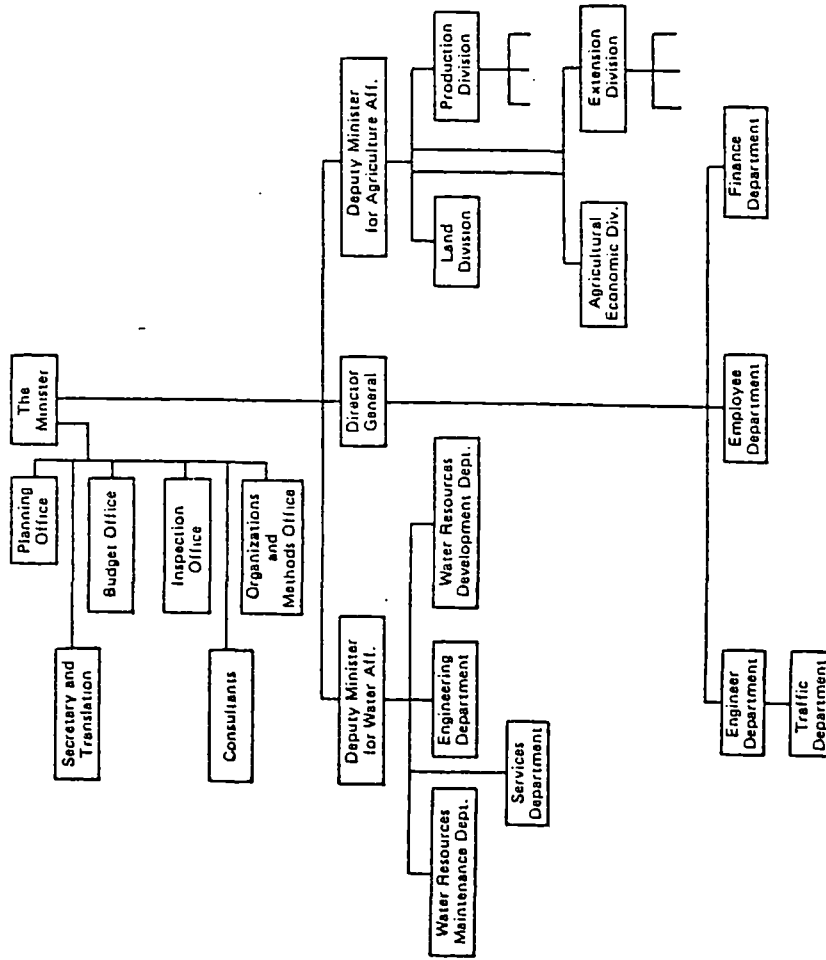


Figure 3. The Ministry of Agriculture after administrative reform -- Source: Al Sabhan (1972, p. 50). (This is only given as an example, all ministries adopt similar structures).

2.3 Public Organizations

Public organizations in Saudi Arabia are those that can be characterised as being semi-autonomous, e.g. they have some financial and administrative independence and are not totally controlled by government. Examples of public organizations in Saudi Arabia are: Saudi Arabian Airlines Corporation (SAUDIA);⁴ Seaport Authorities; Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA); plus many others with varying degrees of independence and freedom of action.

Generally speaking, each public organization is headed by a chief executive, or a general manager who, in some cases is the head of the Board of Directors. The Board of Directors of a public organization draws up general guidelines that are related to financial and administrative matters. Here we will look at SAUDIA as a typical example of a public organization in Saudi Arabia. From the administrative point of view, SAUDIA has its own employment cadre, its own training programme and its own recruitment system.

SAUDIA began its operation in 1945 with three D.C.3s flying irregularly between Riyadh, Jeddah and Dhahran, In 1963 it became a government corporation. From that time it acted as a profit-oriented company. Nowadays, SAUDIA is one of the largest airlines in

the middle east. It is projected that the 1985 SAUDIA fleet totalled 54 jets (see Table 2-3) and served 38 international stations (Third Five Year Development Plan, 1980-1985, p. 417).

2.3.1 SAUDIA: Organizational Structure, Fringe Benefits and Pay

The organizational structure of SAUDIA consists of several levels of management, beginning with the Board of Directors. Below the Board of Directors is the Director General assisted by the Deputy Director General and Senior Vice Presidents. This group comprises the executive level. The operating levels include general managers, managers, staff managers and supervisors (see Figure 4).

An examination of the design of SAUDIA's structure reveals that it has adopted a functional division of labour which influences the definition of individual jobs. This type of structure and employment pattern differs sharply from that found in government Ministries. The latter generally have a more traditional type of bureaucratic structure based on a line arrangement (see for example Figure 3). SAUDIA requires employees who are more technically specialised. Thus, although the training requirements are more demanding (technical qualifications are required), the filling

TABLE 2-3SAUDIA FLEET PLAN¹

	<u>Total</u>		<u>Addition</u>				<u>Total</u>
	1399 1979	1400 1980	1401 1981	1402 1982	1403 1983	1404 1984	1405* 1985
Boeing-707	0	-	5	-	-	-	5
Boeing-707 SP	0	-	1	1	-	-	2
Lockheed L-1011	13	4	1	-	-		18
Boing-707	6	-	-	-	-	-	6
Boing-737	19	-	-	-	-	-	19
Unspecified							
Wide-bodied Jets	0	-	-	-	3	1	4
	38	4	7	1	3	1	54

* Islamic Hijra dates.

1. The above table excludes leased and equipment owned by SAUDIA's joint venture partners.

Source: Third Development Plan (1980-1985, p. 422).

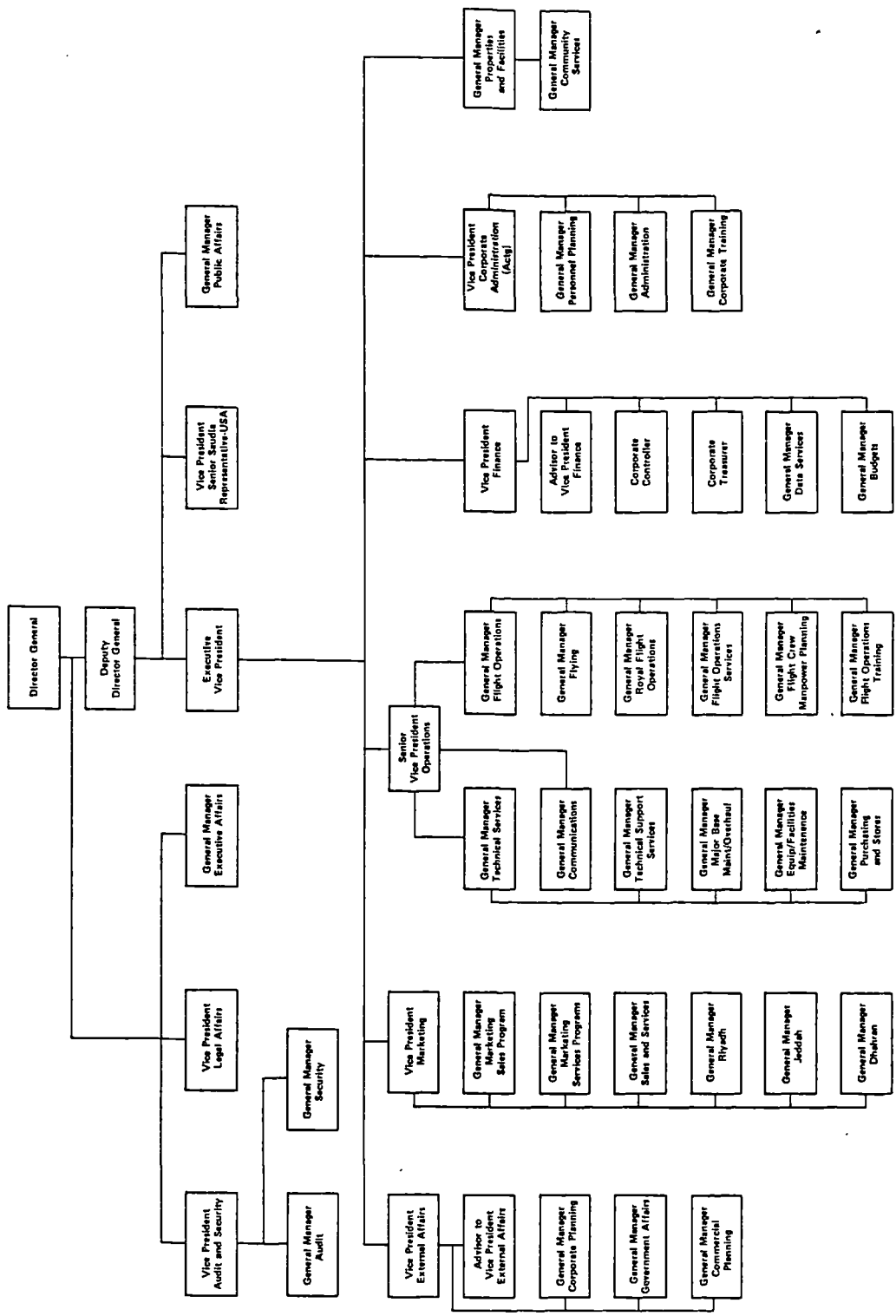


Figure 4. Saudi Arabian Airlines--corporate organization -- Source: SAUDIA Public Relations Department (1976).

of positions should be easier if qualified manpower is available. Further, once recruited, an employee in SAUDIA should be able to adapt more rapidly to his job than in a government Ministry due to the intensive training and orientation before taking on a job. In SAUDIA the departments are both functional (e.g. marketing, accounting, public relations, etc.), and territorial (as with the district managers, who can perform more than one task).

Thus in comparison with government organizations, public organizations in Saudi Arabia can be characterised as possessing flat organizational structures, (notice the wide span of control in Fig. 4) an issue which may lead to more delegation of authority than in government Ministries which adopt tall type of structure.

Having discussed the organizational structure in both Ministries and public organizations, it is important to note that the two types of organization differ in the way they administer pay and fringe benefits. It can be generally assumed that employees in public organizations are better paid than employees in Ministries, especially in middle management positions. In addition to the better pay, there are many other benefits. For example, SAUDIA offers free round-trip tickets to its employees and their families each year, free medical check-ups, and an annual housing allowance. The pay scale of SAUDIA is set out in Table 2-4 (which should be compared with Table 2-1; graduates are assigned to grade 6 in government ministries; while they are placed on grade 14 in Saudia).

TABLE 2-4

SAUDI ARABIAN AIRLINES
SAUDI NATIONALS SALARY PROGRAM
GROUND NON-TECHNICAL EMPLOYEES
(Effective 1 Rajab 1401)
(1981)

Salary Grade	Steps											Tran. Allow.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
1	1713	1790	1871	1955	2043	2135	2231	2331	2436	2546	2660	400
2	1850	1933	2020	2111	2206	2305	2409	2518	2631	2749	2873	400
3	1998	2088	2182	2280	2383	2490	2602	2719	2841	2969	3103	400
4	2248	2360	2478	2602	2732	2869	3012	3163	3321	3487	3661	400
5	2439	2561	2689	2823	2964	3113	3268	3432	3603	3783	3973	400
6	2646	2778	2917	3063	3216	3377	3546	3723	3910	4105	4310	400
7	2871	3015	3165	3324	3490	3664	3848	4040	4242	4454	4677	400
8	3129	3295	3470	3654	3848	4051	4266	4492	4730	4981	5245	400
9	3411	3592	3782	3983	4194	4416	4650	4897	5156	5429	5717	400
10	3718	3915	4123	4341	4571	4814	5069	5337	5620	5918	6232	400
11	4071	4299	4540	4794	5063	5346	5646	5962	6296	6648	7021	400
12	4458	4708	4971	5250	5544	5854	6182	6528	6894	7280	7688	400
13	4882	5155	5444	5749	6070	6410	6769	7149	7549	7972	8418	400
14	5370	5671	5988	6323	6678	7051	7446	7863	8304	8769	-	600
15	5907	6238	6587	6956	7345	7757	8191	8650	9134	9646	-	600
16	6498	6881	7287	7717	8172	8654	9165	9707	10278	10885	-	600
17	7147	7569	8016	8488	8989	9520	10081	10676	11306	-	-	600
18	7862	8326	8817	9337	9888	10472	11089	11744	12437	-	-	600
19	8648	9158	9699	10271	10877	11519	12198	12918	13680	-	-	600
20	9513	10074	10669	11298	11965	12671	13418	14210	-	-	-	600
21	10464	11082	11736	12428	13161	13938	14760	15631	-	-	-	600
22	11511	12224	12982	13787	14642	15550	16514	-	-	-	-	Car
23	12462	13447	14281	15166	16106	17105	18165	-	-	-	-	Car
24	13928	14833	15797	16824	17918	19083	-	-	-	-	-	Car
25	15321	16363	17475	18664	19933	-	-	-	-	-	-	Car
26	16853	18049	19331	20703	22173	-	-	-	-	-	-	Car

Source: SAUDIA Personnel Department.

2.4 MINISTRIES AND PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS: DIFFERENCES AND PROBLEMS

Ministries and public organizations are the main agencies through which government plans are implemented and carried out. They are also the main sources of many problems which include a partial failure to deliver programmes or to finally achieve stated objectives (see for example the Second Development Plan, 1975-1980, p. 571). As has been suggested above, the causes of these problems may include general administrative inefficiency at almost all levels of the hierarchy, and an over centralisation of authority with a corresponding reluctance to delegate responsibility to lower level management. The latter problem is particularly serious since it appears to result in operating procedures that pay little attention to specific lower level needs in the organization. The reasons for the emergence of these difficulties are numerous but central to many of them appear to be the issue of recruitment, especially given the fact that few technically or professionally qualified people are available to fill management positions. While previous recruitment procedures have been dominated by managers who tended to organise and recruit in a traditional way (e.g. use of nepotism, etc.).

This situation has recently been noticed by high-ranking planning officials and more attention is being given to initiating administrative reforms. Many measures are being implemented in order to improve government organizations. Among the most important measures are the following, (First Five-Year Development Plan, 1970-1975, p. 45):

- (i) The creation of a High Committee for Administrative Reform.
- (ii) Formulation of a general plan for improving the government organizations functionally and structurally.
- (iii) A strengthening of the Central Budgeting Department and the General Personnel Bureau.
- (iv) Establishing the Central Planning Organization and the management department and the related organization and methods unit within the Ministries, the Institute of Public Administration, the Public Works Department, and the Central Purchasing Department.
- (v) The initiating of special organization changes in various Ministries and agencies (e.g. the creation of a general manager's job in each Ministry).

The previous initiatives were aiming at achieving the following objectives (Second Five-Year Development

Plan, 1975-80, p. 572): Firstly, the delegation of increased managerial, financial and personnel responsibilities to heads of Ministries and agencies and through them to individuals in charge of programmes and projects. Secondly, the improvement of programming, budgeting and accounting procedures to provide the organised flow of information which is an essential element of good financial management and control. Thirdly, decentralisation of the functions of executive Ministries and agencies to the regional and district level, and fourthly, changes in the structure or form of Ministry or agency function only in response to a clearly defined need for more effective performance of a major economic or social function of government.

These are ambitious goals and in order for them to be implemented and executed, it seems clear that more qualified personnel are needed. Therefore, government and public organizations have emphasised the necessity of intensive training programmes and central to this policy initiative is the Institute of Public Administrative (IPA). The latter has played an important role in training government personnel ranging from lower-level to top management and hence its actions will now be examined in greater detail.

2.5 THE INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (IPA)

The IPA was established in 1960 to carry out training programmes for government organizations in addition to giving advice and conducting research in difficult managerial and organizational problems that faced government organizations. The major objectives of the IPA are as follows (Second Five-Year Development Plan, 1975-80, p. 572):

- (i) To offer educational and training programmes for all levels of government employees.
- (ii) To conduct administrative research and to offer consultation for government agencies.
- (iii) To establish and maintain a government document centre.
- (iv) To participate in administrative development conferences for top personnel in the Kingdom and abroad.
- (v) To publish research in the areas of administration and management.

Generally, the training courses offered by the IPA fall under the following broad categories (Abdul Kader, 1980, p. 229-240):

Public Administration.	Personnel Management.
Finance and Accounting.	Planning and Budgeting.
Statistics.	Library Administration.
Warehouse and Store.	Secretarial Skills.
Public Relations.	Legal Skills.

The above categories are offered for three different kinds of trainees. Those who are about to start working as civilian employees are assigned to pre-service programmes (currently, not being applied). Those civilian employees already in a position who are assigned to in-service programmes. Also, top officials participate in advanced training - Colloquia and seminars.

Despite the efforts by government to train its civilian employees, there still exist some difficulties, especially related to the operation of training programmes. Some of these are as follows:

- (i) There is insufficient training material, research and studies directly related to local government and public service.
- (ii) The lack of Saudi trainers had led to a dependence on non-Saudi instructors who are unfamiliar with local problems.
- (iii) At times training programmes are scheduled that are inappropriate for some departments.
- (iv) Because there is no in-house training in some areas of specialisation (e.g. computer science), some departments send their employees abroad where they receive training - designed for a different culture with different problems and backgrounds.

In addition to these problems, there are other types of difficulties which are related to the trainees themselves. First, because most trainees are not serious about training, the benefits and application of what they have learnt are limited; second, because there is no desire among trainees to read, they depend largely on the trainer, and third, most trainees join training programmes for the financial incentives offered, rather than knowledge gained. There are further problems of training which are related to work situations. In particular, it is difficult to accommodate those who have been on training programmes when they return to their organizations and to utilise what they have learned. For example, some organizational functions are ambiguous, thus making it difficult to design the needed training programmes, secondly, inflexibility of procedures prevent the trainees from applying what they have learned; thirdly, training only some employees in a department and leaving the rest results in the creation of different attitudes and a lack of cooperation between employees and their supervisors, and fourthly, supervisors do not know and appreciate the importance of training and have hostile attitudes toward trainees.

These issues, as we noted, have been specifically identified by the IPA as a result of its experience in

designing and operating training programmes in Ministries. However, the IPA is not usually responsible for training in public organizations. The latter have their own training programmes. Occasionally, they send their employees to the IPA, but this is the exception rather than the rule. For instance, SAUDIA has its own programmes which are held in institutions directed by its own personnel. The main purpose of all SAUDIA training efforts are to meet the airlines' work requirements, and to train Saudi employees in sufficient numbers to ultimately fill all of SAUDIA's employment needs while maintaining a safe, efficient professional operation. In the following pages, a more detailed coverage of SAUDIA training programmes will be discussed.

2.6 TRAINING IN SAUDIA

It can be said that training programme in SAUDIA started in 1960s. After the issuance of a Royal Decree in 1965 SAUDIA initiated English language training programmes for newly-hired students (SAUDIA hires students at the high school level and trains them in selected subjects while they complete their formal education). This programme was extended in June 1967 to include all working employees.

In 1967 SAUDIA has initiated its air cadet training programme, designing to train Saudi nationals as pilots and airline executives. Then followed an

initiation of technical training for flight engineers, dispatchers, maintenance mechanics and ground equipment mechanics. Later in the same year SAUDIA initiated a programme of marketing training for all jobs in the marketing function of the airline network. These include airport services, ticketing and reservations, supervisory training emphasising supervisory responsibilities in sales, cargo, discipline, etc. In addition, field training became an on-the-job function which was put into effect because classroom training alone was insufficient preparation, (Al-Dabbagh, 1980, p. 34).

SAUDIA management Development Department was established in about the year 1970 with a TWA Manager and one Saudi Staff Manager. Management Development Programmes have started in 1972 since when a number of significant changes have taken place.

- (i) Management and Supervisory Training has been established as a distinct department with two mainline programmes.
- (ii) Techniques of Modern Management began in February, 1972.
- (iii) A basic supervisory course was developed in 1974 and presented in both Arabic and English.
- (iv) A leadership programme was started in July 1976.

- (v) A Performance Appraisal Development System was initiated in 1976. By April 1977 seventy Managers attended such programmes.
- (vi) A corporate-wide programme of Management by objectives was launched in April 1973. However, the form and paper work associated with this programme in addition to implementation problems led to its cancellation in 1977.
- (vii) Since 1973, special project training and development were carried out for groups at the request of department Managers. Basically, these short term training and development efforts were intended to provide practical management assistance in problem-solving.⁵

Yet despite the fact that most public organizations have their own intensive training programmes, they still face some of the problems which confront their counterparts in government organizations. This may be in part a result of the fact that managers are living in and sharing the same culture which usually tends to shape their general expectations and behaviour.

2.7 THE ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT - AN ASSESSMENT

Having discussed the government and public organizations in Saudi Arabia, certain questions may now be raised, in particular what administrative system best suits the needs of the Saudi Arabian organizations? For example, is Weberian machine bureaucracy a solution to or a cause of problems? Before answering this question, a brief analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of such administrative systems will be given.

Morstein Marx classifies administrative system into guardian caste, patronage, and merit bureaucracies.⁶ However, more useful to our study is Fainsod's categorization of them as representative, party state, ruler dominated, military dominated, and ruling.⁷ Ruler dominated systems, as the case of Saudi Arabia, are typified by traditional autocratic regimes in which the bureaucracy to be subservient to a traditional elite whose skills and orientation are quite different from those of the bureaucracy (or at least of the ideal Weberian bureaucracy where expertise rather than religion, tradition or family position is the primary basis of authority). Ruler dominated administrative systems (e.g. Saudi Arabia) tend to be

heavily centralized, with real power and authority vested in the hands of those at the very top of the hierarchy with people in these positions often being members of the ruling family. This results in a tendency to avoid responsibility on the part of lower-level bureaucrats, an issue which characterises both government and public organizations in Saudi Arabia.

However, the ruler dominated system discussed above is not very helpful for understanding how bureaucracies ought to be designed to overcome administrative problems. The approach that has been generally followed, particularly in the West, has been to advocate versions of the "machine bureaucracy" model of organization. The essential element of the Weberian model include monocratic hierarchical authority, complex and fixed departmentalization, and maintenance of administrative impersonality through specialized training, professionalization, and protection of tenure.⁸ The questions that must be asked about Weberian administrative designs are "What are they designed to do?" and "Do the design assumptions fit the conditions found in Saudi Arabia?"

It is now well established that machine bureaucracies are best suited to perform specialized routine functions.⁹ Moreover, to be successful they need an

environment in which policies and problems are well defined and fairly stable and in which there is relatively little conflict among political authorities. It is also necessary that programme solutions to problems be clear and well understood in principle. Finally, to function well, machine models of administration require considerable certainty about when decisions will be made and who has the authority to make them. Whether these conditions exist is dependent of course on the broader social, political, and technical environment of the society.

As we have seen earlier, Saudi Arabia is committed to development and change (e.g. development plans). Experience has shown that machine bureaucracies are not appropriate devices for pursuing these objectives because they are too inflexible to deal with the uncertainty and complexity of development processes. The question that comes to mind is this. Why do many Arab states including Saudi Arabia find the Weberian model appealing? Certainly one reason is that colonial administrations, which were more concerned with control than with development, found this hierachical and rigid structure suited to their needs and consistent with their own experience.

However, a more important answer to this question why the machine model has been so attractive is that administrative systems are often designed to meet the particular needs of a given state. Since Saudi Arabia appeared recently on the international scene as a political entity, the structure of its administration appears to be primitive. Therefore, machine bureaucracy seems most often the better tool to provide the ideal model. Part of the superficial attractiveness of machine bureaucracies is that they cope quite well in hostile political environments. Power is centralized in the administrative apex, and this arrangement provides clear responsibility for administrative action and quick response to political threats. It seems that these reasons are behind the choice of a traditional simple structure by the Saudis. Nevertheless, the recent Saudi commitment to development makes it imperative to adopt some form decentralized organizations if the governmental system is to deal with development and change more effectively. Since the structure of Ministries in Saudi Arabia is relatively large, it appears appropriate to adopt a "divisionalized bureaucracy" where power is delegated to sub-units. This may enhance the decision making process and make it easy for local managers to take actions relatively quickly.

2.8 CONCLUSION

Due to the increase in oil production discussed earlier, the government services in Saudi Arabia have gradually increased. Many Ministries and agencies have been established such as Ministries of Transportation, Interior, and Pilgrimage in order to render better services to the public. In all this one major problem has emerged and is still facing the country - the shortage of well qualified personnel both in quantitative and qualitative terms. Due to this, only a few qualified people are available to run Ministries. Therefore, the government felt that centralization of authority by adopting the machine bureaucracy is the only way to run the country and its organizations. For this reason power is highly centralised in almost every government organization in Saudi Arabia. To alleviate the problems associated with the centralization of authority due to the shortage of qualified personnel, the government has taken many measures. Intensive education and training programmes both inside the Kingdom and abroad have been adopted in order to provide the country with the required personnel. In the past few pages, we have analysed the general features of two types of organization - Ministries and public organizations, examining areas such as pay and fringe benefits, organizational

structures, training programmes and the general problems that face each type of organization. Despite the fact that they are established within one country, the Ministries and public organizations seem to adopt different policies and procedures for recruiting, promoting, and training personnel. It has been the aim of this chapter to identify and explore these differences so that a general profile can be developed about the two most important operating organizations in Saudi Arabian economy today, i.e. Ministries and public organizations.

The similarities between the above mentioned organizations are largely because of the fact that they operate in one country sharing same culture. However, there appear to be some difference as a result of the fact that public organizations (as we have seen earlier) are not totally controlled by government. The major differences between the two types of organization can be summarized as follows:

1. The Saudi Ministries are more likely to be authoritarian than public organizations which appear to be more participative. The shape of organizational structures may have contributed to this.
2. The Saudi Ministries are more likely to be more centralized than public organizations.
3. Members of Saudi Ministries are more likely to be closely controlled than members of public organizations.
4. Economic rewards i.e. pay and fringe benefits appear to be relatively better in public organizations.

The next chapter will examine the development of the civil service system which regulates completely members of government organizations and partially members of public organizations. A brief note of the nature of the labour market in Saudi Arabia will be analysed.

NOTES ON CHAPTER 2

1. Omer El-Fathaly and Richard Chackerian: "Administration: The Forgotten Issue in Arab Development" in I. Ibrahim (ed.), Arab Resources: The Transformation of Society, Croom Helm Ltd., 1983, p. 193-209.
2. The number of Ministries was increased to 20 in October 1975.
3. The CSB which was renamed the GCSB is trying to enforce its rules and regulations on all government civil servants including those of public enterprises.
4. SAUDIA is being run as if it were a private enterprise despite the fact that it is affiliated with the Ministry of Defence and Aviation which partly controls its operations.
5. For more elaboration on SAUDIA Training Programmes, see for example, Taher H. Al-Dabbagh, "Analysis of Managerial Training and Development within Saudi Arabian Airlines", Ph.D. Dissertation (Unpublished), North Texas State University, 1980.
6. Fritz Morstein Marx: "The Administrative State", Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957, Chap. 4, pp. 54-72. Other typologies can be found in

Gabriel A. Almond and G. Bingham Powell: "Comparative Politics", Boston: Little Brown & Co., 1978, 2nd edition, pp. 372-90, and James A. Bill and Carl Leiden, "Politics in the Middle East", Boston, Little Brown & Co., 1979, pp. 24-37.

7. Meice Fainsod: "Bureaucracy and Modernisation: The Russian and Soviet Case", in Joseph La Palombara (ed.) Bureaucracy and Political Development, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1963, pp. 233-67.
8. See for example, Max Weber: Essays in Sociology, H.H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills (ed. and trans.) Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1946, pp. 196-198.
9. For example see Paul R. Lawrence and Jay W. Lorsch, "Developing Organizations", Reading, Mass. Addison Wiley, 1969.

CHAPTER 3THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CIVIL
SERVICE AND THE NATURE OF THE
LABOUR MARKET IN SAUDI ARABIA3.1 INTRODUCTION

Despite the financial power of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, it is still regarded by many as a developing country. The government's responsibility for initiating and executing projects has increased over time. However, as noted above, the main problem facing the Saudi planners has been a shortage of manpower in both qualitative and quantitative terms. In the early 1970s the government initiated the First Five-Year Development Plan. At the same time it realised that the successful implementation of that plan would depend crucially on the efficiency of the administrative system. Due to the limited experience of the Saudi administrative personnel, the government adopted an administrative reform programme which had been developed with cooperation of the Ford Foundation. As a result of this, the High Committee for the Administrative Reform (HCAR) headed by the King was established with the objective of better organising the government's administrative system. One of the first and more important decisions of this Committee was to improve the Civil Service Bureau. The first Civil

Service Bureau, established in 1939, was attached to the Ministry of Finance. However, it was originally little more than a book-keeping agency. In 1945, the first employee cadre was established and the Bureau was renamed 'The Employee and Retirement Bureau'. In 1958 another Civil Service law was passed to replace the 1945 law. After the creation of the Council of Ministers in 1953, the Civil Service Bureau gained more support and as a result, was separated from the Ministry of Finance in 1958. To strengthen its position the Civil Service Bureau was related directly to the highest administrative and legislative authority - the Council of Ministers. Nowadays, the Civil Service Bureau has the authority to plan, organise and supervise all matters related to the Civil Service of Saudi employees. In the following few pages a more detailed coverage of the Saudi Civil Service system will be revealed and a brief description of the labour market will be given. But before that a brief description of the features of the Saudi labour market will be examined and elaborated.

3.2 MAIN FEATURES OF THE SAUDI LABOUR MARKET

Although the Saudi labour market has much in common with other labour markets in developing countries,

it also has some unique features: a large inflow of expatriate labour, a significant nomadic population, massive training programmes, a relatively large geographical area (see Figure 1) and a relatively dispersed population. For their relative importance, the first three factors warrant special elaboration.

3.2.1 Expatriate Labour

Expatriate labour makes up a large and increasing portion of the employed work force. From about 27 percent in 1970, it expanded to 40 percent in 1975, and about 53 percent in 1980 (this issue is further developed later). Expatriate labourers crossed international borders into the Saudi labour market in response to the country's large demand for labour which far exceeded the local supply. This excess demand for labour created significant shortages in a wide variety of skills, which resulted in substantially higher wage rates in Saudi Arabia than in many neighbouring Arab and Asian countries. For these reasons, expatriates are spread across all skill levels and in almost all regions of the country. Literally, hundreds of thousands of unskilled and semi-skilled expatriate workers are employed throughout the five regions of Saudi Arabia.

The massive inflow of foreign labour has important conceptual implications both for the functioning of the market and for the development of Saudi labour. Expatriate labour is expected to reduce imbalances in supply and demand in various segments of the market. This is thought to speed the adjustment mechanism. Alternatively, however, it may reduce the mobility of the Saudi workers since the incentives in terms of wages (and benefit) differentials are being reduced. In addition, competition from foreign skilled workers may make it less attractive for Saudis to acquire new skills or may cause Saudi workers to disassociate themselves altogether from certain professions, such as construction and sanitary services. As a result, new attitudes may develop, and Saudis already in the labour force or potentially entering it may consider certain jobs and professions as desirable (managerial jobs), others as undesirable (manual jobs).

3.2.2 The Nomadic Population

The nomadic population in Saudi Arabia is generally understood to constitute a significant proportion of the total population and the labour force. No recent official figures are available, and widely variant estimates range from a high of 3 million in the early 1930's to a low of 700,000 in 1962 by the

Saudi government. Only the fourteen district volumes of 1974 census have been released, and not the overall volume summarizing and aggregating district results. Research attempts that addressed the issue of population and labour in Saudi Arabia went to the length of deriving some figures for the national level by aggregating district results, and even a commendable effort could not produce consistent estimate of the nomadic population (Birks and Sinclair, 1980). This ambiguity surrounding the nomadic population and labour undoubtedly impedes a Saudi labour market. Only a tentative analysis can be made as to how, and through what mechanism, this inadequately defined portion of the population will be integrated in the mainstream of the labour force. Specifically, demand-oriented policies that attempt to increase the employment of nomads through increase in generalized expenditures will have an entirely different impact on the functioning of the labour market from supply-oriented policies that focus on training and incentives to mobility, such as training campaigns.

3.2.3 Labour Training Programmes

Another unique feature of the Saudi labour market is operation of a massive programme to train Saudis

in a wide range of occupations and activities (see Chapter 2). The rationale for this comes from the proclaimed policy of Saudi authorities to "Saudize" the decision making functions at practically all levels of government. There is, however, no adequate empirical knowledge about the extent of Saudization in the public sector. Many Saudis who are badly trained or prepared to take over managerial or administrative functions in the government or the public sector may find themselves given such responsibilities in the hope that they will become trained on the job. In fact, many succeed in doing so admirably. But in addition to this on the job training, extensive formal programmes such as those offered by the IPA, are available to improve the technical and managerial capabilities of the Saudi employees (refer to 2.5 in previous Chapter). The agency responsible for placing, planning, and organizing labour affairs of the public sector employees in Saudi Arabia is the General Civil Service Bureau. The following few pages will examine the evolution of the GCSB.

3.3 THE HISTORY OF THE CIVIL SERVICE IN SAUDI ARABIA

As was indicated earlier (Chapter 1), Saudi Arabia was a tribal community. It appeared as a political

entity in 1932 when Abdulaziz Ibin Saud unified the different regions of the Kingdom. Since the unification of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, many legislations and decrees affecting Civil Service employees have been issued. The first Royal Decree affecting Saudi employees was issued by Ibin Saud when he recaptured Makkah in the Hejaz in 1925. It declared that government employees would continue in their positions as long as the public did not object to their continuation. One year later in 1926 the basic regulations of the Hejazi Kingdom was published. Section seven of those regulations was concerned with employees affairs. It outlined the general requirements of those who were interested in working for the government. More specifically, it required that every employee who worked (or would work) for government should be of Saudi Arabian nationality, efficient and known for good moral and religious behaviour, (Al-Neaim, 1980, p. 20).

Between the years 1931 and 1977 five important administrative changes were made in the Civil Service laws in Saudi Arabia. In 1931 the first comprehensive Civil Service law was passed. This was amended in 1945, 1958, substantially changed in 1971, and amended again in 1977. In the following few pages a brief description of these laws will be given.

3.3.1 The General Ma'Morine Law (1931)

The general Ma'Morine law of 1931 was the first comprehensive law which dealt directly with Civil Service employees. It consisted of ten chapters and contained 113 articles. Article 5 of the first Chapter dealt with requirements for employment of which the nationality and efficiency were the most important. For the first time, the law mandated newspaper advertisement of government jobs while article 8 required that a committee of three people should supervise the employee selection process. This was done with the hope of decreasing the effect of nepotism and social relationships which were prevalent before the issuance of the 1931 law.

The second Chapter of the 1931 law dealt with employees who held positions involving access to money (e.g. treasurers, tax collectors, etc.). Any employee who applied to such a job had to offer some guarantee or collateral in case he misused his position. Consequently, any employee holding such a job would be discharged if he failed to present or renew such a guarantee. The 1931 law also covered salaries and dealt with job classification, vacation, transfers, arbitrations and penalties, etc. Due to its limitations, the 1931 law was replaced by the General Civil Service Law of 1945.

3.3.2 The General Civil Service Law (1945)

The General Civil Service Law was passed in June 1945. It consisted of twenty-three chapters and contained 215 articles. It dealt with the so-called principle rules such as passing and administering the law, and covered areas such as the job classification system. For example, article 5 of the second chapter classified government positions into eleven grades plus a superior grade, the superior grade being the highest and the eleventh being the lowest. These grades were arranged into three clusters corresponding to top management, middle management and lower-level management. The first cluster contained the superior and the first five grades, holders of such grades were considered top managers. The second cluster contained grades six to nine and resembled middle management, and the third and last cluster contained grades ten and eleven which were considered lower-level management.

The 1945 law made it illegal for an employee to receive two salaries from two positions unless he was a proxy, held a religious position, or received hourly wage in secondary and higher education. It also emphasised the importance of the selection process. It regarded the qualification of the employee as the most important criterion either in placing or in promoting.

Any employee who wished to join the public service had to pass a competitive examination. This was held at regular intervals and arranged by a committee representing three people from different Ministries. The logic behind this was to alleviate the problems associated with nepotism and family relationships.

In 1953, a Royal Decree established the first Council of Ministers who subsequently modified some of the provisions of the 1945 law. The Council of Ministers assigned a committee to investigate Civil Service issues. One of the most important decisions of the committee was the modification of the pay system of the Saudi Civil Service employees. Thus the Council classified government positions into ten grades and one superior grade and divided these ten grades into three clusters.

(a) Cluster one - Grades 1-4 - top management.

(b) Cluster two - Grades 5-7 - middle management.

(c) Cluster three - Grades 8-10 - low-level management.

The salary for rank one of grade one was increased from 900 to 6000 Riyals. The salary of the superior grade was left to the decision of the King. Grades three through ten contained three ranks, grades one and two had only one rank each, (Al-Neaim, 1980, p. 25).

3.3.3 The General Civil Service Law (1958)

The General Civil Service Law came into effect through a Royal Decree in June 1958.

Its initial sections dealt with criteria for employment. Employees were divided into two groups, namely, in-cadre and ex-cadre. Ex-cadre employees are those who occupy the lowest three grades (see below), e.g. guards, drivers, clerks, etc. In-cadre employees are those who occupy grades 7 to the superior grade. To qualify for an in-cadre position, an employee must be of Saudi Arabian nationality, not less than 18 years of age, medically fit, has not been convicted of any crime, and pass a competitive examination. Promotion and/or placement in the superior grade or Deputy Minister had to be by a Royal Decree, while promotion and/or appointment of grades 1, 2 and 3 required the approval of the Council of Ministers after a recommendation of the related Ministry. All other grades were to be promoted and/or placed by ministerial approval.

The 1958 law also prohibited government employees from working in business either directly or indirectly. Exempted from this prohibition, however, were professionals such as doctors or engineers who received permission to work in business if their services were needed. The logic behind the prohibition was to force

public service employees to concentrate on their jobs, hopefully increasing their efficiency and performance.

The 1958 law classified Civil Service employees into eleven grades:

Minister

Superior grade

First grade - Deputy Minister

Grades two through nine

Table 3-1 shows the monthly salaries and promotion rates established for these Civil Service employees.

The Council of Ministers realised the importance of establishing a General Manager's job in each Ministry to work as a link between ministerial level and administrative level. Therefore, Royal Decree No. 61 dated January 1961 approved the Council of Ministers' decision No.378 which divided grade two into a new grade with a fixed salary of 3,000 Riyals, and an old grade with a minimum salary, maximum salary, and period of promotion, as shown in Table 3-1. The new grade with the fixed salary was to be filled by a General Manager for every Ministry, (Al-Galayini,1962, p. 95).

3.3.4 The General Civil Service Law (1977)

This fourth General Service Law was passed according to the Royal Decree No. M/5 dated March 28,

TABLE 3-1

MONTHLY SALARIES AND PROMOTION
RATES ESTABLISHED FOR SAUDI ARABIAN
CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYEES IN 1958

Grade	Minimum Salary (Saudi Riyals)*	Maximum Salary (Saudi Riyals)	Biennial Merit Increase (S.R.)
Minister*	No Minimum	10,000	No Increase
Superior Grade*	No Minimum	8,000	No Increase
First Deputy Minister*	No Minimum	5,000	No Increase
Second	1,800	3,000	100
Third	1,400	1,600	100
Fourth	1,200	1,400	100
Fifth	975	1,100	75
Sixth	800	900	50
Seventh	650	750	50
Eighth	525	600	25
Ninth	400	525	25

Source: H. Al-Neaim: "An Analysis of the Recruitment of Foreign Employees in the Civil Service of Saudi Arabia", 1980, p. 28.

£1 = 6.015 Saudi Riyals as of August, 1987.

* These employees have fixed salaries without promotion.

1971. It was divided into three sections dealing with jobs, with employees, and general rules respectively.

The importance of this law stems from the fact that it emphasised the qualifications of employees. Article one of the law stated that qualifications were the cornerstone for the selection of Civil Service employees. By stressing employee's qualifications, it was hoped under the new law to reduce, if not eliminate, the problems of selection on the basis of nepotism and family relationships. To insure the equality of selection, the new law required that every employee could only be promoted and/or placed after passing a competitive examination designed by the General Personnel Bureau, (Al-Sabbab and Mahjoob, 1978, p. 228). This had limited the power of the Minister in appointing and selecting employees for his Ministry as was the case with the 1958 law.

Another important development of the 1971 law was the change in the grading system of government jobs, increasing the total number of job classifications from nine to fifteen grades, as shown in Table 3-2. According to the 1971 Law, any employee who joined the Civil Service for the first time would be rewarded with two months' salary as a bonus with a maximum of 2,000 Riyals.

TABLE 3-2

MONTHLY SALARIES AND PROMOTION
RATES ESTABLISHED FOR SAUDI ARABIAN
CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYEES IN 1971

Grade	Minimum Salary (Saudi Riyals)	Maximum Salary (Saudi Riyals)	Annual Merit Increase (S.R.)
1	400	580	20
2	480	705	25
3	580	850	30
4	695	1,010	35
5	835	1,195	40
6	1,000	1,450	50
7	1,200	1,740	60
8	1,440	2,070	70
9	1,730	2,495	85
10	2,075	2,975	100
11	2,490	3,450	120
12	2,990	3,970	140
13	3,590	4,610	170
14	4,000	5,000	200
15	5,000	6,000	250

Source: H. Al-Neaim: 1980, p. 31.

£1 = 6.015 Saudi Riyals as of August, 1987.



Under the new grading system, grades one to five were considered low-level management, grades six to ten middle management, and from grades eleven to fifteen top management. Grades eleven to fifteen could only be placed and/or promoted by a decision from the Council of Ministers, while grade ten to one could be placed and/or promoted after passing a competitive examination designed by the General Personnel Bureau.

3.3.5 The Civil Service Law (1977)

This was the fifth and the most recent Civil Service law issued in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It was passed according to a Royal Decree No. M/49 on June 26, 1977. As was the case in the 1971 law, the 1977 law emphasised qualifications and competency as the essential measurement for selecting employees in government positions. It required that each group of jobs be described as follows:

- (a) Name of the position
- (b) Pay scale of the position
- (c) Job description of the duties and responsibilities
- (d) Qualification requirements, such as experience and academic qualifications.

The general requirements of admission to the Civil Service had not changed except that the new law had

given the chance to non-Saudis to join the Civil Service, especially for those jobs which required qualifications not present among the Saudis (e.g. computer programmers, etc.). The large number of foreign employees currently working Saudi Arabian Civil Service results from the provisions of the 1977 law. In addition, under the new law the minimum age of joining the Civil Service was reduced from eighteen, as was the case under the 1971 law, to seventeen years of age. This led to a relative increase in the supply of the Saudi Civil Service employees.

According to the 1977 law, retirement age was established at sixty years of age, but an employee could ask for retirement if he spent twenty years in a government job. On the other hand, an employee could continue to work until age sixty-five with a Minister's approval.

Another emphasis of the 1977 law was the importance of training. It considered training of employees as part of their duties either on or off the job and required that all Ministers and agencies provide their employees with adequate training, for example, article 35 of the law went still further by requiring that employees be sent abroad if their positions required additional training not available in Saudi Arabia. In addition the Council of Ministers had the power to exclude some jobs from this law.

The job grading system of the 1977 law is presented in Table 3-3. This law increased both the employees salaries and annual merit raises from those authorised by the 1971 law.

A comparison of the Saudi Arabian Civil Service laws since 1945 reveals a dramatic decrease in the number of articles in each law: law of 1945, 215 articles, law of 1958, 129 articles, law of 1971, 86 articles and law of 1977, 40 articles. This reduction in the number of articles in each law meant that, increasingly, the laws contained only major principles, leaving details to be arranged by specific agencies. This had resulted in a more decentralization and less control from above, and more discretion for Bureaux.¹ For example, the 1977 law, which contained less than half the number of articles in the 1971 law, outlined general principles but did not include by-laws covering internal rules and regulations. In this law, article 39 gave the Council of Civil Service the authority to issue such by-laws. This delegation of authority from the central law makers permitted the flexibility and improvement in the operation of the agencies. An additional consequences was the reduction in the size of the central bureaucracy. The Council of Civil Service which was founded in 1977, included high level officials and headed by Crown Prince gave it

TABLE 3-3

MONTHLY SALARIES AND PROMOTION
 RATES ESTABLISHED FOR SAUDI ARABIAN
 CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYEES IN 1977

Grade	Minimum Salary (Saudi Riyals)	Maximum Salary (Saudi Riyals)	Annual Merit Increase (S.R.)
1	1,015	1,915	100
2	1,210	2,290	120
3	1,455	2,715	140
4	1,750	3,280	170
5	2,100	3,900	200
6	2,515	4,585	230
7	2,970	5,400	270
8	3,485	6,275	310
9	4,110	7,260	350
10	4,800	8,220	380
11	5,600	9,200	400
12	6,390	10,260	430
13	7,200	11,250	450
14	8,020	12,520	500
15	9,255	14,205	550

Source: Civil Service Law of 1977, p. 84.

£1 = 6.015 Saudi Riyals as of August, 1987.

prompt and strong support. The organization and its function will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

The 1977 law is currently in force in Saudi Arabia. However, one aspect - the job grading system - has been modified recently as has the amount of salaries allocated to each grade. Table 3-4 gives the final modification in the Saudi pay scale system.

Having discussed the laws of the Saudi Arabian Civil Service 1931 until the present time, we turn to examine the development of the Saudi Arabian Civil Service Bureau since its foundation in 1939 until the present time.

3.4 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SAUDI ARABIAN CIVIL SERVICE BUREAU

3.4.1 The First Personnel Bureau, The Ma'Morine Bureau of 1939

The first Civil Service law passed in 1931 recognized the principle of equality of opportunity, as in its requirement that government job vacancies be publicised by newspaper advertisements. At that time, there was no single agency which supervised all Civil Service personnel affairs in Saudi Arabia. Prior to this time, all Ministers were in control of their own affairs and recruited, rewarded and administered

TABLE 3-4

THE RECENT MONTHLY PAY SCALE OF CIVIL
SERVICE EMPLOYEES (IN SAUDI RIYALS)*

G L																Transp. Allow. (Monthly)
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Yearly Increase					
1	1500	1600	1700	1800	1900	2000	2100	2200	2300	2400	100	400				
2	1825	1945	2065	2195	2305	2425	2545	2665	2785	2905	120	400				
3	2210	2350	2490	2630	2770	2910	3050	3190	3330	3470	140	400				
4	2655	2825	2995	3165	3335	3505	3675	3845	4015	4185	170	400				
5	3190	3290	3590	3790	3990	4190	4390	4590	4790	4990	200	400				
6	3815	4045	4275	4505	4735	4965	5195	5425	5655	5885	230	600				
7	4530	4800	5070	5340	5610	5880	6150	6420	6690	6960	270	600				
8	5285	5595	5905	6215	6525	6835	7145	7455	7765	8075	310	600				
9	6240	6590	6940	7290	7640	7990	8340	8690	9040	9390	350	600				
10	7000	7380	7760	8140	8520	8900	9280	9660	10040	10420	380	600				
11	8165	8565	8965	9365	9765	10165	10565	10965	11365	-	400	600				
12	9390	9820	10250	10680	11110	11950	11970	12400	-	-	430	600				
13	10705	11160	11615	12070	12525	12980	13435	-	-	-	455	600				
14	12095	12620	13145	13670	14195	14720	-	-	-	-	525	600				
15	15000	15650	16300	16950	17600	-	-	-	-	-	650	-				

f 1 = 6.015 Saudi Riyals as of August, 1987.

Source: Employee Manual, 1981, p. 13.

personnel according to their own criteria although there were some general rules regarding staffing. At this time, Saudi Arabian Civil Service employees were not hired because they possessed the necessary job skills but because they were part of extended family structure. The system of hiring and promoting was considered insufficient and deficient. Some of these deficiencies were remedied with the establishment of the first Ma'Morine (employee) Bureau in 1939. Because of the strength of the Ministry of Finance, which was supervising many other Ministries, the Bureau was affiliated with it. The Bureau was basically a book-keeping agency whose major function was to keep a file for each employee containing the name, date of birth, age, health, qualifications and date of employment. Three employees carried out the Bureau's operation, the Manager and two clerks, (Al Galayini, 1962, p.23). Thus its emergence hardly touched the main difficulties outlined above.

In February, 1942 four more employees were added to the Bureau. Despite this expansion, the function of the Bureau remained the same - a book-keeping agency to keep files of Civil Service employees.

3.4.2 The Bureau of Personnel and Retirement

The Ma'Morine Bureau was changed to the Bureau of Personnel and Retirement in 1945. The number of employees working in the Bureau was increased from seven in 1942 to sixteen in 1945. Despite this expansion, it continued to perform the same basic function of keeping files on government employees. In 1946 the Bureau was re-organised with the addition of one more employee making the total number seventeen, but the scope of its activities concerning overall personnel policy remained limited.

3.4.3 The Council of Ministers and the General Personnel Bureau

During the period 1945-1953 many new Ministries and agencies were created as the Ministries of Interior, Education, Health, Agriculture and Transportation. As a result, the service performed and the number of employees needed by government increased. As was mentioned in the previous Chapter, the first Council of Ministers was established in Saudi Arabia in 1953. With the creation of the Council, the country had for the first time a central administration. The Council was both a policy making body and the source of administrative authority, thereby combining legislative and

executive functions. The establishment of the Council marked the transition from traditional appeals directly to the King to the more formal approach to government through an official body. One of the important directives of the Council of Ministers decision No.47, article 7, was that all employees were to be given "equal pay for equal work", (Al-Neaim, 1980, p. 40). Article 16 of the decision stated that the:

"General Personnel Bureau is responsible for controlling and supervising all laws, rules and regulations affecting Civil Service employees", (Sateg, 1965, p. 134).

This marked the birth of the General Personnel Bureau which gave it sole authority over Civil Service employees in all Saudi Arabian Ministries and agencies.

The General Personnel Bureau was a department of the Ministry of Finance. Because the Ministry supervised a number of other agencies, the GPB had no difficulty in performing its duties. The problems began when the agencies concerned with interior, health, transportation, education and agriculture became Ministries. The GPB needed more support than before. Ironically, the GPB was at that time headed by an official below ministerial level. This placed it in a difficult position with regard to negotiations with

any Ministry, since Ministries headed by Ministers, tended to ignore its advice. The GPB was therefore separated from the Ministry of Finance, and was moved to the Council of Ministers by that body's decision No.115 of April 13, 1958. From that time on the GPB became an active agency which participated among other Ministries in evaluating requirements for employment, and in testing and grading job applications. It was headed by an official below ministerial rank, i.e. General Manager. After becoming a division of the Council of Ministers, the GPB gained recognition in its role as the agency responsible for supervising and enforcing laws to all Civil Service employees. Now, it was not related to any single Ministry but rather the greater power of the Council of Ministers.

On June 26, 1962 the Council of Ministers' decision No. 55 raised the status of the Bureau's chief to the ministerial level and provided the Bureau with the authority to select its own employees according to its own criteria, (Abdul Kader, 1974, p. 4).

In this period, Ministries and agencies were administered in a non-uniform fashion. The administration of those Ministries at that time was described by Al-Awaji as "a fragmented machinery whose structure,

method and authority varied from one situation to another, according to variations in regional historical background" (Al-Awaji, 1971, p. 43). Therefore, the Saudi Arabian government asked the Ford Foundation to assist in studying, organising and developing the nation's Ministries. The Ford Foundation's consultants carried out field research in most of the Ministries and prepared numerous reports. The following statement was included in the Ford Foundation team's report:

"In general, the government service appears to be over-staffed for the amount of work performed. Except for a few localities, the work seems to be exercised by poorly educated, inadequately trained individuals who have little productive work to perform, operate under weak supervision and have no interest in providing efficient services to the public." (Al-Neaim, 1980, p.7).

To meet and challenge the complexities and problems of improving administrative functions, a new high-level committee was established. This new committee, the High Committee for Administrative Reform (HCAR) was founded by decision NO. 520 of the Council of Ministers on November 21, 1963 and was headed by the King and the Prime Minister. The HCAR given the same authority as the Council of Ministers to organise,

reform or establish whatever it believed would be helpful to improve administration in the government. The HCAR reviewed the report made by the Ford Foundation with regard to organising the Civil Service, it also reviewed the Council of Ministers' decision No.55 of June 26, 1962 which committed the Council to the improvement of the GPB. The HCAR then issued its decision No.3 of April, 1964 for changing the name of the GPB to the General Civil Service Bureau (GCSB). The reorganised Bureau was to be headed by a chief at ministerial level, with the assistance of a deputy. In addition the GCSB was given additional qualified employees experienced in the field of Personnel. The HCAR decision also gave the GCSB the authority to perform the following functions:

- (i) To describe the qualification requirements for job applicants and administer the recruitment and selection process.
- (ii) To propose all Civil Service laws.
- (iii) To prepare and publish all civil rules and procedures.
- (iv) To arbitrate between any employee and his organization.
- (v) To contact Ministries and agencies to organise cooperation in the areas of employment, training,

testing, promotion, transfer, discharge, appraisal reports and budget section for employees.

3.4.4 The Recent Civil Service Bureau and the Council of Civil Service

One of the most important developments in the Civil Service system in Saudi Arabia was the establishment of the Council of Civil Service (CCS). The CCS main objective was to plan and organise the Civil Service in all government agencies in order to improve performance. Its organization consisted of (Al Sabbab, 1978, p. 70):

- (i) Vice Prime Minister, Chairman.
- (ii) Chief of the General Civil Service Bureau, Member.
- (iii) Four Ministers, Members for three years.
- (iv) Three professionals, Members for three years.

Since that time, the General Civil Service Bureau was affiliated with the Chairman of the Council of Civil Service. The main objective of creating the Council of Civil Service was to prevent the Chairman of Civil Service Bureau from taking arbitrary decisions. Article 8, for example, required that the Council of Civil Service establish by-laws for itself and for the General Civil Service Bureau. In order to achieve its objectives, the Council of Civil Service was given the authority to:

- (i) propose Civil Service laws,
- (ii) issue by-laws in the various Civil Service areas, and
- (iii) cooperate with other agencies in drawing up policies and planning methods, developing human resources, exercising control over Civil Service, and studying compensation and proposing any changes in wages, salaries and fringe benefits for Civil Service employees.

In 1977 the Council of Civil Service gave the General Civil Service Bureau the authority to execute, direct and control all matters relating to Civil Service in Saudi Arabia. It is important to note that decisions of the General Civil Service Bureau are not final until presented to the Council of Civil Service which in turn have to be presented to the Council of Ministers for final approval. The Chief of the General Civil Service Bureau is required to present a report every six months to the Council of Civil Service explaining the Bureau's performance and difficulties facing it. The CCS after studying the reports, prepares another report to the Council of Ministers for further action. The establishment of the CCS, which is working as a mediator between the Council of Ministers and the General Civil Service Bureau will hopefully enhance the efficiency of the Saudi Arabian Civil Service system.

Despite the above mentioned developments in the Civil Service system, the country still faces shortages in manpower both in quantitative and qualitative terms. This has resulted in heavy dependence on expatriates as will be illustrated in the brief description of the Saudi labour market that follows.

3.5 THE NATURE OF THE LABOUR MARKET

As was seen earlier (see 3.2) the national work force of Saudi Arabia - divided between nationals and non-nationals - is relatively small. This is due to the fact that few women work in modern sector activities such as industry, and the majority of nationals are inadequately educated to work in this sector. The economy therefore depends heavily on expatriate labour. As was mentioned in chapter 1, non-nationals tend to dominate the construction and manufacturing sectors, whereas nationals work mainly in agriculture or in services, mostly in government or quasi-government employment. To understand the labour market of Saudi Arabia better, it is important to note that Saudi Arabian development has proceeded along dual economy lines - the modern sector has forged ahead in industries such as petrochemicals while such developments have for the most part been located in particular

urban centres such as Jubail and Yanbu. The rural, agricultural sector has remained relatively traditional and subsistence based, except for occasional large-scale agricultural projects which are of small overall impact, (Birks and Sinclair, 1980, p. 107).

These two facets of the economy - the modern, urban sector, and the rural, traditional, largely subsistence sector - are associated with two separate labour markets. A large proportion of the Saudi Arabian national work force has not participated in development of the modern sector, but rather has remained in the traditional sector. There are a number of reasons for this, but those of particular importance are, first the fact that Saudis do not welcome long tiresome working hours, and secondly, they lack experience and education which are essential for working in such sectors. For these reasons the modern sector is dominated by expatriates. For examples, in 1974-75, the proportional contribution of non-nationals to employment in the manufacturing and construction sectors was 84 percent (see Table 3-5). Moreover, given Saudi Arabia's ambitious plans for rapid industrial development, dependence on migrant workers will increase further. The import of foreign labour has been one

TABLE 3-5

EMPLOYMENT OF NATIONALS AND NON-
NATIONALS BY ECONOMIC SECTOR, 1975

Economic Sector	T o t a l		National		Non-Nationals	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Agriculture & Fishing	585,550	32.5	530,650	51.7	54,900	7.1
Mining & Petroleum	27,000	1.5	15,400	1.5	11,600	1.5
Manufacturing	115,900	6.4	21,550	2.1	94,350	12.2
Electricity, Gas & Water	20,350	1.1	7,200	0.7	13,150	1.7
Consturction	239,300	13.3	35,900	3.5	203,400	26.3
Trade	192,100	10.7	60,600	5.9	131,500	17.0
Transport, Storage & Communication	103,800	5.8	72,900	7.1	30,900	4.0
Finance & Insurance	13,100	0.7	5,100	0.5	7,000	0.9
Community Services	443,050	24.6	241,200	23.5	201,850	26.1
Miscellaneous	60,650	3.4	35,900	3.5	24,750	3.2
Total:	1,800,800	100.0	1,026,400	100.0	773,400	100.0

Source: J.S. Bricks & C.A. Sinclair: "Arab Manpower, the Crisis of Development", 1980, p. 108.

means of bridging the gap between the supply and demand for labour. Table 3-6 gives the reader an idea of the composition of the migrant labour force in Saudi Arabia. It is important to note that most of the imported labour comes from neighbouring Arab countries i.e. in this instance 90.6 percent of the total foreign working in Saudi Arabia.

On the other hand, Saudi nationals who have entered the modern sector have tended to do so in selected areas. The economic sectors that are popular with Saudi nationals are services, transport and communications, trade and finance. Despite the fact that the majority of the national work force is inadequately educated, it should be noted that, in general, educated nationals occupy the key positions in government and industry. This is due to the fact that graduates of universities and other higher education institutions are compelled to work for the government upon graduation. Industrial employment, with the exception of that within the oil industry, is not popular among nationals. Neither is the construction industry since, as indicated previously, employment in these industries entails long hours, close supervision and insecurity of tenure. It is these two sectors, industry and construction, in which many migrants work. This situation can also be attributed to the fact that

TABLE 3-6EMPLOYMENT OF NON-NATIONALS
BY NATIONALITY, 1975, 1980*

Nationality	Number	Percent
Yemenies (North)	280,400	36.3
Jordanian (including Palestianians)	175,000	22.7
Egyptians	95,000	12.3
Yemenies (South)	55,000	7.1
Sudanese	35,000	4.5
Lebanese	20,000	2.6
Omanies	17,500	2.3
Syrians	15,000	1.9
Somalies	5,000	0.6
Iraqis	2,000	0.3
(Sub-total: Arabs)	(699,900)	(90.6)
Pakistanis	15,000	1.9
Indians	15,000	1.9
Other Asians	8,000	1.0
(Sub-total: Asians)	(38,000)	(4.8)
Europeans and Americans	15,000	1.9
African and Other	10,000	1.3
Iranians	10,000	1.3
Turks	5,000	0.1
Grand Total	<u>1,023,600</u>	<u>100.0</u>

* The number in 1980 increased to 1,023,600.

Source: J.S.Birks, & Sinclair: "Arab Manpower, the
Crisis of Development", 1980, p. 115.

the Saudi society does not seem to give any importance to menial technical jobs and largely respects managerial jobs.

It appears that the Saudi commitment to rapid economic development has created many problems the most important of which is the huge importation of foreign labour. This has created a state of an imbalance in national labour supply and demand. The imbalance in labour supply and demand and the inadequate national, sectoral, and regional distribution and utilization of available manpower has adversely affected the process and pattern of economic growth and social development. Though improvement in the government's perception of manpower and employment issues as integral parts of development process was noticeable, employment in particular was still not viewed as a basic objective and vehicle of economic growth and social progress. Thus all development plans (see Chapter 1) referred broadly to the need to upgrade existing manpower and to increase labour productivity. The fifth development plan of Saudi Arabia emphasized the reduction of foreign labour, increase of employment opportunities in the commodity-producing sectors and selection of capital-intensive technologies (e.g. Jubail and Yanbu).

In general, the objectives of the plans in the field of employment and manpower were often stated without any concrete quantitative targets. Moreover, in many cases, the objectives were rather ambitious, and were found to be difficult to be achieved within the period of the plan.

Important constraints here were the rather weak planning machinery and the lack of effective coordinating mechanisms. In addition to this, the limited amount and qualitative inadequacy of information on the labour markets and lack of sufficient national expertise for the design of manpower and employment plans made it very difficult to formulate and implement policies.

3.6 CONCLUSION

During the unification of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and after the foundation of the Saudi Arabian state, there were many reforms of the Civil Service systems. Consequently, the evolution of the Civil Service laws in Saudi Arabia can be divided into two stages, namely, before the creation of the Council of Ministers, and after the creation of it. In the period between the unification of the Kingdom in 1932 and the creation of the Council of Ministers in 1953, the country was run on traditional lines. With the creation

of the Council of Ministers in 1953 the country shifted from a traditional to a more centralized form of government. Many Ministries were established such as the Ministries of Interior, Transportation and Agriculture. However, in this expansion of the government organization, little attention was given to the Civil Service. One consequence of this was that there was no independent agency responsible for planning and recruiting Civil Service employees. Each Ministry planned and recruited its own personnel according to its own criteria; recruitment, selection and promotion were all subjective, depending highly on favouritism, friendship and family association.

The government felt the need to improve the administrative system of the government. Therefore, the High Committee for Administrative Reform was established in 1963 headed by the King and the Prime Minister. This resulted in the establishment of a centralized body responsible for all Civil Service matters in government organizations. This central agency was called the General Personnel Bureau (recently renamed the General Civil Service Bureau). After the establishment of the GPB two Civil Service laws were passed in 1971 and 1977. In contrast to the previous Civil Service laws, the new laws of 1971 and

1977 placed more emphasis on a greater centralization of personnel matters. Therefore, the laws charged the GPB with the responsibilities of recruitment, selection, examination, promotion and all matters which are related to Civil Service issues of all government civilian employees. The objectives behind creating a centralised employment agency for the whole Kingdom were as follows:

- (i) To ensure the application of the merit procedures.
- (ii) To develop standardised employees procedures for selection and promotion.
- (iii) To ensure the application of position classification.
- (iv) To ensure that the distribution of manpower is consistent with the government's development plans, priorities, and actual needs.
- (v) To cooperate and coordinate with universities, educational and training institutions to provide government agencies with civil employees.

In order to endorse the above mentioned objectives, and to increase the efficiency of the Civil Service and to prevent the Bureau's officials from taking any arbitrary decisions which could be based on nepotism and social relationships, the 1977 law created the

Council of Civil Service (CCS). The Council, consisting of nine people, worked as a mediator between the Council of Ministers and the Civil Service Bureau. Despite these developments in the civil service employment system, recent reforms have not had a marked effect, but rather have increased bureaucratic procedures. This may be due to the fact that Saudi Arabia has committed itself to a rapid industrial development at a time when the country still faces many problems associated with the shortage of native skilled manpower. The shortage of labour in Saudi Arabia is due to a combination of factors that could be summarised as follows:

- (i) The small population of the Kingdom which is estimated to fall between 9 - 11 million people with a literacy rate of about 15 to 25 percent, constitute a problem that cannot be solved in the short run.
- (ii) Proscriptions that prevent women from participating effectively in the labour force for religious and cultural reasons.
- (iii) The capture by the public sector of most of the skilled and high-level manpower. This is due to the fact that graduates of universities were compelled to work for government upon graduation. Thus the share of Saudi workers in the public sector is 3 to 4 times their portion in the private sector.

- (iv) A lack of effective utilization of Saudi workers in the public sector. Apparently, there are concentrations of workers in certain government agencies (e.g. most Ministries), causing disguised unemployment. In addition, a number of these workers are not trained and therefore, unqualified to do jobs that are assigned to them.²
- (v) A lack of interest in organising the labour market. For example, in remote areas the unemployment rate is considerable, while there is a severe shortage of workers in urban areas. Also, there are certain occupations with severe labour shortage (.e.g electricians, plumbers,engineers, etc.), while others have an inflated number of workers (e.g. typists, clerks, etc.).
- (vi) Lack of connection between educational planning and training programs, and the country's needs for manpower to implement the projects and programs of economic and social developments. This has contributed to the dependence on expat-raite labour.
- (vii) The general tendency among Saudi workers and managers is to leisure and freedom rather than keeping to fixed schedule. On the average, the

Saudi workers and managers alike cannot keep to fixed schedules and the ethics of labour as known in industrialized countries is generally irrelevant among Saudis for social, traditional and cultural reasons (refer to Chapter 1). This is one of the main reasons of their concentration in service-type jobs.

It seems that the problem is multidimensional primarily caused by many agencies such as the Ministry of Planning which has committed itself to a rapid industrial development without taking into consideration the shortage of skilled labour and the Ministry of Higher Education which has not paid attention to manpower planning in coordination with the GCSB. If coordination can be achieved between these agencies, it is possible that greater efficiency may be achieved.

NOTES ON CHAPTER 3

1. Despite the decentralization of authority, the Bureau is still controlling matters which are related to promotion and selection especially of those grades under 13. Any Ministry can only select and promote its employees with the consent of the GCSB. The reason behind this seems to decrease nepotism which may affect the selection and promotion practices.
2. More on this issue, see for example "Al-Iktissad Wal-Amal", Arab Business Magazine, Year 1, Vol. 8, Nov. 1979, pp. 37-41.

CHAPTER 4CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND JOB
SATISFACTION: AN OVERVIEW4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I will review the literature concerning people's orientation to work and career development and relate this to the study of the adaptation process of organizational members and the resulting satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction. Therefore, this chapter will focus on two major areas, namely, career development in which the emphasis will be directed toward studying individuals before joining an organization and the factors that are likely to affect the occupation choice of individuals, and secondly, looking at individuals after joining organizations and how they try to adapt to the environment of organization and resulting satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction of joining such organizations. As a starting point, one may ask: why do people work and why do they join organizations? Do they work because they intrinsically like to work, or is it because work leads them to attain particular goals, for example economic goals such as pay, or social goals, such as status and belonging to a specific work group, or both? From reviewing the literature on the subject of work, it has been found that people work not only for economic and social reasons but also because of

religious factors. In this sense, work has been regarded by most religions as a punishment laid on man by God because of man's original sin.¹ Nevertheless, whatever the origins of work may be, it seems that people have been motivated to work primarily for two main reasons, social and economic. J. Forrest of the United States Office of Vocational Rehabilitation for example says ".... work gives us direction, purpose and status, and identifies us with the rest of society (Forrest and Scott, 1970, p. 1). This may be due to the fact that man is a social animal who likes to live and interact with other people of his kind. Therefore, man likes to feel that he has attained status in the eyes of others of his society. In a relevant study which shows how man desires to work, Morse and Weiss (1955) found that if a man had enough money to support himself, he would still want to work. In their research which was conducted on a national sample in the United States, they found that for most men having a job serves other functions than the one of simply earning a living. Work gives them a feeling of being tied into the larger society, of having something to do, and in particular of having a purpose in life.

It is important to note that when people work, they usually work in organizations and a substantial

part of their lives are spent in occupational activities. Therefore, it is assumed that work links individuals with others through work-patterned social interaction. Consequently, it can be predicted that occupational roles form a major basis of an individual's sense of personal identity. Since people have different needs and seem to value things differently, it follows that social factors are not the only factors which attract people to work. For this reason, it seems very difficult to predict exactly the meaning of work for different people. Some are primarily motivated by economic factors such as pay (e.g. most assembly-line workers), while others are primarily motivated by social factors (e.g. religious people and some top managers). Lee Braude (1975, p. 136) has elaborated on this point when he said:

".... the meaning of work for the individual can be varied as the gamut of human emotional responses. Factors that appear to structure work meanings, particularly as they are expressed in the attitude of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work include absenteeism, achievement, advancement and promotion, a sense of alienation, job career aspirations, degree of autonomy in work, automation, a sense of challenge, clarity

of goals, education, job involvement, intellectual stimulation, social and occupational mobility, opportunities provided by the job, personal and social motivation of the job, morale, needs, interpersonal relationships, organizational structures, salaries, race, sex, ethnicity, status, prestige of work, supervision, tenure, training, recognition provided by peer and supervisor, conditions and hours of work, and performance and productivity."

This seems to suggest that the interaction of some and/or all the above mentioned factors is likely to shape the general expectations of the individual from work and may lead the individual to be either satisfied or dissatisfied with his job.

Taking this into consideration, one can generally assume that every individual has some kind of orientation to work even before joining organizations. But after joining organizations, work seems to vary with the experience of social, occupational or organizational advancement. Individuals join organizations on the assumption that they will find in them chances to satisfy their needs and goals which generally shape their orientation to work. Goldthorpe et al (1968, pp. 38-41) have set out ideal types from three contrasting orientations to work (extracted from Sofer, 1970).

- (i) Instrumental orientation: In this orientation work is a means-to-ends external to the work situation, a means of supporting a way of life in which work itself is not an integral part. Involvement of the worker in his employing organization is calculative, in terms of economic return for effort, and is of low intensity. The feelings involved are mild or neutral, rather than highly positive or negative. Work is not a source of self-realisation, or of emotionally significant experiences or social relations. The worker's life is sharply dichotomised between work and non-work.
- (ii) Bureaucratic orientation: The primary meaning of work is as service to an organization in return for steadily increasing income and social status and for long-term security (that is, in return for a career). Economic rewards are not regarded as payment for particular amounts of work done but as emoluments appropriate to a particular grade, function or length of service. Faithful administration is entitled in return for a secure existence. Involvement will tend to be positive where moral expectations of the employer are being faithfully met or perhaps strongly

negative where it is felt that these are not being honoured. The work is important in determining the worker's conception of himself; his 'position' and 'prospects' are significant sources of his social identity; ego-involvement in work is in this sense strong, and work represents a central life interest in so far as the individual's career is crucial to his 'life-fate'. Workers' lives cannot be sharply dichotomised between work and non-work: self concepts, aspirations and organizational status tend to carry over into non-work activities.

- (iii) Solidaristic orientation: Apart from being a means to an end, work is experienced also as a collective activity, the collectivity being, for instance, the work group or even a whole (small) enterprise. Workers might refrain from maximising income when either of these is threatened. Where identification is with the enterprise there is a positive involvement, in some cases involvement is with the work group only and there are negative feelings toward the organization. Ego-involvement in work is strong, work is a central life interest and important in satisfying expressive and effective needs. Work and non-work are intimately related and work implies a whole way of life.

The authors are careful to state that all work activity in industrial society tends to have a basically instrumental component and that these three orientations to work are not intended to stand in total contrast to each other. They suggest that perhaps only i. should be considered as forming an 'ideal type' in the strict sense. In this case ii. and iii. would refer to deviations from an instrumental orientation in a bureaucratic and solidaristic direction respectively, just as other deviations are conceivable, as for example in a 'professional' direction (Sofer, 1970, p. 4). If this is to suggest anything, it seems to demonstrate that people have looked at work and approached it differently depending on the values and attitudes they hold about work. The thing which complicates the situation further is that when individuals join organizations, they have a set of personal goals and objectives that they look forward to satisfy. On the other hand, the organizations themselves have a set of goals and objectives that have to be met by their members. To achieve this, organizations obtain work from people by offering them some kind of career within their structures. The operations of organizations therefore seem to depend on people assuming a career orientation towards them. To generate

this orientation, organizations distribute rewards, working conditions and prestige to their members according to career level. Thus, these benefits are properties of the organizational career and generally speaking people work to advance their organizational careers. Consequently, it can be generally assumed that the properties of the organizational career are prime determinants of the behaviour of the people who man the organization. Moreover, as Hughes (1937, p.404) said, "... organizational careers guide the person into kinds of interpretations, perspectives, or meanings of his work and his performance of it, his responsibility, his powers, rights and privileges and his identity, and guide others appraisals of the person on these dimensions."

However, it is important to mention that when people join organizations they try to look for those kinds of job that facilitate the satisfaction of their needs and objectives, and which correspond to their career orientation. Throughout the years of their development, most individuals have been trying to learn more about their interests, capacities and values, and about opportunities and limitations in the job market in order to make occupational choices that will most likely yield them maximum satisfaction.

Therefore, it can be generally assumed that work which people do is not solely dictated by the circumstances in which they find themselves more than it reflects their wishes and desires. The shaping of man's work finally represents a compromise between his interests and the opportunities which he confronts. Some people have many opportunities, others only a few. Some are satisfied with their jobs, others not. From here stems the problem, some organizations can easily achieve their objectives through their members, while other organizations face difficulties in achieving their objectives partially because of inappropriate selection processes. Another possible explanation is that, in the first instance, the objectives of the organizations seem to be in harmony with the objectives of their members. If this is the case, one can predict and say that members of organizations, in which the fit between their objectives and the objectives of their members is present, are likely to be better satisfied with their jobs than members of other organizations in which the fit between the objectives of the organization, and the objectives of its members, is difficult to achieve. Drawing from the above discussion, can one, for example, predict and say that organizations can enhance the satisfaction

of their members if they provide jobs which correspond to their career orientation? Before we try to answer this question, which we will when we talk about job satisfaction, one may ask: how does the person adopt a specific career? what are the factors that may affect the occupational choice of an individual? and, how does career theory develop over time? This will be the subject of the next few pages.

4.2 CAREER DEVELOPMENT

4.2.1 Definition of a Career

'Career' has been defined in numerous ways by different researchers. Generally speaking, these definitions seem to agree that a career implies norms and the structuring of identifiable and discrete stages through which practitioners pass as they experience a life's work in a given occupation. H. Wilensky (1960, p. 543) for example, has defined a career "as a succession of related jobs, arranged in a hierarchy of prestige through which persons move in an ordered, predictable sequence". H. Hughes (1937, p. 404) has defined a career "as the moving perspective in which the person sees his life as a whole and interprets the meaning of his various attributes, actions, and the

things which happens to him. Moreover, R. Pavalco (1971, p. 111) has defined a career as "the modal patterns of temporally ordered work roles current in an occupation and the sequence of work roles that individuals may perform over the course of their life times."

Super and Bohn (1970, p. 113) looked at a career from different angles - economical, sociological and psychological. According to them, a career is the sequence of occupations, jobs and positions engaged in or occupied throughout the life-time of a person. Viewed economically, a career is a series of positions occupied by a person, a means of preparing to earn, earning or withdrawing from the earning of a livelihood. Viewed sociologically, it is a series of roles played by a person in which the nature of each role played, the way in which it is played have some bearing on the nature of the next roles in the series. Viewed psychologically, a career is also a series of roles played by a person, the choice of and success, in which are determined in part by the aptitudes, interests, values, needs, prior experiences and expectations of person in question. From the above definitions, careers, can be generally looked at from different perspectives namely structural and personal. In the first instance, a career can be either looked at as a series of linked

positions within one organization or as a series of linked positions within one occupation (e.g. a profession) which may be pursued in different organizations. On the other hand a career can also be viewed as personal where it resembles a sequence of steps taken by an individual. Both of these perspectives will be used in our discussion.

It also seems that a career almost always refers to full-time employment, that is because a career is usually linked with the organization either by a job in which the person does the work of the organization or by a client position provided by the organization in which the person receives the work of the organization - patient, customer, etc. For this reason Becker and Strauss (1976, p. 76) felt that it was useful to visualise organizational careers as a set of "streams" or "escalators" a person tries to climb during the period of his life-time. Some individuals move fast to reach high positions, others only barely, while others may also become frozen between escalators and remain in one location for an extended period of time (this issue is developed later when we talk about mobility). This seems to indicate that careers develop over time, therefore, one may ask: how do careers develop over time? We try to answer this question in the following few pages.

4.2.2 The Development of Career Theories

The study of careers is an old one. It dates back nearly one hundred years. During this time, four major types of theories have emerged, the first late in the 19th century and the second early in the 20th century, the third in the 1940s and 50s, and the last quite recently. The first career theory focuses primarily on the relationship of parental social class to individual career attainment. According to this theory, which is called social class theory, social class is an important determinant of occupational attainment, and children generally follow careers that resemble those of their fathers. More recently, sociologists have shifted their inquiry toward explaining the process of how social class affects one's level of occupational attainment. For example, Blau (1956) suggested that social structure influences career outcome in two ways, first by shaping the social development of the individual and thus his or her career orientation, self concept, values, interest, and second by affecting the occupational opportunities available to the individual. In a relevant research, Miller and Form (1951) found that parents in upper class families were often owners or managers who tended to pressure their offspring to establish the

necessary social contacts for the maintenance of the family's high status. More recent work in the social status tradition has concentrated on multi-variate approaches to the study of social background characteristics. Using these approaches, Blau and Duncan (1967) suggested that the most significant influence on career attainment in one's social class background are father's occupation and father's education. These two factors were found to be strong predictors of a person's education and job.

Despite the fact that social class theory has contributed positively to the development of the notion of career, it still has many weaknesses. These weaknesses stem from the fact that this theory generally assumed that both individuals and their environments were relatively static or unchanging. This has resulted in the following weaknesses, (Sonnenfeld and Kotter, 1982, p. 22):

- (i) Social class researchers often fail to consider the impact of changes in the social status of an occupation over time.
- (ii) Social class researchers often neglect to appreciate that an individual can change occupation over time. As such, they often look at father's occupation at one stage in his career and a son's occupation at a different stage in the son's career.

(iii) Social class researchers often ignore the fact that the distribution of the population in different occupations change over time. Farming, for example, has changed dramatically. It employed 40 percent of the labour force in the United States of America in 1900, but only 6 percent in 1960. Thus the fact that a son does or does not follow his father into farming may be due to occupational demand more than to social status.

(iv) Finally, these researchers have often ignored the fact that the individuals change over time. For example, people's memories of historical facts are not always reliable, yet researchers in this tradition often use retrospective data. Furthermore, in the past century, since this type of career theory emerged, people's values have changed regarding what they consider constitutes success in a career.

Due to the above mentioned weaknesses, a second theory has emerged which has been called "trait theory". The focus of the trait theory was on the relationship of individual traits to career choice. To overcome the rigidity and limitations of the social class theory, trait theory took a slightly more

dynamic view of the individual. It suggests that there are complex forces involved in shaping an individual's traits or personality, which in turn can determine career choice. Those forces fully develop during childhood. As such, important career outcomes are set by an early age. Many studies have been conducted using trait theory. One of the most important studies is that of Holland. His study suggests that people with different personality types drift toward predictably different types of occupational environments. He outlined six such environments. Everyone is required to adjust to each of the environments and develop certain skills with reference to the setting. The six types of adjustment stemming from the developmental hierarchy represent major life style and patterns of relationships between the individual and his environment. The most typical way an individual responds to his environment is his modal personal orientation. The six orientations are (Holland, 1971):

- The realistic orientation characterised by aggressive behaviour, interest in activities requiring motor coordination, skill and physical strength and masculinity. People oriented toward this role prefer acting out problems; they avoid tasks involving interpersonal and verbal skills and seek

concrete rather than abstract problem situations. They score high on traits such as concreteness, physical strength and masculinity and low on social skill and sensitivity (e.g. farming, trucking,).

- The Investigative persons whose main characteristics are thinking rather than acting, organising and understanding rather than dominating or persuading. These people prefer to avoid close interpersonal contact, though the quality of their avoidance seems different from their realistic colleagues. Examples of the investigative types are mathematicians.
- The Social people who seem to satisfy their needs for attention in a teaching or therapeutic situation. In sharp contrast to the Investigative and Realistic people, Social people seek close interpersonal situations and are skilled in their interpersonal relations, while they avoid situations where they might be required to engage in intellectual problem solving or use extensive physical skills (e.g. counselling and teaching).
- The conventional style is typified by a great concern for rules and regulations, great self-control, subordination of personal needs and strong

identification with power and status. This kind of person prefers structure and order and thus seeks interpersonal and work situations where structure is readily available (e.g. bank clerking, book-keeping, etc.).

- Enterprising people who are verbally skilled, but rather than use their verbal skills to support others as the Social types do, they use them for manipulating and dominating people. They are concerned about power and status, as are the Conventional people, but differ in that they aspire to the power and status while the Conventionals honour others for it (e.g. sales, politics, etc.).
- Finally, the Artistic orientation which manifests strong self-expression. Such people dislike structure, rather prefer tasks emphasising physical skills or interpersonal interactions. They are intrceptive and social much like the Investigative, but differ in that they are more feminine than masculine, show relatively little self-control and express emotions more readily than most people (e.g. music, art, etc.).

In his study Holland proposed that if one of the above orientations decisively dominates the others, the individual will gravitate towards an occupational

environment consistent with that orientation. If two or more orientations are of near or equal intensity, the individual will vacillate in the selection of an occupational environment.

Although the trait theory has had a stronger impact than the social class theory, it still has been limited in its contribution due to the following weaknesses, (Sonnenfeld and Kotter, 1982, p. 26):

- (i) Trait theory tends to de-emphasise the influence of changing work place demands at the various stages of one's career.
- (ii) Trait researchers generally ignore the fact that traits such as cognitive style can change throughout a lifetime.
- (iii) Trait researchers often assume an unrealistically simple and static view of occupational environments. Therefore, they often rely on overly general occupational categories for which many alternative trait profiles may be appropriate.

In addition to the above mentioned weaknesses, Holland points to several shortcomings in his theory. In particular, that certain portions of the theory are too ambiguous to be adequately tested and that the personal orientations, as originally stated, were not

specific enough. Some of the data concerning the characteristics of the personality types offset this latter defect. He also feels that the applicability of the theory to women is limited and that the theory must be revised to account more adequately for the vocational development of women, whose development and vocational tasks and goals differ significantly enough from those of men to require some different formalities. Finally, on the results of his 1962 study, that the concept of the level hierarchy in his theory is, at best, oversimplified and at worst unnecessary. Instead, the level of aspiration is the result of the highly complex interaction of several variables and is not likely to be linearly related to intelligence. As it stood in his original theory, however, the level hierarchy was not likely to be a valid concept.

Furthermore, Holland's theory seems to suffer from the problems that are inherent in trait-factor approaches to vocational choice. A final serious limitation is that the theory, as stated, explains little about the process of personality development and its role in vocational selection.

Given the above problems a third theory called "career stage theory" has emerged which takes a more dynamic view of both the individual and his or her

environment, especially the environment. It argues that career-related environmental demands placed on a person change in important ways over time, especially during the early adult years. Therefore, important career outcomes are not set until age 30 to 40. One of the most important studies of career stage theory is the work done by Ginzberg in 1957. His study has led him to conclude that vocational choice is an irreversible process occurring in reasonably clear periods which he labelled fantasy (age 6-11), tentative (12-17) and realistic (18 plus). Briefly, in the fantasy stage, the individual begins to imagine what it would be like to be in various occupations. In the tentative stage, he or she begins to make tentative choices and to do some career planning. In the realistic stage, the person actually makes some choices (this issue is developed later). In further relevant research, Super reacted to Ginzberg's work by developing an extended model of career stages. This can be summarised as follows, (Super and Bohn, 1970, pp.135-137):

- (i) Growth Stage (birth to 14 years). During this stage the self-concept develops through identification with key figures in family and in school, needs and fantasy are dominant early in this stage; interest and capacity becomes more

important in this stage with increasing social participation and reality testing. Sub-stages of the growth stage are:

- fantasy (4-10). Needs are dominant, role playing in fantasy is important;
- interests (11-12). Likes are the major determinants of aspirations and activities;
- capacity (13-14). Abilities are given more weight, and job requirements (including training) are considered.

(ii) Exploration stage (15-24).

In this stage, self-examination, role try-outs and occupational exploration take place in school, leisure, activities and part-time work. Sub-stages of the exploration stage are:

- tentative (15-17). Needs, interests, capacities, values and opportunities are all considered. Tentative choices are made and tried out in fantasy discussion, courses, work, etc.;
- transition (18-21). Reality considerations are given more weight as the youth enters the labour market or professional training and attempts to implement a self-concept.
- trial (22-24). A seemingly appropriate field having been located, a beginning job in it is found and tried out as a life work.

(iii) Establishment Stage (25-44)

Having found an appropriate field, effort is put in to make a permanent place in it. There may be some early trials in this stage, with a consequent shift, but establishment may begin with trials, especially in the case of professions.

Sub-stages of the establishment stage are:

- trial (25-30). The field of work presumed to be suitable may prove unsatisfactory, resulting in one or two changes before the life work is found or before it becomes clear that the life work will be a succession of unrelated jobs;
- stabilisation (31-44). As the career pattern becomes clear, effort is put forth to stabilise, to make a secure place, in the world of work. For most persons, these are the creative years.

(iv) Maintenance Stage (45-64)

Having made a place in the world of work, the concern is now to hold it. Little new ground is broken, but there is continuation along established lines.

v) Decline Stage (65 on)

As physical and mental powers decline, work

activity changes and in due course ceases. New roles must be developed, first that of selective participant and then that of observer rather than participant. Sub-stages of this stage are:

- declaration (65-70). Sometimes at the time of official retirement, sometimes late in the maintenance stage, the pace of work slackness, duties are shifted, or the nature of the work is changed to suit declining capacities. Many men find part-time jobs to replace their full-time occupations.
- Retirement (71 on). As with all the specified age limits, there are great variations from person to person. But complete cessation of occupation comes for all in due course, to some easily and pleasantly, to others with difficulty and disappointment, and to some only with death.

Career stage theory has attracted many researchers who agreed that it was useful to look at and think of careers as developing in somewhat predictable stages. Despite its contribution in the construction of a general career theory, it still, like other theories, has many weaknesses, the most important of which are (Sonnenfeld and Kotter, 1982, p. 29):

- (i) The individual is seen as rather passive. Career stage models tend to assume that people do not switch organizations or occupations (at least after an initial trial period). Yet evidence exists that people commonly switch career tracks, particularly in certain occupations and at certain ages.
- (ii) Career stage theory tends to ignore the dynamic interaction between work and non-work aspects of life at any given moment. Yet there is evidence that what happens outside the work affects work and vice versa.
- (iii) Further, career stage theory usually overlooks the importance of relevant biographical data. That is, it often ignores historical dynamics. For examples, it is rare to find a career stage theorist seriously taking parental social class into account.
- (iv) Finally, some of the initial work in particular has been criticised for its over-emphasis on the early work years and its deterministic nature.

Because of its wide acceptance due to its heuristic value, i.e. the stages seem valid in a general way and correspond to a view of reality in adolescent development, this theory has had a greater impact than any

other. Its theoretical contribution lies in its attempt to understand career development as part of individual development. Super's theory is on the other hand limited by its almost sole reliance on social interaction to explain the development of a sense of self. Super himself, while recognising the importance of social interaction, observed that it does not satisfactorily explain the selection and synthesizing process leading to the development of the self. He was one of the first to recognise the importance of the synthesizing process in conceptualizing career development, but he found that the self-concept was not well suited to explaining the process.

In a somewhat similar manner to career stage theory, life-cycle theory has emerged and primarily focused on adult life experience and how the development of it over time influences career-related outcomes. The assumptions of life-cycle theory are even more dynamic than career stage theory, especially as regards to the individual. Here, the individual is seen as growing and changing throughout his or her life as a result of work, family and internal (biological and psychological) forces. As such, important career outcomes are never entirely set until retirement or death. In summary, the fourth type of career

theory focuses on the dynamic evolution of people, their families and their careers over a life time. Despite the limited amount of this kind of research, it already strongly suggests that there are patterns in the adult life cycle, and that to understand career outcomes, one needs to focus on adult development, the family and the life style as well as career stages.

The main criticism that one can make of this life-cycle study to date is that they are often too limited in scope. Life cycle theory suggests that a large number of factors are relevant to career dynamics, yet still these studies usually ignore many important factors such as non-work behaviour and attitudes, and the heavy reliance on male subjects in this type of research.

The theories' strength lie in their general explanation of the way career decision-making occurs. For formal adequacy as theories, much seem to be lacking. In general, the theories have failed to pay serious attention to the satisfaction of the criteria applied to the scientific evaluation of theory. There is a tendency to describe the career development process in very general terms, probably more general than is useful to researchers and practitioner alike. However, the similarities between the theories outweigh

the differences; they emphasize the same kinds of critical agents and periods in career development. The differences between the theories lie in their choice of emphasis, the research methods suitable to each, and the degree to which they specify the realities between various events. As a consequence, some theories have received wider empirical support (e.g. those of Super and Holland) than others (e.g. attribute matching). It appears that what is lacking in career development theories is a well-elaborated conceptual structure that would link the concept of career to other organizational and/or social variables. Therefore, one needs more research on the evolution of occupations, and one needs concepts that show similarities and differences among classes of occupations in different cultures. Unfortunately, efforts of most career development researchers examined in this research have tended to describe such limitations and differences in terms of the psychological abilities or traits or interests needed to succeed in a specific occupation.

Having discussed the basic development in career theory, one can generally assume that people almost always try to advance their careers by choosing an appropriate occupation. Therefore, to better understand

one's career, it seems appropriate to look into work related decisions and the factors which may affect the occupational choice of an individual. But before that one might ask: are there occupational choice theories? In the following few pages we try to answer the above mentioned questions, but before that we need to know what constitutes an occupational choice.

4.3 OCCUPATIONS AND OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

4.3.1 Definition of an Occupation

There are many meanings of the term "occupation" depending on the way people look at occupations. For example, Super and Bohn (1970, p. 113) looked at occupations from different angles. They defined an occupation as a type of work activity in which people engage, a group of similar tasks organised in similar ways in various establishments, and activity that has a market value and in which people are, therefore, paid to engage. Viewed economically, an occupation is a means of assuring a steady flow of income to individuals. Viewed sociologically, an occupation is a role with certain socially defined expectations, played in a network of related roles that constitute the systems of production, distribution and service for certain

generally expected material and psychic rewards. Viewed psychologically, an occupation is a set of tasks and role expectations, the performance or meeting of which requires certain skills, knowledge, aptitudes and interests and brings certain rewards.

After defining occupations and previously careers, one might ask: what is the difference between an occupation and career? The basic difference between an occupation and career is the longitudinal, sequential character of the latter as opposed to the static nature of the former. Therefore, an occupation is what one does to earn a living at some point in time, whereas a career is the sequence of positions occupied over a period of time.

4.3.2 Theories of Occupational Choice

The first researchers to attract attention towards theories of occupational choice were Ginzberg and his associates. In their book published in 1951, they identified three common approaches to or theories about occupational choice. The first is that people make decisions about the future "accidentally". This is often the response of people asked directly about the choices they have themselves made, implying that they were affected by a factor or factors beyond their

control - by an unplanned exposure to a powerful stimulus. But in the life of every person there are countless such occurrences, only a few of which so stimulate him that he responds in a way that has important consequences. The accident theory is correct to the extent that it stresses the importance of external factors in the choice process but wrong in that it neglects the fact that the way in which the person takes account of external factors depends on the way in which he perceives and reacts to them. The accident theory ignores the range of options available to the person.

A second approach is that occupational choice can be understood only through understanding the unconscious forces in individual behaviour. This may be called an impulse theory of occupational choice. But a variety of occupations may permit expression of the same emotional impulses. The limitations of this type of explanation become further evident from the fact that there are profound differences in the emotional make-up of people in the same occupation. And it is obvious that, whatever his impulses, a person cannot enter an occupation unless the opportunities exist for him to do so.

A third approach has focused on aptitudes, interests and values. It emphasised the importance of vocational guidance. Vocational counsellors have helped people a long time ago to discover the relative strengths and weaknesses in their capacities so that they could have a firmer basis on which to make an occupational choice. Counsellors developed detailed inventories of the likes and dislikes of successful people in different occupations and then sought to match the preferences of people still undecided about their occupations with these inventories, on the assumption that correspondence in interest patterns was a safe guide in making an occupational choice.

These were the three main theories of occupational choice. Whatever may be the assumptions of these theories, occupational choice can be generally viewed to consist of two processes; crystallisation and moulding. The two interact and individuals vary in the degree to which they succeed in accomplishing their occupational choice satisfactorily. Some individuals never do crystallise an occupational choice but drift from one to another. This pattern varies from occupation to occupation and is less frequent among occupations requiring a high degree of qualifications (e.g. professionals). The moulding process occurs when an

individual responds to social pressures, either positive or negative, to formulate an occupational choice and to develop an effective role within an occupation. Therefore, it seems that crystallisation brings clarity and choice into a situation where there was vagueness and indecision. On the other hand, moulding brings a more realistic or a socially acceptable choice into a situation where there may have been unrealistic or unfeasible fantasy previously, (Fogarty et al, 1971, p. 216). Therefore, occupational choice seems to be very difficult and very critical to some people, while easy to others. This may be due to the fact that people differ in the way they choose different occupations depending on the level of aspiration they have reached and the kind of education they have attained. Occupations themselves also differ, some have a more hierarchical career structure than others, some are more prestigious than others and some are functionally more important to a society than others. Almost all individuals who are representing the labour force in any country have had the experience of choosing occupations, whether those individuals were young or old. But, it can be generally assumed that as individuals advance with age, their interests and activities change over time as a result of increased maturation. Ginzberg

(1951) for example, conceptualises occupational choice as an irreversible process that represents a compromise between a person's interests, capacities, opportunities and values. The emergence of occupational interests and a concern with values are viewed in the emotional change and maturation. According to Ginzberg the developmental periods through which people are assumed to pass and the corresponding age periods are:

- (i) The Fantasy Period (ages 6-11)
- (ii) Period of Tentative Choice (ages 12-17)
- (iii) Period of Realistic Choice (ages 18 plus).

Despite the fact that Ginzberg's scheme narrows the range of occupational choices as one advances with age, his scheme of occupational choice has many weaknesses. One of the major weaknesses is a neglect of culture. The stages and corresponding ages might differ from culture to culture. What may be considered as a realistic choice in one culture may not very well be in another culture. This situation is likely to be affected by the educational and social backgrounds of individuals in different cultures. The empirical evidence in support of the theory is mixed. A thread of data consistent with the major tenets of the theory has been found by several investigators. There does seem

to be evidence suggesting that boys emphasize different kinds of experience in their vocational development at various age levels. There also appears to be reason to believe that boys must compromise their career preferences in deference to the reality of the world they observe. The evidence is mixed, however, with respect to specifically what the stages are, when they occur, and the order in which they occur. For instance, in Saudi Arabia an individual can join the Civil Service if he reaches seventeen years of age. Seventeen years of age is the age at which an individual barely graduates from high school. Can one consider the choice of a Saudi individual of seventeen years of age to join the labour force as tentative or realistic in Ginzberg's scheme? It may be tentative but I do not think it is realistic. If one compares the studies of both Ginzberg and Super, it is apparent that Ginzberg stressed choice points at which the individual explicitly selected and acted upon a decision. Super on the other hand emphasised a continuous process of choice despite the fact that both of them agreed that individuals only make occupational choices which are perceived to be congruent with their particular self concept.

Finally, in order to assess Ginzberg's theory, a question may be asked: Does the theory contain the general features attributed to a good theory of vocational counselling? Certainly, the theory seems to rate well on its comprehensiveness and its relationship to what is known about human development. The process of normal vocational development is clearly evident in the theory, and to a lesser extent, patterns of deviant vocational behaviours are also described. Thus, it is possible for a counsellor to have expectations about the development of an individual along vocational lines from the theoretical statement. The theory permits a counsellor to have expectations of the problems in career development when he is confronted by an individual with a deviant vocational pattern. All in all, Ginzberg's work has been an important factor in advancing the developmental view of career choice. Moreover, his attempts to build a theory have stimulated others to make their view of career development more explicit and rigorous. His formulation gives recognition to an individual's decision making in career development. Ginzberg's theory of occupational choice has proven both useful and influential although it falls short as a comprehensive

theory. In spite of this, there seem to be some limitations in the Ginzberg's theory. First, it does not build adequately on previous work: for example, the extensive literature on the nature, development, and predictive values of inventories interests is rather highly dismissed.

Second, "choice" is defined as preference rather than as entry or some other implementation of choice, and hence means different things at different age levels. To the 14 year-old it means nothing more than preference, because at that age the need for realism is minimized by the fact that the preference does not need to be acted upon until the remote future. To the 21 year-old student of engineering, on the other hand, "choice" means a preference which has already been acted upon in entering engineering school, although the final action will come only with graduation and entry into a job. No wonder that reality plays a larger part in choice at age 21, when, unlike choice at age 14, it is by definition a reality tested choice.

A third effect in Ginzberg's theory emerges from these different meanings of the term "choice" at different ages: it is the falseness of the distinction between "choice" and "adjustment" which he and his research team make. The very fact that choice is a

continuous process going on over a period of time, a process rather far removed from reality in early youth but involving reality in increasing degrees with increasing age, should make it clear that there is no sharp distinction between choice and adjustment. Instead, they blend in adolescence, with now the need to make a choice and now to make an adjustment predominating in the occupational or life situation.

A fourth limitation in the work of the Ginzberg team lies in the fact that, although they set out to study the process of occupational choice, and although they properly concluded that it is one of compromise between interest, capacities, values and opportunities, they did not study or describe the compromise process. Surely, this is the crux of the problem of occupational choice and adjustment: the nature of the compromise between self and reality, the degree to which and the conditions under which this compromise is effected. For the counselling psychologist's function is to help the individual to effect this compromise. He must not only know the factors which must be compromised and how these have been compromised in the experience of others, but also the dynamics of the compromising process, so that he may facilitate this process in his counselee with constructive results.

In other relevant research Peter Blau et al (1956) have suggested a multi-disciplinary approach to occupational choice. This points to a wide variety of factors that must be taken into consideration in explaining why people enter the occupations they do. These factors include biologically conditioned ability, personality characteristics, level of technological developments, etc. A choice between various possible courses of action can be conceptualised as motivated by two inter-related set of factors: the individual's evaluation of the rewards offered by different alternatives, and his appraisal of his chances of being able to realise each of the alternatives. Thus, the occupational decisions people make are a compromise between the two judgements. Accordingly, for the most part, people should select their most highly evaluated career possessing a reasonable probability of attainment. What varies from person to person is the definition of reasonable probability. The evaluations, one might infer from studies of prestige hierarchy, are relatively similar from one person to another. The effectiveness of a view as Blau and his associates propose is based on the degree to which people are aware of the various career possibilities open to them. Sound occupational information, in the broadest

sense, is crucial to good decision-making in this framework.

As with the previous studies of Ginzberg and Super, this study has developed a scheme which emphasised the interaction of individual characteristics (e.g. qualifications, ability, age, sex, ... etc.) with the characteristics of the occupational structure (e.g. technical qualifications, opportunities for advancement, etc.) with the latter seen as selecting people for different occupations. The scheme seems to be useful in that it specifies a wide variety of variables that enter into the explanation of how and why certain people end up in certain occupations.

It should be noted that the discussion until now has looked at the individual as being rational who can choose the occupation he wants from the many alternatives which are available to him. Unfortunately, this does not seem to apply to Saudi Arabian university graduates since they are compelled to work for government organizations upon graduation for each year of formal education the government has paid for. In the meantime, it seems appropriate to mention that they are usually released to work wherever they prefer after they have completed the said four to five years with the government organization. Another view of

looking at occupational choice is to regard it as less structured, less purposive and less rational process and to regard it essentially adventitious. In this view, occupational choice is less purposive deliberate choice than it is a process wherein alternatives are eliminated. Some writers (e.g. Katz and Martin, 1962) subscribing to this view of occupational choice referred to it as occupational drift. Occupational choice is seen by them as highly spontaneous, non-rational, and influenced by *situational pressures*.² According to their view, individuals are seen as drifting into occupations through a process of elimination rather than explicitly choosing them. (This view seems applicable to the Saudi Arabian university graduates. They are compelled to work for Ministries after graduation. This process limits their occupational choices to a large extent). But without degrading this view of occupational choice it seems that this perspective is likely to be most applicable to the kind of occupations which require little or no preparation and experience, or where a short period of on the job training is more or less sufficient (e.g. most assembly-line jobs).

It has been shown that the term 'occupational choice' is often interpreted in different ways, and that it has been taken to mean preferences or aspirations, expectations, the choice itself, and actual

attainment of an occupational role. In this context, the term occupational choice process is considered more meaningful, reflecting the fact that it covers the whole process of movement of individuals through the education system, into and through the employment system, and allows for analysis of the facts which influence the rate and direction of this movement. Thus the concept of occupational choice is not restricted, as is often, to the entry into employment, rather it refers to career decisions and patterns through the life cycle.

In discussing contributions of psychologists, economists, and sociologists to the concept of occupational choice, the point was made that the main differences between these contributions was one of orientation, or concentration on particular aspects of the process. In this respect, the psychological approaches were shown to concentrate on the developmental nature of the process (emphasising the personal growth of individuals in emotional and intellectual terms), and the motivational nature of occupational choice (emphasising the individual needs, desires, hopes, and aspirations). The approach of economists to occupational choice was normally discussed in relation to the utilization of such concepts as cost and price,

and in terms of the theory of total net advantage. The contribution of sociologists reflected the importance of the processes of socialization (see 4.4) and of the allocation of occupational roles, and emphasising those aspects of the social structure which represented both influence and constraints on the occupational choice process (for example, the family, the education system, the peer group etc.).

Perhaps the most significant thing about the various contributions outlined above is the way in which they are all interrelated. Thus, to talk solely in terms of the aspirations of individuals without references to the structure limitations upon them, is to ignore the realities of the social structure. Similarly, it is surely not possible to talk in terms of total net advantage without relating this to the theories of motivation, just as it is not possible to concentrate on structural aspects of the process without relating this to the extent of individual freedom of action. Therefore, for the research to be comprehensive, an integration of these orientations should be noticed.

The discussion until now has focused on the pre-entry process into organizations, but what happens when an individual actually joins the organization?

The next few pages will explore the mechanisms and techniques used by different organizations to introduce the individual to his new environment and adapt him. The techniques used by organizations to adapt the individual to his new environment have been widely known as the "socialization process".

4.4 WHAT IS SOCIALIZATION?

Socialization is the process of taking on the characteristics or adapting to the behaviour of others (Super and Bohn, 1970, p. 10; Brim and Wheeler, 1966, p. 3) defined socialization as "the process by which persons acquire the knowledge, skills and dispositions that make them more or less effective members of their society". Elkins (1960, p.4) defined socialization as "the process by which someone learns the ways of a given society or social group well enough so that he can function within it". Finally, Child (1954, p.655) defined socialization as "the whole process by which an individual born with behavioural potentialities of enormously wide range, is led to develop actual behaviours which is confined within a much narrower range, the range of what is customary and acceptable according to the standards of his group".

It is quite apparent from all the above mentioned definitions that the major factor at all levels of socialization is taking the role of others and trying to determine what other's response will be toward one's own behaviour. Socialization is continuous throughout the life time of an individual, therefore, it can be generally assumed that socialization is a process by which a person continuously tries to learn and acquire the values and attitudes of his group or the group of which he is going to be a member. Since people spend most of their lives working in organizations, it follows that organizations try to socialise their members intentionally according to a specific criterion. Therefore, organizational socialization refers to the process by which a person learns the values, norms and required behaviours which permit him to participate as a member. Presumably, this process is continuous throughout an individual's career with the organization. Consequently, for a individual to be an effective member, he must meet the organization's special requirements for membership. To make it easy for individuals, the organizations usually adopt many socialization techniques ranging from training to co-optation. Using these techniques, some individuals can be easily socialised because they can easily cope with

organizational requirements, while others become difficult to socialise. Schein (1968), for example, has outlined the outcome of the socialization process. He notes that three basic responses can characterise socialization outcomes. The first is rebellion which refers to a new member's rejection of all organizational demands. Hence, either the individual convinces the organization to alter its role demands, or the person leaves the organizational setting (either he quits or is dismissed). The second type of response involves the new member's acceptance of the pivotal demands but also involves the rejection of most relevant and peripheral role behaviours. This type of response is labelled by Schein as creative individualism. The third response is called conformity which involves the new members acceptance of all role demands - pivotal, relevant and peripheral. When the individual conforms with the organizational requirements he can be easily socialised either through training or other techniques. Hence it can be generally assumed that it is this point where the organizational career of the individual starts. Since organizational structures in which careers are arranged according to status level, it is expected that the more the person stays with a specific organization,

the more experienced he becomes, and the more he is likely to move through the organizational structure to a more prestigious position. In some extreme cases, the individual may be frozen in one place. But whatever may be the case, the changes which an individual experiences in his career status has been widely known as "career mobility". In the following few pages a brief description of career mobility will be revealed.

4.4.1 Career Mobility

Career mobility refers to change and movement that occurs over the course of an individual's working life time. It involves two basic types: vertical and horizontal mobility. Vertical career mobility refers to movement upward or downward in some system of status or prestige. Caplow (1954, pp. 59-60) has identified several ways in which this type of mobility can occur. First an individual may move from one occupation to another higher or lower in status. Second, in addition to a complete change of occupation, vertical mobility can occur through promotion or demotion within the same occupation. Third, the accumulation of seniority within an occupation may lead to a substantial change in status, therefore, the normal process of aging and being in an occupation a long time, may represent a change in status. In addition to these,

vertical career mobility may occur when the occupation as a whole experience a change in status. In this sense, individuals in an occupation experience mobility in the sense that they are carried along by the change occurring in the status of their occupation.

On the other hand, horizontal career mobility refers to changes in work activity that do not involve changes in status. Caplow has suggested several ways in which this type of mobility may occur. First, an individual may change occupations but move to one similar in status to the occupation he was in previously. Movement between skilled craft occupations or between semi-skilled factory jobs would represent mobility of this type. A second variety of horizontal mobility occurs when an individual remains in the same occupation, but his work activities involves a change in function.

It is important to mention that both vertical and horizontal mobility occur in almost every organization. Consequently, one may ask: what does movement, which results from career mobility, mean to different people as far as satisfaction and commitment is concerned? The answer to this question is centered around the fact that these movements provide the individual with feedback about his performance. Vertical mobility to a higher status occupation may give an

individual a good indication of his performance, while too much horizontal mobility may act as a demotion unless it is coupled with ultimate vertical movement. Therefore, one can assume that failure to move vertically may act as an indicator of only mediocre performance. This may result in dissatisfaction and less organizational commitment. If this is the case, the individual either leaves the organization and joins another, or if this is not feasible, accepts the situation and feels less committed. This may draw our attention to the following question: is there any relationship between career mobility and organizational commitment? In a study of career mobility and organizational commitment O. Grusky (1966) drew the following conclusions:

- (i) in general, strength of organizational commitment was positively associated with seniority, therefore, the more the person stays with an organization, the more likely he will be committed to it.
- (ii) Managers who experienced maximum career mobility were generally more strongly committed to the organization than were less mobile managers.
- (iii) Managers who were moderately mobile did not show any uniformity in their pattern of commitment that distinguished them from the less mobile managers.

The latter finding may be due to differential mobility expectations. Managers receiving some promotion may have felt a weak commitment when their rewards proved smaller than anticipated.

From the above discussion, can one, for example, say that the more that organizations provide jobs which correspond to the career orientation of their members, the more their perceived satisfaction will be?

Before one tries to answer such a question, it seems appropriate to look into the literature concerning job satisfaction and try to discover the factors that may contribute to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of organizational members. After one looks into the satisfaction or dissatisfaction literature, one can very briefly relate it to career orientation.

4.5 WHAT IS JOB SATISFACTION

Despite the large number of studies in the field of job satisfaction which Locke (1969) has estimated to exceed four thousand, the concept of job satisfaction still remains controversial. There are many reasons for this, the most important of which is that job satisfaction is more frequently regarded as an individual matter. One man's source of satisfaction may be another man's source of irritation, that is

because man is a complex creature who has needs, feelings and wants which vary from time to time and from person to person. For this reason no straight forward definition of job satisfaction was given by most researchers. Due to many factors, causes and correlates of job satisfaction, most researchers looked at the concept from different angles. Some have related job satisfaction to factors which are internal to an organization such as its style of management and the structure of its work group (e.g. Herzberg et al, 1957). Others have looked at the individual as possessing a set of universal psychological needs and tried to relate job satisfaction to the fulfilment of those needs (Maslow, 1954, Porter 1964). Another view has tried to emphasise technology as a direct predictor to job satisfaction (Blauner, 1964), while others have discussed the intrinsic and extrinsic variables that are associated with job satisfaction, (Herzberg et al, 1957). It is important to mention that most of the above mentioned researchers have designed some kind of questionnaires or interviews in order to better understand the concept of job satisfaction. The problem with questionnaires and interviews in general is that of validity and reliability. The problem of the validity of a question is the problem of whether it is actually measuring what it is supposed to measure. On the other hand, the reliability of any measure is its consistency in giving same results over a period of time. Unfortunately, neither validity nor reliability are present in most if not all job satisfaction questionnaires. Most of those questionnaires have built-in bias and consequently, they are not considered to be

measures of the actual work attitudes of individuals in specific situations. Mainly for this reason and particularly for others, many interpretations have been given to job satisfaction. But whatever may be the differences between job satisfaction researchers, they all seem to agree on the general causes of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and that satisfaction or dissatisfaction are mainly caused by two major sets of factors which are intrinsic to the job (personal factors), and extrinsic to the job (situational factors). The problem is that they still have not decided which factors are more important in producing satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This may depend largely on the type of individual one is dealing with, the type of tasks which have to be performed, the type of organization and its structure, and the overall environment of work. No generalizations may be made but it seems that the better the fit between the above mentioned factors, the higher the level of satisfaction there is likely to be and vice versa. In the following few pages, a discussion of the factors that are seen to be the most important in producing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction will be given. These factors can be generally classified into personal factors (e.g. age, sex, education,....) and situational factors (e.g. job content, organizational structure,.....).

4.5.1 Personal Factors and Satisfaction

By personal factors, it is meant the biographical factors that seem to have an effect on the level of satisfaction a person experiences in his job, in particular age, sex, education, etc.

(a) Age and the Level of Job Satisfaction:

A number of studies have tried to correlate age to job satisfaction (e.g. Saleh and Otis, 1964). Most of those studies have indicated various age groups with respect to job satisfaction. The results of those studies generally show an increase in the level of job satisfaction with age. This may be due to the increase in maturation as one advances with age, and to the general adjustment to life. Herzberg et al (1957) found that the relationship between age and job satisfaction can be described by a U shaped curve - that is morale starts high, declines until late twenties and starts to rise again for the remainder of worker's life due to general adjustment of his needs and expectations. Hulin and Smith (1964) proposed a linear model of job satisfaction. They explained that workers adjust their expectations to what the environment is

likely to provide. This seems to be logical since people try to maximise satisfaction from whatever resources are available to them. Saleh and Otis (1964) found that the level of job satisfaction increases as one grows older until the pre-retirement period where it declines. This is likely to be true in part because of the general adjustment to life as one grows older. The decline between the ages 60 to 65 could be partially due to a decline in physical health, and mainly to the blockage of channels for self-actualisation and psychological growth. However, Haire et al (1966) found in their international study that older managers evidence no greater satisfaction than younger managers. These differences in the level of satisfaction as one advances with age reported by many researchers prove that there is an element of bias in the design of questionnaires and that cultural factors may prove to be influential in deciding whether or not satisfaction advances with age. What one may gain from the above mentioned studies is that if organizations want their members to be satisfied, they have to provide them with occupations in which they feel positively the change in their status as they advance with age.

(b) Sex and Job Satisfaction:

Hulin and Smith (1964) conducted a study to find whether differences existed if one related the level of job satisfaction to sex. Their study indicated significant differences between males and females for job satisfaction with females being less satisfied with their jobs. On the contrary, Morse (1953) found that women were better satisfied than men at both manual and white collar jobs. The results contradict each other. This may be due to the fact that women are generally more sentimental than men and instead of staying at home to take care of their familial responsibilities, they seem to prefer work in almost any job and feel satisfied with it. It is important to mention that satisfaction and dissatisfaction can be a result of many factors which consistently co-vary with sex such as pay, promotion, job level, company policy, etc. Therefore, women as human beings can experience both satisfaction and dissatisfaction depending on the variables and situations they are faced with. The dissatisfaction of females reported by Hulin and Smith can be attributed to their concentration in low paying technical jobs (e.g. typing).

(a) Job Content and Job Satisfaction:

It has been found that some jobs are personally satisfying to some people and not satisfying to others. Blauner (1964) found that mass production technology is particularly associated with a low level of job satisfaction. This is likely to be related to the fact that in mass production technology, a person does not feel the contribution of his effort in production, and because most assembly-line jobs are tiresome and boring. For these reasons, Porter et al (1975) have discussed the characteristics of motivating jobs. They have found that jobs which produce challenge, feedback, variety and autonomy are almost always associated with a high level of job satisfaction. Consequently, one would predict that the more repetitive and routine the job, the more the dissatisfaction.

(b) Organizational Structure
and Job Satisfaction:

Different organizational structures have an impact on the amount of freedom and flexibility the employees have in relation to the methodology they must use and the tasks they have to

accomplish. Worthy (1950) has classified organizational structures as flat versus tall. An organization that is flat is the one wherein there are few levels of management, broad spans of control, and the number of superiors above a given individual is relatively small. On the other hand, tall organizations are characterised by many organizational levels, narrow spans of control, and the number of superiors above a given individual is relatively large. The major findings of Worthy are that flat organizations have produced more satisfaction. This is partially true because in flat organizations there seems to be more freedom of action and presumably more participation in decision making than in tall organizations where close supervision and centralization of authority almost always prevail. This situation has been supported by Porter (1964) who has found that regardless of the size of the firm, greater satisfaction is experienced in flat rather than in tall organizations.

(c) Organizational Level and Job Satisfaction:

One of the most important researchers who tried

to correlate occupational level to job satisfaction has been Porter. In his studies, Porter has related job satisfaction to different levels of management. He has found a positive relationship between managerial level and satisfaction, where occupational level is high, greater satisfaction is perceived. Locke and Whiting (1974) have supported the argument that the higher one's occupational level, the greater is job satisfaction. This seems to be true simply because all occupations in any type of organization are arranged in a hierarchy of prestige and status, and that the higher one moves in the organizational hierarchy, the higher the status and prestige, and the higher the status, the better the satisfaction will be. The resulting satisfaction as one moves towards the top of the hierarchy may not be attributed to status and prestige only, but also because both pay and authority also tend to increase. In a relevant study Blauner (1960) found that those in higher status occupations are more satisfied with their jobs than others. In a review of published studies, he reported that the highest proportion of satisfied workers were generally found among professional business

executives. He ascribed this to four main factors. Firstly, the prestige of professional and executive occupations relative to others. Secondly, the amount of independence and control which a professional or executive has over certain aspects of his work: such as the use of his time and the pace at which he works. Thirdly, the nature of on the job relations: which is likely to include being part of a team or small work group and relative freedom from hierarchical authority. Finally, the fact that an executive or professional work is likely to be fairly closely integrated with his leisure.

After introducing the factors that are likely to cause satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction, one may ask: How do organizations and individuals benefit from such studies? I think these studies are very important to both organizations and individuals in that they give rather more chance to base their decisions on concrete grounds. This may very well result in congruency between organizational goals and individual goals where individuals match the demands placed on them by organizations and where organizations can provide jobs which satisfy individuals' needs and

preferences. If this congruence of individual needs and skills with organizational demands is achieved one can predict greater general satisfaction, commitment and maturation on the part of individuals and longer job tenure for new recruits as well. On the other hand, dissatisfaction is likely to result if the degree of congruence between job requirements and individual needs is low. Therefore, the better the fit between individuals and their jobs, the more likely they will be happy and satisfied and vice versa. This fit can be partially accomplished during the socialization programmes of the new recruits, those programmes which try to discover the career aspirations, likes and dislikes and placing them into the kind of jobs that match their characteristics and desires. The organizations should also realise that when individuals join organizations, they bring with them a set of expectations regarding what they should get out of their work. These expectations are a result of their previous socialization (either in school or in family) which has also developed within them some kind of motivation to work, and both motivation and expectations can vary widely. These motivations and expectations that individuals have are present when individuals enter occupations. The experience in the

occupation can be seen in two different ways. They either strengthen, modify, change or have no impact on them; or the interaction of the original motivation and the occupation itself may produce a new set of expectations and motivations which the individuals carry forward with them on the job. If their expectations are insufficiently met and they have the opportunity to meet their expectations outside the current organizations, then one will expect them to change jobs and organizations in an attempt to satisfy their expectations more completely. If, on the other hand, they are unable to make changes, they therefore may work in a state of prolonged dissatisfaction. On the positive side and in some cases, both occupational demands and individuals' expectations may coincide leading to a relatively continued state of satisfaction. Therefore, as a concluding note, the organizations may enhance the satisfaction of their members if they choose the right individuals and place them in the jobs that most match their career orientations and expectations. They will have to learn to identify correctly the career needs of their employees, and match them with organizational requirements. The procedures and systems to achieve this matching will necessarily be complex and will have to be carefully

monitored and evaluated. Such systems are likely to increase the sharing of responsibility for career development between organizations and individuals. In the meantime individuals themselves, if they have the chance, choose the appropriate organizations in which they think they can enhance and satisfy their career aspirations and expectations. It is important to mention that this process is continuous even after settling in a specific job, that is because career disappointments may occur which exert a pressure on individuals to re-assess and perhaps re-classify themselves and modify the assumptions they hold about their own identities in order to be able to make decisions that will hopefully maximise their satisfaction.

The importance of studying career development and job satisfaction stems from the fact that societal systems, styles of management, and organizational policies are likely to influence career development programs and are hypothesized to affect individual's career motivation. Therefore, this research tries to examine and analyze the Saudi situation in an attempt to help middle managers (the focus of our thesis) understand their strengths and weaknesses, needs and interests, and the social/organizational work environment. To accomplish this, the research intends to give

answers to questions such as: Do Saudis think in terms of careers or entry jobs, school subjects and college majors, when they choose their occupation? Do Saudis select careers because of the security they offer or is promise for growth a more important factor? Do Saudis have interests and expectations? Do Saudis see the connection between their interests and the various patterns that are evident to them? In what types of organization do Saudis feel to satisfy their needs and expectations? Is interference of the GCSB justified? What circumstances can prevent a career pattern from crystallizing as it should?

Answering such questions will undoubtedly give an insight into the Saudi culture and help the reader to see the general profile of Saudis as far as the career development and satisfaction is concerned. While individuals can and should have a significant impact on the development of their careers, managerial actions sometimes exert strong influence on subordinate's careers. Therefore, it is important for the managerial behaviour to be appropriate in order to help individuals advance their careers (e.g. the type of authority, supervision, promotional policies, pay, et.) It is these factors that the researcher will explore in the Saudi context to see whether they work

to advance or hinder the career development and satisfaction of the Saudis.

4.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter began by studying people's orientation to work. It was found that people work not only for economic reasons, but also for social and religious reasons as well. The most important deduction is that people have looked at work and approached it differently depending on the values and attitudes they hold about work. They usually work in organizations by choosing an occupation which presumably best fits their career aspirations and expectations. In the meantime, organizations tend to recruit people on the assumption that those people help organizations to achieve their goals. Therefore, organizations offer some kind of career within their structures, distribute rewards, working conditions and prestige to their members according to career level - the higher the level, the more the status and prestige. When people join organizations, they usually bring with them their own needs and objectives that they like to satisfy through organizations. In the meantime, the organizations themselves have already established their goals and objectives which have to be met by organizational

members. From here the problem starts, individuals have chosen occupations in the organization on the assumption that they can satisfy their own needs and objectives, and organizations have chosen individuals on the assumption that those individuals will achieve organizational goals and objectives. In some case, individuals' needs and objectives coincide with those of the organization; in other cases, it is difficult to achieve such a fit. It can be generally assumed that the better the fit, the better the satisfaction and vice versa. In order to achieve such a fit, individuals should choose the type of occupation and organization in which they think they can satisfy their needs and objectives, and organizations themselves should place more emphasis on the selection and socialization programmes of their prospective members. In this chapter, we have discussed career development, occupational choice and the factors that are thought to affect the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of organizational members after they choose and join organizations. Whether satisfaction or dissatisfaction will be enhanced when joining a specific organization or a specific occupation will mainly depend on the type of individuals we are dealing with, the type of tasks that have to be accomplished, and the type of organizational environments in which real performance

takes place. Having taken the above literature into consideration, we believe:

- (i) that the objective features of the working environment induce corresponding attitudes of satisfaction or dissatisfaction;
- (ii) that this relationship is moderated by social and personal attributes that affect the individual's values, abilities or expectations; and
- (iii) that this relationship may well be tied to basic human needs.

NOTES ON CHAPTER 4

1. For more elaboration on this point, see for example, S. Nason, and W. Form "Man Work and Society", Basic Books Inc., New York, 1962, pp. 9-20. Also P. Anthony, "The Ideology of Work" London: Tavistock Publications, 1977.
2. For more elaboration on this point, see for example, F. Katz and H. Martin: "Career Choice Processes" Social Forces, 41, December 1962, pp. 149-154.

CHAPTER 5RESEARCH STRATEGY AND METHODOLOGY:
PROBLEMS AND PROCEDURES5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will examine research techniques as applied to the Saudi situation. As a starting point, the major difficulties of conducting research in Saudi Arabia will be analysed. This will provide a general profile of the Saudi Arabian culture. The final part of this chapter will elaborate on the methodology of this research i.e. the collection of data, the distribution and administration of the questionnaires, and the general procedures of the research.

The following few pages will examine the most important measures that should be taken into account while doing research in Saudi Arabia.

5.2 DOING RESEARCH IN SAUDI ARABIA -
PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES

As was seen in Chapter 1, the influence of Islam permeates all aspects of Arab societies. This has resulted in the fact that all Arabs, especially Saudis, have become very sensitive to the teachings of the Islamic religion. Sensitivity to, and consideration

for the feeling of others is one of the most obvious characteristics of the Saudi society which stems directly from Islam. So, it is essential for researchers to be equally sensitive towards the Saudis if misunderstandings are to be avoided. It can be generally assumed that the behaviour of Saudi workers and managers alike are affected by Islamic beliefs in all social contexts including the workplace (see Chapter 1). Indeed, the importance of the Islamic influence on all activities can be illustrated by the fact that on religious days e.g. Ramadhan (especially the last few days of it), and during daily prayer hours, everything stops but the oil. Such pressures will affect the conduct of research and the responses of individuals to the research process, and indeed researchers who do not understand Islamic culture face particular difficulties. Thus, problems may arise less on account of the disabilities or incompetences of researchers, but due to cultural misunderstandings. Indeed, the key to good research may be to design a research strategy to fit a particular context. This has been argued by Bouchard (1976, p. 402) who noted that "... methods are means to ends, no more, no less. The key to good research lies not in choosing the right method, but rather in asking the right question and picking the

most powerful method for answering that particular question. Methods are neither good or bad, but rather more or less useful for answering particular questions at a particular time and place." It seems that the "right questions" and the "best methods" to apply to Saudi Arabia are likely to be those which take into account the Islamic codes of conduct which generally shape many aspects of the Saudi Arabian lives and behaviours. Since tools which are of conventional use in the Western industrial societies may have serious and unanticipated consequences if applied to the Saudis without being modified to suit the Saudi context, any researcher is strongly advised to design and apply research techniques and methodologies which take into consideration the Saudi situation. In order to elaborate this point, the following few pages will examine the Saudi situation and identify some of the most important culture issues which may affect research design in this area.

5.2.1 Aspects of Arab Life and Behaviour

There are aspects of Arab life and behaviour, seemingly trivial, which may be of crucial importance not only to the overall success of research but also to its initiation and content. These behaviours are

generally shaped by social pressures of a given society. The term "social pressure" refers here to the expectations, demands, or constraints which society places on its members. These pressures can be seen as the price of membership which individuals must pay to belong to a social system. In turn, these expectations, demands and constraints originate from, and are shaped by, the socio-cultural values, norms, and customs. As in all societies, these values, norms, and customs (often summed up in the term culture) have their roots in a history of traditions, religion, and past, and present philosophical, political, or economic ideologies (Muna, 1980) Therefore, it is appropriate to examine these socio-cultural factors in order to establish a general profile of dealing with the Saudis.

(a) Low Value of Time:

Saudis generally lack punctuality in time schedules and appointments. This may be a result of their fatalistic attitudes (see Chapter 1). Consequently, Saudis do not like to be hurried in performing their duties as "haste comes from devil" according to an ancient Arab proverb. Patience is therefore a very important concept which has to be in the mind of any researcher conducting research in Saudi Arabia. A

researcher should be prepared to the fact that everything takes a little longer. He should not be surprised if his personal appointment was a little bit behind schedule or took place with a number of other people in the room since the Saudi whose long tradition of hospitality requires to meet visitors personally even if this results in the cancellation or delay of a pre-arranged meeting.

(b) Customs in Conducting Interviews:

Generally speaking, when conversing with Arabs, it is advisable not to show impatience, preoccupation with other affairs, or undue haste. The Arab will invariably engage in social talk and amenities with his guest for what may seem a long time. The guest is first offered tea, coffee or soft drinks. Then for a period ranging from 2 to 15 minutes, the Arab and his guest will talk about several topics of interest to both parties provided it is not the subject of research at hand. It is generally regarded as impolite or even 'shocking' to start immediately with business discussion. A good starting gambit is the health and well-being of the other person, his work, and some interests you know or heard he has. It is always advisable not to mention either his wife or female relatives specially.

(c) Personal Ties and Connections:

One of the most important points in conducting research in Saudi Arabia is to establish trust. This may take a relatively long time, but if an Arab puts his trust in a person, he will be helpful in providing the researcher with substantial information. Therefore, it seems clear that having and using personal ties and connections are a necessity to gather as much information as possible. It is important to note that Arabs generally tend to mask their own feelings in order that they do not hurt others' feelings. This can be decreased if trust has been properly established.

The above discussion indicates briefly some of the general problems that may face a researcher operating in the Saudi Arabian context. Against this background we now proceed to discuss and evaluate career development and job satisfaction and then move to the rationale for the research design used in this particular study.

5.3 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES AND CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

The literature on both career development and job satisfaction reveals that many investigators have worked from varied theoretical positions, used numerous methods and techniques, and chosen different samples. This has resulted in what might be termed

'a complexity of measurement'. As a consequence of this, much of the data appear contradictory. The results indicate that there is no one superior operational measure for assessing the most suitable career stage, or even assessing the degree of overall job satisfaction. Individuals differ in their perception and in the way they cope with their environments, therefore, researchers use a number of different research techniques ranging from interviews to rating scales. A major problem here is that different groups tend to adopt different perspectives and orientations when talking about their jobs. One group may think in terms of what they would like in the future, another in terms of what should be', a third group confine their view to the present. Hence, it will depend on the group concerned which operational measure best tap their overall feelings of job satisfaction, an issue which further contributes to the complexity of measurement. This complexity of measurement in career development and job satisfaction has led to the development of psychological tests (e.g. aptitude; I.Q. tests...). These tests have been the product of an attempt to solve a real educational or industrial problem, for example deciding which students will profit from special classes. The development of a test involves

both formulating a rational theoretical basis, and gathering empirical data about test scores. Unfortunately, many problems are still not being resolved. Many difficulties in using tests have appeared which include deliberate attempts to distort one's scores as well as response tendencies of which an individual may not be aware (Super and Bohn, 1970). These have been consciously designed to support one's own ideas and predictions.

Despite this, Lawler (1975) has identified what he considered the characteristics of good measurement. He commented "... a good measurement should ideally include four characteristics. First, the measure should be valid in the sense that it measures accurately all the important aspects of psychological quality of working life. Second, it should have enough face validity so that it will be seen as a legitimate measure by all involved. Third, it should be objective, and therefore verifiable, and not subject to manipulation, finally, it should recognise and take into account differences in how individuals respond to the same work environment" (p. 126). He added that "..... Unfortunately, no measure possesses all four of these characteristics. Thus, if we are to measure the psychological quality of working life, we must settle for

suboptimal measures. Which characteristics can we afford to give up? In some cases, we may be able to give up objectivity. While always desirable, objective measures may be less useful than subjective self-report measures of the psychological quality of working life in some cases. Despite their subjectivity, they represent the most direct data available about the psychological state of a person. Further, they provide better data on individual differences than do many objective measures of working conditions. For example, repetitive assembly-line jobs or authoritarian supervision are not negatively regarded by all workers. Quite to the contrary, some individuals see them as part of the high quality of working life, while others see them as very negative and as part of a low quality of working life" (Lawler, 1975, p. 126).

If this is to imply anything, it seems to indicate that individual differences do exist. It is these differences that might make Saudi managers different, in perception at least, from managers in western industrial societies. The culture in which both have spent most of their lives is likely to have a strong effect on their attitudes and behaviours. What is considered right and approved by Western societies, may very well be disapproved in Saudi Arabia (e.g. having a female secretary; or criticizing others openly). The

following few pages will examine the techniques which are likely to be the most appropriate to apply to Saudi Arabia and the specific technique adopted in the development of the methodology and procedure of this research.

5.4 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES AND THE SAUDI CONTEXT

5.4.1 Introduction

Research techniques are numerous e.g., questionnaires, interviews, rank order studies... etc. These techniques if designed properly, can be applied to both developed and underdeveloped countries. Bulmer and Warwick (1983, p. 3) noted that "... it would be a mistake to draw too sharp a distinction between methods of research used in the developed and in the developing world.... They differ in degree, perhaps, but not in kind." This has also been noticed by Frey, (1970, p. 184) who commented that "...there are no fundamental differences in principle or in logic between cross-cultural survey research and within-cultural survey research.... Important 'sub-cultural' variations between classes, educational groups, regional populations, and other social echelons

plague the domestic survey researcher in a manner quite analogous to the more pronounced full-cultural variations that loom before the cross-cultural survey researcher. This is true in the areas of sampling, interviewer recruitment and training, instrument preparation, interviewer-respondent interaction, coding and analysis. The differences are in degree and not really in kind. These differences in degree - in the relative severity of problems, if not in their intrinsic character - do, however, have weighty implications for cross-cultural survey research. Not only are the problems severe, but their existence is more conspicuous. One can ignore a mouse - like problem, but when it assumes elephantine proportions, one ignores it only at the peril of being overwhelmed." Frey seems to indicate that many of the problems encountered in the Third World are merely problems writ large which exist in all survey research. In any research, especially if it is designed to be applied to different societies, there is always the problem of cultural differences. In this particular research, we have intended to achieve the best fit between research design and the Saudi culture. The following few pages will examine in some detail the research techniques and their applicability to the Saudi culture.

5.4.2 Research Techniques - Their General Applicability

As we have seen earlier Saudi Arabia is a developing country. Nevertheless, following Frey above, it can be argued if research techniques are designed carefully, they can be applied to both developed and underdeveloped countries. One of the major differences between developed and underdeveloped countries as far as research administration is concerned is that the collection of data in developing countries is almost always an expensive operation. The major difficulty stems from the fact that some of the documents, reports, statistics which may constitute a major substance of the research are out of reach because of their confidentiality. This situation forces the researcher in a developing country to assign priorities and to choose among the several techniques which are available to him. The techniques chosen should assist the researcher to achieve the objective of the research and be compatible with the demands of his own culture. Chase (1981, p. 17) noted that"the key question throughout the whole planning, and particularly at the very early stages of the survey design is "why are we collecting these data"? This question relates to the topic of the survey, to the function,

the main or primary users expect the results to serve, to the range of its content, and to each individual question in the questionnaires." This seems to imply that no generalization can be made which prefers one research technique rather than the others, what a researcher chooses as a technique for collecting data will highly depend on (i) the subject of the research, (ii) the general accessibility of the respondents, and (iii) the practicability of the technique and its applicability to a specific culture.

The social survey for example, is a Western product which cannot be straightforwardly exported to the developing world. Basic data needed for survey research may be lacking. Available sampling frames are often inadequate. There are considerable regional variations. Both field staff and respondents are unfamiliar with standard attitude measures and have difficulty in interpreting them. Responses to questionnaire items are strongly influenced by the culture of the respondent, with resulting problems of translation from one culture to another (Bulmer, 1983). As a consequence, concepts and terms which are in familiar use in the Western industrialized countries cannot automatically be transferred for use in survey work in a

developing country like Saudi Arabia. Hence an individual has to be particular in choosing the research technique that best suits his area of investigation within the context of his own culture. Smith (1975, p.51) notes that "Research techniques are a bit like fishing flies: you choose the right one for the fish you want to catch. No fisherman would use the same kind of fly for twenty different varieties of fish, just because it was the first kind he ever tried or even the one he felt more comfortable with."

As we have seen above, there are many research techniques that can be used to gather information. Probably the most widely used techniques are interviews, questionnaires, and rating scales. Interviews, for example can take several forms, ranging from very informal exchanges to very structured. Due to the fact that the Saudis are very sensitive and lack punctuality in time and schedules, it has been found in this research that the informal unstructured type of interviews were an effective means of eliciting information from respondents. They could also be used to build up trust and confidence between the researcher and the respondents.

Questionnaires are another means of gathering information about individuals. These are forms that are completed by the people being studied and have the advantage of permitting large numbers of people to be included in an investigation at a relatively low investigator cost. As with many measures or instruments, particularly those depending on a self-report, the question of truthfulness is an issue with questionnaires. Despite this, it appears that survey research based on questionnaires is the most popular form of research in the social sciences. In using questionnaires, a researcher has two aims; namely to develop questions which will yield the necessary information, and to persuade people to answer them. Both can be more difficult to achieve in developing countries, especially with self-administered questionnaires because there is no intermediary to assist and encourage the respondent. The most common type of self administered questionnaires is the postal questionnaire. The postal questionnaire can be used in developed countries with relative ease. However, it is very difficult to use this method in a context like Saudi Arabia for two main reasons: (i) the reply may be distorted due to possible misunderstanding of the

questionnaire (this may to a lesser degree happen in developed countries); and (ii) the response rate will be very low. Mainly for these reasons and secondarily for others (e.g. Unreliable postal services), self-administered questionnaires are not the most effective research instrument for developing countries such as Saudi Arabia.

Rating scales is the third most widely used techniques of gathering information. In using this techniques, a person is asked to place another person or his behaviour on a scale. This method has the appearance of great objectivity, however, the construction of accurate, reliable rating scales is an accomplishment not very often realized because of limitations and variations in the people who construct them (Super and Bohn, 1970, p. 34).

In designing this research, the researcher has found through preliminary field work that the best techniques to apply to Saudi Arabia in this particular area of interest were questionnaires and interviews. But what kind of questionnaires and interviews are most suitable to Saudi Arabia? Since, as we have seen above, the postal questionnaires cannot be effective in developing countries, the researcher found it

necessary to design comprehensive questionnaires that could be administered personally. The Saudis, by virtue of their own culture, hate to criticize others openly, therefore, in the design of the questionnaires it was necessary to avoid as far as possible evaluative, open-ended questions. Open-ended questions were not ignored completely, but have been utilized moderately due to the fact that misconception may occur as a result of the fact that people may use different words for expressing the same idea, an issue which contributes to the complexity of measurement. Baily (1978, p. 106) noted "Open-ended questions will greatly increase the work of analysis because the replies must be categorized and coded after the questionnaire has been administered. Therefore, it is often useful to aim at designing a semi-structured form in which the respondent replies to a series of forced - choice questions and only a small number of open-ended ones." Furthermore, Cannel and Kahn (1968, p. 567) outline the situations best suited for the use of closed-ended questions. They state that the closed-question appears to be best adopted to situations where (i) there is a limited number of known frames of reference for which the respondent can answer the question; (ii) within these few possible frames of references, there is a

range of possible responses, and (iii) within this range there are clearly defined choice points that approximate well the position of respondents."

Interviews were also utilized. The type of interviews used were informal and unstructured in order to build up trust between the researcher and the respondents. Generally speaking, people in developing countries do not like being formally interviewed. Mitchell (1965, p. 236) has elaborated on this point when he notes"In some countries, for example, interviewers are often considered as government employees, and since the local population does not readily differentiate policeman, from tax collectors, from political party workers, the interviewer has considerable difficulty in socializing the respondent into a new type of questionnaire - respondent relationship. In these situations, respondents are reported to be very reluctant to provide interviewers with accurate information."

The following few pages will examine in greater detail the methodology and procedure of this research, and elaborate on the conceptual issues which have affected the design of the major research instrument - the questionnaire.

5.5 METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE OF THIS RESEARCH

The information for this research was derived from two separate samples: Senior students at King Abdulaziz University, and middle managers in two types of Saudi organizations - Ministries and public organizations. The study attempted to collect information on two major aspects of the labour market in Saudi Arabia: an assessment of the critical *labour market mechanisms* and institutional arrangements which seem to influence labour allocation and mobility within and among different types of organization; and the skills, experience, performance, preferences, and the general satisfaction of employees in Ministries and public organizations and the effect of these on career development.

Due to the fact that the sample for this study was composed of two different groups (i.e. senior students and middle managers) two sets of questions were designed. The first set which was designed for senior students consisted of 16 questions (see Appendix 1) and aimed at finding out their general attitudes toward job market in Saudi Arabia and of the careers to which they aspired and finally toward the GCSB

regulations of not releasing them after graduation. The design of the questionnaires in this part was therefore divided into three main classifications: (i) The first part of the questionnaires was concerned with the social background of respondents like age, sex, marital status..... etc. This was done in order to find out the average age at which the students joined the public service. (ii) The second part of the questionnaires was concerned with discovering their aspirations and attitudes towards the job market in Saudi Arabia and toward the factors which attracted them to work in one type of organization rather than the other (e.g. pay and benefits). (iii) To discover their attitudes toward the GCSB regulations of not releasing them after graduation and whether or not that would effect their career aspirations after graduation.

The second set of questions was designed for middle managers in Saudi Ministries and public organizations. This consisted of 58 questions (see Appendix 2). The design of these questionnaires aimed to compare two groups of managers in two types of organization - Ministries and public organizations (see Chapter 2). The questions can be generally divided into four main

categories: (i) The first category was concerned with obtaining the social background information of age, sex, marital status, years spent in current job... etc. (ii) The second category was concerned with career aspirations of both managers. What type of organization do they prefer to work into and why? Do their career aspirations were met after graduation or not? and what are the causes behind this. (iii) The third category attempted to compare both types of organization in many issues e.g. pay and fringe benefits, type of authority, training programs and whether or not that have an effect on career aspirations of managers in both types of organization, and (iv) The final part of the questionnaires intended to discover the preferences of managers with regard to working in one type of organization rather than the other. The questions were arranged to give the reader information about career development of managers - whether they have chosen their jobs, or have been placed on them by the GCSB; about their satisfaction with pay, authority and the overall organizational climate, and finally their preferences to work in one type of organization and the resulting mobility.

Consequently, the design of the questionnaires, especially of middle managers, sought three categories of information: background, context, and career development and job satisfaction. Items were included in each category that would make possible the description of characteristics and the analysis of relationships among variables thought to be components of the career development of middle managers.

5.5.1 Background

Career development may consist of occupational preparation, job related academic courses, supplementary training, and work experience. These are all activities which contribute to the middle manager's capacity for job performance. Personal factors such as age, marital status may also condition opportunities and abilities in some ways and are considered as part of the respondent's background.

(a) Occupational Preparation:

Occupational preparation can be attained by formal education (questionnaire, Appendix 2; items 6, 7, and 8) and training programs (questionnaires, Appendix 2 items 22, 23, 25, 26, 27 and 28). This was done in order to introduce basic concepts, processes,

and procedures. According to the IPA policies, one program that has frequently been used with government employees is on-the job-training. Even though this approach has often been very loosely structured and its effectiveness poorly documented, it may have been the only kind of initial exposure experienced by many middle managers. There was no empirical evidence regarding the success of initial training programmes on changing status of middle managers. This alone was justification for including this item. However, the information it provided contributed to both the descriptive and the analytical results of this study.

(b) Personal Factors:

Personal factor items include the respondents' age, marital status, number of children, type of housing (Questionnaire, Appendix 2, items 1, 2, 3, 9, and 10). These factors can be used to help describe the characteristics of the research sample, to identify trends and to cross tabulate other factors or variables. Their usefulness in this investigation was primarily as descriptive information.

(c) Experience:

Career development incorporates the totality of work experience. Career experience is therefore a result

of different career assignments which contribute to the shaping of the individual. The father's occupation may have an effect on the career development of his son (Appendix 2, item 5). Total time spent with an organization, or in an occupation may give us an idea of the person's experience (Appendix 2, items 16, 17 and 18). The means through which the person has been assigned to a job was also investigated (items 19, 20 and 21). These items were included to give us idea of the occupational choice of our respondents.

5.5.2 Context:

The organizational environment in which the respondent works is described by several structural factors. These may include the type of authority, types of incentive and the nature of jobs in particular whether they are routine or non-routine.

The importance of organizational environment stems from the fact that it provides us with a profile of the administrative ideology in the country of research and whether or not that ideology has an effect on the satisfaction of organization members. Given their importance, factors relating to these issues were included (see Appendix 2, items 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39 and 40).

5.5.3 Career Development and Job Satisfaction:

The purpose of this final part was to find out whether managers are satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. The questionnaire was designed to look into managers' expectations and find out in which type of organization (government or public) those expectations are better fulfilled. This may give us an understanding of the resulting mobility and whether it is due to dissatisfaction or career deficiency. In this part, the researcher was also interested in finding the manager's preferences to work for one type of organization and the reason behind these preferences. Could it be pay and fringe benefits, could it be other factors such as authority and promotional policies? Answers for these items may give a good idea of career development and career mobility in Ministries and public organizations in Saudi Arabia.

The researcher believes that some organizations provide more opportunity for the realization of career potential than others. The logical questions will then be: what kinds of organizational environments are viable than others for this purpose? Are there characteristics associated with the advancement of career development and satisfaction? If so, in

what type of organization in Saudi Arabia --- government ministries or public organizations? These questions are dealt with in Appendix 2, items 41-58. Given the lack of empirical study of career development and satisfaction of the Saudis, it is contended that what is required in the Saudi context is: firstly, an examination of those factors in a career which Saudis regard as important, so that attempts can be made to match their expectations; secondly, an analysis of the needs and characteristics of occupations in the two types of organization (i.e. public organizations and ministries) so that these can be conveyed to Saudis faced with career or job decision, as well as to institutions concerned with career placing and information (e.g. GCSB and IPA,); and thirdly, an examination of the way in which the process of occupational choice, occupational selection and occupational recruitment takes place, and which factors in these processes are of importance in the Saudi context.

The researcher believes that the idea of complete freedom of occupational choice is exaggerated and that many constraints operate to limit the choice (e.g. family connections, social class etc.). Culture therefore, appears to have a strong effect on the notion of free occupational choice. It is these points that the

research will examine in the Saudi context in order to find out the Saudi situation as far as career development and job satisfaction is concerned.

By designing such questionnaires, it was hoped to uncover reasons behind the large scale movement from Ministries to public organizations - an issue which constitutes the main concern of this research. In order to achieve this, four organizations were chosen to represent both Ministries and public organizations. The most important criteria for selection was that those organizations were all prestigious, contained more than 1000 employees, were mostly engaged in service-type operations and were all located in the Western province of Saudi Arabia (except the Ministry of Higher Education which is located in Riyadh).

Before the questionnaires were administered, they were translated into Arabic (see Appendix 3). In order to be sure of the precision of the translation and the adequacy and clarity of the questionnaires, a pilot study was carried out where 10 questionnaires were administered to Saudi Arabian middle managers in King Abdulaziz University; the same was done with senior students' questionnaires where 12 questionnaires were distributed in order to clarify any ambiguities in questionnaires. Minor modifications were undertaken

before the questionnaires were typed into their final form with an appropriate covering letter.

The method of choosing middle managers was through their positions in the organizational hierarchy. The questionnaires were intended for managers who were in position of department head, department assistant manager, or section head. The main requirement for participation in the study was that the managers were actually supervising other employees. The method of administering the questionnaires was either directly where the researcher took the initiative of speaking to managers, or by a prearranged appointments through personnel departments in every organization studied. Before the questionnaires were administered they were preceded by informal, unstructured interviews and conversations for the purpose of building up trust between the researcher and the respondents. This was the policy which the researcher followed throughout the administration of the questionnaires. No major difficulties were faced except that: (i) Some managers were reluctant to answer the questionnaires in front of the researcher. There are many possible reasons for this: lack of trust; they did not like to criticise others openly therefore jeopardizing their positions; or simply they did not want to cooperate. (ii)

During the collection of the data, the researcher was usually confronted with the fact that some of the information were beyond reach because of its confidentiality and (iii) limitations due to time and expenses. These difficulties were anticipated since they might face any researcher in developing countries, not only Saudi Arabia. (Further on the methodology of this research, see Appendix '4').

CHAPTER 6PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE
DATA: PERCEPTIONS, PREFERENCES AND
ATTITUDES OF THE SAUDI UNIVERSITY
STUDENTS TOWARD FUTURE CAREERS6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will examine and analyze the Saudi students' perceptions of the mechanisms of the labour market and the types of organization they prefer to join after graduation, the reasons behind their preferences, and their general attitudes towards the policies of the GCSB of not releasing them after graduation despite the fact that the new social and economic changes in Saudi Arabia (e.g. development plans) have created new wide ranging opportunities and choices for university graduates. Due to the huge oil revenues, Saudi Arabia is changing rapidly, and in a rapidly changing environment, social change affects, and is affected by individual behaviour. Such behavioural interaction is not automatic. On the one hand, social change creates new opportunities and choices for individuals in work and in life style. On the other, individuals are constrained by established rules, norms, and value systems (e.g. GCSB policies). The result of such interaction is an apparent conflict between the old codes of behaviour and the new ways

and opportunities, an issue which may activate mobility. Accordingly, social mobility occurs through either geographical mobility or occupational mobility. This mobility depends on several factors, e.g. the expected net economic gains, the receptivity of individuals to change, their willingness to take risks, and their preferences for the type of work or areas of residence, that is, their general attitudes.¹

The aim of this chapter is to explore the attitudes of the Saudi university students, who constitute a large portion of the labour supply each year, and then relate that to the economic as well as the non-economic factors that influence the adjustment process in the Saudi labour market.

To achieve this, questionnaires have been designed (see Appendix 1) and administered to forty-six senior students in the Faculty of Economics, King Abdulaziz University. These questionnaires were intended to gather information about several aspects of career decisions (e.g. type of organizations students are looking forward to working in, the alternative careers considered by students, evaluation of occupational characteristics of different types of organization, and the amount of perceived salary attached to each occupation) so that a general profile of the Saudi

students' attitudes could be developed. In order to understand the attitudes of the Saudi students better, the researcher found it necessary to examine the mechanisms of the labour market that appear to affect the individual's choice of a career. This will be discussed in terms of what has been widely known as "the economic theory of occupational choice."

6.2 THE ECONOMIC THEORY OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

The economic theory of occupational choice emphasises factors that influence career decisions. These factors can be classified into two groups: those inherent in the individual such as preferences and abilities; and the wages and job characteristics that are determined by the market. The economic theory of choice assumes that within the constraints set by the market and by personal abilities, the individual selects the occupation that maximizes his utility function. Schematically, the career decision is made as follows: (i) on the basis of market wages ability and endowments, the individual calculates expected life time income for all relevant occupations, (ii) he compares the utility of the commodities which can be

purchased with this income and with potential non-wage income to the non-monetary value of working in each of the careers, (iii) he selects the career which offers the greatest total utility. This appears to be true given the individual is free to choose the type of occupation he prefers i.e. every individual tries to maximize his gains. However, in some instances e.g. times of crisis, social and psychological factors sometimes prevail. Generally speaking, employees usually move from less to more desirable positions i.e. they try to minimize their maximum possible loss (see models of occupational choice below).

Consequently, it can be generally assumed that the career decision is one of the most difficult to take. This is because both workers and employees are human beings with finite life spans, an issue which makes occupational choice different from other supply decisions. Characteristically, it is an all or nothing decision in which one career is selected from a set of mutually exclusive alternatives. There are three reasons why the worker or employee investing in human capital normally limits himself to a single occupation. First, the time required to learn the skills used in most careers is lengthy enough to preclude simultaneous

or seriatim study of several specialties. If the individual divides his time amongst careers, he is in danger of being a "jack of all trades and master of none" who will be unable to compete with fully specialized workers.³ Second, the finite work span of human beings limits the period over which returns to investment in work skills are earned and thus discourages such investments later in life. Occupational mobility is generally restricted to alternatives with considerable transfer of skills. Third, in the absence of a lien on human capital, few persons will diversify their human capital portfolio by investing in other persons. Exclusive of professional athletics and artists, there is no human asset market equivalent to those for financial or physical assets. The only way in which a coal miner can invest in the human capital of a doctor or engineer is through purchase of claims on firms that employ those specialists and not by direct investment in the individual.⁴

Having discussed the market side of the economic theory of occupational choice, we now turn to expectations and abilities which constitute the other side of the economic theory of occupational choice. Expectations are likely to affect labour market behaviour as well as the initial selection of an occupation. When

for one reason or other, expectations are unfulfilled, it is expected that employees will modify their initial plans, possibly shifting to new occupations. This seems to agree with what Alfred Marshall (1936, p.566) has noted: "if the advantages of any one occupation... are above the average, there is a quick influx of youth from other occupations."⁵

This is basically a supply and demand outlook where individuals, under free market policy, tend to gravitate towards the best paying jobs. It should be noted, however, that the supply of labour is unlike the supply of other commodities because it is not produced under conditions similar to other commodities, and because the costs of its production are, to a substantial extent socially determined. Therefore, a choice between various possible courses of action can be conceptualized as motivated by two interrelated sets of factors: the individuals' valuation of rewards offered by different alternatives and appraisal of his chances of being able to realize each of the alternatives. This may activate occupational mobility which seems to agree with the study of Vroom (1964) who has distinguished three meanings of "the chosen occupation". This may be firstly, the occupation with the most positive valence (the preferred occupation);

secondly, the occupation towards which there is the strongest positive force (the chosen occupation); and thirdly, the occupation in which a person is a member (the attained occupation). Occupational choice in this sense, therefore, is explained in terms of the relative strength of forces acting upon the person. Therefore, one would expect greater mobility especially when members of the organization are dissatisfied. Generally speaking, if there are no costs to mobility, changes will occur until the expectations of the marginal supplier are fulfilled. When, on the other hand, costs to mobility are high, faulty expectations create long and probably costly disequilibria, which make it worthwhile for persons to invest substantially in career information before choosing a field. Their investment should produce especially realistic expectations and thus limit the likelihood of disequilibria. If this seems to suggest anything, it clearly demonstrates the fact that the student must understand the pressures for early and specific occupational choices. Beginning not later than the early high school, student's choice between the academic and vocational curriculums increases, an issue which seems to support the career stages of Ginzberg discussed in Chapter 4.

In addition to the economic factors, one must understand some of the familial pressures and individual forces behind the specific occupational choices that people make. Thus, not only economic aspects may affect the individual, but also social aspects may tend to have strong influence on an individual's choice of career (for more on this see models of occupational choice below). In addition to this, one must keep in mind that occupational choice is a developmental process that extends over many years (see Chapter 4). There is no single time at which students decide upon one out of all possible careers, but there are many crossroads at which they tend to take decisive actions which narrow the range of future alternatives and thus influence the ultimate choice of an occupation e.g. interaction with other people. In addition to this, the job that one acquires is conditioned not only by the preferences and desires of the person for a particular occupational status, but also by many factors over which the individual has essentially no control e.g. GCSB policies. This seems to be in line with the discussion of Blau et al (1956), and Super (1953) who have said that the person must compromise (see Chapter 4).

All in all then, it appears that the economic theory of occupational choice is based on the inter-

action of abilities, preferences, and monetary incentives. The theory does not postulate as sometimes claimed by economists, a peculiar homo economicus whose sole concern in life is money, and who always chooses the more remunerative alternative. It asserts only that there exist some persons on the borderline between careers who, all else being the same, respond to economic stimuli. The majority of persons who are not money-oriented may be unaffected by alterations in wages, with their career choice primarily determined by preferences or abilities. As long as the distribution of preferences and abilities in the total population is relatively stable, economic forces will have an independent and, likely as not, significant role in determining the allocation of workers among jobs.⁶

In order to make the issue of career decision-making more clear, it is now necessary to discuss briefly the most important career models which affects the individuals' choices of careers.

6.3 CAREER DECISION-MAKING MODELS

6.3.1 The Attribute-Matching Model

This model has been referred to by Super and Bacharch (1957) as the trait and factor theory. It emphasizes individual differences and how they should

influence the process of occupational choice. The decision-making model implicit in this trait and factor approach might be called attribute-matching. The assumption is that the individual first takes an inventory of his personal attributes; then he ascertains the attributes required for successful adjustment in each of some set of occupations; and lastly, he selects that occupation the requirements of which best match his attributes.

6.3.2 The Need Reduction Model

The second model of career decision making is that which underlies the approach to career development associated with dynamic personality theory of Holland (see Chapter 4). Here, the goal of the process is to reduce need tension hence the title given to the model. With varying degrees of awareness of their behaviour, individuals seek out or gravitate to those occupations which satisfy their needs. To the extent that conscious decision-making goes on, the individual appraises his own needs and estimates the need reducing value of some set of alternatives. Teaching may be selected for example, because the individual perceives it as satisfying his need to nurture young people.

6.3.3 The Probable Gain Model

This is closely related to the various models of rational behaviour employed in economics. These assume that the individual is faced with some set of alternatives each of which has outcomes which have a certain value to the individual and a certain probability of occurring. In accordance with one of several rules,⁷ the individual chooses an alternative which will maximize his gain. He can, for example, try to minimize his maximum possible loss, or he can maximize expected value. Adam Smith (1937) for example, had a simple approach to occupational choice in line with this discussion - that every man will pursue his interest which will prompt him to seek the advantageous and shun the disadvantageous employment. Vroom (1964) too has indicated that choices among occupations are a result not only of preferences among them, but also of the subjective probability and expected costs of their attainment.

6.3.4 The Social Structure Model

This model emphasizes the mobility provided and the limits imposed by various social structures through which an individual's career carries him. Becker and Straus (1956) view the maturing individual

as a passenger on an escalator. However, this is not an ordinary escalator - it may detour to desired positions, its movement may be stopped or accelerated and it may branch into multiple lines, and to be a passenger, there may be stringent requirements (e.g. norms, values, proper training, etc.).

In accordance with this sociological approach, the problem of the decision maker becomes of deciding which escalator to get on or, if he is already on one, whether he should switch to another. In the final analysis the decision which social man has to make is very similar to that of Economic Man.⁸ Choosing an escalator is choosing an alternative. The differences lie in the assumptions which economists and sociologists make about the value of key variables. The sociologist assumes that given certain alternatives, pathways or careers, the probabilities of certain outcomes occurring are very high, so high in fact that they can be regarded as certainties. For example, if one becomes a surgeon it is practically a certainty that one will enjoy high status in the community. The decision problem for the individual becomes one of deciding what outcomes he values the most and, secondly, whether he values these enough to pay the entrance requirements (the cost of training etc.).

One of the most important elements in a decision-making process here is the fact that decisions not only involve internal subjective process, but that they are also based on objective social facts. Thus, during the decision-making process the individual is constantly being guided, affected, and influenced by other individuals, social groups and more formal influences.

6.3.5 The Complex Information Processing Model

A major premise of this model is that the individual is faced with multitudinous behavioural alternatives and that it is his limited capacity to handle information about them which limits the rationality of decision-making. Rather than being an escalator rider, the career decision maker is a chess player. Simon (1955) has pointed out that "there is a complex lack of evidence that, in actual human choice situations of any complexity, these computations (required by the "classical" concepts of rationality) can be, or are in fact performed."⁹ He then proposes some modifications that simplify the choice process, the principal one being that the individual can search for those outcomes which are satisfactory to him and then search for a behavioural alternative which has outcomes all of which are in the set of satisfactory ones.

6.4 EVALUATION AND CRITIQUE OF MODELS

Evaluating the possible models of career decision-making is difficult for there has been little direct, deliberate testing of one against the other. In spite of this, there are some general observations that raise questions about the relevance of certain of the models as regards to this research.

The most apparent critique of the attribute-matching model is provided by E.K. Strong (1943). Strong makes a distinction between preference and choice and discusses the factors which cause choice to differ from preference.

A number of these may be mentioned: (i) pressure of family or friends of family to enter a given vocation, to live near mother etc; (ii) desire to marry, which handicaps further preparation for the preferred occupations; (iii) an opportunity to become immediately established; (iv) lack of necessary finances to finish education; (v) lack of necessary ability; (vi) lack of necessary personality; (vii) lack of requisite health; (viii) lack of information about preferred and competing occupations so that adequate plans cannot be formulated, (1943, p. 30).

Thus, for the attribute matching model to be adequate it must include a very broad range of personal characteristics e.g. interest, values, social perceptions and abilities. In addition, it must give answers to some questions essential to an understanding of the decision-making process such as: what are the conditions which initiate the matching process?. Which alternatives are considered and in what order? What does the individual do in the absence of accurate information in regard to himself and the alternative he considers?

In contrast to the attribute matching model, the need-reduction model of career decision-making provides a basis for comparing the attractiveness of different alternatives, namely their drive-reducing potential. But most of the limitations of the need-reduction model seem to be indicative of its shortcoming. This model imposes even greater information-gathering requirements on the individual. Estimating the drive-reducing potential of an alternative requires extensive knowledge of it.

The social structure model is oversimplified. The interaction of psychological variables involved and the various social and structural influences is extremely complex, and it is misleading to oversimplify this process by suggesting that all such

influences are operating in the direction of making it easier for individuals to enter the employment system.

Obviously, each of these models of career decision-making has limitations but at the same time each has useful features. For example, in accordance with the attribute-matching model, individuals do take inventory of themselves as part of their decision-making process. Or at least they have a perception of themselves, as self image.

Having discussed the career decision-making models, the question that comes to mind is this: what are the determinants of occupational entry? Blau et al (1956) argue that eight factors, four pertaining to occupations, and four characterizing individuals, determine occupational entry. First, the demand for new members in an occupation is indicated by the number of vacancies that exist at any one time. This can be more easily ascertained for the employed than for the self employed. The size of the occupational group, its tendency to expand, and its turnover rate will influence the demand for new members. The second factor, functional requirements, refers to the technical qualifications needed for optimum performance of occupational tasks. The third factor non-functional

requirements, refers to those criteria affecting selection that are not relevant to actual performance, (e.g. good looks). Fourth are rewards. These include not only income, prestige, and power, but also opportunities for advancement, congenial fellow workers, emotional gratifications, and all employment conditions that are defined as desirable.

Turning now from the attributes of occupations to those of potential workers, a fifth factor that influences occupational entry is the information people have about an occupation - their knowledge about the requirement for entry, the rewards offered, and the opportunities for employment and advancement. Here characteristics of individuals are complementary to the two types of occupational requirements, namely, their technical skills to perform various occupational duties and their other social characteristics that influence living decisions, such as religion. Finally, people's value orientation determine the relative significance of different kinds of rewards and thus the attractive force exerted by them e.g. whether working in a group is more rewarding than working alone.

Rosenberg (1957) for example, found that expression of values of students in different fields varied systematically. For instance, architecture, journalism,

drama, and arts students valued self-expression more than other groups, while students in sales fields, hotel and food studies, real estate, and finance valued self-expression the least. Social work majors, premedical students, and education majors were highest in the desire to help and work with people, while engineering, natural science, and agriculture students were lowest in this value. The real estate, finance, hotel and food and sales students score highest on extrinsic reward values, while social work, teaching, and natural science students scored lowest on this scale.

All the previous models discussed above emphasized the need to understand the expectations and attitudes of individuals in order to achieve the best match between their expectations and future occupations.

Having known this, are Saudi students free to choose the occupations they prefer after graduation? What are the factors which seem to influence their choices? What are their value orientation? Is there a career decision-making model applicable to the Saudis? The following few pages will examine the data and offer answers to these questions. As a starting point,

it is appropriate to examine the relationship between the system of education and labour supply in Saudi Arabia.

6.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION AND LABOUR SUPPLY IN SAUDI ARABIA

As was indicated earlier (see Chapter 1) education in Saudi Arabia is free of charge although not obligatory (i.e. families are not forced by law to send their children to schools). Despite this, most Saudi families send their children to private schools when they reach the age of four. The normal age of accepting children in public schools is between six and seven years old. The current educational structure in the country is not too dissimilar from that of many developed countries, with the exception that boys and girls are taught separately. Elementary education between the ages of six to seven and twelve is followed by intermediate education for approximately three years. There is then a choice for both male and female pupils either to follow into general secondary education, to train as elementary school teachers or

to begin to specialise in technical subjects. In addition, there are special schools for the blind, the deaf and the mentally retarded and adult education and literacy programme for those beyond school age. Higher education in a broad range of subjects is available at the Universities of King Saud, King Faisal, King Abdulaziz, Umm Al-Qura, and the King Fahd University. For those students wishing to graduate in religious studies, courses are offered at the Imam Mohammad bin Saud University and also the Islamic University in Medina. Assuming that pupils have chosen to proceed to university education. This means that they should spend the first six years in elementary education, the next three years in intermediate education, and the last three years in secondary education. After passing the first year of the secondary education successfully, the student will be directed to go into a scientific or a literary type of education depending on the Grade Point Average (GPA - American system) achievement in either scientific or literature courses during his first year of secondary education. If we assume that the student has been successful in passing all the twelve years of school education, he will then be eligible for university education. Those students who

completed the General Certificate of Education (GCE) from a scientific section will be directed normally to scientific faculties such as engineering, medicine, science, etc.; and those students who completed the GCE from the literary section will be directed normally to social sciences faculties such as humanities, economics, literature... .. etc.

University education in Saudi Arabia requires normally four years of full-time education with a minimum grade point average (GPA) of 2.0 (American System) before one may graduate. Therefore, if we assume that a student has joined a public school at the age of seven, and has been successful in passing all years of education both at school and in university, we will expect his graduation at the age of twenty-three years. Consequently, age twenty-three is very important since it is the average age of graduation from universities and joining the labour force. Most university graduates are compelled to join public service in ministries due to the provision which has been laid on them by the GCSB (see chapter 3). The importance of the educational background stems from the fact that it plays a significant role in the occupational choice process and later in career

development. Most colleges and universities require undergraduate students to declare a major (i.e. a concentration of course work in a particular academic department), a decision that has strong occupational implications for future career development.

The following few pages will examine this sample from a number of perspectives such as age, family relationships, preferences, and aspirations. The intention is to establish a profile which may assist us in understanding the general attitudes of these students especially with regard to possible career choice. These factors are important in understanding the background to the sample students examined in this research.

6.6 BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

6.6.1 A g e

Since age is such an important determinant of manpower flows, examination of the age distribution of a particular occupational grade structure provides a simple check of the possible extent of forthcoming promotion and career problems. An age distribution of the sample shows the number of students falling into given age groupings. In our case, age 23 is typical (i.e. significant in career terms). It resembles the

age at which the labour supply of university graduates, on whom government ministries depend heavily, is expected. Our sample is divided into six age groups, (see table 6-1), to show the age profile. At the lower end of the profile, age 21, the students are in the start-up phase of their education, while at the high end, above 26 years old, they are toward the end of their education. The large number concentrated at age 26, could either mean that students were not successful in each year of their schooling, or it could mean that they are already in the work force and registered at the university as part time students (see table 6-2). However, the sample shows students to be highly concentrated in the age of 23 years old, the prime age of graduation and of joining the public service in Saudi Arabia. Due to the importance attached to age 23 in our analysis, the relationship between this age and job satisfaction and career development of Saudi students will be discussed below.

As a starting point, it must be noted that Saudi students often graduate from universities with unrealistically high expectations about the amount of challenge and responsibility they will find in their first job. (This has been deduced from interviews with senior students). Generally speaking, the younger the managers, the higher the expectations, and the more

they look forward to satisfying their higher-order needs e.g. esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization.¹⁰ Therefore, when students are assigned to jobs that do not meet their high expectations, they experience a "reality shock". The result is low morale, low productivity, and high turnover.¹¹ In our case, the Saudis find no way of leaving their organizations, because doing so would mean paying back the education expenses to the government. The result is dissatisfaction and feeling of apathy. This situation i.e. the intervention of the GCSB in placing new graduates into ministries, prevents the Saudis from choosing their own occupation. Therefore, this seems to be in a direct conflict with the stages of Ginzberg (see chapter 4). According to Ginzberg, age 23 resembled the period of realistic choice where one would expect a mature decision taken by individuals. In our case, the decision is not actually taken by individuals, but rather by the GCSB. Whether or not the decision of the GCSB is mature enough will depend actually on many factors such as the match between the jobs and expectations. We can generally assume, if this match exists, one will expect satisfaction and vice versa. To be more clear about students' expectations, we will examine their aspirations after graduation and whether or not those aspirations are being met by the GCSB.

6.6.2 Students' Aspirations After Graduation

The occupational areas in which the students desired to work can be seen in terms of their aspirations. Interviews with Saudi students conducted in this research, found that they often graduate from universities with unrealistically high expectations. However, based upon their own expectations, organizations attempt to shape the individual behaviour to satisfy organizational needs, i.e. it socializes them. It can be generally assumed that there are three basic or core attitudes to work which may be distinguishable: an "intrinsic" or vocational attitude in which work, (i.e. elements of the work situation that are valued in themselves); an "extrinsic" or instrumental one in which work is seen as a means of providing external satisfaction, e.g. financial; and a career-oriented one in which work is seen in terms of social mobility for the individual.¹² Once the individual and the organization have selected each other, the two parties must learn to adapt to one another. This process of adaptation will be greatly affected by individual and organizational expectations, as well as by the attempts of the organization to socialize its new members. Since the range of experience in socialization is so broad, it is likely that elements of all three

attitudes are to be found in the majority of people, but certain types of background experience will tend to reinforce some at the expense of others.

In examining the Saudi students, it appears that they are not being adequately socialized, nor are they being introduced and familiarized with government ministries in which they are compelled to work (i.e. no counselling or training are being given before placement on a job). What they know is the fact that they are going to be assigned to a job in a government ministry by the GCSB. To know more about their aspirations, the students were asked to state the most important factor they like to see in their future jobs which may affect their career choice if they were given the chance to choose. The majority of students emphasized the area of specialization.

TABLE 6-1DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS
ACCORDING TO AGE

<u>Age</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
21	12	26
22	-	-
23	17	37
24	-	-
25	-	-
Above 26	<u>17</u>	<u>37</u>
TOTAL	46	100

TABLE 6-2

STUDENTS' ENROLEMENT STATUS

<u>Status</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Full Time	35	76
Part Time	<u>11</u>	<u>24</u>
TOTAL	46	100

TABLE 6-3STUDENTS' ASPIRATIONS OF
OF THEIR FUTURE JOBS

<u>Aspiration</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>Total</u>
Easy Jobs	-	-	4	42	46
Good Pay and Benefits	18	16	10	2	46
Prestigious	10	18	16	2	46
Matches Area of Specialization (i.e. majors)	30	9	6	1	46

1 = Most important; 4 = least important.

Sixty-five percent of students confirmed that their future jobs must meet their area of specialization (see table 6-3). Statistically, there appears to be a close relation between college majors and preferred careers. Evidently, students tend to select majors for the vocational preparation they offer, and plan to work in careers for which the major provides them with a feeling of satisfaction. Satisfaction from work and the significance attached to it will depend not only on the nature of the work but also on the expectations which the individual brings to his job. These in turn will be the result of selection and socialization (see chapter 4). Therefore, to place students in jobs which do not match their area of specialization, as the GCSB does, will be an invitation to dissatisfaction and low level of morale.

The second most important factor which the Saudi students aspired in their future jobs was good pay and fringe benefits. Nearly 40 percent indicated that future jobs must pay good salaries and benefits. As a second step in examining expectations, students were asked to state where they can find good pay and benefits. 42 percent stated that greater opportunity for wealth and high earnings can be met if the individual joined a private enterprise; 30 percent in public

TABLE 6-4

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION RESPONDENTS
LIKE TO JOIN AFTER GRADUATION

<u>Type of Orga- nization</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Ministries	13	28
Public Organizations	14	30
Private Enterprises	<u>19</u>	<u>42</u>
TOTAL	46	100

TABLE 6-5

RESPONDENTS FREEDOM OF CHOICE

<u>Item</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Free to Choose	22	48
Not Free to Choose	24	52

TABLE 6-6

FACTORS BEHIND RESTRICTIONS OF CHOICE

<u>Item</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Have to work in Government	19	79
Can't Get a Release from GCSB (i.e. No Family Connections)	<u>5</u>	<u>21</u>
TOTAL	24	100

organizations, and only 28 percent in ministries (see table 6-4). This seems to support our earlier discussion that pay "is thought to be" better in both private enterprises and public organizations than in ministries (see Chapter 2). From this information, it appears that Saudi students seem to have reasonable perceptions of the relative income status of careers in each type of organization and the relative opportunity to achieve wealth. It also appears that the economic factors play an especially large role in the career decision of students since they seem to weigh income heavily in their career decision. (The second most important aspiration, see table 6-3). It looks that students are actually dissatisfied with current government income prospects (see table 2-1, Chapter 2) and are searching for more lucrative careers. Income appears especially important in their career decisions, as predicted by the model of choice (i.e. the probable gain model discussed earlier). Therefore, it can be generally assumed that careers in which many students expect higher incomes (e.g. in private enterprises in our case) are likely to be especially attractive to them. The opposite should be true in fields where students expect incomes below those in close alternatives. Given the above, the question which comes to mind is this: can Saudi students obtain jobs in private enterprises which meet their expectations of

high earnings? Nearly 80 percent of those who are not free to choose the type of organization that they will work in after graduation have stated that they are compelled to work in government ministries (see tables 6-5, 6-6) due to GCSB regulations, and are prevented from having a job in the private sector. If this is to indicate anything, it seems to demonstrate that Saudi students appear to have a tendency to give serious consideration to alternative careers while in university, an issue which confirms our early discussion of the relationship between education and career development.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that money-oriented students tend to prefer occupations which offer especially high pay and in which income is expected to increase rapidly in the future. These are features which are closely associated with private enterprises in Saudi Arabia, an issue which explains Saudi students' preferences to work in the private sector. This notion is supported by the fact that 87 percent of students preferred to be free after graduation as opposed to only 13 percent who believed their appointment should be through the GCSB (see table 6-7). Most students believe that their career choices, if they have any, are in a direct conflict with the regulations of the GCSB. They have also indicated, when interviewed, that they are also

TABLE 6-7

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WHO PREFERS
FREEDOM OF CHOICE AFTER GRADUATION

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Prefer to be left alone	40	87
Object to being alone	<u>6</u>	<u>13</u>
TOTAL	46	100

TABLE 6-8

RESPONDENTS' OPINIONS TOWARD
THE GCSB POLICIES

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
GCSB should not release students	15	33
GCSB should release students	<u>31</u>	<u>67</u>
TOTAL	46	100

contributing to the economy of the country when they join a private enterprise. As a consequence of this attitude, the majority of students looked at the GCSB as an ambition-killing agency that did harm more than good to students (67 percent have indicated that, see table 6-8). The experience of students of the recruiting procedures of the GCSB is reflected in their attitudes towards such procedures. Such procedures represent the bridging point between the world of employment and the academic world and also represent the first contact of the applicant with the organization. Due to the constraints mentioned above, the students, believe that the GCSB recruiting procedures are inadequate, and hence dissatisfaction will be the result. Therefore, they strongly believe that the GCSB should reconsider its policies in order to regain its respect and efficiency.

To explore this situation further the researcher found it necessary to conduct an interview with a GCSB official in Jeddah Headquarters. The GCSB official said "..... to be frank with you, the number of students graduating each year is increasing. We are facing some problems in placing them in Jeddah. The problem stems from the fact that these graduates are reluctant to be appointed outside Jeddah. I would like

to ask you now, he said, how are we going to implement and execute development plans? Mainly for this reason, we are forced to depend on expatriates and place the graduate irrationally in jobs which appear not to be compatible with their qualifications." If this is to indicate anything, it seems to demonstrate the fact that family connection and strong ties discussed earlier seem to have a strong effect on the geographical mobility of students. This has been confirmed in an interview with a student who graduated recently from King Abdulaziz University. He said ".... I live with my mother, father, two sisters and one brother. My parents are getting old, and according to our faith of Islam, I have to take good care of them in as much as they had taken care of me when I was a child. My fate is predestined, and I could not care less of finding a job which matches my abilities. I feel that the most important issue is to take care of my family first."

This fatalistic attitude, and the strong family ties appear to shape the orientation and value system of the Saudis, factors which may affect to a large extent their occupational choice and career development. Thus, it is possible to suggest that dissatisfaction with either elements of the work situation, or with the characteristics of a particular job (e.g.

government jobs) may lead to an individual deciding to change his job, if he is currently on one, despite his original career interests --- in this situation he could be seen as adapting his career perceptions to the new circumstances. Alternatively, a change in career plan might occur as a result of external influence (e.g. culture, family ties in our case).

Therefore, it is suggested that the theoretical perspective, discussed earlier, provides an important base for any discussion of the practical implications of graduate employment, and that it is important for the GCSB policies to be based on an understanding of the dynamics of the process by which career and job attitudes of the Saudis are formed and crystallised. This implies the need for an effective approach in three areas: the effective planning and utilization of manpower by the employment system (i.e. the GCSB); adequate methods and procedures for guiding the flow of personnel from one system to the other; and a closer relationship between individual development and the manpower needs of the economy and the structure of employment opportunities discussed earlier.

6.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Frustration and dissatisfaction in young students who are about to graduate is widespread because of a number of factors the most important of which is that their job expectations are unrealistic. Matters are complicated further by the fact that Saudi students are not free to choose the type of organization they can join after graduation, nor do they have a chance to choose their occupation. All matters concerning placement, promotion and recruitment is determined by the GCSB (see chapter 3). There is no advisory agency that may help students to choose their own career and the introduction of such a service should be strongly considered. For such an advisory agency to be effective, it should be assigned by the High Committee of Administrative Reform (HCAR, see chapter 3) and coordinated with the GCSB. This might alleviate the problems of placement policies currently enforced and practiced by the GCSB. The GCSB does not have an idea of students' expectations and aspirations, therefore, it may assign them to jobs which are not compatible with their aspirations. The students do not expect their aspirations to be met in ministries. The result is a mismatch between the students' attitudes and their jobs. The relevance of this conceptualization

of attitudes toward work lies in the possibility of conflict between the attitudes developed in students during their childhood, and the work situation they are forced to enter. Research appears to indicate that early experience on a job can significantly affect job satisfaction, employee attitude, productivity level and turnover¹³ and can have a significant effect on a person's career (see chapter 4). If it is necessary for the GCSB to appoint students to government jobs, it must take into consideration that the jobs must meet the students' area of specialization. In the meantime, the salaries assigned to new graduates in government jobs must be increased in line with what is being currently paid in the private sector. This may make government jobs more appealing to university graduates (since, as we have seen, they are money-oriented) and consequently may increase their satisfaction and productivity. If, on the other hand, this cannot be done, then it will be much better for the GCSB to leave university graduates alone to choose their own occupation that corresponds to their level of aspiration. Otherwise, we assume that a high level of self-estrangement will be the consequence of occupying government jobs. Students seem to reflect a

helplessness and hopelessness about changing the characteristics of these positions due to the policies and interference of the GCSB.

This research indicates that the current situation of the GCSB is not welcomed by most students. The students feel that they should take career decisions which correspond to their own aspirations. The importance of decisions taken during the occupational choice process, should be seen in the context of the individual making a considerable investment in a particular career. Sofer (1970) for example, has pointed out that initial entry into an occupation starts an investment, that an irreplaceable amount of time has been committed, and that if the initial career decision is not followed through, then the investment is very probably lost. Therefore, it seems that both students and the GCSB will lose their investments if the GCSB continues in its irrational placements of graduates.

Based on this discussion, the GCSB when placing students should at the very least be aware of their needs, aspirations and expectations. In the meantime, government ministries must be aware of the recruitment procedures and policies of the GCSB. A fine balance is needed in recruitment between students' aspirations

and expectations; GCSB policies; and the actual need of government ministries. This can partially be achieved through coordination among the Ministry of Higher Education, GCSB, and the High Committee for Administrative Reform (HCAR) (see chapter 3). But before this coordination can be achieved, the GCSB should question the assumptions on which its placement policies are based. Consequently, there is a need to provide a map of the way in which careers are perceived by possible employees, and an explanation of the dimensions of future perceptions.

The next chapter will examine and analyze the perceptions and attitudes of the Saudi middle managers, the majority of whom have been appointed by the GCSB.

NOTES ON CHAPTER 6

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2. R.B. Freeman, "The Market for College Manpower," Harvard University Press, 1971, pp. 1-15.
3. For an analysis of the time input into the production of human capital, see Y. Ben-Porath "The Production of Human Capital and the Life Cycle of Earnings," Journal of Political Economics, August, 1967.
4. More on this point, see R.B. Freeman, "The Market for College-Trained Manpower." Harvard University Press, 1971, pp. 1-15.
5. Alfred Marshall, "Principles of Economics," New York: MacMillan, 1936.
6. Freeman, "The Market for College-Trained Manpower," op. cit. pp. 14-15.
7. See for example, Arrow, K.J. "Alternative Approaches to the Theory of Choice in Risk-Taking Situation," Econometrics, 1951, 19, pp. 404-437.
8. See for example, Joseph Smaler, "Psycho-Social Aspects of Work: A Critique of Occupational Information," Personnel and Guidance Journal, February, 1961, pp. 458-465.

9. Simon, H.A. "A Behavioural Model of Rational Choice," *Quarterly J. Econ.* 1955, 49, pp.19-118.
10. See for example, Haire M. E. Ghiselli and L. Porter, "Managerial Thinking: An International Study," 1966.
11. See for example, John Saybolt, "The Impact of Work Role Design on Career Satisfaction" in C. Brooklyn Darr (ed.) Work, Family and the Career, Praeger, 1980, pp. 51-72.
12. See for example, A. Freedmann, "Industrial Society," Glencoe, Ill. Free Press (1955); F. Herzberg et al. "The Motivation to Work," Chapman and Hall (1959).
13. See for example, G.P. Fournet, K.K. Distefano, and M. Pryer, "Job Satisfaction: Issues and Problems," *Personnel Psychology*, 19, 1966, pp. 165-183.

CHAPTER 7PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA:
ASPECTS OF THE SAUDI PREFERENCES,
ATTITUDES AND SATISFACTION IN
MIDDLE MANAGEMENT POSITIONS7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter intends to examine the attitudes of the Saudi Arabian middle managers in ministries and public organizations as these may be linked to some organizational variables, (e.g. authority, pay, motivation) and relate them to their general satisfaction and career development discussed in chapter 4. The aim is to provide a profile of the Saudi Arabian managers. To achieve this, questionnaires were administered and distributed to middle managers in the two types of organization (see Appendix 2). There are many reasons for choosing middle managers to be the focus of this research. Firstly, in contrast to middle management, upper management positions are usually filled by political appointees who should be loyal to the governing body. Middle managers are not usually political appointees, therefore, we might expect them to be more objective in taking decisions.¹ Secondly, middle managers in any organization are very important since they act as a link between top management and lower-level management. Thirdly, for the purposes of research middle managers, especially in developing countries,

are more accessible than top managers. The majority of middle managers, especially those working in ministries, are government appointees, with a university degree. This may be due to the fact that despite a strong commitment to a free economic system, the government exerts significant impact on the labour market through direct and indirect means. The government, for example, enacts legislation regulating a wide range of labour affairs from maintenance of welfare to development of talent, and importation of expatriate labour. It employs directly tens of thousands in civilian sectors, i.e. through the GCSB primarily (see Chapter 3 and 6) in addition to those in the military. It influences labour demand indirectly through its massive development expenditures. It affects labour supply directly through importation of expatriates and on-the-job training programs and indirectly through its educational programmes and expenditures. In all this the aim is to try to socialize employees to achieve the government objectives. As was shown in Chapter 6, the universities are the main suppliers of employees in the country. Employees enter government organizations with Bachelor degrees, and after an initial period of orientation (i.e. one year probational period on the job) start their first real assignment. They now enter the most crucial part of

their careers. In pursuing a series of new jobs, the new young recruits learn to know themselves as organizational employees - to identify their particular areas of competence, interests and aspirations and by learning how their organizations work, they begin to mesh their capabilities with the available career paths in the organization. The organizations in turn, try to evaluate its newcomers (are they of high potential? are they candidates who may be able to fill top management roles?) and hence set career tracks in line with this early evaluation.

The necessary meshing of individual and organizational needs can occur through several basic steps.² The first step is assessing the career context. The context represents basic prerequisites without which career development becomes an uphill battle. At the individual level, the person must have the motivation for career exploration, which initiates the process of career development. If the person is satisfied with his or her position or is discouraged or for some other reason is not motivated to explore new career opportunities, the process stops here. At the organizational level, there must exist an internal labour market through which internal candidates are

trained, developed, and transferred to meet present and future staffing needs. Some critical elements of an internal labour market are top level acceptance of the need for employee movement, a fairly clear career progression structure, and a policy of promotion from within. Organizations with well functioning internal labour markets tend to have more highly developed career management systems than do organizations that use the external labour market to meet staffing needs.

The second step is information seeking. Information about the candidate must be matched with information about career opportunities. Information about the person can be provided both through self assessment (of one's values, skills, interests, experience, and other attributes) and through external assessment (performance appraisals, assessments of potential, formal assignment records, and so forth). A career counselor or a skilled manager can help the person by assisting the self-assessment process and by providing feedback on performance, potential and past assignments.

One of the elements most often lacking in the career development process is information about career opportunities within the organization. Formal career or human resource information systems are useful

vehicles for permitting self-paced career exploration by employees. Career counselling or advice, provided by trained counselling staff or by trained managers, can also be an important adjunct to an information system, by helping the individual process the information and relate it to his or her own personal values, interests, skills, and experience. We have seen earlier that such counselling services are not available in Saudi organizations.

Once an employee has gathered information about himself and about organizational opportunities, it is possible to begin the third step: setting realistic goals for career development. At the individual level, this requires that the person first think through his life goals, a process that probably will be aided by the self-assessment process just described. At the organizational level, in order for the career manager or a counselor to help the person set realistic career goals, he must have some information about future business objectives and areas of the business that most likely will be growing and providing good opportunities in the future. It also would be useful for him to have some idea of what the future staffing needs will be in the area in which the candidate is interested. For example, if the person is considering switching from manufacturing to marketing, but marketing is forecasting a labour surplus for the next five

years and thus has minimal need for new staff, this area would not be a promising one to pursue.

The fourth step, once the person's career goals have been crystalized, is the development of specific plans for pursuing these goals. At the individual level, the person must have acquired the ability to think strategically and to be able to apply strategy to himself, not just to work projects. This also entails knowing what sort of timing is appropriate for various types of career moves.

At the organizational level, a strategy of human resource development is an important facilitator. Such a strategy could include elements such as creating the role of career manager, having maximum and minimum training for holding assignments and the conscious use of lateral movement to develop varied skills. Related strategic human resource development would be a clear identification of key assignments through which a person must move in order to acquire the skills and experience needed for a desired career objective.

The fifth step in career management is helping the individual implement the career plans. It is particularly important to provide him with problem-solving and coping skills, which are instrumental in overcoming the inevitable difficulties that arise as

one works on a plan. Personal contacts with key managers, a peer support system and networking also can be critical aids to successful career activity.

At the organizational level, the career opportunities identified as good fit possibilities in step 2 (information seeking) must in fact be open. This does not mean that a specific assignment must immediately be open; rather, it means that there must be a realistic probability that they might be open (and open to a particular person) in the foreseeable future. Nothing dampens a persons motivation for further career exploration more severely than preparing for a career path that turns out to be blocked. This lack of congruence between individual career planning and organizational staffing needs represents a severe disincentive to future career planning. It is also important to have organizational support from people in positions of power. The career manager plays a powerful broker role in "selling" the candidate to frequently skeptical receiving managers (who might fear being victims of a "turkey trade"). Often managers can serve as informal sponsors in nominating and supporting a candidate for a desired position.

The sixth and final step in career development is performance. Once the person is in the desired

position, he or she must perform well in order to be a candidate for further movement. Thus, good performance can be a feedback variable triggering another cycle in the career growth process. If the employees find that there are opportunities to meet their expectations through their organizations, then they most probably will stay in them. Therefore, we assume that the aim of the previous steps is to enhance the best fit between the organizations and their members.

As we have stated earlier one of the main reasons for conducting this research is the fact that a large movement of employees from government to public organizations and the private sector has been noticed by GCSB officials. The reasons behind this movement are not clear. Therefore, it is the objective of this research to find out the reasons behind this movement. Could it be pay and fringe benefits; authority and management practices; career and job dissatisfaction, or all those factors among others like cultural and environmental factors?

To collect information about these variables, questionnaires were administered in the two types of organization - 32 in ministries; and 40 in public organizations. The following few pages will examine and analyze the data starting with the social background of the respondents.

7.2 BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

7.2.1 Age, Marital Status, and Expectations

Careers exist through time and consequently age becomes a consideration in understanding them. In some occupations, especially those performed in bureaucratic organizations as is the case of Saudi organization, formal rules and norms may exist regarding the length of time an individual must have been in the occupation (or position) before it is possible for him to move to other positions, particularly those at a higher level in the organizational hierarchy. Norms of this kind imply and in a sense superimpose an age - grading on the occupations in the organization. Even in occupations performed in less bureaucratic contexts, informal norms may exist that define certain kinds of activities as appropriate for persons of particular ages and inappropriate for others. In part, such norms are reflections of the more general cultural norms that authority should increase with age and that younger persons should show deference to those older than them.

While there is great variation from one occupation to another and differences between work contexts and work organizations, it seems safe to generalize that all occupations have norms defining the

relationship between age and appropriate work activity. One function that such norms perform is to serve as guides to the development of career expectations and career planning on the part of individuals. In addition, they may serve as a basis for judging one's relative success in an occupation as well as the success of others. Within occupations, age peers serve as a reference group to which individuals may compare themselves in making judgements about their own success and accomplishments.

The age grading of occupational activities and the existence of norms defining the appropriate relationship between age and work activity impinge upon our understanding of careers. Age is a career contingency in the sense that substantial deviation from these norms and definitions may generate a variety of problems for individuals. They may also operate to thwart and frustrate the career expectations and aspiration of individuals. Thus, an individual who falls behind the age norms of his occupation may find that advancement in the occupation becomes increasingly difficult. The person passed over for promotion at an age when promotion is defined as appropriate may find that his chances for advancement decrease rapidly as he becomes too old to be promoted.³

As was indicated earlier (see chapter 6), all Saudi university students are expected to join government ministries at an average age of 23. It appears from looking at table 7-1 that the majority of respondents (72 percent in ministries; and 76 percent in public organizations) fall between the ages 25-35, and more than 80 percent in both types of organization are married with children (see tables 7-2 and 7-3). The age of our sample is very important since it is indicated that they are relatively young. From analyzing the literature concerning job satisfaction and age, Super (1939) found that age and job satisfaction are significantly but not linearly related, Super suggested the existence of a "satisfaction cycle" which found younger men satisfied at the start of their careers; somewhat dissatisfied and anxious to advance more rapidly after about age twenty-five; more satisfied again in the decade beginning with age thirty-five; less satisfied in the decade beginning with forty-five when "work loses some of its attractions and other types of satisfactions have not yet been developed"; and increasingly satisfied again in the decade from fifty-five on.⁴ Since, as we have seen in chapter 6, university graduates enter the work force with unrealistic expectations, they are usually faced

TABLE 7-1

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

A g e	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
20 but less than 25	1	3	3	7
25 but less than 30	8	25	17	43
30 but less than 35	15	47	13	33
35 but less than 40	5	16	6	15
40 but less than 45	2	6	1	2
45 and more	1	3	-	-
TOTAL	<u>32</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>100</u>

TABLE 7-2

MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS

Status	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Married	29	91	35	88
Unmarried	3	9	5	12
TOTAL	<u>32</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>100</u>

TABLE 7-3

RESPONDENTS' NUMBER OF CHILDREN

No. of Children	Government Ministries	%	Public Organizations	%
1	4	16	10	33
2	12	48	11	37
3	7	28	7	23
4	1	4	2	7
5	1	4	-	-
6	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	<u>25</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>100</u>

TABLE 7-4

FATHER'S OCCUPATION OF RESPONDENTS

Father's Occupation	Government Ministries	%	Public Organizations	%
Government Employee	19	59	29	72.5
Private Business	13	41	11	27.5
TOTAL	<u>32</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>100</u>

with a "crisis" which develops at around age 30 because at this age an increase in occupational mobility and career frustration is experienced. Contributing to this point is the fact that the younger the managers (as in our case), the more they are looking forward to satisfy their higher-order needs.⁵ It should be noted here that we culturally associate particular ages with particular statuses and with each status go characteristic and legitimate hopes, expectations, rights and duties. Hence, age-status expectations constitute an important link between the personality system of the individual and the social system in which he participates.⁶

7.2.2 Father's Occupation and Educational Attainment

The importance of father's occupation stems from the fact that it gives us an idea of the respondents' early socialization. As we have seen earlier, (see chapter 4) the family constitutes a major importance in the life of individuals. Berger (1964,p. 139) states that "the overwhelming features of socialization in the neareast is the requirement that the individual subordinate himself to his family, tribe, or any other group with which he is identified. This

is true to a certain extent everywhere in human society but it is certainly more characteristic of Arab than of Western group life."⁷ We found earlier (see chapter 4) especially in the studies of Miller and Form (1951) and Blau and Duncan (1967) that the most significant influence in career attainment in one's social class background are father's occupation, and father's education. These two factors were found to be strong predictors of a person's education and job.

As part of the normal process of growing up a young person probably learns more about the work world represented by his father's occupation than about any other occupation. Furthermore, he probably learns more about it than does the person whose father is not a member of the occupation. Exposure to and familiarity with the occupation and its surrounding subculture may function as a very subtle and indirect influence on occupational choice of which the individual may be quite unaware.

In this study, the majority of managers stated that their father's were government employees (59 percent in ministries; 72 percent in public organizations, (see table 7-4). This seems to be in general harmony with what Blau and Duncan (1967) have described that sons usually follow the occupations of their fathers.

Relating this to career theories discussed in chapter 4, it appears that the family plays a critical role in the formation of the individuals self concept which to a large extent determine the specifics of the career decision an individual will make. In Saudi Arabia, the role of the family especially the father cannot be overestimated due to the strong family ties discussed earlier. It seems obvious that in Saudi Arabia familial factors are important to career decisions both in the determination of the situational variables involved in career development (such as educational, economic, social support and reinforcement) and in the intra-individual variables (such as physical and psychological characteristics).

In our case, the government is the major employer in the country due to the provision which has been laid by the GCSB that most university graduates work in government. Relatively speaking this is confirmed by the educational levels of the respondents where 78 percent in ministries and 78 percent in public organizations have at least Bachelors or first degrees respectively (see table 7-5). Moreover, 25 percent of the managers in both types of organization have received their degrees from abroad (see table 7-6). This may have an effect on their norms and culture,

TABLE 7-5

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

Level of Education	Government Ministries	%	Public Organizations	%
Less than High School	1	3	2	5
High School Diploma	3	9	12	30
Bachelor Degree	21	66	17	43
Master Degree	7	22	2	5
Ph.D.	-	-	-	-
Other (Diploma)	-	-	7	17
TOTAL	<u>32</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>100</u>

TABLE 7-6

SOURCES OF LAST DEGREE

Source	Government Ministries	%	Public Organizations	%
Inside Saudi Arabia	24	75	30	75
Outside Saudi Arabia	8	25	10	25
TOTAL	<u>32</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>100</u>

and career development. Al Farsy (1980) commented that Saudis graduated from abroad seem to be more open than locally educated ones. It is also apparent from table 7-5 that the general educational attainment in ministries is slightly better than in public organizations, an issue which indicates the intervention of the GCSB in the placement of graduates to ministries.

Educational attainment and qualifications imply the acquisition of skills and the competence of an individual in a particular field. If individuals are not given the scope for applying such skills, as appeared to be happening with Saudi middle managers, and in the case of many of the graduates in the previous chapter, the effect from an organizational standpoint could be inefficiency in the utilization of manpower. However, the major effect could be in terms of the reaction of the individuals (i.e. managers and graduates) which could well be to leave the organizations entirely. This seems to confirm our earlier discussion that the link between expectations and subsequent reality is particularly important here.

7.2.3 Occupational Background

Middle management occupants in our research are relatively young (see table 7-7). Many managers in both types of organization have spent less than three

TABLE 7-7

TIME SPENT IN CCURRENT JOBS

T i m e	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Less than 3 years	15	47	16	40.0
3 years but less than 5 years	6	19	13	32.5
5 years but less than 7 years	6	19	5	12.5
7 years but less than 9 years	-	-	3	7.5
9 years and more	5	15	3	7.5
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

TABLE 7-8

TIME WITH ORGANIZATIONS

T i m e	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Less than 3 years	8	25	9	22.5
3 years but less than 5 years	7	22	7	17.5
5 years but less than 7 years	1	3	6	15.0
7 years but less than 9 years	2	6	4	10.0
9 years but less than 11 years	3	9.5	3	7.5
11 years and more	11	34	11	28.0
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

years in their jobs (47 percent in ministries, and 40 percent in public organizations (see table 7-8). This means that our respondents are new appointees. The importance of the length of service stems from the fact that it gives us a rough indicator of both the turnover rate and the market's ability to create new opportunities. This pattern of recent employment in our sample was likely to have been a result of an expansion in the Saudi economy during the late 1970's, especially with regard to the development of urban areas. Table 7-8 shows that respondents have spent eleven years and more with their organizations (34 percent in ministries and 28 percent in public organizations). This seems to demonstrate that the managers either accept the status quo, or it means weak promotional policies, or both. The more likely factor is that the managers in our sample have accepted the status quo since the Saudis by virtue of their own culture tend to accept the status quo of things (see chapter 5). It could be that longer service managers think of their organizations more favourably since, as we have seen earlier, the longer the service, the more the loyalty to the organization. In addition, their expectations are lower than newly recruited younger managers,⁸ an issue which may

result in greater dissatisfaction of the newly hired young employees. This is supported by the fact that 65 percent in ministries have indicated that they have been directed to their organizations by the GCSB without taking their opinions before placing them (see tables 7-9 and 7-10). If this indicates anything, it seems to demonstrate that career aspirations of these managers may not be being met. Qualifications was the criterion most frequently mentioned by the GCSB officials as being amongst the most important that could be used in the selection process (see Chapter 3). Managers feel that their qualifications are not being taken into account when placing them by the GCSB. Therefore, in order to meet their career aspirations, the managers especially in ministries have asserted that the most important criterion in the selection process should be qualifications (81 percent in ministries and 57 percent in public organizations, see table 7-11).

The above results make it possible to suggest that the relationship between education and employment has particular inadequacies, an issue which further proves the poor policies of the GCSB in this regard. It is interesting to note that it is usually graduates who are accused by the GCSB officials of having unrealistic expectations arising out of their degree qualifications.

Having given a general profile of respondents, we now turn to examine some of the basic issues of this research, i.e. the general attitudes of respondents toward some organizational variables such as authority, responsibility, job satisfaction and the effects they may have had on career development of the Saudi managers.

TABLE 7-9

SOURCE OF OBTAINING THE
RESPONDENTS' CURRENT JOBS

Source	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Through the GCSB	20	63	6	15.0
Through a friend	6	19	9	22.5
Local Newspaper	3	9	15	37.5
Other (Nepotism, family connections)	3	9	10	25.0
TOTAL	<u>32</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>100</u>

TABLE 7-10

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WHOSE
OPINIONS WERE TAKEN BEFORE PLACEMENT

Opinion	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Yes	7	35	5	83
No	<u>13</u>	<u>65</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>17</u>
TOTAL	<u>20</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>100</u>

TABLE 7-11

THE MOST IMPORTANT CRITERION OF
SELECTION AS INDICATED BY RESPONDENTS

Criterion	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Qualifications	26	81	23	57
Seniority	16	50	22	55
Social Status	21	65	17	42
Friendship	19	59	16	40

7.3 PERCEPTIONS OF THE SAUDI MIDDLE MANAGERS OF AUTHORITY, RESPONSIBILITY, TRAINING PROGRAMS AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES

7.3.1 Perceptions of the Saudi Middle Managers of Authority

Authority is synonymous with responsibility. Responsibility is the term which defines the manager's job including both the quantity of work to be done and also the quality or degree of difficulty of the work. A basic principle of management is that responsibility cannot be properly assigned or utilized unless accompanied by authority to make decisions and carry them into action. Rose (1964, p. 81) pointed out "... when we give a man responsibility of a job we must give him authority to take the necessary action in getting the job done. The more authority we give the man to take whatever actions necessary to do the job, the better chance he will have of getting it done quickly and efficiently."⁹ The concept of authority has varying definitions. Traditionally, authority has been used as a formal or legal concept similar to the term "rights". This usually means that a manager has the right to command subordinates and expect obedience from them. This definition implies also the right to delegate to or withhold authority from subordinates. If the manager withholds authority, we can say that the authority is centralized.

Centralization of authority in the hands of the few is a common phenomenon throughout the entire administrative system in Saudi Arabia. As we have seen earlier (see chapter 3) the Council of Ministers, which is formally the supreme organ of the state, still preserves for itself jurisdiction over many minor issues such as promotion of all government employees from grade thirteen and above. As a result, the Council is overburdened by minor details, and hence, devotes only a small portion of its time to the consideration of important public policy issues.

The centralization of authority in every government organization in Saudi Arabia may result in lack of sufficient authority at various levels of the organization, therefore paralyzing its normal function. Looking into the data which have been gathered from the Saudi middle managers, it appears that the majority of them looked at their jobs as being full of routine. Nearly 66 percent in ministries and 58 percent in public organizations have indicated that their jobs have some sort of a standardized pattern. As a result 47 percent in ministries and 58 percent in public organization have indicated that they are performing routine jobs (see table 7-12). This may be attributed to the fact that centralization of authority

TABLE 7-12

OPINIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS
TOWARD THE NATURE OF THEIR JOBS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Have a Standar- dized Pattern	21	66	23	58
Do not have Stan- dardized Pattern	11	34	17	42
Routine Jobs	15	47	23	58
Non-Routine Jobs	17	53	17	42

TABLE 7-13

RESPONDENTS' FREEDOM TO TAKE DECISIONS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
To much freedom (i.e. decentrali- zation)	9	28	17	42
Don't have anything to say (i.e. cent- ralization)	<u>23</u>	<u>72</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>58</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

TABLE 7-14

AUTHORITY ASSOCIATED WITH JOBS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Authority is reasonable	10	31	14	35
Authority is unreasonable	<u>22</u>	<u>69</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>65</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

TABLE 7-15TYPE OF AUTHORITY IN BOTH
TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Centralized	23	72	30	75
Decentralized	<u>9</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>25</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

TABLE 7-16REASONS BEHIND CENTRALIZATION
OF AUTHORITY

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Shortage of quali- fied employees	9	28	12	30
Lack of Trust	14	44	19	48
Unclear lines of authority	20	63	18	45
Desire to stick upto rules	16	50	15	38

is so strong that no participation in decision making is being exercised. This has been supported by the fact that 72 percent in ministries and 58 percent in public organizations have indicated that their freedom in decision making is at its lowest (see table 7-13). It also appears from looking at the data that the centralization of authority is stronger in ministries than in public organizations. 69 percent in ministries have indicated that the actual authority delegated to them is at its minimum (see table 7-14). If this indicates anything, it seems to demonstrate that the type of organizational structure does actually have an effect on the degree of authority to be delegated.

Ministries adopt tall structures with a very narrow spans of control. It also appears that public organizations adopt flat structures with wider span of control. In spite of this, most public organizations' managers have indicated that the authority delegated to them is at its lowest degree (see table 7-15). This seem to support the fact that centralization of authority is an ideology which is being adopted by the country and its different organizations.

In an interview a top official in one of the organizations surveyed noted that "..... tall hierarchies with many levels increase employees' commitment to the organization and enhance their job satisfaction because they provide many steps for career progression."

Quite to the contrary, in analyzing the literature, it has been found that tall structures involving many levels of management entail heavy administrative overheads. They can lead to communication problems and a dilution of top management control. They encourage the 'bypassing' of supervisors and subordinates. They can make it difficult to distinguish closely between responsibilities at different levels in the organization. They may reduce the scope subordinates have for exercising responsibility and so have a damaging effect on motivation and initiative.¹⁰

Most managers in our survey believe that there are reasons behind centralization of authority in their organizations. The most frequently mentioned factors are unclear lines of authority in ministries (63 percent); and lack of trust between superiors and subordinates in public organizations (48 percent, see table 7-16).

The concentration of administrative authority in the hands of a few officials within any given organization in Saudi Arabia is aggravated by the absence of any clear cut definition of the duties of employees. One of the interviewees in a government ministry commented: "within the entire framework of the government organization, there is a universal lack of clearly defined lines of responsibility and accountability. Administrative lines of authority seem to be well-known, but there is a real effort made at all level to avoid responsibility."

The centralization of authority at the top of the hierarchy is a common denominator in all Arab countries. Omar El-Fathaly and Richard Chackerian (1983, p. 195) commented on this when they said "Both academicians and Arab Executives complain bitterly about red tape, poor coordination, and failures of communication in Arab bureaucracies. Often these conditions are associated with a situation where formal

and informal authority is extremely concentrated at the top of an administrative hierarchy, while authority and responsibility are diffused in the lower reaches of the hierarchy. Job descriptions are likely to be vague or non-existent, and overlapping duties, functions, and jurisdictions are common. As one might expect, where authority and responsibility are diffuse, strategic program objectives are difficult to formulate and planning becomes an impossibility."¹¹

Hence, a state of disequilibrium between authority and responsibility exists, i.e. while little or no authority is given by superiors to subordinates, the responsibility of the latter is not specifically defined. Therefore, in almost all government organizations, accountability of employees depends on either:

- (a) an implicit normative understanding of responsibility as explained by the job title; or
- (b) an interpretation of its scope by superiors when a problem arises. Thus, one's responsibility in almost every government organization depends on one's relation with one's superior more than any other factor.

The origins of the centralization of authority may be traced back to cultural factors. Decision making in Saudi Arabia is autocratic, not participative. Culturally, a Saudi is not expected to offer judgments that might not support the ideas of a manager. Power and authority in Saudi Arabia are used autocratically in a paternalistic seniority system. Those who have it do not want to relinquish it. The egalitarian nature of the culture might appear to be of benefit for participative management, but the opposite is true. Rather than feeling equal and secure in putting forth ideas and suggestions concerning the work situation, the Saudi is under intense peer pressure to maintain the appearance of self-effacing modesty. With more traditional Saudis (i.e. those who reached their positions through seniority), it is even felt that there is something unbecoming about using the first person singular (Iseman, 1978).¹² The thing which complicates the matter further is the fact that the Saudis total submission to the will of God makes it virtually impossible for them to accept any form of other submission except that of parents. As a consequence, Saudi middle managers seem to reject centralization of authority. The majority of our sample indicated that rules ought not to be literally followed

(72 percent in ministries, and 63 percent in public organizations (see table 7-17). The immediate superiors frequently insist on following the rules and regulations literally (see table 7-18). This seems to support our earlier finding that centralization of authority in Saudi Arabia is part of the country's ideology which supports giving authority to few persons who are loyal to the political system of the country. Mainly for this reason and secondarily for others e.g. lack of trust between superiors and subordinates, authority is centralized at the top of the hierarchy with a very limited chance for the majority of subordinates to try ideas of their own (see table 7-19). This may result in organizational rigidity and

TABLE 7-17

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WHO STATED THAT RULES MUST NOT BE LITERALLY FOLLOWED

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Rules must not be literally followed	23	72	24	60
Rules ought be literally followed	<u>9</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>40</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

TABLE 7-18

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WHO
INDICATED THAT THEIR IMMEDIATE SUPERIORS
INSISTED ON FOLLOWING RULES LITERALLY

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Always	12	37	16	40
Sometimes	20	63	24	60
Never	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	<u>32</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>100</u>

TABLE 7-19

FREEDOM OF RESPONDENTS TO
TRY IDEAS OF THEIR OWN

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Jobs give chances to try new ideas	11	34	15	37
Jobs do not give any chances	<u>21</u>	<u>66</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>63</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

kill the initiative of managers which may lead to dissatisfaction and low level of morale that will surely affect their career development.

The importance of immediate supervision as a factor influencing the attitudes and behaviour of managers cannot be overestimated. The relationships of managers in both types of organization with their immediate superiors is a significant part of their socialization experience in the organization, and satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction with this relationship can obviously have important consequences on their career development. Most of our managers were not satisfied with their immediate supervision as a result of the machine bureaucracy which favours the centralization of authority currently adapted by Saudi organizations (see Chapter 2). It can be generally assumed that in most organizations, the employee's immediate superior is an important link in the career development process. Therefore, it is believed that if Saudi supervisors are to be effectively involved in the organizational career development process, it is imperative that their roles be clearly defined, that they be provided training that properly prepares them for these roles, and that the superiors themselves be provided an opportunity to discuss their own career objectives with officials responsible for the formulation of personnel policies.

The results of this section show that Saudi managers desire what might be termed a reasonable degree of autonomy in the work situation. This has been supported by reference to the study report in the previous chapter, where final year students desired to be free in choosing their own occupations, not to be imposed on them by the GCSB. They feel that they have neither discretion, nor autonomy in taking their own decisions. This will undoubtedly lead to dissatisfaction and low level of morale because as we have seen earlier (see Chapter 4) that autonomy in the work situation - free to make decision and take responsibilities - does appear to be positively related to job satisfaction.

7.3.2 Perceptions of Middle Managers Toward Training

The process involved in developing individuals once they have joined an organization plays an important part in the creation of an effective work force, in promoting attitudes which rate highly personnel development, and in the fulfillment of the objectives of other personnel policies. The process of training can be looked on as a process of socialization, defined by Caplow (1964) as the organizationally directed process that prepares individuals to occupy

organizational positions with a particular emphasis on, the acquired nature of behaviour as a positive aspect of the process.¹³ Much organizational training is supposedly designed to impose organizational effectiveness and individual performance. In developing countries, the major aim of training is to close the gap that is left by general education and to give more specific preparation for particular positions. In other words, training is what will work in gaps left by inadequacies of education. If training is inadequate, one of the solutions can be more training. However, "it should be emphasized that training is not always the way to better performance and achievement. The working conditions and the climate of the job, including the attitudes and competence of the immediate supervisor, may influence performance far more than the technical ability and competence of the people on the job.... training then is one, but only one, of the elements required for high achievement."¹⁴

There are several types of training. Pre-service training; and in-service training are the two types which are commonly used. Pre-service training is usually the responsibility of the educational system

which should orient itself to the needs of both public and private sectors. At the university and vocational or special institute level, there should be a close relationship between teachers and potential employers. This type of relationship would help graduates of the educational system to be properly prepared for their employment. This can be partially achieved in Saudi Arabia through coordination with the IPA and the GCSB (see chapter 3).

On the other hand, in-service training may be accomplished in many ways. On-the-job training during the conduct of the work is one way; another is special classes in special institutes such as the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in Saudi Arabia. It appears that this type of training is preferred in the Saudi public sector organizations. Government employees are sent to the IPA to have some kind of training; while most public organizations send their employees to their own institutes. However, both types of organization normally send their employees overseas for training in subjects which are not available in Saudi Arabia e.g. computer programming. The purpose of this section is to examine the attitudes of the Saudi middle managers toward the training programs they have attended. Table 7-20 shows that the majority of

managers in both types of organization have attended some kind of training programs (72 percent in ministries and 88 percent in public organizations).

TABLE 7-20

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF
MANAGERS WHO ATTENDED TRAINING

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Attended Training	23	72	35	88
Have not attended Training	<u>9</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>12</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

The majority of employees attended training programs in personnel and financial management (74 percent in ministries and 51 percent in public organizations). This is predictable since we are dealing with managers in both types of organization. Despite this, some managers have training programs in other areas such as English (a widely spoken language in Saudia), computer science and engineering. The majority of managers who have attended these programs were in public organizations since those types of organization seem more technically oriented than minisitries (see Chapter 2).

In-service training in Saudi Arabia is directed towards skill training. Unfortunately, it seems that training has failed to socialize Saudi employees because it concentrates on skill training rather than socialization. There are several reasons for this; the most important of which is the nature of the national decision making apparatus which tends to centralize authority at the top of the hierarchy. The trainee knows that even after gaining more training, he will not be able to take decisions or change his status. One of the respondents stated that "when I go home sometimes after a bad day of work, I kick myself and say - the organization has trained me to do exactly nothing other than what I am doing so I have no other place to go."

This of course will result in lower morale and satisfaction. Another factor can be attributed to the fact that a government job secures a monthly income which is seemingly not dependent on the productivity of employees. This seems to kill the initiative of employees to broaden their skills and experience by attending training programs.

In the following few pages, we will examine training limitations in Saudi Arabia and how they tend to affect the career development of the Saudis.

TABLE 7-21
AREAS OF TRAINING ATTENDED

Area	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Management (personnel & financial)	17	74	18	51
English	3	13	8	23
International Law	2	9	-	-
Computer Science	1	4	6	17
Engineering			3	9
TOTAL	23	100	35	100

7.3.2.1 Training Limitations:

Due to space limitations in the IPA and other training institutions, in addition to the shortage of qualified trainers, some training programs are attended outside the Kingdom. Some employees in both types of organization are sent abroad for further training especially in computers and allied science. Table 7-22 shows that 43 percent in ministries and 66 percent in public organizations have attended training programs both inside and outside the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Despite this, almost all trainees have stated that they need more training (see table 7-23 where 100 percent in ministries and 94 percent in public organizations stated that they needed further training and that

TABLE 7-22
PLACE OF TRAINING PROGRAMS

Place	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Inside Saudi Arabia	7	31	9	26
Abroad	1	26	3	8
Both	<u>10</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>66</u>
TOTAL	23	100	35	100

the training programs they attended were inadequate. Both managers in the two types of organization have stated that the main reason behind the inadequacy of training has been the fact that the training period is short and not enough (see table 7-24). When the respondents were asked to state the types of training they felt needed, both groups emphasized the need for training in management development programs and English respectively (see table 7-25).

The importance of management development training programs stems from the fact that all our sample consisted of managers. Therefore, stress should be laid in management programs on the importance of decision making processes. On a short term basis, efforts should be concentrated on courses which consist of a quick initiation into management techniques followed

TABLE 7-23RESPONDENTS' OPINIONS OF
THE TRAINING PROGRAMS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Adequate	-	-	2	6
Inadequate	<u>23</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>94</u>
TOTAL	23	100	25	100

TABLE 7-24REASONS BEHIND THE
INADEQUACY OF TRAINING

Reasons	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Programs have not been taken seriously	1	4	-	-
Training period is short	10	43	15	45
Programs do not change occupa- tional status	5	22	3	9
Nothing new to be learnt in training	3	13	6	18
All the above factors	<u>4</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>28</u>
TOTAL	23	100	33	100

by a series of management development courses. These may take the form either of seminars and demonstrations or of a series of lectures associated with practical work in Saudi culture. It is hoped that these courses should provide just enough theory to enable participants to understand the principles underlying techniques being taught, but the emphasis should be laid on practical application because this will assist the trainee in understanding his environment. In the practical application, it is recommended that trainees be trained on how to take decisions and be accountable for their actions. The passivity of middle managers in Saudi Arabia as was indicated by Madi (1975) was a direct result of the fact that they are not being given the chance to try ideas of their own. Consequently, the aim of management development is to make sure the men set aside as future executives are properly trained, and ready for action, by the time they are due to take their appointed place in the overall plan.

As far as English is concerned, it is important to mention that it has become a widely spoken language in almost every public organization in Saudi Arabia. One interviewee in Saudia commented on the importance of English "..... look, if you want to get ahead you have to be fluent in English..... fluency in English is a keystone to promotion."

TABLE 7-25

TYPES OF PROGRAMS
RESPONDENTS FELT NEEDED

Type of Program	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Management Deve- lopment	11	48	12	34
English	5	22	7	20
Computer	3	13	12	32
Public Relations	<u>4</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>14</u>
TOTAL	23	100	35	100

Despite the fact that Saudi Arabia has made strenuous efforts to overcome its problems in the field of education and training, much still remains to be done. Many of the education and training systems existing in Saudi Arabia are unable to supply, at the right time and in sufficient number, the qualified persons needed for the country's development.

This situation has been commented on by Bharadwaj (1975, p. 160)..... "Inadequate planning and coordination at the national level; the limited number of institutions and agencies; inadequate faculty resources and teaching material; insufficient management

consulting and research activity, with no links with training; inadequate interest in training for top management, junior executives, first line supervisors, and self employed entrepreneurs; insufficient attention to management training for small and medium sized business; inadequate links between national development, organizational development, and management development have contributed to weak training policies. In most developing countries there seems to be hardly any training need analysis at the national level. Often, even existing facilities for management development are not fully utilized. Evaluation of the effectiveness of management development activities is universally difficult."¹⁵

The inadequacy of training programs is due primarily to the cultural and social structure of Saudi Arabia where traditional and modern sectors exist side by side. The education system of the country is not oriented towards the goals of industrial society; despite the heavy concentration of development plans to industrialize the country. Educational programs and methods do not encourage interest in new ideas in general. Young people tend to be more interested in entering non-technical professions or government services than in becoming industrial managers, especially when the latter's work does not enjoy equal status.

Therefore, for the training to be more effective it should be integrated into the overall educational system of the country. Depending heavily on on-the-job training, as is the case in Saudi Arabia, will almost always result in an inadequacy of training. In order to overcome this limitation it should be possible to look at the various constituent elements of human resources development as a system which is somewhat analogous to a system for the generation and distribution of electric power. In using this frame of reference, one can identify skill-generating centres, such as for example schools, universities, training institutes, and employing organizations, which develop people on the job. The linkage between such centres are analogous to transmission lines. The manpower problems encountered by Saudi Arabia, such as skill and labour shortages, may be thought of as attributable to power failures in particular generating centres. Ineffective linkage between these centres, or faulty design which results in the failure of the total system to carry the loads expected of it. A system of human skill generation, like a system of electric power generation, should be designed to carry varying loads and it must have some built-in flexibility to meet such loads. The systems analysis approach makes it easier to identify

in operational terms major problem areas, and it compels the analyst to examine the critical interrelationships between various manpower and education programmes. It provides a logical starting point for building a strategy of human resources development. This is seemingly what Saudi Arabia needs to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the training programmes in order to socialize and satisfy its employees better.

It appears that on the job training has failed to socialize Saudi employees. Within this context of socialization, occupational choice is seen to involve four stages: pre-work socialization, entry to the labour force, socialization into the labour force, and job changes. The period of prework socialization - which one assumes is meant to cover the development of the individual until the time he comes to enter the labor force - operates to narrow the possible roles available for an individual, as a result of his experience with three key agents of socialization, the family, the school, and the peer group. Thus, within the family, the individual learns both family roles and economic roles, governed by the behaviour, values, and attitudes of his parents; as a result in the educational system the range of future available roles is

shaped; and the peer groups are seen as providing alternative values to those learnt within the home and school. At entry to the labour force, i.e. where occupational preferences become occupational choice, it is argued that such choice should match the selection process of, for example, industry and commerce, and that the role of vocational guidance is to arrange for such a perfect fit. The final stages cover the periods after entry to employment - initial socialization into the job and subsequent job changes, are based on the assumption that the systems controlling movements from education to employment are inadequate, and that people will subsequently change jobs. The stage of socialization into the job, is therefore, a vital part of any theory, in that the initial choice is unlikely to be the final choice for most people. Similarly subsequent job changes for any reason will involve the learning of new roles which could be termed "resocialization".¹⁶ Neither socialization nor resocialization is being properly applied in Saudi Arabia. As was indicated earlier, the training programs have failed to socialize Saudi employees because such programs have concentrated on skill formation rather than socialization, in the meantime resocialization cannot be applied due the policies of the GCSB of not releasing employees.

The inadequacy and inefficiency of training lies primarily with the public authority. However, it may be said that public authority responsible for the provision of skill and training have, at any point of time, to take two main types of decisions:

(a) Those concerning the provision of sources of skill.

(b) Those concerning vocational guidance (including provision of scholarships and other appropriate incentives) of persons available for training through various facilities. Each type of decision needs to aim at attaining targets for each of the sources of skill. A primary school's pupils can be given some guidance as to whether or not to seek entry into secondary schools, and in choosing manual or non-manual occupations of various kinds. At secondary schools guidance can be given with a view to channeling the right proportion of pupils directly towards specific occupations (or even specific enterprises), and various kinds of university training.

Simultaneously, decisions have to be taken (with reference to the targets chosen) as to the expansion or contraction of various kinds of formal training institutions, the expansion or redirection of formal institutions, the expansion or redirection of schemes

for training in employment, the recruitment of foreign manpower, and study abroad.

Unfortunately, decisions for the previous points are taken by different types of authorities with limited coordination, an issue which limits the success of their policies.

The crucial point here seems to be in the lack of coherent policy, specifying the tasks of the various bodies concerned in training with a view to meeting carefully determined needs at the lowest possible cost. The growing importance accorded to educational planning in Saudi Arabia is certainly a decisive step towards the establishment of such policy, but it should not lead to facile optimism. Efforts to this end usually aim at making general and technical education programs more effective; but they are not always linked very clearly with the country's industrial development aims, and they do not cover the very considerable activities in industry, and in the public service. As a result there tends to be rivalry among a multiplicity of government bodies, little or no coordination between them, and in most cases, absence of a national forum for discussing major questions of general policy, working out agreements on objectives to be achieved, and allocating the tasks to be

performed. This seems to be the most important obstacle behind the failure of training in Saudi Arabia.

Therefore, for training to be more effective, it is essential to have a clear strategy that holds together training and education. By "strategy" it is meant the systematic deployment of all available resources for the effective education and timely training of the personnel required to fill the civil service jobs. On the job training alone seems to be inadequate in providing civil service employees with the necessary skills.

Consequently, it is suggested that a Central Training Council be established in Saudi Arabia and connected to the High Committee for Administrative Reform (HCAR) discussed in Chapter 3. This may engage in assessing manpower needs both in government and public organizations, and for certain occupations e.g. computer programming, management etc. Assessment of training needs is to be made on the basis of job analysis in terms of the skills and knowledge required for a competent, continuous and confident performance and the compilation of a training syllabus for each job. This may help in alleviating training inadequacies currently faced in Saudi organizations. It is important to note here that the nature of training

varies considerably between the two types of organization in Saudi Arabia, but it is often strongly argued that if training is to be at all meaningful it should be firmly based on the requirements of the organization rather than pleasing the IPA or the GCSB.

7.4 PERCEPTIONS OF THE SAUDI MIDDLE MANAGERS ABOUT MOTIVATION, FRINGE BENEFITS AND PAY

7.4.1 Career Preferences and Motivation

Despite the fact that most Saudis end up working in government or quasi government organizations, many managers have expressed their aspiration for non-governmental occupations. To find out the reasons which motivate Saudi managers to work in one type of organization rather than the other, they were asked to list the most important factors that may have affected or would affect their choice. The most important factor which motivated the government managers to work in their organizations has been the prestige associated with government jobs (72 percent); while managers in public organizations have been primarily motivated by pay and fringe benefits (45 percent, see table 7-26). The prestige associated with government jobs has been commented on by Sirageldin et al (1984, p. 87). "Government employment offers attractive conditions

TABLE 7-26

FACTORS WHICH MOTIVATED SAUDI MANAGERS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Better pay and benefits	21	66	18	45
Simplicity	20	62	10	25
Prestigious	23	72	16	40
Matches area of specialization	20	62	15	37

such as short work hours, acceptable salaries, generous vacation and sick leave, security of tenure, scholarships at home and abroad, training incentives and a pension plan. Employment in government attracts highly qualified professionals and carries prestige at most levels, especially for white collar workers."7. With regard to public organizations' managers, it appears that they have chosen to work in such organizations because of the relative high pay of these organizations in comparison with ministries (refer to chapter 2), in addition to the other benefits such as housing allowance and free medical checkups etc. Despite this, negative attitudes towards public sectors jobs in general may be attributed to:

- (i) the general discontent, especially of young bureaucrats with overall administrative environment and practices,
- (ii) the dualistic moral standards they encounter in their daily activity,
- (iii) ambitions not fulfilled by their present careers, and
- (iv) boredom caused by the routine oriented jobs.

Despite the negative attitudes of the Saudi managers toward public sector jobs in general, public organizations (as opposed to ministries) offer some benefits in the hope to satisfy some of the needs of their members. A quick comparison between the two types of organization concerning fringe benefits and pay reveals a striking evidence that public organizations differ sharply from ministries (see table 7-27). It is important to note here that housing allowance is not being paid to Saudis working in ministries as of Sha'aban first, 1405H (corresponding to April, 1985) while it is still being paid to members of Saudia and almost all other public organizations. This may result in migration from government jobs to public organizations.

TABLE 7-27

FRINGE BENEFITS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Housing Allowance	7	22	40	100
Free Medical Check Up	19	60	40	100
Transportation Allowance	32	100	40	100
Free Airline Tickets	-	-	22	55
Three Months Salary Bonus	-	-	18	45

The migration of Saudis from government to public organizations seem to be associated with the incentives and opportunities each type of organization is rendering. It appears from our analysis that public organizations offer better incentives. This may have resulted in a migration from government to public organizations. But do all Saudis value incentives substantially in their plans to move? This may not be the case because some Saudis value prestige attached to government jobs. Therefore, they did not move. Consequently, whether mobility becomes substantial will

depend partially on the response of the Saudi workers to spatial incentives and opportunities. If this response exists at all, it will most likely lag in time (especially in the case of government employees), possibly because of deep rooted traditions related to family structure, and to a value system that increases individuals' cost of moving e.g. accepting the status quo and strong family ties (see chapter 2). It is also possible that the market itself did not provide either the necessary information about alternative opportunities or the necessary incentives to make a move worthwhile (e.g. intervention of the GCSB).

In a relative study on migration and occupational mobility, Sirageldin et al (1984) found that "in all regions of the Kingdom substantial occupational mobility of the Saudi workers in all occupational groups, except that of production and operative labour has been noticed. The proportion of those who changed occupations varied from about 72 percent for sales and services to 66 percent for administrative and managerial, to 56 percent for professional and technical, and to 42 percent for clerical occupations. For production and operative labour, occupational mobility was only 22 percent."¹⁸

As an incentive, financial compensation and benefits tend to be associated with the assumption underlying the "economic man" principle discussed earlier, namely that man is rational and desires above all else to maximize his financial position. This conception is inadequate, in the sense that it fails to take account of individual differences, different situations, or theories of personality and motivation (see Chapter 4). However, despite the fact that the motivation effects of financial compensation will depend on the nature and importance of the factors, there can be little doubt as to the importance of such compensation for the overall job satisfaction of individuals. Whether an increase in salary as a contribution to overall job satisfaction acts as an incentive to better performance is another matter, and one which has caused much controversy in the literature.¹⁹

The interviews with the managers in the two types of organization, and senior students in the previous study, revealed some interesting additional functions of financial compensation in that salary was regarded as an important indicator of progress (both within and outside the employing organization). Salary therefore, acts as a feedback on the achievement of individuals on their jobs.

7.4.2 Satisfaction with the Job

As we have seen earlier (see chapter 4) job satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction can be a result of intrinsic and/or extrinsic factors. The extrinsic are those satisfiers which are outside the job and which can be readily altered without changing the basic nature of the work that is performed. The main extrinsic satisfiers concern pay, promotion prospects, co-workers, physical working conditions, job security and social status.

However, people may work hard at their job even though they receive no extra pay and their chances of promotion are not enhanced. They may work hard because they find the work fascinating. There is something in the job itself which motivates them. The satisfaction received from these factors is termed intrinsic satisfaction. It is hypothesized that people with intrinsic satisfaction will do well as far as career development is concerned and vice versa. The GCSB intervention in placing Saudi graduates into jobs of its own choice may affect to a large extent their satisfaction and career development.

In order to find the Saudis satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction with their jobs, they were asked to state whether they felt happy or disappointed in their

jobs. 60 percent in government ministries and almost 47 percent in public organizations felt disappointed in their jobs. On the other hand, 40 percent in ministries against 53 percent in public organizations felt happy with their jobs (see table 7-28).

TABLE 7-28

OPINIONS OF RESPONDENTS
TOWARD THEIR JOBS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Felt Disappointed	19	60	19	47
Felt Happy	<u>13</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>53</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

It is noticeable from looking at table 7-28 that the number of managers who felt happy with their jobs is significantly better in public organizations than in ministries. This could be attributed to many factors, such as fringe benefits (refer back to tables 2-2 and 2-5 for comparison of pay in government and public organizations). The most important factor of disappointment in ministries was lack of authority (42 percent), while the main reason of disappointment in public organizations was because of the weak promotional policies (42 percent, see table 7-29).

TABLE 7-29

MAJOR CAUSES OF MANAGERS' DISAPPOINTMENT

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Lack of Authority	8	42	5	26
Rigid Rules	3	16	1	5
Inadequate Pay	3	16	2	11
Nepotism in Promotion	4	14	8	42
Jobs Don't Match Specialization	<u>1</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>16</u>
TOTAL	19	100	19	100

Despite the feeling of disappointment in jobs, the majority of managers felt they could not leave their organizations primarily for psychological reasons (i.e. need for affiliation and desire to associate with ones friends) (42 percent in ministries as opposed to 54 percent in public organizations, see tables 7-30, 7-31). The psychological reasons could be the

TABLE 7-30NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF MANAGERS
WHO STATED THEY CAN OR CANNOT
LEAVE THEIR ORGANIZATIONS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Can Leave	5	26	6	32
Cannot Leave	12	63	13	68
Don't Know	<u>2</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>-</u>	<u>-</u>
TOTAL	19	100	19	100

TABLE 7-31REASONS GIVEN BY RESPONDENTS FOR
LEAVING THEIR ORGANIZATIONS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Forced to work in Ministries	3	25	1	7
Limited Job Opportunities	4	33	5	39
Psychological Reasons	<u>5</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>54</u>
TOTAL	12	100	13	100

high need for affiliation experienced by employees in both types of organization, an issue which proves our earlier discussion that Saudis like to identify themselves with their group. This seems to suggest that the more the time individuals spend with their organizations, the more likely they are to become loyal to them and crystalize their careers. This finding is supported by the fact that the majority of respondents have stated that they will still work for their organizations and will not leave them if they have been given the chance to do so (see table 7-32).

TABLE 7-32

NO. AND PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS
WHO INDICATED THEY WOULD/WOULD
NOT WORK FOR THEIR ORGANIZATIONS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Would still work in their organi- zations	22	69	25	63
Would Leave	<u>10</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>37</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

Despite this there are some respondents who wanted to leave their organizations. The number is slightly bigger in public organizations despite the better pay and fringe benefits. One of the reasons of this discontent has been found in the nature of job advancement each group experienced in their organizations. Almost 63 percent in public organizations have indicated that the chance of getting ahead in their organizations is very limited (see table 7-33) despite the fact that 58 percent have said they worked very hard on their jobs (see table 7-34). This also seems to support our earlier finding that flat structures (as in the case of Saudia) are associated with less vertical moves. If one makes a comparison between what one is receiving, and the amount of effort exerted on the job in the two types of organization,

it appears that the majority of managers in public organizations seem to exert more effort in their organizations than their counterparts in government organizations (58 percent against only 44 percent, (see table 7-34). The factor that may have contributed to this is the fact that accountability in government organizations is not given much consideration. Therefore, to exert more effort or not may not lead to promotion. One of the interviewees has indicated that ".... I don't know what it is that drives people to succeed - at this point in my career I don't think I want to make that effort."

TABLE 7-33

OPPORTUNITY OF ADVANCEMENT
IN MINISTRIES AND PUBLIC
ORGANIZATIONS IN SAUDI ARABIA

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
There is an excel- lent chance to get ahead	9	28	6	15
The chance is about average	16	50	9	22
There is no chance to get ahead	<u>7</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>63</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

TABLE 7-34

RESPONDENTS' EXERTED EFFORT ON THE JOB

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Work very hard	16	44	23	58
Reasonably hard	<u>2</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>5</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

For the amount of effort exerted on the job, 60 percent of managers in public organizations have indicated that they are satisfied with the amount of salaries they received against only 41 percent in government ministries. This seems to support our earlier finding that pay and fringe benefits are better in public organizations than in ministries especially in middle management jobs (see table 7-35).

TABLE 7-35

RESPONDENTS' OPINIONS OF THEIR SALARIES

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Very Reasonable	1	3	1	2
Reasonable	13	41	24	60
Unreasonable	<u>18</u>	<u>56</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>38</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

Having taken into consideration the above mentioned analysis, one may ask: where is it better to work in Saudi Arabia? and why? the following few pages will answer this question.

7.5 WORKING IN MINISTRIES OR PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS?

Vroom (1964) sees the choice of organizations as essentially an extension of choice of occupations, and argues strongly that any treatment of choice of work role involves both occupational and organization choice. The logic behind this argument is that though choice of occupation comes first, one's choice of occupation can limit the choice of organizations available; and in cases where an organization is chosen before an occupation, then obviously one's choice of occupation could be considerably restricted or not being fully applied (e.g. appointment by the GCSB of newly graduate in organizations and jobs of its choice).

Saudi organizations, as we have seen earlier differ not only in organizational aspects, but also in their ability to pay salaries. The majority of respondents in our study have rated the private sector as more favourable as far as the amount of salary is concerned (69 percent in government ministries, and 62.5 percent in public organizations, see table 7-36).

TABLE 7-36RESPONDENTS' OPINIONS OF HIGH
PAYING AGENCIES IN SAUDI ARABIA

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Ministries	-		2	5
Public Organi- zations	10	31	13	32.5
Private enter- prise	<u>22</u>	<u>69</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>62.5</u>
	32	100	40	100

To the contrary, it has been found that the amount of security in jobs is better in government ministries, followed by public organizations and finally the private sector. Table 7-37 shows that 66 percent in ministries and 67.5 percent in public organizations have indicated that security on the job is much higher in ministries than public organizations or private enterprises. This may be attributed to the fact that nobody has the authority to dismiss any government employee once he passes the first year probationary period. While in private organizations dismissal can be a result of one man in the organization - the owner or the personnel manager.

TABLE 7-37

RESPONDENTS' VIEW OF JOB SECURITY
IN SAUDI ORGANIZATIONS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Ministries	21	66	27	67.5
Public Organi- zations	9	28	8	20.0
Private Enterprises	2	6	5	12.5

Therefore, it can be generally assumed that the low job security in the private sector is accompanied by higher salaries. In addition to this, the chances to get ahead in life as was indicated by respondents is better in private organizations than in ministries or public organizations. 53 percent in ministries and 60 percent in public organizations have confirmed this point (see table 7-38). Despite the high pay in the private sector, some managers in our study have indicated that they would still work for their organizations (see table 7-32). If this seems to indicate anything, it clearly demonstrates the dominance of the psychological reasons discussed earlier behind staying in their own organizations or the fact that opportunities outside government organizations have decreased nowadays due to the saturation of the Saudi labour market especially the private sector. It seems that

the chances of getting ahead in life is better when the pay is higher and vice versa. The high pay in the private sector seems to be the main reason behind the movement of some managers from ministries to the private sector experienced during the late 70's in Saudi Arabia (see table 7-39).

TABLE 7-38

TYPE OF ORGANIZATIONS AND THE
CHANCES TO GET AHEAD IN LIFE

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Ministries	3	10	6	15
Public Organi- zations	12	37	10	25
Private enter- prises	<u>17</u>	<u>53</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>60</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

After considering the workers' education - education - age mix, money wage rate (as we have seen) are higher in private than in public enterprises because of the higher rate of educational experience and skills. Such differentials in money wages are counter-balanced by non-monetary considerations in the public sector, such as security and prestige. Nevertheless,

there are inherent dangers of a brain-drain from government to the private sector if present wage differentials continue in the future. For this reason it appears appropriate for the government to explore alternative methods and programs to ensure its ability to compete in the labour market, especially for qualified workers.

TABLE 7-39

REASONS BEHIND MOVEMENT FROM
MINISTRIES TO THE PRIVATE SECTOR
AS WAS SEEN BY RESPONDENTS

Reasons	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Better opportunities are available outside Ministries	9	28	13	32.5
Pay and fringe benefits	16	50	15	37.5
Start ones own business	<u>7</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>30.0</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

Despite the low pay of government employees in comparison with the private sector, most managers in ministries and public organizations felt moderately satisfied with the progress they have made in their organizations (69 percent in ministries; and 60 percent in public organizations, see table 7-40). The

minority who felt dissatisfied with their job referred that to the rigid rules and regulations and mainly to the lack of trust between superior and subordinates, factors which seem to hinder their career development.

TABLE 7-40

RESPONDENTS' FEELING OF SATIS-
FACTION ABOUT THE PROGRESS THEY
HAVE MADE ON THEIR JOBS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Very dissatisfied	3	9	2	5
Moderately satisfied	22	69	24	60
Very satisfied	<u>7</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>35</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

TABLE 7-41

REASONS FOR DISSATISFACTION

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Rigid routine	1	33	1	50
Lack of trust	2	67	1	50

Despite this, the majority of managers in both types of organization have indicated that they will continue to work for their organizations five to ten years more (44 percent in ministries, and 45 percent in public organizations), while 34 percent in ministries and 40 percent in public organizations have indicated that they will work for their organizations until retirement, (see table 7-42).

TABLE 7-42

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WHO WOULD
STILL WORK FOR THEIR ORGANIZATIONS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Until resealed for GCSB	5	16	-	-
Work from 5-10 years	14	44	16	45
Until retirement	11	34	16	40
Until finding another job	1	3	-	-
Don't know	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>15</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

To discover more on their attitudes, the managers in both types of organization were asked to state the type of organization they would prefer to work for. The majority of managers have stated that they like to work in the private sector (47 percent in ministries; and 45 percent in public organizations, see table 7-43). Despite this almost 43 percent in public organizations have preferred to work for public organizations against only 25 percent who preferred to work in ministries from government managers. The reasons for these preferences are attributed mainly to better pay and fringe benefits in the private sector as opposed to public organizations or ministries (80 percent in ministries; and 78 percent in public organizations preferred the private sector because of the high pay and fringe benefits associated with working in that sector, see table 7-44).

TABLE 7-43

TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONS RESPONDENTS FELT THEY PREFER TO WORK FOR

Type of Organization	Government Ministries	%	Public Organizations	%
Ministries	8	25	5	12
Public organizations	9	28	17	43
Private enterprises	<u>15</u>	<u>47</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>45</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

TABLE 7-44

REASONS FOR PREFERENCES TO WORK FOR ONE
TYPE OF ORGANIZATION RATHER THAN THE OTHER

Reasons	Government Ministries				Public Organizations					
	Private	%	Public	%	Private	%	Public	%	Govt.	%
Better working conditions	-		3	33	6	75	7	41		
Better pay and benefits	12	80			14	78	10	59		
Good future prospects	3	20	6	67	2	25			4	22
TOTAL	15	100	9	100	8	100	17	100	5	100

Despite the preferences of the majority to work in the private sector, they were asked to state whether they would quit their organizations if they were given the chance, or to stay in their own organizations. The majority of public organizations' managers felt they would be glad to quit, while the majority of government ministries felt they would stay with their organizations (see table 7-45). This may be attributed to the fact that promotions in public organizations - despite their relative better pay than ministries - are very slow (refer to table 7-33). This has been confirmed by an interviewee in a public organization who said "All I wanted to do was get promoted - make more money - move ahead. I hit 40 and I had not been promoted. I figured that was it." This may be due to the fact that public organizations adopt flat type of structure (refer to chapter 2) with career consequence of little upward mobility. Government jobs are characterized by simplicity and lack of accountability which make them appealing to some managers. Also this seems to confirm our earlier discussion that people not only work for economic reasons but also social reasons (see chapter 4). Consequently, somebody may ask: what are the implications of this analysis on the Saudi labour market and career development?

TABLE 7-45

RESPONDENTS' OUTLOOK OF KEEPING
OR QUITTING THEIR JOBS

Item	Government Ministries	%	Public Orga- nizations	%
Reluctant to quit	17	53	17	42.5
Glad to quit	<u>15</u>	<u>47</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>57.5</u>
TOTAL	32	100	40	100

The implications for the labour market in Saudi Arabia are clear: members of the Saudi labour force are not reluctant to change their jobs in the future. The economic boom in Saudi Arabia especially in mid 70's and early 80's has resulted in high demand for labour. The subsequent demand for labour not only shifted upwards, but also accelerated, closely following the pace of economic activity in the Kingdom. Thus, the acceleration of occupational mobility of Saudi labour has been closely associated with an acceleration of the demand for labour at large. This has resulted in more occupational mobility. With regard to occupational mobility in the future, about the only variable shared in common with past mobility is that of education. It is expected that educated individuals will be more occupationally mobile. It is instructive to note, however, that a whole range of

non-economic variables tends to assume special significance in explaining future mobility: home ownership, job satisfaction, perception of income adequacy, and modernity (a proxy for which is the number of durables owned). Many multinational corporations have arranged an incentive package for educated Saudis to work into them, especially those corporations in industrial complexes of Jubail and Yanbu and Aramco. These incentives range from home ownership, medical and recreational allowances, to training and scholarships for studies abroad. The implication is that in a tight labour market, Saudis have a significant propensity to move among occupations mainly because of non-economic factors. Education and training will tend to be highly viable economic investments in the development of the Saudi labour market since their positive effects are seen clearly in wage determination. In addition they influence the process of job search, geographic mobility, and occupational mobility. It can be generally concluded that the more the occupational mobility, the less the career development especially if the new occupation does not match the area of specialization. The psychology of occupations of Super is based primarily on differential psychology and on the assumption that once an individual and a career are matched

they will "live happily ever after." Therefore, career development confers with the general principles of human development, which is fundamentally evolutionary in nature. If the person sticks with one job which matches his area of specialization, he will develop a career which satisfies his occupational needs and vice versa.

This may not always be the case. People (as we mentioned earlier) usually tend to gravitate toward those types of job that provide them with satisfaction. Since the individuals' needs are changing continuously, we expect them to be more mobile. Therefore, satisfaction in one's work and on one's job depends on the extent to which the work, the job, and the way of life that goes with them, enable one to play the kind of role that one wants to play. It is, again, the theory that career development is the development of a self concept, that the process of occupational adjustment is the process of implementing a self concept, and that the degree of satisfaction attained is proportionate to the degree to which the self concept has been implemented (see chapter 4). Consequently, we assume that work is a way of life, and that adequate vocational and personal adjustment are most likely to

result when both the nature of work itself and the way of life that goes with it (e.g. the kind of community, home, leisure-time activities, friends etc.) are congenial to the aptitudes, interests, and values of the person in question. Therefore, the individual may be faced with the fact that he does not always find a job which satisfies his needs all the time. The solution here is to compromise his needs with what is available in the market place (see chapter 4).

7.6 SYNTHESIS AND ABRIDGEMENT OF THE ANALYSIS

An attempt was made to construct a theory of occupational choice and career development in Saudi Arabia based on a consideration of the factors which affected the job choice decisions of the Saudis. Three major theoretical perspectives were identified and discussed with respect to occupational choice which reflected psychological, sociological and economic perspectives, and it was argued that for a meaningful interpretation of the occupational choice process, an approach was required which allowed for an integration of such perspectives. Thus any choice decision would be seen in terms of the personal development and

motivational characteristics of the Saudi individual, his perception of what constituted the total net advantage, and his contact with those aspects of the social structure which act as influences and constraints.

Most of the theory relating to choice decisions refers to movement from the education system into the employment system, that is, with first choice of occupation (e.g. senior students), but it has been suggested that an integrated theory should account for subsequent job mobility within the employment system. The research study, therefore has been concerned with factors affecting the career attitudes and choices of the Saudis faced with moving into the employment system for the first time i.e. senior students, and also with the job and career attitudes (seen in their relationship to any choice decision) of middle managers working in ministries and public organisations in Saudi Arabia. It is argued that the framework of occupational choice developed earlier does account for the results of the research in that psychological, economic and sociological factors operate in the process of attitude formation and decision making at both the first choice, and subsequent choice levels.

It is important to point out here that the GCSB policies discussed in chapter 5 represent attempts to influence attitudes and behaviour of the Saudis by changing the structure of the occupational choice in some way, and the extent of this influence will depend not only on how the Saudis react and relate to such policies, but also on individual characteristics and motivations which are not being given appropriate considerations.

The approach adopted in this study has been to look at the occupational choice and career development from the standpoint of both employees and employing organizations (i.e. ministries and public organizations), and the suggestion is made that such organizations do have the means to influence the attitudes and behaviours of their members. The process by which this takes place is highly complex, and involves the interaction of the various personnel policies and programmes, in accordance with the studies developed in this research. Thus, the recruitment and selection of the right quantity will depend on the effectiveness of other personnel policies (e.g. GCSB regulations).

However, the other key element in our study is the reaction of the Saudis to the operation of such personnel policies and practices with reference to the

culture (e.g. nepotism, centralization of authority... etc.). This will depend on a combination of factors including overall career considerations and aspirations, expectations (as a result of both external and internal events) and experience of their job and work situation. The result of this research showed clearly that the two types of organization studied differ markedly in terms of the effectiveness of their personnel policies, structure, and pay (see chapter 2). Generally speaking, effectiveness can be judged by the closeness of the relationship between individual goals and expectations, and organizational goals and policies. This research showed that this is the crux of the problem facing Saudi organizations. All too often policies are formulated by the GCSB without regard either for the realities of the situation, or for the consequences of implementing such policies, with the result that reactions takes place at the expense of proper career development and job satisfaction.

7.7 CONCLUSION

As we noted earlier, when Saudis join organizations, they have a set of goals and expectations that they are looking forward to satisfy, in the meantime, when organizations select individuals, they expect them to achieve their goals. Once the individual and the

organization have selected each other, the two parties must learn to adapt to one another. This process of adaptation will be greatly affected by individual and organizational expectations, as well as by the attempts of the organization to socialize its new members. Based upon their expectations, organizations attempt to shape the individuals behaviour to satisfy their needs. Schein (1968) comments that it is as if the organization were "putting its fingerprints" on people. In a formal sense, however, this process is referred to as socialization (see chapter 4).

The position of the Saudi organizations especially ministries, is rather unique. Its employees are assigned to them by the GCSB. The employees are forced to work in ministries according to the GCSB regulations. Hence, it can be generally assumed that the psychological contract is one sided - that is to satisfy organizational expectations and needs. If this is to indicate anything, it seems to demonstrate the fact that in Saudi organizations occupational selection, not occupational choice is prevailing. Mainly for this reason, government organizations have depended heavily on the socialization process e.g. intensive training programmes which seems to have failed in socializing them. This policy of the GCSB may enhance the mismatch between individuals and organizations in Saudi Arabia, an issue which lead to

dissatisfaction and low level of morale. Setting out from this point, the research findings can be summarized in the following points:

- (1) The first finding confirmed the expectation that psychological contracts, which are made up primarily of matches in expectations are related to greater job satisfaction, productivity and reduced turnover. In other words, Saudis who established a contract that was comprised of more matches in expectations, had a more satisfying and productive first year (the transitional period) and remained longer with the organization than those others whose contract had fewer matches. What is happening in the case of Saudi organizations is that some Saudis after the first year begin to feel those mismatches as disappointments, let-downs and so on. Since they think the organizations have broken their contracts, they react by slowly breaking their part of the bargain. They often become moderately productive and uncreative body. To illustrate this point, I quote a manager in a Ministry who said "I get depressed on this job several times a week. I do nothing but a routine work which can be done by a labourer. I can't leave my job because of the GCSB regulations. What I want is

to feel I am contributing to the success of my organization by doing a job which matches my abilities..."

Since the employees in Ministries have to work in them according to the GCSB regulations, and since, as we have seen earlier, quitting their jobs means paying back tuition expenses; a feeling of apathy and carelessness will be the result.

- (2) The concept that showed a measurable relationship to productivity, satisfaction and turnover was "matching" (see chapter 4) not getting more or less than was expected. Mismatches that gave more than one expected caused as many problems as those which gave less than one expected. In other words, organizations or individuals who approach the contract trying to get the most or the best instead of a fit or a match (i.e. government ministries) are losing their way.

- (3) It was found that the clearer the Saudis understood their own expectations, the higher was the probability of a match. Likewise, the clearer an expectation was to the organization, the higher the probability of a match.

It is fairly obvious what is happening in this case. Many times people including the Saudis, do not explicitly think of all the areas in which

they have expectations. Often new Saudi employees out of college are not consciously aware of what they want and need, or what they are capable and prepared to give. Unfortunately, organizations also are not clear as to what they expect (in detail) either. As a result they neither talk about many areas nor pay attention to them. Mismatches can occur either by accident or out of neglect. This can be remedied if a counselling agency has been founded to assist students and managers in finding their way. Such a counselling agency may help the new employee, the organization, and his supervisor to carefully consider all areas of expectations in order to overcome the problem of clarity. One of the reasons this has not been done in the past is that Saudi policy makers have not considered the importance of such an agency. The result is greater mismatch and more dissatisfaction.

- (4) If the new Saudi employees discussed their expectations with the counselling agency and the employing organization, the parties' mutual understanding of the other expectations may increase and so does the probability of matching. There are a number of reasons why this does not happen in Saudi organizations. Most organizations are not democratic with authority centered at

the top of the hierarchy, an issue which increases the powerlessness of the new comers. There often appears to be norms surrounding the initial work period which define some items as not legitimate (e.g. increase in salary which is being fixed by the GCSB, interference of a counselling agency etc.).

Having taken all previous points into consideration, it is important then for government organizations to be sensitive to growing differences in expectations between them and their new comers. This can partially be achieved by a coordination with the GCSB officials. Resolving these basic differences with the GCSB can be much more difficult than resolving the other types of differences. In an extreme case, resolving this problem might require government organizations to find a new labour pool or to undergo major internal changes in order to survive on a long-run basis.

The internal changes of any ministry is actually very difficult to achieve. The main reason for this appears to be in the high centralization of authority which is a part of the country's ideology (see chapter 2). Paternalistic authoritarianism is the dominant practice in Saudi Arabia. One government official said that the delegation of authority, for many Saudis, is

viewed as indecisiveness. Despite the current tendency to delegate, the top man in an organization or the head of a government department likes to be seen as carrying the organization on his shoulders and as doing everything himself. Some top officials believe that many Saudi managers consider themselves to be indispensable. Most managers in both types of organization studied felt that it was impossible for top executives to delegate authority even though they might agree that the concept of delegation was necessary.

Mainly for these reasons, Saudis tend to accept the status quo especially those in middle management positions (see chapter 5). Some want to make changes in their departments but they cannot due to the centralization of authority; others want to change organizations and jobs to meet their career aspirations, but they cannot due to the strict GCSB regulation (see chapter 3). The result will unavoidably be a feeling of apathy and dissatisfaction. A thing which complicates the matter further is that the area of specialization is not being given enough attention by the GCSB when placing new recruits (see chapter 6). Matheson (1978, p. 124) supports this view when he says "Real problems can emerge if a developed talent is left idle. There is probably no greater disincentive

than being given a set of skills and being denied the opportunities to put them to work. To be effective the level of sophistication in the planned learning has to be appropriate to the planned application of knowledge."²⁰

The same thing applies to training in Saudi Arabia. There is not a national plan which is based on a study of the actual needs of training of the Saudi managers. Management training or development programs are frequently viewed as irrelevant because the training does not focus on the solution of real time problems. At best it might be labeled as nice to know ... at worst, it is seen as a classroom exercise that has little or nothing to do with the real problems of the managers. Even if the material presented seems relevant, transferring it to the job often proves impractical.²¹

The acceptance of the status quo by middle managers has been considered as passivity on their parts by top managers. Madi (1975, p. 165) described this point when he said ".... the majority of middle management personnel in Saudi Arabia are considered passive managers by their upper managers..... The view of most upper managers is that the factors contributing to passive middle management behaviour were inefficient, lack of training and knowledge, unwillingness

to assume responsibility and poor selection for their positions.... The upper managers beleived that passive managers influence active managers to become more passive. Upper management was not satisfied with the present selection,nor did they depend on the presently used efficiency reports."

Consequently, it can be generally said that career development of the middle managers is at its lowest. They are denied participation in decision making, jobs seem not to meet their aspirations, and above all their appointment by the GCSB was not suitable since the majority were placed in jobs that do not match their area of specialization. This has resulted in poor adjustment to the job, an issue which raises the fact that they may need counseling that will lead them to occupations where requirements and reinforcers provide an optimal fit to their abilities and needs. This implies the need for an effective approach in three areas: the effective planning and utilization of manpower by the GCSB; adequate methods and procedures for guiding the flow of Saudis from one system to another; and a closer relationship between individual development and the manpower needs of the economy and the structure of employment opportunities in the two types of organization in Saudi Arabia.

NOTES ON CHAPTER 7

1. More on this see Madi, (1975).
2. More on this see K. Prandy, A. Stewart & R. M. Blackburn, "White-Collar Work", Macmillan Press Ltd., 1982, pp. 91-100.
3. See for example, "Malcolm Bennis, Jonathan Casson, "The Manpower Planning Handbook", McGraw Hill Book Co., U.K. Ltd., 1984, pp. 68-90.
4. More on this see D.E. Super (1939) "Occupational Level and Job Satisfaction", Journal of Applied Psychology, 23, pp. 547-64.
5. See M. Haire, E. Ghiselli, and Porter "Managerial Thinking", John Wiley Inc. 1966.
6. See for example, Laurence Lipsett, "Social Factors in Vocational Development", The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 40, No. 5, (January 1962), pp. 432-437.
7. Berger, Morroe, "The Arab World Today", New York: Doubleday and Co. Inc., 1964.
8. See for example, Malcolm Bennis, and J. Casson "The Manpower Planning Handbook", McGraw Hill Co., Ltd., 1984, pp. 11-16.
9. More on this see John Child, "Organization, a Guide to Problems and Practice", Second edition, Harper and Row, 1984, pp.61-84.

10. E.H. Schien, "Organizational Socialization and the Profession of Management", *Industrial Management Review*, 9 (1968), pp. 1-15.
11. Omar Al-Fathaly and Richard Chackarien, "Administration: the Forgotten Issue in Arab Development" in Ibrahim Ibrahim (ed.) "Arab Resources, The Transformation of a Society," Croom Helm Ltd., 1983.
12. More on this point see Iseman, Peter A. "The Arabian Ethos", *Harpers* 256, February, 1978.
13. T. Caplow, "Principles of Organization", Harcourt, Brace World Inc., 1964, p. 169.
14. H.C. Rose, "The Development and Supervision of Training Programs", Chicago: American Technical Society, 1964, pp. 105-6.
15. B.L. Bharadwaj, "Management Development in the Developing Countries", cited in *Management Development and Training Handbook*, edited by B. Taylor and J. Lappit, London, McGraw Hill Book Co., 1975.
16. More on this see for example, Stuart Temperley, "Personnel Planning and Organizational Choice", George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1974, pp. 80-83.

17. More on this point, see for example Islamail A. Sirageldin, N. Sirageldin and M. I. Sirageldin, "Saudis in Transition, The Challenge of a Changing Labour Market", Oxford University Press, 1984, pp. 86-88.
18. I. Sirageldin, op. cit.
19. See for example, M. Haire, E.E. Ghiselli, L.W. Porter, "Psychological Research on Pay: An Overview," Industrial Relations Vol.3, No.1 (1963), pp. 3-8; and V.H. Vroom: "Work and Motivation," (Wiley, 1964).
20. R. Matheson, "People Development in Developing Countries", New York, John Wiley & Sons, 1978.
21. More on this point, see P.M. Williams, "Organization Self-Development", Training and Development Journal, XXXII, February, 1978.

CHAPTER 8CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND
MAJOR IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

In this study we have addressed the problems of manpower shortages in Saudi Arabia, the problems of working in ministries and public organizations regarding fringe benefits and pay, structure, administrative policies in addition to other factors that may have an effect on satisfaction and career development of employees and cause occupational mobility.

We have analyzed the educational system of Saudi Arabia and the type of education which Saudi students receive at home and abroad. The intervention of the GCSB in the placement of Saudi graduates in jobs which may not be compatible to them is one of the most important problems facing the labour market in Saudi Arabia affecting to a large extent the productivity and career development of such graduates. The role that the educational system is playing in the process of change in Saudi Arabia is considerable. Rapid educational expansion has been a major target of the Saudi government. The impact of increased education is mainly felt in the urban sector and among new social groups. What are the consequences of this rapid expansion of the school system on the traditional Saudi society? What will happen when young men and women detach themselves from their traditional

attitudes and institutions to seek education in urban areas and foreign countries? The main dilemma facing the government in this regard is that the new economic activities require new skills and newly educated people; but these skills are based upon an education system which embodies the seeds of social, economic and political change and a potential source of trouble for the government.

Another dilemma facing the government is how to preserve and transmit the religious heritage of Islam and the cultural traditions of the Kingdom discussed earlier, when at the same time equipping its citizens for life in a modern and rapidly changing world of materialism and technology. Modern institutions which are now present in Saudi Arabia need individuals who can keep to fixed schedules and follow authorities legitimated not by traditional or religious sanctions but by technical competence. In addition, modern political and economic institutions alike make certain general demands on the people who work within them. They require a greater acceptance of personal mobility, occupational and geographic. Neither type of institutions has much tolerance for fatalism or passivity, but rather favors persistent effort and confident optimism. The following pages will give an outline of the major areas discussed in this research.

(a) Career Development and
the Labour Market

Despite a strong commitment to a free economic system, the government exerts significant impact on the labour market, through direct and indirect means. The government enacts legislation regulating a wide range of labour affairs from the maintenance of welfare to the development of talents to the importation of expatriates.

It is important to note here that there are two economically active sectors in Saudi Arabia. The modern urban sector which has forged ahead in industries such as petrochemicals, and the rural, traditional, largely subsistence sector. These two facets of the economy are associated with two separate labour markets. Expatriates tend to dominate the modern industrial sector, while Saudi nationals partly because they lack the necessary skills and education tend to dominate the traditional sector in government or quasi government employment. Therefore, the government of Saudi Arabia employs directly tens of thousands in civilian sectors, in addition to those in the military. It influences labour demand indirectly through its massive development expenditures. It affects labour supply directly through importation of expatriates and on the job training programmes and indirectly through its educational programmes and

expenditures, among other things. For these reasons, the study tried to identify labour-related areas which are particularly policy-sensitive and which might become the focus of future action programmes. Whatever their content, it is clear that such action programmes can be carried out effectively only through increased coordination between the government agencies involved in human resources development e.g. IPA; and allocation e.g. GCSB. Coordination between these two agencies at the present time is very limited. The issue that may have contributed to this is the fact that there is no counselling agency responsible to achieve such a coordination in Saudi Arabia.

The thing which complicates the matter further is the fact that no information or counselling are being given to students before placing them in a job. What the students know is the fact that they will work in a Ministry despite their attitudes to respond to available opportunities (e.g. the private sector). Monk (1969) elaborated on this point when he noted that there is a need to provide a map of the way in which careers are perceived by possible employees, and an explanation of the dimensions are important in such perceptions. This seems to indicate that in Saudi Arabia there has been little attempt at this level to determine how students perceive their approaching

employment, or to ascertain what needs such students possess. It could be suggested therefore, that there is a need to examine the way in which such prospective employees perceive their career situation and to examine the dimensions relevant to such perceptions. In the theoretical framework of the occupational choice processes discussed earlier, it was argued that for a meaningful analysis to take place it was necessary to take into account the complexity of the process and the interaction of all the factors bearing on career decisions. It was suggested that an integrated approach to occupational choice was required which considered the motivational nature of choice (emphasizing individual needs, desires, aspirations and expectations in terms of the process of socialization and occupational role allocation i.e. emphasizing the way in which elements of the social structure acted as influences and constraints on the occupational choice process.

The research attempted to highlight the major social structure features of the career process as applied to senior students of King Abdulaziz University and to Saudi middle managers in two types of organization - ministries and public organizations. The particular concern was with the public sector, but the results are related to the major employment sector (i.e. the private sector). The major areas of interest

in the inquiry were aspirations of both students and middle managers and whether or not their aspirations are being met by their current jobs; attitudes of the Saudis toward the policies of the GCSB; career development and perceptions; and factors in the work situation held to be personally important for their satisfaction e.g. pay and fringe benefits, authority, promotional policies, structure etc. In addition, relevant information was obtained on such factors as age, sex, marital status, father's occupation etc.

One of the major aspects of any analysis of career choice process is the relationship between aspirations and expectations. The need to differentiate between the two is at the core of the conceptual framework of occupational choice developed by Blau et al., for they see occupational choice as being a process of compromise between the individual's preferences for, and his expectations of, being able to enter various occupations. At the University level, this relationship between aspirations and expectations becomes especially important since progression through university education will have increased the aspirations of students. In order to examine the exact nature of this relationship, a list of work situation features was drawn up and responses of both students and middle managers were obtained. It is noticeable

that the factors rated as most important in the personal work situation has been the area of specialization and fringe benefits and pay. The students and to a certain extent middle managers feel that this aspect is not being given much attention due to the irrational placement policies of the GCSB in addition to some cultural variables (e.g. nepotism, and family connection). Even with regards to fringe benefits and pay, the degree to which they are perceived as being provided by the public sector does not meet the aspirations of both students and middle managers. Students, as was discussed in chapter 6, do not expect their aspirations to be met in government ministries. Therefore, it would be pointless to direct recruitment to such organizations (as currently being done by the GCSB) if the organizations could not possibly hope to fulfill some of the basic aspirations of employees. If the ministries are too honest in this respect it may well be that they will fail to recruit the best personnel who could achieve both efficiency and change in them. Hence, a fine balance is perhaps needed in recruitment between reflecting the organization in terms of its policies and practices and in taking account of the needs and expectations of new comers. Certainly, what would appear to be absolutely necessary is an analysis of the basis of recruitment - the

assumptions on which it is based and the degree to which it reflects the organizational policies in general - and an analysis of the aspirations and expectations of the segment of the labour market towards which recruitment is being directed.

If this implies anything, it seems to demonstrate the fact that individuals will respond differently to their jobs depending on the degree of fit or misfit between individual job and organizational characteristics. This seems to be true since work satisfaction is clearly affected by more than just the job itself. As a consequence of this, when considering career satisfaction, the job itself is certainly not the only important factor influencing such satisfaction. We found in this research that factors such as autonomy, variety, structure, management policies, pay and the overall organizational environment were important determinants of career and job satisfaction. The existence of individual differences in reacting to situations and events increase the complexity of the study of career development and job satisfaction since it is difficult to isolate clearly defined relationships. It is these differences that have to be manipulated by managers facing different environments in order for them to succeed in producing satisfaction of their employees (i.e. achieving the best fit possible).

(b) Job Market Information

Unlike traditional societies, the labour market in Saudi Arabia is a dynamic market. Conditions of demand and supply have changed dramatically in recent years. The demand for labour continues to change in quantity and quality because economic activities are expanding briskly (e.g. development plans) and the supply of labour continues to respond to such changes. Saudis have entered the market in increasing numbers and with higher level of skills. Yet, the new Saudi entrants were not enough to keep up with the market expansion, hence the sharply rising demand for expatriates.

As we have indicated earlier, some attention should be given on the flow of information affecting the process of job search and location (Sirageldin, et al, 1984). It appears that despite the dynamism of the Saudi labour market, the job information system was still highly traditional, based mostly on word of mouth or direct contact (walk-in) with the exception of the GCSB in placing university graduates. Under such circumstances, a large number of the labour force may not have adequate access to full information about existing opportunities. The amount of information available or made available to individuals about aspects of their work role, work situation and career

plays an important part in any individual choice decision or attitude held as a result of obtained information. The information which organizational members receive or do not receive plays a vital role in their career decisions. It is possible to discern two organizational approaches to the question of the nature and extent of information which individuals should be given about their career prospects in the organization; firstly, the view that organizations have a responsibility to their employees to provide them with all information about their careers; and secondly, the view that questions the wisdom of giving a lot of information on careers and suggests that it is in the organization's interest to withhold some career information. The above approaches could be described as extreme, but nonetheless, it is possible to suggest that organizational policies with regard to career information do tend towards one or other of the approaches, the first of which could be looked upon as motivated by social responsibility, and the second by economic considerations. It could be argued that if a company adopted a policy based on the first approach the results might well be successful in economic terms on the grounds that employees might well respond favourably to a company which placed such emphasis on its responsibilities to its employees. Similarly, if

the second approach was adopted on the ground possibly, that if people were told that they had reached their career limit, or that there was a promotion blockage (as in the case of Saudia), they might then leave the organization or perform sub-optimally, then the philosophy of the organization with regard to the treatment of employees would quickly communicate itself and the results could, in the long run, be economically unrewarding. The importance therefore, of a balance between these two distinct approaches is obvious. Of course, the two approaches described above are representative of specific policy decisions and it is important to point out there is a further situation which can occur with regard to career information which could be described as a non-policy i.e. the lack of an organizational policy in this area, probably due to lack of awareness of the significance of career information for organizational members. This situation is quite apparent in Saudi organizations where information is not being communicated properly. Therefore, the researcher suggested in this research that without adequate career information, a Saudi individual is currently unable to make effective career decisions but to show hopelessness and powerlessness in this regard. Consequently, it can be generally assumed that if organizations are ineffective in their recruitment

procedures, or if employees are being imposed on them, then one would imagine that this information would spread through the employee's own information system with what could be serious consequences for the quality of applicants to these organizations. Accordingly, the most reasonable response would be the modernization of the local GCSB and labour offices into labour exchanges, with improved and updated files; and a more efficient system of information. Given the high illiteracy rate and the low geographic mobility, there is a clear need to reach labour in remote areas or at the periphery of the modern sector by innovative means (such as radio, T.V. and mobile labour - recruiting units) that rely less on the written word and more on the spoken word. This can also help in counselling purposes which is at the moment not present in Saudi Arabia.

(c) Working Conditions and Pay

Employment benefits, security and labour conditions in general have improved significantly in Saudi Arabia. For example, pay and fringe benefits especially in public organizations, have increased both in scope and variety to approach standards in developed societies (see chapter 3 for the development of pay system).

Attitudes towards money and fringe benefits are a mixture of the rational and emotional. The mix varies with the individual and changes almost all the time because of changing needs. In our opinion, what is reasonable and fair is based on many factors? For instance, what we need? what we would like to have? what we think others are getting? what we feel our employer can afford to pay? and how we feel about our job. None of these things can be determined objectively. So emotions - our own and those of others - are inevitably influences on pay determination.

In relating pay satisfaction to needs, discussion can become even more involved over questions of what people would like to have as compared with what they need. It seems very difficult to separate the two, especially if you are the person doing the wanting. Howarth (1984, p. 24) elaborated on this by saying "..... For most people in our consumer society yesterday's aspirations are today's wants and tomorrow's expectations, even in times of high unemployment. It is fruitless to ponder whether or not people really need things like colour television, cars, and holidays abroad. The fact is that many people have come to expect such things and it is these expectations that will influence their ideas of what constitutes 'fair pay'."

This kind of interpretation adds little to our understanding of the career choice process since it fails to indentify those elements in the situation which greatly influence the nature and quality of a career decision, an issue which seems to support the fact that a person have to compromise his expectations with what is available in the market place.

Fringe benefits and pay may not motivate all employees. In the short run, the effect of money as a motivator may be positive. But in the long run it may not. Nobody denies that feltfair pay and decent working conditions, which include an element of job security, will always be important as the framework. But the real stimulus comes from having work that provides interest, challenge, and growth to its members. The work of Harzberg, et al., (1957) appear to be influential here. These researchers present job satisfaction as a dichotomous rather than a continuous variable. Satisfaction is viewed as resulting from motivation, stemming in the challenge of the job, through such factors as achievement, responsibility, growth, advancement, work itself, and earned recognition (i.e. intrinsic factors).

(d) Changing Attitudes

While some evidence pointed to the dynamism of the Saudi labour market, other evidence pointed to the

strength of tradition. Traditions affect the labour market not only by supporting a personalized process of job search, an oral system of information, and pools of informal employment, but also by shaping worker's preferences and attitudes. Saudi workers showed distinct preferences for their residential location, job security, strong family ties, and most recently a qualified approval for female employment in jobs which do not require direct contact with men (e.g. teaching in girls' schools). This traditional outlook, however, is matched by many other attitudes that indicated easy adaptation to the rapidly changing environment and the constant introduction of new work and life styles. It is very clear that the present generation of Saudis is in the throes of a phenomenal transition from tradition to modernity, albeit with distinct elements of cultural continuity, that matches the country's awesome achievements in economic development. No body denies that Saudi Arabia is stressing modernization in almost every sector of the country especially industrialization. The thing that needs emphasis here is the fact that modernization and industrialization are taking place very rapidly but within the same traditional, political, religious, economic and social systems (i.e. modernization and economic growth are being approached cautiously

without sacrificing the tradition of Islam and Arab culture. If this indicates anything, it seems to demonstrate the strong association of the Saudis to Islamic tradition and Arab heritage.

(e) Salary Structure

Although other studies have highlighted education's significant impact on the economy of Saudi Arabia (see for example, Nabti, 1980), the country still attempts to raise labour productivity, limit the foreign labour ratio, and reduce the extent of possible structural unemployment. Generally speaking, the higher the education, the better the salary. However, we have seen in previous chapters that what the ministries pay in salaries is different from both public organizations and the private sector. Money wage rates were found to be higher in private than in public enterprises. Such differentials in money wages were somewhat counterbalanced by non-monetary considerations in the public sector, such as security and prestige, factors which made managers in ministries reluctant to quit. Nevertheless, there is the inherent danger of a brain drain from government to private sector if the present wage differentials continue into the future. Given the central role of government in the country's development at present and in the

future, it is recommended that the government explore alternative methods or programs to enhance its ability to compete in the labour market, especially for qualified workers (e.g. improving its grading systems). Grading systems often provide the basis for salary structures (see table 2-1) and the basis of such salary structures is often given much prominence in any discussion of behaviour in organizations. Salary, as was discussed earlier, can also be looked upon as an indicator of progress, and not solely progress within organization but with one's peers in other organizations. In this research, we found that salary structure and benefits, factors which are extrinsic to the job, were rated highly by both senior students and middle managers. This seemed to support our earlier discussion about overall satisfaction with salary, namely that organizations through their salary policy do influence the attitudes of their members. The important thing about our results is that as well as highlighting the way in which Saudi organizations can control to differing extents the attitudes of their members through specific personnel policies, they also indicate the importance for job and career attitudes of external factors (i.e. salary structure).

It is suggested here, that the major concern of employees with regard to salary are: firstly, the

overall degree of satisfaction with the salary amount (in relation to their own organization and also to their peers in other organizations); and secondly, the basis on which salary is determined, particularly in comparison with what is regarded as the basis on which salary should be determined - the difference therefore between actual salary system, and the ideal salary system. A considerable disparity between the actual system and a perceived ideal system could be taken to indicate a source of dissatisfaction, which either by itself, or when combined with other factors e.g. fringe benefits could lead to unfavourable organizational attitudes, and eventually to labour turnover (as the case of ministries and public organizations in Saudi Arabia). We have seen that both senior students and middle managers feel that the actual salary systems in existence in their organization's are based more on factors not related to their actual job situation. It is important here to emphasize that the discrepancy was particularly large between the public sector and the private sector. Both students and managers alike have rated private enterprises in Saudi Arabia as good payers of salaries, hence, they are more attracted to work in them (the ideal system). Despite this, as we have seen earlier, most managers were reluctant to quit their organizations. This may be

attributed to the provision of security which is increasingly felt in ministries and public organizations rather than the private sector. This may suggest that insecurity in a job adversely affects satisfaction. In addition to the security measure, we also found that Saudis culturally are high in need of affiliation and desire to associate with one's friends. This has its seeds in the strong family association discussed earlier.

(f) Occupational Mobility and Promotional Policies

It can be generally concluded that the highly educated individuals tended to be occupationally more mobile and would continue to be so in the future given they obtain a release from the GCSB. However, a whole range of noneconomic variables - home ownership, job satisfaction, and perception of income adequacy, assumed special significance in explaining future mobility. This package has already been produced by many organizations in Saudi Arabia nowadays (e.g. Industrial Complex in Jubail and Yanbu and in Aramco). Due to the strong family association in Saudi Arabia and the relative prestige of government jobs, the mobility is actually not being given much attention. Despite this, the implication is that in a tight labour market, Saudis have a propensity to move among

occupations mainly because of noneconomic factors. How tight the labour market will be in the future is a policy decision which is closely related to the choice of a non-oil GDP growth target. In the third and fourth plan documents, target growth for 1980-1990 were significantly below the rates achieved during the second plan years (1975-1980). The implication is that the labour market in the 1980's will be less tight than it was during the late 1970's. This means that the Saudis of tomorrow will be definitely more mobile, more educated, and more responsive to labour market opportunities than today.

As we have seen earlier, mobility means movement within the occupational hierarchy. These movements can be either vertical, horizontal or lateral. Occupational mobility is a complex process in which social structural and psychological factors are interrelated. Some managers realize the existing opportunities and rise in the occupational hierarchy, and some fail to maintain themselves and be frozen on their jobs. In this particular research, we found that if the Saudi manager had strong connections with the important figures in his organization, he would move vertically (the effect of nepotism), otherwise he would most probably be frozen on his job. The results obtained in this research demonstrate the fruitfulness of considering

the influence of psychological factors in conjunction with economic, social, structural and cultural factors in predicting the mobility of the Saudis in the future.

One of the major concerns facing organizations is to develop programmes which are designed to provide a pattern to the mobility of managerial staff and such programmes will be involved with promotional, lateral movement and demotion. *The task for such programmes is to equate organizational goals (in manpower terms) with the career concerns and paths of individuals, and their success will be judged on the degree to which organizational roles are filled by competent individuals, and on the degree to which such individuals are satisfied with their career progress. It is important to note here that the determination of mobility programmes will depend on a clarification of organizational policy which have to take into account the fact that some employees expect and aspire to promotion to meet their career demands. We have found that opportunities and movement in an organization are regarded as being of considerable importance, in job and career terms by managerial staff. Certainly, the managers and senior students interviewed place much personal emphasis on such opportunities. Given this, the criteria used to determine promotion and other aspects of mobility becomes a major issue for both organizations*

and individuals. For organizations, the choice usually evolves around evaluation of relative merit, ability and length of service, and the weighing to be given to each of these factors in promotion decisions. This process, however, is not being given much considerations in both types of organization studied. Nepotism and family connections are the prime tools of promotion currently existing in Saudi Arabia. From the standpoint of the individual the important feature is his perception of the factors actually determining promotion in his organization, particularly in the light of his perception of what promotion should be based on. Both types of managers have emphasized the qualifications criteria. Therefore, most respondents desired a promotion system based more on ability and qualification than was the case in their present organizational system. Hence, there is a need to clarify the relationship between organizational personnel policies and practices and expectations of staff in both types of organization.

This would seem to indicate a weakness in promotional policies (at least as perceived by the respondents of this particular research) and certainly implying that the Saudi organizations are seen as placing a good amount of faith on elements of their own culture. Taking care of relatives irrespective of

merit or degree qualifications is their duty. This appears to be in conflict with sound theoretical concepts which tend to base promotion on abilities and qualifications. Thus, the Saudi situation as far as promotional policies are concerned, does indicate a measure of the inadequacies of organizational policies, and the strength of culture and tradition is quite influential in this regard. This seems to support our earlier finding that the way in which the Saudi organization handles its human resource strategy, the way it defines careers, and the manner in which it socializes, develops, and promotes its members strongly reflects (i) the national culture within which that organization exists, and (ii) the particular culture of that organization based on its history and structure.

(g) Some Factors Affecting the Personal Satisfaction of Respondents

We have found that various organizational personnel policies and practices affect the level of job satisfaction of its members. There has been considerable discussion in the behavioural science literature about the relationship between features of the job, or work situation, and job attitudes (usually discussed in terms of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction), and much of this discussion has centered on the distinction between factors which are either positively or

negatively related to employee motivation (see chapter 4). The two factor theory of Herzberg with reference to job attitudes and job motivation, has been particularly influential with its distinction between motivating factors (such as achievement, recognition, and advancement) and hygiene factors (such as work conditions, supervision, and policy). The major hypothesis of this two-factor theory is that motivating factors are more important as determinants of job satisfaction and less important as a source of dissatisfaction and hygiene factors demonstrate the reverse relationship. Basically, motivating factors refer to intrinsic aspects of the work itself, whereas hygiene factors are extrinsic.

We found in our study that motivational considerations do play an important role in influencing job attitudes and behaviours, but that the nature and extent of this influence will be dependant on the structural features of organizational life which would include the area of personnel policy and practice, the nature and extent of career considerations, and a variety of situational and environmental factors.

Perhaps the most significant thing about the various contributions outlined above and in previous chapters, is the way in which they are interrelated. Thus, to talk solely in terms of the aspirations of

individuals without reference to the structural limitations upon them, is to ignore the realities of the social structure. Similarly, it is surely not possible to talk in terms of total net advantage without relating this to theories of motivation, just as it is not possible to concentrate on the structural aspects of the process without relating this to the extent of individual freedom of action. However, in case of the Saudis, the observation must be made that the philosophy of the freedom of occupational choice is limited in practice. There are many causes of this (e.g. GCSB policies, centralization of authority etc.). As a consequence of this, it can be generally concluded that satisfaction from work and the significance attached to it will depend not only on the nature of the work but also on the expectations which the Saudi individual brings to this job. These in turn will be the result of complex processes of selection and socialization of the Saudi organizations examined in this research. Therefore, it is suggested here that more attention should be paid to the social and cultural matrix of work as applied to the Saudi society (e.g. family ties and connections).

However, the major cause of dissatisfaction of Saudi employees was in the high concentration of authority at the apex of organizational hierarchy and

that jobs neither meet their area of specialization, nor meet their career aspirations. Inadequacy of pay which is an extrinsic factor was also found to be a major cause of dissatisfaction of managers working in ministries especially, while managers in public organizations were dissatisfied because of the few prospects of promotion experienced in their organizations. It is important to note that the differences revealed in terms of employee reactions and hence satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction point to important policy, practice, and may be structural differences in the organizations concerned - both adapt different organizational structure, have different policies and procedures and have varying degrees of autonomy to deal both with organizational and individual matters. This seems to indicate that not only cultural factors affect the career development and job satisfaction of the Saudis, but also organizational policies tend to have an effect on their behaviour. Therefore, it appear that Saudi organizations can to varying degrees influence and control the attitudes, and subsequently the behaviour of their members. It is important to stress here that the differences revealed in terms of the Saudi employees reactions point to important policy, practice and culture differences in the organizations concerned.

(h) The Effects of Hierarchical Level:

The general effect of job level on satisfaction is fairly clear. Across most types of companies, satisfaction increases directly as level in the hierarchy increases, and the most significant increases tend to be in those areas of work which satisfy needs for self-actualization (Herzberg et al., 1957; Porter, 1964). Since our sample mainly consists of middle managers, we can generally assume that the more prospects for promotion to higher positions, the better the satisfaction will be. The two types of organization studied seem to adopt different types of structure, i.e. ministries adopt tall structures, while public organizations adopt flat structures. The career consequences for this is that in tall structures, as in ministries in our case, more vertical mobility will be felt; while in flat structures horizontal mobility will dominate. This has been reflected in the satisfaction of respondents with promotional prospects in their organizations. Managers of public organizations felt less satisfied in this regard. This seems to indicate that there are obviously certain perceived deficiencies in the provision of promotional opportunities in both types of organization (e.g. the effect of nepotism).

(i) The Effects of Decentralization:

Despite the fact that empirical studies which have compared the effectiveness of centralized and decentralized structures are few in number, the general trend, however, is to support the decentralized model. Most managers in our study saw themselves as having less autonomy and their participation in decisions that were relevant to them on their jobs was at its minimum. The centralization of authority in Saudi organizations is part of the country's ideology. Most top managers have authoritarian personalities. One government official said that delegation of authority, for many Saudis, is viewed as indecisiveness. Despite the current tendency to delegate, the top man in an organization likes to be seen as carrying the organization on his shoulders and as doing everything himself. Some top officials believe that many Saudi managers consider themselves to be indispensable. The structural feature that may have contributed to this is the adoption of the machine bureaucracy by both types of organization which is accompanied by strict rules and regulations. The issue which complicates this matter further is that middle managers in both types of organization feel that they are competent enough to take decisions but being prevented from that due to the highly centralized machine bureaucracy. The

result of course will be a feeling of apathy and dissatisfaction. They think that they are in the process of losing their long years of investment in education by being prevented from exercising and showing their competencies. Sofer (1970, p. 47) has pointed out that initial entry into an occupation starts an investment, that an irreplaceable amount of time has been committed, and that if the career decision is not followed through, then the investment is very probably lost. It appears that both Saudi organizations and their members will lose their investments if this trend continues in the future.

This thesis has explored general issues of career development and job satisfaction in addition to the more specific problems of how these relate to middle managers in Saudi Arabian context. The general conclusions are outlined above which indicate that career development theories and job satisfaction studies are being misdirected due to many cultural and organizational variables (e.g. fatalism, strong family association, and centralization of authority). Holland theory has been very explicit about how poor career choices may be made. He discusses this problem in terms of conflict or indecision in career matters. If the modal personality style leads to an occupational decision that is blocked (GCSB policies of preventing

students from working in the private sector in our case), and there is no strong second modal personal orientation, vocational indecision will be observed. Similarly, if two orientations are equal in strength, conflict in vocational decision will occur.

In terms of abilities, a poor choice could be made if the individual did not evaluate his talents accurately and thus his level hierarchy in career terms was over or underinflated (e.g. the concept of fatalism in our case). In this case, the individual would either be observed to aspire to a career which might be consistent with his modal orientation but too difficult for him to obtain (e.g. the private sector in our case), or choose one that failed to use his talents sufficiently (e.g. a job in a government ministry).

Therefore, on the basis of the previous analysis, it is clear that many problems and unresolved issues remain in the theoretical structure of career development and their general applicability to different cultures. Because there have been few attempts to translate career development theory into practice, the trait factor approach continues to be the foundation of career counselling. Nevertheless, most writers (e.g. Holland, Super, Harzberg) prefer to view the trait factor thought as one aspect to be considered in the

analysis of the role of abilities, personality, traits, interest, and family influences in the shaping of eventual career membership and occupational behaviour. Most writers have chosen to emphasize the role of one or two of these variables over others, but nearly all have acknowledged that many factors operate to influence career development. These factors appear to be relatively different from culture to culture. Therefore, what appears to be of crucial importance in the Saudi culture is the concept of fatalism that seem to affect and shape the general expectations of the Saudi manager and his career development at large.

In addition to Holland, Super has also written extensively about how career development may be corrected if it has gone astray, or how it might be facilitated in the normally developed individual. In his theory, he emphasized the continuous nature of the compromising process that will help individuals adjust to changing circumstances in order to avoid future errors or to correct previous decisions.

Taking all the previous discussion into consideration, it appears that the most applicable theories of career development to the Saudi situation are those of Holland and Super, because they are very explicit about how poor career choice may be corrected. Social class theory appears to have an applicable ground to

the Saudi situation since the Saudis tend to emphasize the role of the family and social connections in influencing the career decision.

Having known this, the question that comes to mind is: what features of career systems should be stressed as far as the Saudi situation is concerned? As we have seen in this research, the Saudi organizations do vary in the extent to which they offer long term careers. The variation is mostly felt between government ministries and the private sector. Therefore, it appears that the career systems and the preparation of the Saudi managers are likely to become crucial factors in the success of the Saudi organizations in the future. This situation forces us to suggest some strategies that can prove useful and mesh with the changing expectations of the Saudi managers. Multiple careers within the Saudi organizations, especially ministries may help Saudis seeking career change for personal reasons. The socialization of new Saudi managers (i.e. university graduates who will join ministries) can be designed to predispose them to expect multiple careers. Experienced managers can be screened, developed, and advanced with more emphasis placed on their ability to cope with ambiguity and uncertainty. Establishment of an adaptive Saudi organization with multiple internal careers will depend on

effective interventions that enable them to develop opportunities perspectives and positive active behaviour, not passive by accepting the status quo which is part of their culture. What one needs in the case of the Saudi situation is to have a better understanding and anticipation of future development needs. One needs to understand emerging skills and their impact on organizations. For example, coping with ambiguity may become an increasingly important skill for managers in many Saudi organizations. Equipping managers to deal with an uncertain world may require both diagnostic and intervention efforts. One also needs to expand his diagnostic information about jobs and people into effective early warning systems concerning major shifts in careers and development needs (e.g. the large movement of managers out of ministries which has not been properly dealt with by the GCSB officials). We have found in this research that much of today's developments carried out in Saudi organization relied on training (on the job) and on the job experience; tools which proved ineffective in socializing the Saudi managers. What we need in the case of Saudi Arabia is to integrate job analysis with developmental analysis in order to achieve the best fit between the Saudi manager and organizational needs in both types of organization studies.

Taking this into consideration, the specific conclusions deduced from this research are as follows:

- (i) Saudi Arabia would continue to accumulate financial assets and increased national income from the oil sector.
- (ii) Unless the GCSB changes its policies which compels graduates in working for government, there will be dissatisfaction and low level of productivity of newly appointed employees.
- (iii) Increased income would continue to generate development programs and projects, thus, the requirements for labour would increase and the gap between the Saudi stock of labour force and the labour requirements for social and economic development, would become wider.
- (iv) Expansion of the educational system would require more dependence on foreign labour especially vocational education which is being degraded by the Saudis.
- (v) The ideology of free occupational choice which is available in western industrial societies cannot be found in Saudi Arabia. The idea of free occupational choice does not always translate into reality even in developed countries. In developing countries, the problem of free

occupational choice is more acute. Strong family association and nepotism still play a very important role in Saudi Arabia. Most of the positions in ministries are totally dependent on ascription rather than qualifications and achievement as a basis of selection. Therefore, occupational selection (those elements over which the individual has no control since they are the provision of employing organizations) is dominant rather than occupational choice (those elements over which the individual has actual or potential control). This has been confirmed by the interference of the GCSB in every aspect of employee from placement to pension.

Therefore, what is needed in the case of Saudi organizations is an improvement of the existing systems (i.e. decentralization of decision-making), or to develop new ones in order to provide Saudi employees with organizational career information and to assist them in implementing their career plans through appropriate counselling. In addition, Saudi organizations need to establish various career systems if they are to ensure that institutional job opportunities are filled with qualified motivated Saudis, not by interference of the GCSB in placing Saudis in jobs of its choice.

- (vi) The basic obstacles of development are in the traditional social culture and consequently in the attitudes and motives of the individuals. This has resulted in over centralization of authority, overlapping, overstaffing in some areas (e.g. typists) and inutility of time. Despite the fact that Saudis are acquiring knowledge and experience through massive educational development discussed earlier, which tended to change the very basic attitudes of the society, there are still many traditional values that are difficult to change and at the same time difficult to fit in the new patterns of life. For instance, in their quest for industrialization and diversification of their economy, the Saudis' first fundamental principle is to "maintain the religious and moral values of Islam". The result would most probably be social and personal ambivalence. This seems to indicate the strong adherence to the faith of Islam even in initiating and executing development plans.
- (vii) Unless women participate fully in the labour force, Saudi Arabia would continue to suffer from a severe shortage of labour, and their dependence on foreign labour would increase (see 1.4, chapter 1). Women might be brought to the

labour market by offering them flexible schedules such as part time employment and short shifts.

(viii) The government represented by the GCSB should examine the system of employment benefits and labour market conditions with a view to improving them to be in line with the private sector. Unless this happens, the brain drain from government organizations to the private sector will continue and the gap will be wider. This may result in more dependence on foreign labour to run even ministries and important political positions. One way of satisfying financial needs is through fringe benefits officially offered within the bureaucratic structure itself. Such benefits range from government housing (which is not being rendered to civil servants in ministries any more) and field trips. All these benefits appear to be much better in public organizations and the private sector, an issue which makes government jobs less appealing. Therefore, the total package of compensation offered by Saudi ministries should at least be in line with competitor's package of wages and benefits.

(ix) Jobs in both types of organization should be reasonably varied, offer opportunity for growth,

allow people to take some decisions and use discretion and enable them to have their efforts recognized. Unless this happens, employees in both types of organization will be apathetic and dissatisfied and will not develop a career that either matches their aspirations or area of specialization.

- (x) For a variety of reasons, careers traditionally have been viewed from the perspective of the individual. We agree with this point of view, as individual differences in job skills, motives, abilities, and so on are important determinants of career success. Yet we need to balance our knowledge of career patterns with a better understanding of how organizational values and policies shape careers. This can help us understand why Saudis change organizations, as well as how they accommodate to shifts within organizations. We have seen in this research that various context variables do in fact influence career development and satisfaction of the Saudis. Therefore, it has become increasingly evident that when the context variables and the situational determinants of career development are ignored, serious limitations are imposed on theoretical endeavors. Hence, it can be generally

concluded that cultural patterns exert a strong influence on the interaction between personality, occupation and career development at large.

- (xi) The research findings are compatible with some theoretical constructs of career development discussed earlier (e.g. the effect of age, father's occupation, and education on career development). The two samples show relatively similar results, and differences between the two organizations can be attributed to different management policies and procedures. Also, environmental factors and government legislations appear to have a strong effect on the career development and job satisfaction of the Saudis (e.g. GCSB policies). Hence, it is recommended that management policies and procedures be tailored to fit the realities of the situation as discussed in this research.

It is argued, however, that the results of the research discussed in this thesis support; firstly, the need for a modification and an understanding of the occupational choice process which takes into account the perceptions and motivations of both senior students and middle managers as well as the nature and effect of structural features in the process as applied to the Saudi culture outlined in this research,

and secondly, that organizations in Saudi Arabia should exert some effort to improve the quality and effectiveness of their personnel policies and control given that they can achieve coordination with the GCSB. If this can be achieved, we are quite sure that such deficiencies in career development, satisfaction, and recruitment examined in this research be at least reduced.

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APPENDIX '1'

1. AGE

2. YEARS OF FORMAL EDUCATION
 - a) Less than 10 years
 - b) 11 - 15 years
 - c) 16 - 20 years

3. ARE YOU
 - a) Full-time student
 - b) Part-time student

4. COLLEGE IN WHICH YOU ARE ENROLLED

5. HOW DID YOU CHOOSE TO STUDY IN THIS COLLEGE?
 - a) Personal choice
 - b) The only college accepted me
 - c) Under family pressure
 - d) Following friends
 - e) Other, please indicate

6. YEARS IN COLLEGE
 - a) Third year
 - b) Fourth year
 - c) Fifth year

7. WHAT ARE YOUR MOST IMPORTANT AMBITIONS AFTER GRADUATION

8. WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS WHICH YOU WOULD LIKE TO SEE IN YOUR FUTURE JOB (ARRANGE THE FOLLOWING FACTORS ACCORDING TO THEIR IMPORTANCE TO YOU).
- a) Easy job
 - b) A job with good pay and fringe benefits
 - c) Prestigious job
 - d) Compatible with my abilities and area of specialization
9. IF YOU WERE GIVEN THE CHOICE, WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING ORGANIZATIONS YOU WOULD PREFER TO WORK FOR AFTER GRADUATION (PLEASE CHOOSE ONE)
- a) A government ministry
 - b) A public organization
 - c) A private enterprise
10. AFTER GRADUATION, DO YOU THINK YOU WILL BE FREE TO CHOOSE THE TYPE OF ORGANIZATION TO WORK INTO?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
11. IF THE ANSWER TO THE PREVIOUS QUESTION WAS NO, WHAT DO YOU THINK THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTOR BEHIND THIS?

- a) Because the GCSB will direct me to a job of its choice
- b) Because I can't get a release from the GCSB
- c) Other, please indicate

12. DO YOU THINK YOUR AMBITIONS WILL BE MET IF YOU JOINED:

- a) A Ministry
- b) A Public corporation
- c) A Private enterprise

13. WITHOUT REGARD TO YOUR PREFERENCE, WHAT TYPE OF ORGANIZATION YOU THINK WOULD WORK INTO AFTER GRADUATION?

- a) A government ministry
- b) A public organization
- c) A private enterprise

14. THERE ARE RUMOURS WHICH SAY THAT UNIVERSITY STUDENTS SHOULD BE LEFT FREE AFTER GRADUATION TO CHOOSE THE TYPE OF ORGANIZATION THEY LIKE

- a) Do you prefer that?
- b) You don't prefer that

15. DO YOU THINK THAT THE GCSB HAS THE RIGHT OF NOT
RELEASING YOU AFTER GRADUATION
- a) Yes
 - b) No
16. IF YOU THINK THAT THE GCSB HAS NOT THE RIGHT TO
PLACE YOU IN A JOB OF ITS CHOICE, WHY DO YOU
THINK IS THAT?
- a) Because it may prevent you from getting a
better job outside government organizations
 - b) Because it may place you in a job that may
not correspond to your area of specialization
 - c) Both factors
17. ANY OTHER SUGGESTIONS, PLEASE INDICATE

APPENDIX '2'

1. AGE
2. MARITAL STATUS
 - a) Married
 - b) Unmarried
3. IF MARRIED, DO YOU HAVE ANY CHILDREN?
 - a) Yes
 - b) No
4. IF THE ANSWER TO THE PREVIOUS QUESTION WAS YES,
HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE?
5. WHAT IS YOUR FATHER'S OCCUPATION?
6. INDICATE THE LAST ACADEMIC DEGREE YOU OBTAINED
 - a) Less than high school
 - b) High school
 - c) Bachelor degree
 - d) Master degree
 - e) Ph.D
 - f) Other, indicate

7. SOURCE OF LAST DEGREE
 - a) Inside the Kingdom
 - b) Outside the Kingdom

8. MAJOR AREA OF STUDY

9. TYPE OF ACCOMODATION
 - a) Rented
 - b) Owned

10. IF RENTED, INDICATE THE AVERAGE ANNUAL RENT

11. WHAT DO YOU THINK YOUR AMBITIONS ARE? INDICATE THE MOST IMPORTANT

12. WHAT DO YOU THINK WILL MEET YOUR AMBITIONS?

13. WHAT DO YOU THINK WILL CONSTITUTE A GOOD JOB?

14. MOST EMPLOYEES WOULD LIKE TO MAKE REAL CONTRI-
BUTION TO THE SUCCESS OF THEIR ORGANIZATIONS. DO
YOU THINK THIS IS TRUE?
 - a) Yes
 - b) No

15. DO YOU THINK ACHIEVING ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS WILL FINALLY RESULT IN CHIEVING YOUR OWN GOALS?
 - a) Yes
 - b) No

16. WHAT IS YOUR CURRENT JOB GRADE?

17. TIME SPENT IN YOUR CURRENT JOB?

18. TIME SPENT WITH YOUR ORGANIZATION?

19. HOW DID YOU OBTAIN YOUR CURRENT JOB?
 - a) Through the GCSB
 - b) By the help of a friend working with the organization
 - c) Heard about it it in the local newspaper
 - d) Other, please indicate

20. IF YOU WERE APPOINTED THROUGH THE GCSB, DID IT SEEK YOUR OPINION BEFORE PLACING YOU?
 - a) Yes
 - b) No

21. FROM THE FOLLOWING, CHECK THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTOR WHICH YOUR COMPANY ADOPTS IN THE SELECTION PROCESS:

- a) Qualifications
- b) Experience and seniority
- c) Social status
- d) Friendship
- e) Other, please indicate

22. HAVE YOU EVER ATTENDED TRAINING PROGRAMS?

- a) Yes
- b) No

23. IF YES, INDICATE THE TYPE OF TRAINING PROGRAMS
ATTENDED

24. WHERE THE TRAINING PROGRAM(S) WAS HELD?

- a) Inside the Kingdom
- b) Outside the Kingdom
- c) Both inside and outside the Kingdom

25. DO YOU THINK THE TRAINING PROGRAMS ATTENDED WERE
ADEQUATE?

- a) Yes
- b) No

26. IF THE ANSWER WAS NO, CHECK THE MOST IMPORTANT
REASON BEHID THE INADEQUACY OF THE TRAINING:

- a) Training has not been taken seriously by trainees
 - b) Training has not changed the occupational status of trainees
 - c) Training period is short and not enough
 - d) Nothing new is learnt from training
 - e) All the above reasons
27. DO YOU FEEL YOU NEED MORE TRAINING?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
28. IF THE ANSWER WAS YES, WHAT TYPE OF TRAINING PROGRAMS YOU THINK YOU NEED?
29. CHECK THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS WHICH MOTIVATED YOU TO WORK IN YOUR ORGANIZATION (Arrange according to their importance by putting No.1 in front the most important and 2 the least important....)
- a) Good pay and fringe benefits
 - b) Simplicity and lack of accountability
 - c) Prestigious
 - d) It matches my area of specialization
30. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING BENEFITS ARE SUPPLIED BY YOUR ORGANIZATION?

- a) Housing Allowance
 - b) Free medical check ups for you and your family
 - c) Transportation allowance
 - d) All the above
 - e) Others, please indicate
31. DOES YOUR JOB HAVE A STANDARDIZATION PATTERN?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
32. HOW DID YOU DESCRIBE THE NATURE OF YOUR WORK?
- a) Routine
 - b) Diversified
33. DO YOU THINK YOU HAVE ENOUGH FREEDOM OF ACTION IN YOUR JOB? IN OTHER WORDS DO YOU THINK:
- a) Much is left to you
 - b) You don't have enough to say
34. DO YOU THINK YOU HAVE ENOUGH AUTHORITY TO TAKE DECISIONS IN YOUR JOB?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
35. HOW MUCH AUTHORITY YOU THINK THERE IS IN YOUR JOB?
- a) Reasonable
 - b) Unreasonable

36. IT IS OFTEN SAID THAT CENTRALIZATION OF AUTHORITY MAY RESULT IN PARALYZING ACTIVITIES ESPECIALLY IN AREAS DISTANT FROM THE CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION. DO YOU THINK THE AUTHORITY CENTERED IN YOUR ORGANIZATION AT THE TOP OF THE HIERARCHY?

- a) Yes
- b) No

37. WHAT DO YOU THINK THE REASON(S) BEHIND ADOPTING CENTRALIZATION OR DECENTRALIZATION IN YOUR ORGANIZATION?

Centralization

Decentralization

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| a) Less qualified employees | a) Qualified employees |
| b) Lack of trust between supervisor and subordinates | b) Trust exists |
| c) Unclear lines of authority | c) Clear lines of authority |
| d) Desire to stick up to rules and regulations | d) Desire to get rid of routine |
| Other, please indicate | Other, please indicate |

38. DO YOU THINK THAT RULES MUST BE LITERALLY FOLLOWED?

- a) Yes
- b) No

39. HOW OFTEN WOULD YOU SAY THAT YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR INSISTED THAT RULES AND PROCEDURES OUGHT BE LITERALLY FOLLOWED?

- a) Always
- b) Sometimes
- c) Never

40. DOES YOUR JOB GIVE YOU A CHANCE TO TRY IDEAS OF YOUR OWN
- a) Yes
 - b) No
41. GENERALLY SPEAKING, DO YOU THINK THAT YOU ARE:
- a) Satisfied with your job
 - b) Disappointed in your job
42. IF YOU THINK YOU ARE DISAPPOINTED IN YOUR JOB, WHAT DO YOU THINK ARE THE MAJOR REASONS OF YOUR DISAPPOINTMENT?
43. IF YOU FEEL THAT YOU ARE DISAPPOINTED IN YOUR JOB, DO YOU THINK THAT IT IS EASY TO LOOK FOR ANOTHER JOB AND LEAVE YOUR ORGANIZATION?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
 - c) Don't know
44. IF YOU CANNOT LEAVE YOUR ORGANIZATION, WHAT DO YOU THINK THE REASONS BEHIND THIS, IS IT:
- a) Because you have to work in a government organization according to the GCSB regulations
 - b) Job opportunities are limited outside government organizations
 - c) Other, please indicate.....

45. IF YOU COULD BE GIVEN THE CHANCE AGAIN, WOULD YOU STILL WORK FOR THIS ORGANIZATION?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
46. DIFFERENT JOBS AND TYPES OF WORK VARY IN HOW MUCH AUTHORITY THEY PROVIDE A PERSON TO ADVANCE HIMSELF AND BE PROMOTED. WHAT DO YOU THINK IS THE CASE OF YOUR JOB?
- a) There is an excellent chance in my job to get ahead
 - b) The chance of getting ahead is about average
 - c) There is no chance to get ahead in my job
47. HOW HARD DO YOU USUALLY WORK IN YOUR JOB?
- a) Very hard
 - b) Reasonably hard
 - c) Not very hard
48. FOR THE AMOUNT OF WORK YOU DO ON YOUR JOB, WOULD YOU SAY THAT YOUR SALARY IS:
- a) Reasonable
 - b) Very reasonable
 - c) Unreasonable

49. DO YOU THINK THAT YOU WILL HAVE A BETTR CHANCE TO RECEIVING A BETTER SALARY IF YOU WORK IN:
- a) A ministry
 - b) A public organization
 - c) A private enterprise
50. WHERE DO YOU THINK JOB SECURITY IS BETTER, IS IT IN:
- a) A ministry
 - b) A public organization
 - c) A private enterprise
51. DO YOU THINK THAT THE CHANCES OF PROMOTION AND GETTING AHEAD ARE BETTR IN:
- a) A ministry
 - b) A public organization
 - c) A private enterprise
52. DURING THE LAST FEW YEARS, MANY GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES HAVE LEFT WORKING IN THE GOVERNMENT SECTOR, WHAT DO YOU THINK IS THE MOST IMPORTANT REASON BEHIND THIS? CHECK ONE FROM THE FOLLOWING:
- a) Better opportunities were available outside government organizations
 - b) Low pay and fringe benefits in government organizations
 - c) To start their own business
 - d) Other, please specify

53. HOW DO YOU FEEL ABOUT THE PROGRESS YOU HAVE MADE
IN THE ORGANIZATION UPTO NOW?
- a) Very dissatisfied
 - b) Moderately satisfied
 - c) Satisfied
54. IF YOU ARE DISSATISFIED, WHAT DO YOU THINK IS
THE REASON BEHIND THIS?
- a) Rigid routine
 - b) Lack of trust
 - c) Weak promotional policies
 - d) Other, please specify
55. HOW LONG DO YOU THINK YOU WILL CONTINUE WORKING
FOR THIS ORGANIZATION?
- a) Till I can get a release from the GCSB
 - b) From 5-10 years
 - c) Until I retire
 - d) Other, please specify
56. IF YOU WERE GIVEN THE CHOICE, WHAT TYPE OF
ORGANIZATION WOULD YOU LIKE TO WORK FOR:
- a) A ministry
 - b) A public organization
 - c) A private enterprise

57. WHAT WOULD YOU THINK IS THE REASON(S) BEHIND YOUR CHOICE?

- a) Better working conditions
- b) Better pay and fringe benefits
- c) Good future prospects
- d) All the above
- e) Other, please specify

58. HOW WOULD YOU FEEL ABOUT QUITTING YOUR PRESENT JOB IF YOU WERE OFFERED BETTER PAY IN ANOTHER ORGANIZATION?

- a) Reluctant to quit
- b) Glad to quit

APPENDIX '3'

ARABIC TRANSLATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

Faculty of Economics and
Administration

Research & Development
Center

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي

جامعة الملك عبد العزيز
King Abdulaziz University

كلية الاقتصاد والادارة

مركز البحوث والتنمية

Ref.

Date

..... الرقم

..... التاريخ

افادة

تفيد كلية الاقتصاد والادارة بأن السيد / عبدالحميد أحمد دياب يقوم بتحضير درجة الدكتوراه في الادارة ، وحيث ان الجزء الثاني من رساله يتضمن تجميع بعض المعلومات عن الموظفين والوظائف في المملكة العربية السعودية وبما أن المعلومات سوف تكون سرية لغرض البحث العلمي فقط .

عليه فاننى آمل من سيادتكم التكرم بملء الاستيبان المرفق وذلك لمساعدته في استكمال رسالته العلمية .

والله يحفظكم ...

المشرف على الرسالة

د. محمد محمد نور قوته

محمد بن محمد



استمارة (١)

- ١ - العمر :-
- ٢ - السنوات التي قضيتها في الدراسة (فضلاً ابداً من السنة الاولى في المرحلة الابتدائية)

أ - عشر سنوات فأقل

ب - ١١ - ١٥ سنة

ج - ١٦ - ٢٠ سنة

٣ - هل أنت :-

أ - طالب متفرغ

ب - طالب غير متفرغ

٤ - الكلية التي تدرس بها :-

٥ - كيف اخترت الدراسة في هذه الكلية ؟

أ - اختيار شخصي

ب - الكلية الوحيدة التي قبلت بها .

ج - بضغط من العائلة .

د - اتباع الاصدقاء .

هـ - غير ذلك (اذكر) :-

٦ - سنوات الدراسة التي قضيتها في الكلية :-

١ - ثالث سنة

٢ - رابع سنة

٣ - خامس سنة

٧ - ما هي اهم طموحاتك بعد التخرج ؟

.....

٨ - ما هي أهم الأسباب التي تعتقد بأهميتها والتي تطمح بتوفرها في وظيفتك المستقبلية والتي تساعدك على تحقيق بعض مطامحك في الحياة (آمل ترتيب العوامل الآتية حسب أهميتها بالنسبة اليك ، وذلك بوضع رقم (١) أمام السبب الأكثر أهمية ، ثم رقم (٢) أمام السبب الأقل اهمية بالنسبة للسبب الأول وهكذا)

- (أ) وظيفة سهلة غير مجهددة ()
 (ب) وظيفة ذات راتب جيد وحوافز تشجيعية مغرية ()
 (ج) وظيفة ذات مركز اجتماعي مرموق ()
 (د) وظيفة تراعى قدراتي وتخصصي ()

٩ - اذا أعطيت لك حرية الاختيار ، أى نوع من المنظمات التالية تفضل ان تعمل بها ؟
 (اختر واحدة فقط)

- (أ) وزارة حكومية ()
 (ب) مؤسسة عامة (مثل مؤسسة الخطوط الجوية العربية السعودية) ()
 (ج) مؤسسة فى القطاع الخاص ()

١٠ - بعد التخرج ان شاء الله هل تعتقد انه سوف تكون لك مطلق الحرية فى اختيار المنظمة التى ستعمل بها ؟

- نعم () لا ()

١١ - اذا كانت الاجابة بالنفى فما هو السبب الرئيسى الذى تعتقد أنه وراء ذلك :-

(أ) لأننى مرتبط بديوان الخدمة المدنية الذى سوف يوجهنى للوظيفة والمنظمة التى سوف يختارها هو .

(ب) لأننى لا اتمكن من الحصول على اخلاء طرف من ديوان الخدمة المدنية .

(ج) غير ذلك (أذكر) :-

- ٣ -

١٣ - الآن بغض النظر عن تفضيلك الشخصى ، أى نوع من المنظمات تعتقد انك سوف توجه للعمل بها بعد تخرجك :-

(أ) وزارة حكومية ()

(ب) مؤسسة عامة ()

(ج) مؤسسة فى القطاع الخاص ()

١٤ - هناك أفكارا تقول بضرورة ترك خريجي الجامعات أحرارا لأختيار المنظمة التى يودون العمل بها بعد التخرج وعدم توزيعهم من قبل ديوان الخدمة المدنية فما رأيك ؟

(أ) أفضل أن يتم ذلك فى أقرب فرصة ممكنة . ()

(ب) لا أفضل ذلك . ()

١٥ - هل تعتقد أن ديوان الخدمة المدنية له الحق فى عدم اخلاء طرفك بعد التخرج؟

نعم () لا ()

١٦ - اذا كنت تعتقد أنه ليس من حق ديوان الخدمة المدنية تعيينك فى وظيفة من اختياره ، فلماذا تعتقد ذلك ؟

(أ) لأنه قد يحرمك من الفرص الوظيفية المتوفرة بدرجة أفضل خارج العمل الحكومى

(ب) لأن هناك احتمالا أن يتم تعيينك فى وظيفة لا تناسب مؤهلاتك وقدراتك .

(ج) كلا العاملين اعلاه

أية مقترحات أخرى تود اضافتها (اذكرها فى حدود خمسة أسطر) :-

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

استمارة (ب)

١ - العمر :

٢ - الحالة الاجتماعية :-

(أ) متزوج

(ب) غير متزوج

٣ - اذا كنت متزوجا فهل لديك اطفالا ؟

(أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

٤ - اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم ، كم عدد أطفالك ؟

.....

٥ - ما هو عمل والدك ؟

.....

٦ - آخر درجة علمية تحصلت عليها ؟

(أ) دون الثانوية العامة ()

(ب) الثانوية العامة ()

(ج) درجة البكالوريوس ()

(د) درجة الماجستير ()

(هـ) درجة الدكتوراه ()

(و) غير ذلك (أذكر) :-

٧ - من أين حصلت على آخر درجة علمية ؟

(أ) من داخل المملكة ()

(ب) من خارج المملكة ()

٨ - مجال التخصص الدراسي :-

- ٢ -

٩ - ما نوعية السكن الذى تسكن به حاليا ؟

(أ) مملوك ()

(ب) مستأجر ()

١٠ - اذا كان السكن مستأجرا ، فما هو مبلغ الايجار السنوى :

١١ - ما هى طموحاتك فى الحياة ، أذكر اهم هذه الطموحات :
.....

١٢ - ما هو الشيء الرئيسى الذى تعتقد أنه سوف يشبع طموحاتك :

١٣ - ما هى مكونات الوظيفة الجيدة فى نظرك :-

١٤ - يود معظم الموظفين أن يساهموا مساهمة فعالة فى انجاح المنظمة التى يعملون
بها ، هل تعتقد أن هذا صحيحا :-

(أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

١٥ - هل تعتقد بأن تحقيق أهداف المنظمة سيؤدى فى النهاية الى تحقيق اهدافك
الشخصية ؟

(أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

١٦ - ما هى مرتبتك الحالية :-

١٧ - المدة التى قضيتها فى وظيفتك الحالية :-

١٨ - المدة التى قضيتها فى العمل بهذه المنظمة :-

١٩ - كيف تحصلت على وظيفتك الحالية :-

(أ) عينت بها عن طريق ديوان الخدمة المدنية ()

(ب) تقدمت لها عن طريق صديق لى يعمل فى نفس المنظمة ()

(ج) عرفت عن الوظيفة عن طريق الصحف المحلية ()

(د) غير ذلك (اذكر) :-

- ٣ -

٢٠ - إذا كان تعيينك قد تم عن طريق ديوان الخدمة المدنية ، فهل قام الديوان بمعرفة وجهة نظرك عن الوظيفة قبل تعيينك فيها :-

(أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

٢١ - ما هي في نظرك أهم العوامل التي تتبناها منظماتك عند اختيار الموظفين

وتعيينهم (رتبها حسب أهميتها ، وذلك بوضع رقم (١) أمام العامل الأكثر

أهمية ، ورقم (٢) أمام العامل الأقل أهمية من العامل الاول ، وهكذا ..)

(أ) المؤهلات العلمية ()

(ب) الخبرة في مجال العمل ()

(ج) مركز الشخص الاجتماعي ()

(د) العلاقة الاسرية والصدقة ()

(هـ) غير ذلك (أذكر) :-

٢٢ - هل سبق وأن حضرت أية دورات تدريبية في مجال عملك ؟

(أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

٢٣ - إذا كانت الاجابة بنعم ، فما هي نوعية هذه الدورات التدريبية ؟

.....

٢٤ - هل كانت هذه الدورات التدريبية :-

(أ) داخل المملكة ()

(ب) خارج المملكة ()

(ج) داخل المملكة وخارجها ()

٢٥ - هل تعتقد أن الدورات التدريبية التي حضرتها :

(أ) كافية ()

(ب) غير كافية ()

٢٦ - اذا كانت الدورات التدريبية التي حضرتها غير كافية ، فماذا تعزو اسباب ذلك:

- (أ) لم تؤخذ مأخذ الجذ من قبل المتدربين انفسهم ()
 (ب) فترة التدريب كانت قصيرة ()
 (ج) لم تغير تلك الدورات من مركز المتدرب الوظيفي ()
 (د) الدورات التدريبية لم تكن بالمستوى المطلوب من حيث المحتوى ()
 (هـ) كل العوامل السابقة مجتمعة ()

٢٧ - هل تعتقد اذن بانك مازلت فى حاجة الى دورات تدريبية أكثر :-

- (أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

٢٨ - اذا كنت تعتقد بانك مازلت فى حاجة الى دورات تدريبية أخرى ، فما هى فى

نظرك هذه الدورات :-

٢٩ - حسب وجهة نظرك ، ما هى أهم الأسباب التى دفعتك الى العمل فى وظيفتك الحالية

(أ) أرجو ترتيبها حسب أهميتها وذلك بوضع رقم (١) أمام العامل الأكثر أهمية

ورقم (٢) أمام العامل الأقل أهمية من العامل الأول .. وهكذا ()

(أ) الراتب الجيد و الحوافز المادية الأخرى ()

(ب) سهولة العمل وندرة المحاسبة على النتائج ()

(ج) الوظيفة محترمة فى أعين الناس ()

(د) لانها توافق تخصصى وقدراتى ()

(هـ) غير ذلك (أذكر) :-

٣٠ - بعض المنظمات تقدم لموظفيها بعد الحوافز المادية والمعنوية ، أى من الحوافز

التالية تقدمها لك المنظمة التى تعمل بها :-

(أ) بدل سكن ()

(ب) علاج طبي مجاني لك ولأسرتك ()

(ج) بدل مواصلات ()

(د) جميع الحوافز السابقة ()

(هـ) غير ذلك (أذكر) :-

٣١ - هل العمل فى وظيفتك يسير وفق نمط معين ؟

(أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

٣٢ - هل العمل الذى تقوم به دائم التغيير أو أنه يمكن التنبؤ به مقدما :-

(أ) دائم التغيير ()

(ب) يمكن التنبؤ به مقدما ()

٣٣ - هل تعتقد بأن لك استقلالا ذاتيا فى وظيفتك ، بعبارة أخرى هل تعتقد :-

(أ) أن كثيرا من أعمال ادارتك متروكه لك لتتخذ فيه القرارات الملائمة .

(ب) أو أن معظم الأعمال لابد أن ترفع الى رئيسك المباشر ليتخذ فيها القرار المناسب .

٣٤ - هل تعتقد بأن وظيفتك الحالية تمنحك سلطات كافية لاتخاذ القرارات :-

(أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

٣٥ - هل تعتقد بأن السلطة الممنوحة لك فى وظيفتك لاتخاذ القرارات :-

(أ) كافية ()

(ب) غير كافية ()

٣٦ - يقال بأن تركيز السلطة فى أعلى الهرم التنظيمى يؤدى الى جمود المنظمة

وشل حركة الادارات الوسطى ، هل تعتقد بأن السلطة فى منظمك مركزة فى

الادارة العليا ؟

(أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()

٣٧ - ما هى الاسباب التى تعتقد أنها وراء تطبيق المركزية أو اللامركزية فى منظمك

(أشطب الاسباب التى تعتقد أنها غير متوفرة فى منظمك) :-

(أ) لعدم توفر الموظفين الكفاء (أ) لتوفير الموظفين الكفاء

(ب) لعدم توفر الثقة بين الرئيس والمروسين (ب) لتوفر الثقة بين الرئيس والمروسين

(ج) لعدم وضوح السلطة والمسئولية (ج) لوضوح السلطة والمسئولية .

(د) التطبيق الحرفى للوائح (د) الرغبة فى التجديد

(هـ) غير ذلك (اذكر) (هـ) غير ذلك (اذكر)

- ٦ -

- ٣٨ - هل تعتقد بضرورة الاتباع الحرفى للوائح والقوانين فى منطمتك ؟
 (أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()
- ٣٩ - الى أى حد تعتقد بأن رئيسك المباشر يصر على ضرورة الاتباع الحرفى للوائح والقوانين المنظمة للعمل فى ادارتك :-
 (أ) دائما ()
 (ب) احيانا ()
 (ج) لا يصر على اتباع اللوائح والقوانين حرفيا على الاطلاق ()
- ٤٠ - هل تعتقد بأن وظيفتك تسمح لك باستخدام أفكارا جديدة خروجاً عن اللوائح الموضوعية ؟
 (أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()
- ٤١ - بصفة عامة هل تعتقد بأنك :-
 (أ) غير راض عن وظيفتك الحالية ()
 (ب) راض ومقتنع بها ()
- ٤٢ - اذا كنت تعتقد بأنك غير راض عن وظيفتك الحالية فما هى الأسباب وراء ذلك؟

- ٤٣ - اذا كنت تعتقد بأنك غير راض عن وظيفتك الحالية ، هل تعتقد أنه من السهل الحصول على وظيفة أخرى وتقديم استقالتك للمنظمة الى تعمل بها دون أية صعوبة؟
 (أ) نعم () (ب) لا ()
- ٤٤ - اذا كانت الاجابة بالنفى ، فما هى الأسباب التى تعتقد أنها تقف وراء ذلك ؟
 (أ) لأننى مضطرب للعمل فى القطاع الحكومى حسب لوائح الخدمة المدنية ()
 (ب) لأن الفرص الوظيفية المتوفرة خارج القطاع الحكومى ضئيلة جدا ()
 (ج) غير ذلك (أذكر) :-

٤٥ - إذا قدر لك حرية الاختيار ، فهل تعتقد أنك سوف تعمل في نفس المنظمة التي تعمل بها حالياً ، أو تختار منظمة أخرى ؟

- (أ) أعمل في نفس المنظمة التي أعمل بها حالياً ()
 (ب) أفضل العمل في منظمة أخرى ()

٤٦ - تختلف الوظائف بعضها عن البعض الآخر خصوصاً من حيث السلطة المرتبطة بها. ومن حيث فرص الترقيّة ، فماذا تعتقد وضع وظيفتك الحالية :-

- (أ) توجد فرص كبيرة للترقية في وظيفتي التي أعمل بها ()
 (ب) الفرص المتوفرة للترقية في وظيفتي التي أعمل بها متوسطة ()
 (ج) الفرص المتوفرة للترقية في وظيفتي ضئيلة جداً ()

٤٧ - مقدار الجهد المبذول في وظيفتك ، هل تعتقد أنك :-

- (أ) تبذل جهداً كبيراً ()
 (ب) تبذل جهداً معقولاً ()
 (ج) لا تبذل جهداً كافياً ()

٤٨ - إذا ربطت بين الجهد المبذول في وظيفتك وبين الراتب المدفوع لك ، هل تعتقد :

- (أ) أن الراتب المدفوع لك معقولاً جداً ()
 (ب) الراتب المدفوع أكثر مما تستحق ()
 (ج) الراتب المدفوع أقل مما تستحق ()

٤٩ - هل تعتقد أن فرصة الحصول على راتب أفضل متوفرة بدرجة أكبر في :

- (أ) الوظائف الحكومية كالوزارات ()
 (ب) المؤسسات العامة كالخطوط السعودية ()
 (ج) مؤسسات القطاع الخاص ()

٥٠ - هل تعتقد بأن الأمان الوظيفي (عدم الخوف من الفصل من الوظيفة) متوفر بدرجة اكبر فى :-

- (أ) الوزارات الحكومية ()
 (ب) المؤسسات العامة ()
 (ج) مؤسسات القطاع الخاص ()

٥١ - هل تعتقد بأن فرص الترقية وتحسين المستوى المعيشى متوفرة بدرجة اكبرى :-

- (أ) الوزارات الحكومية ()
 (ب) المؤسسات العامة ()
 (ج) مؤسسات القطاع الخاص ()

٥٢ - فى غضون السنوات السابقة ، قدم الكثير من موظفى الدولة استقالتهم ، ما هو السبب الرئيسى حسب وجهة نظرك الذى تعتقد أنه كان وراء ذلك (اختر سببا واحد فقط) :-

- (أ) قلة الراتب المدفوع وندرة الحوافز التشجيعية ()
 (ب) كثرة الفرص الوظيفية المتوفرة خارج القطاع الحكومى ()
 (ج) للانخراط فى الاعمال الخاصة ()

(د) غير ذلك (أذكر) :-

٥٣ - كيف تنظر الى التقدم الذى أحرزته فى وظيفتك الى الآن :-

- (أ) غير راض عنه على الاطلاق ()
 (ب) لا بأس به ()
 (ج) مقتنع به تماما ()

٥٤ - اذا كنت تعتقد أنك غير راض عن التقدم الذى أحرزته فى وظيفتك الى الآن فماذا

تعتقد الاسباب وراء ذلك :-

٥٥ - الى متى تعتقد أنك سوف تستمر في العمل مع منطمتك الحالية ؟

- (أ) الى أن اتمكن من الحصول على اخلاء طرف من ديوان الخدمة المدنية ()
 (ب) من خمس الى عشر سنوات أخرى ()
 (ج) الى أن يحين موعد احوالى على المعاش (التقاعد) ()

٥٦ - اذا قدر لك الاختيار ، فأى نوع من المنظمات ترغب وتفضل أن تعمل فيه :-

- (أ) الوزارات الحكومية ()
 (ب) المؤسسات العامة ()
 (ج) مؤسسات القطاع الخاص ()

٥٧ - ماذا تعتقد الأسباب وراء ذلك الاختيار :-

- (أ) ظروف العمل أفضل ()
 (ب) الراتب المدفوع والحوافز التشجيعية أفضل ()
 (ج) فرص الترقى وتحسين مستوى المعيشة أفضل ()
 (د) جميع العوامل السابقة مجتمعه ()

(هـ) غير ذلك ، (اذكر) :-

٥٨ - اذا عرض عليك وظيفة أخرى في منظمة أخرى بزاتب ومميزات أخرى أفضل من المنظمة التي تعمل بها ، فهل تعتقد بأنك :-

- (أ) سوف تتردد في ترك وظيفتك الحالية ()
 (ب) تكون سعيدا بترك وظيفتك الحالية ()

أية مقترحات أخرى تود اضافتها ، فضلا اذكر هذه المقترحات :-

.....

APPENDIX '4'

BACKGROUND AND PROCEDURE OF THE RESEARCH

METHODOLOGY

The research methods employed in this study will be further outlined. As was mentioned in chapter 5, the researcher adopted two methods of data collection: interviews and questionnaires. According to the proposal for the study, the research was centered on senior students and middle managers in government ministries and public organizations in Saudi Arabia and looked for answers and problems such as: satisfaction with their current jobs; the extent to which the senior students and middle managers feel about their competencies and the regulations of the GCSB; the level of esteem, autonomy felt on the job; the relationship between their needs, capabilities and the realities of the situation; and the impact of management policies and personal and organizational characteristics on individual growth and organizational commitment. Although data from the interviews was to orient some of the specific aspects of the research to answer questions not raised in the original proposal, the basic purpose of the research was to remain unchanged.

THE COLLECTION OF DATA

From analyzing the literature concerning career development, it has been found that research concerning career development have revealed a number of shortcomings. Most noticeable is the lack of experimentation and the heavy reliance on descriptions of career behaviour based on observations of convenient sample. Meaningful research has also been hampered by a lack of valid instruments to measure such concepts as personality traits, career satisfaction, needs, values, and family environment.

Thus far, career development research has primarily described the processes relevant to career behaviour. What is actually needed is an experimental vocational psychology that will lead to explanations as well as descriptions of vocational development. The goal should be to formulate lawful relationships and hypotheses concerning career behaviour so that research data can be interpreted only in one way and not be subject to the wide variety of interpretations as is frequently the case. One of the biggest problems facing any researcher in career development is collecting good data. As suggested above, a serious problem of instrumentation exists. Frequently, the information that seems significant is difficult to collect systematically and difficult to quantify especially when the

researcher is faced with hostile culture like Saudi Arabia.

Taking these points into consideration and in our attempt to obtain as much reliable data as possible, we utilized two data gathering procedures: individual interviews and questionnaires. The researcher believes that the interview method provides the richest source of information that may not be obtainable otherwise.

THE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

The interviews were conducted for three reasons: the most important reason was to build up trust between researcher and respondents in order to elicit more information from them. The second purpose was to obtain specific information on the various issues outlined in the proposal. This was required for the development of a questionnaire to assess the opinions, attitudes and feelings of both senior students and middle managers on issues like authority, pay, benefits, and organizational climate in general. The third purpose of the interviews was their obvious value as data, for, they would be a source of information that is not obtainable through the questionnaire. Thus the expression and feelings of the interview are difficult if not impossible to capture on the questionnaire.

THE INTERVIEW SAMPLE

Five senior students of King Abdulaziz University; ten middle managers; and twelve middle managers in Saudia were randomly selected and interviewed. The sample was accomplished by selecting every seventh name in the filing directory of each organization. This was done with the assistance of personnel managers in both types of organization. The interviews were informal, and unstructured in order to build up trust between the researcher and respondents. The most important criterion used for selecting interviews was that they were actually supervising other people. In addition to these middle managers, the researcher also conducted interviews with three top managers representing both types of organization in order to explore the type of relationship between superiors and subordinates.

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Despite the fact that the interviews were unstructured, the researcher found it necessary to define the concepts to be researched. These were as follows:

- (a) General introduction to the study where the interviewee was given a brief introduction of the research and that the intention of the

research was to help managers to better understand their interests and the environment of the work place.

(b) Present Assignment: The idea of including this as the first substantive area was to allow the interviewee to review the current aspects of his role as a manager. We then asked the interviewee such questions as the length of service, father's occupation, in what aspects of his work he feels most competent, how much opportunities he has on the job to take decisions? his length of service and whether or not his job is compatible with his degree qualifications? and the way he chooses his job.

(c) Relationships with Others: Here we emphasized the authority and responsibility of the interviewee, the nature of relationship between superior and subordinates. More specifically, questions were directed to the openness and trust felt with superiors and co-workers. What the interviewee felt these people expected of him and how these expectations fit with his own expectations of himself? and the relation of this on his career development and job satisfaction. Another segment was directed at ascertaining how the interviewee saw himself and his subordinate

(superior) responding to conflict and the use of authority.

- (d) Background Review - Self and Role: Here we were interested with issues like family, peer groups, expectations, aspirations, etc. Are the Saudi managers' aspirations met in their current jobs? if not, why? Are they satisfied with their jobs? What factors caused dissatisfaction? Where do they think their aspirations are met?

MAKING USE OF THE COLLECTED DATA

During the four months project a fair amount of data was collected. The question is now raised: what does a researcher do with all this information? In reality these are three questions: (1) How does the researcher summarize and make manageable the information available? (2) How does he interpret the summarized data; and (3) How does he prepare the organization so that it can make maximum use of the data he provides? Due to the size of the sample which is relatively small, it was agreed between the researcher and his supervisors not to use any tests of significance. It was agreed to treat the data in terms of group averages and cross tabulation of the results, since career development research tends to be descriptive in nature.

The results of the questionnaire were analyzed, group averaged, and tabulated showing percentages for each question in a way which made it easy to make quick comparison of the two types of organization. In all this we were attempting to develop clusters of items which tapped some theoretical constructs of career development and job satisfaction. We would like to draw the attention of the reader that we were not aiming in this research at testing a hypothesis but rather emphasizing how organizational policies and procedures, and how the impact of personal and situational characteristics can shape careers and have a pervasive effect on satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction? Our use of data presentation by group averages, it was hoped to give the reader a profile of career status in Saudi Arabia, and in the meantime will help support the concept of a dynamic, unfolding career. In our analysis of the data and interpreting them, we were constantly supporting interview data by questionnaire and vice versa. This is viewed by social scientists as a condition made necessary by our relatively imperfect measurement techniques (i.e. problem of instrumentation discussed earlier).

Due to the above mentioned shortcomings in career development and job satisfaction studies, the researcher believes that in order to improve current research

efforts, a number of steps might be considered. First, a broadening of the sampling usually obtained and more follow-up data is required(e.g. longitudinal studies). Second, greater willingness by researchers to use interview data in conjunction with on or more objective data collection. Third, the use of experimental designs which avoid the effect of biases in sampling, and finally more explicit description of input variables, experimental conditions and observed outcomes is required. These may be suggestions for future action programmes in the field of career development and job satisfaction studies at large. The goal should be to formulate a research strategy that would alleviate the wide variety of interpretation to career development and job satisfaction studies.

FINAL COMMENT

The sample of this research may not be representative of the whole Saudi society, but indicative of the attitudes of the Saudi middle managers in the two types of organization studied.

